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A Bilingual Curriculum Materials Development

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A BILINGUAL CURRICULUM
MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

by

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A thesis submitted to the Department of
Elementary and Secondary Education
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Education

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism is a subject of increasing concern in our country today. It is a subject of importance which, many argue, should be given attention by our educational system and all citizens of our nation since it affects all of us. This area of concern should be viewed, reviewed and modified to fit our present needs.

Bilingualism is a term which refers to any person who communicates in more than one language. Bilingual education, therefore, is academic instruction in two languages. According to Cordasco (1977), a bilingual educational program is one in which a pupil receives instruction in academic subjects in both his native language and English. Concomitantly, the student in a bilingual program usually learns about the history and culture associated with both languages, i.e., he receives bicultural education.

For too many years our country has been known as the "melting pot" of all nations. The influx of immigrants has included the Japanese and Chinese who migrated to California, the Mexican who migrated to Arizona, New Mexico and Texas, the French who migrated to Louisiana and the northern states, the Cuban to Florida, the German to Pennsylvania, and the Puerto Rican to New York. These immigrant children have been mainstreamed into our school systems throughout the country.

All too often immigrant children have given up their language and culture to conform to our system of speaking and living. In many cases, these children have very quickly fallen behind in their academic achievement. They have not been able to learn and progress in our schools because they have not been able to read and understand the English language. At the same

time, instead of recognizing the issue at hand, many of our teachers have viewed these students as being inferior merely because they have been linguistically different. Therefore, they have generally been socially promoted instead of being assisted in skill development. Sooner or later, many bilingual students have dropped out of school (Schwartz, 1979).

In the 1800's several states dealt with the issue of English as the language to be used in classroom instruction and as a subject to be taught. In the eastern part of the United States, German immigrants established German-English bilingual schools where German and English would be used as both a medium of instruction and as a subject to be taught. Italian was used in New York in the same manner. French was used in Louisiana. Spanish was used in New Mexico.

According to Leibowitz (1980), many years ago, people came from Spain to Mexico and intermarried. When the Southwestern states became annexed, the majority of people were Spanish. When these territories achieved statehood, approximately eighteen percent of the education was private and Catholic. In 1870, California passed a law requiring all schools to use English as the language of instruction. The two earliest school laws in New Mexico contained no language provisions. Because there were very few Anglos in the state, the laws were first drafted in Spanish and later translated into English. In 1874, the composition of the schools in New Mexico was five percent English, sixty-nine percent Spanish and twenty-two percent bilingual. In 1891, a law was passed requiring all schools in New Mexico to use English as the language of instruction. Bilingual education, therefore, is not new to our country. It is only recently that we have once again focused national attention upon it.

Today there is a new surge of interest in trying to improve our educational system and focus on individualized instruction for each child. With an increased interest in individualized instruction must come a new attitude toward the child who comes to school with a language other than English. Schwartz (1979) says that the way the communication of a child is received by peers and teachers has a major impact on the way in which the child will communicate. Being linguistically different often comes to mean being inferior. Often, linguistically different children are the ones who leave school early. In viewing the Mexican-American child, Adkins (1971) says that upon entering first grade, the Mexican-American child is not bilingual but monolingual in Spanish. The keynote to a successful program is the acceptance by the teacher of the value of the language which the children bring to school. Rather than embarrass the child for his lack of English mastery or minority dialect, teachers may subtly and wordlessly demonstrate their approval and appreciation of the child as an individual. There must be obvious recognition by children that teachers accept and value their language. This is a positive motivator.

The following statistics reveal that a renewed and continuous interest in bilingual education is evident. In 1971, the United States Commission on Civil Rights reported that nearly one-half of Mexican-American students left school before twelfth grade. In reading achievement at the fourth-grade level, fifty-two percent were deficient in reading skills. At the eighth-grade level, seventy-four percent were reading below grade level with forty-nine percent reading two or more years below grade level. The Civil Rights study also reported that twenty-two percent of Mexican-American students repeat first grade and five percent repeat fourth grade.

Some of the most causative factors given were: (a) a long history of indifference toward the educational needs of the Mexican-American on the part of the dominant Anglo society; (b) social factors attendant upon linguistic and cultural differences which lead to difficulty in school; (c) the melting pot theory that has pervaded American education for so many years and has overlooked individual differences; and (d) the inadequacy of teachers, of curriculum and of facilities in the schools for meeting the needs of bilingual students (Reyna, 1980). Some five million youngsters in the United States come from homes in which the language generally spoken is other than English. Estimates based on samplings in several states suggest that 1,800,000 to 2,500,000 American children need bilingual education (Cordasco, 1977).

The population of Spanish-speaking people in this country is increasing. The number of Spanish-speaking students in our schools is growing. According to Pifer (1980), the United States now has the fourth largest Spanish-speaking population of any country in the Western hemisphere. It is projected that by the twenty-first century, more persons will speak Spanish than any other language of the Americas, including English. These students must learn to read in order to succeed academically and fit into our society as productive citizens. Because these students possess special needs, they must be assisted in the regular classrooms of our schools. Materials which they can read and which can help them to make the transition from the language used at home to the language used at school must be developed.

Many public school reading programs utilize basal reader texts. Any materials developed for use by bilingual students would be best keyed to the basal reader being utilized in the classroom. The Ginn 720 series is

one such basal reader series. Developing materials for use by bilingual students in conjunction with the Ginn 720 series would insure that the materials would be used by the classroom teacher. Focusing on a level in the series which is subsequent to the initial levels could demonstrate the utility of these materials in meeting the on-going needs of bilingual students. Level 7 is generally used by students in third grade, and the third grade is generally the grade selected for making the transition from the student's native language to that of English. Therefore, the purpose of this project is to develop supplementary reading materials keyed to the Ginn 720 Basal Reader, Level 7, for use by the regular classroom teacher in order to instruct the Spanish-speaking student in vocabulary skills. Focus on vocabulary skills, a principal activity in any reading curriculum and one which is a prerequisite to so many other reading skills, would greatly assist this bilingual student.

These curriculum materials will be reviewed by local experts in education in the northeast Florida area in order to obtain input for their refinement.

CHAPTER II

TERMS

- Bilingualism - communication in two languages with equal or nearly the same ability
- Bilingual Education - instruction in two languages covering all areas of the curriculum (Vattakavanich & Tucker, 1980)
- Bilingual/Bicultural - the utilization of two languages in a curriculum which focuses on the history and culture of both languages
- Bilingual/Multicultural Education - an education approach which entails the use of two languages for instruction, one of which is English, in all or part of the curriculum (Gutierrez)
- ESL (English as a second language) - the teaching of English to speakers of other languages in an English-speaking environment or in an area where English is widely spoken (Vattakavanich & Tucker, 1980)
- ESL/SSL - English as a second language/Spanish as a second language
- L1 - the native language spoken by someone
- L2 - a learned second language spoken by someone
- LESA - limited English speaking ability
- TESOL - the teaching of English to students of other languages
- Spanish-speaking students - elementary and secondary school students born in (or with one or both parents born in) Mexico or Puerto Rico or in states for which such information is available (Leibowitz, 1980)
- Reciprocal Bilingualism - a two-way approach whereby children of the mainstream are exposed to instruction in two languages in the early school years (Schwartz, 1979)
- Interference - all of the problems of perception and implementation which arise from native language habits of the speaker (Critchlaw, 1975)

OBEMLA - the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs

NIE - National Institute of Education

NEA - National Education Association

SEDL - Southwest Educational Development Laboratory

SWRL - Southwest Regional Laboratory

ACTFL - American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

AIR - American Institute of Research

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Educators have begun to consider the student as an individual and have focused on the issue of the right of an individual to an equal education. This has meant challenging the idea of mainstreaming children in a "melting pot" atmosphere and turning more toward meeting the needs of each individual child, whatever the particular language or culture of the child might be.

The issue of meeting the needs of an individual and of giving each individual the right to an equal education was given national attention when in 1964 the government passed the Civil Rights Act. This legislation focused on the poor and made education a matter of national policy and priority for all disadvantaged youth.

In 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed. The Act provided funds for the planning and implementation of programs designed to meet the special needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of such children from families with incomes below \$3,000 per year (Cordasco, 1981).

In 1966, the National Education Association sponsored a conference on the education of Spanish-speaking students in the Southwest which recommended instruction in Spanish for those students who speak Spanish. One of the major conclusions was the need for bilingual education with the federal government assuming an important part of the responsibility (Leibowitz, 1980).

The Bilingual Act of 1968 was passed by Congress as Title VII of the amended Elementary and Secondary Act, which was enacted in 1965. The political support for this Act came out of the large Mexican-American community of the Southwest. The sponsor of the bill was Senator Ralph Yarborough of

Texas (Cordasco, 1981). With limited resources of their own, states and school districts have relied principally upon the Federal statutes to support programs to meet the needs of the bilingual child. The critical educational challenges posed by growing numbers of non-English speaking children have resulted in a number of state legislatures mandating bilingual education (Cordasco, 1977).

When the Bilingual Education Act was initially enacted, funds were provided for non-English speaking students to learn to speak and understand the English language. The Act now also includes the provision of funds for the teaching of reading and writing to non-English speaking students. The Act also allows for up to forty percent of the participants to be children whose first language is English. Guidelines require that after some time federal grants should be replaced by state funds so that the program of bilingual education will continue to be operational (Pifer, 1980).

Two court decisions made stronger commitments to bilingual education: United States vs. State of Texas et al. (1971) and Serna vs. Portales (1972). A judge ruled in one decision that:

It is the responsibility of the educational agency to provide an individualized instructional program which is compatible with (the children's) cultural and learning characteristics ... while recognizing the cultural and linguistic pluralism of the student body and providing equal opportunity for reinforcement and expansion of that pluralism ... (and providing) for the characteristics of the child's immediate environment in which he shall function in the future (Schwartz, 1979).

Massachusetts, in 1971, was the first state to legislate the establishment of transitional bilingual programs; until that time, no state had mandatory bilingual legislation. By 1980, some ten states had enacted

similar bilingual educational statutes (Cordasco, 1981). To date, approximately twenty states have enacted Bilingual Education Acts which require, permit and occasionally fund such programs. No state provides bilingual/bicultural programs for all of its target children, and the programs that exist were developed as remedial programs within the constraints of a deficit model (Santiago & Feinberg, 1981).

In 1974, the United States Supreme Court ruled in *Lau vs. Nichols* that San Francisco schools were required to provide bilingual education to non-English speaking students (Cordasco, 1981). Associate Justice William O. Douglas said:

There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education...Basic English skills are at the very core of what the schools teach. Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program, he must already have acquired those basic skills is to make a mockery of public education (Cordasco, 1977).

The General Accounting Office issued a report to Congress in 1976 entitled, Bilingual education: An unmet need, which maintained that the United States Office of Education (USOE) had made little progress in identifying effective means of providing bilingual education instruction, in training bilingual education teachers, and in developing suitable teaching materials. A damaging evaluation, commissioned by the USOE extending over four years and examining the program of 11,500 Hispanic students, was published in 1978. The evaluation was done by the American

Institute of Research (AIR) which concluded that most of the children were not required to learn English; that those who were required to learn English were not acquiring it; and that, with few exceptions, the programs which were aimed only at linguistic and cultural maintenance were already alienating children from school (Cordasco, 1981).

The United States Government has instituted various policies in recognition of the special educational needs of the large number of children of limited English-speaking ability in this country. In 1974, for example, Congress stated that it would be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative elementary and secondary programs in order to meet these needs. In 1978, Congress declared a proposal that schools would demonstrate effective ways of providing for the needs of these students by designing instruction to enable them, while using their native language, to achieve competence in the English language. Present legislation indicates that the student of limited English proficiency should be integrated with other school children on both educational and ethnic grounds (Liebowitz, 1980).

As the bilingual program has expanded, the need for materials has also. The 1978 Amendment requires that bilingual materials be equal in quality to those developed for regular English instruction (Liebowitz, 1980).

According to Schwartz (1979), non-English speaking students in years past acquired two languages sequentially; first, the non-English "home" language, and then, the English "school" language. The "home" language, unused and unstudied in the schools, tended to remain undeveloped. Today, in one context of bilingual education, and as a function of broadening social contacts with English-speaking adults and children, the students both acquire and develop two languages with the purpose of using them habitually in diverse settings.

According to Troike (1978), fifty-two percent of the Title VII programs in 1969-1970 were such that both languages were introduced simultaneously. Harrington (1980) provides the view that learning to read simultaneously in two languages can be confusing. In addition, a study was developed involving a bilingual program in Redwood City, California in which the reading of both languages was introduced at the same time (Cohen & La Rosa, 1976). The findings of this study revealed that reading competency in both languages is retarded by such an approach.

According to a report in 1980 by the United States Department of Education, one of the most common approaches to bilingual education is to give instruction in academic areas in the native language until the student can profit effectively from English instruction. Various examples of alternative approaches to bilingual education follow.

Cazden and Leggett (1976) stress the importance of peer learning as one of the most effective methods of learning a second language. Research surveyed by Engle (1975) suggests that learning to read in the native language (L1) is the best approach for a younger child. In an exemplary program for older children, a child already in L1 would not have his development in L1 reading stopped. It would continue along with the learning of a second language (L2). For elementary school children before the age of ten, it is suggested that Spanish reading instruction is most effective for the child who enters school not reading at all and is Spanish monolingual (Harrington, 1980). Robinett (1965) adds that while mastery of reading in Spanish by elementary students facilitates later transfer of reading skills to English and that while premature transfer can impede reading in both languages, there is also evidence that oral ESL development should precede learning to read in English.

In 1975, forty elementary, junior high and high schools were identified under government guidelines and designated as pilot schools for bilingual education. These pilot schools were to provide a complete bilingual program for all students within each school who had been identified as requiring the program. Title VII objectives included instructional goals, parent involvement, staff development and curriculum objectives. Instruction was to be provided in two languages in grades K-5 in all subject areas (Benedict, 1979).

The Milwaukee Bilingual Education Program was a five-year pilot project of this type. The program provided a Spanish/English bilingual/bicultural curriculum taught by a bilingual staff of Spanish-American heritage. Both English and Spanish were used for instruction in order that students might demonstrate grade-level academic achievement in both languages by the end of the sixth grade. Spanish language arts were assessed according to achievement gains.

The results revealed that the bilingual program primary students scored lower than the comparison groups on tests of English reading. Students in the bilingual program were able to comprehend Spanish and to do well on a Level one test of reading by the end of the third grade. Oral Spanish improved but there was a tendency to stray from standard Spanish to a Spanish/English mixture.

According to Bortin (1973), second generation students do not have much of a problem adjusting to school. However, mostly newly-arrived and first-generation Milwaukee Spanish-American students have been characterized by low achievement, a high drop-out rate, and absenteeism. Differences in language and culture have been the main determinants of this unfortunate record.

Bortin (1973) says that a culture includes a common language, diet, costuming, socialization patterns, and a set of ethics. Because of this particular culture, the Spanish-speaking student encounters special problems in a regular classroom. The bilingual student has a poor understanding of English. The monolingual Spanish-speaking student is unable to communicate or comprehend English. Students from migrant families lead itinerant lives which disrupt their schooling and cause poor achievement. Their low educational and socio-economic status restricts experience in home and community. The non-recognition of Spanish cultural values by the majority of society also results in misinterpretation of much of student behavior.

The bilingual program at Vieau School in Milwaukee was a field test site for materials developed by the Title VII Spanish Curricula Development Center (SCDC) in Dade County Public Schools, Florida. Students were placed in this program by their parents and monolingual students had first choice of participating in the program. Spanish was the dominant language of forty percent of the students in this program, with Mexican and Puerto Rican being the most common Spanish variants. These students differed in many idioms, vocabulary items, and vocal inflections, as well as in the national culture and literature reflected in the language.

The bilingual class at each grade level at the school was compared with a traditional class at the same grade level. These comparisons were an attempt to control for probable "bilingual atmosphere" effects on the Vieau comparison groups. Almost all of the bilingual program students and nearly two-thirds of the comparison group students were Spanish-American. On the total score, the bilingual program students scored higher than the Vieau comparison group; i.e., the bilingual aspect was effective in facilitating the learning of skills by Spanish-American students. It appears,

therefore, that the facility in two languages is an asset in intellectual functioning on a verbal test such as the Metropolitan Readiness Test Form B.

The school principal at Vieau reported that prior to the bilingual program, the newly-arrived Spanish-speaking students had severe behavior problems. Following the implementation of the program, the students seemed to fit into the school atmosphere and their behavior became an asset to the school image. Their change in behavior was attributed to: (a) a good attitude by the teachers toward the students, plus home visits which were made by the teachers; (b) the equal use of Spanish and English in the bilingual program; (c) the availability of liaison persons to assist with any problems encountered; and (d) an accent on the contributions of Spanish-American culture which elevated the self-concepts of the students (Bortin, 1973).

According to Benedict (1979), New York PS 155 was another school selected for the bilingual pilot program. The school had four hundred eighty-two Spanish surnamed students. This was forty-nine percent of the entire school enrollment. The Language Assessment Battery indicated that three hundred seventy-six (or seventy-nine percent) of the students were English-language impaired. A parent advisory board was established.

The Spanish reading instruction for grades 1-5 was achieved through the Laidlaw Basal Series. The students were grouped according to their level of proficiency. One period of Spanish reading instruction was given daily. Children who needed remedial attention attended a Spanish Reading Lab on a regular basis. Supplementary reading for the grades included the text, El Nuevo Sembrador. The instruction of phonics was achieved through the book, La Primera Fonetica. For language arts, the Lengua Espanola Series was used. For comprehension skills, the S.M.

Lenguaje Series was used.

The assessment for program participation for the instruction of English reading was the same as for Spanish. Students in need of remedial assistance attended an English reading lab on a regular basis. The primary grades used the Bank Street Reading System for reading instruction. Supplementary texts, the McMillian "R" Series and the Scott Foresman System, were also used. Grades four and five used the basal reader, Ginn 720 Series, for reading instruction. The Barnell-Loft Specific Skill Series, the McCall-Crabs Series and the Gartler-Clark System were used for supplementary reading. In all grades, The New Phonics We Use was used for instructing phonics.

The school utilized bilingualism in several ways. By employing the ESL/SSL program, conversational English speaking was used in the primary grades. The school also incorporated their cultural teaching into the Social Studies curriculum. Cultural teaching was incorporated into their art, music, physical education, special assemblies, and lunch programs.

The school developed instruments for assessing reading growth in English and Spanish for grades four and five. A criterion-referenced test of Puerto Rican history and culture was also developed. A bilingual resource library was established at the school.

Educational assistants were placed in grades three and four where they were most needed. Paraprofessionals were funded by the government program, Title I, and placed in the remaining grades. All classes received services provided by the Bilingual Coordinator and the Reading Specialist at the school.

Guidelines of proficiency required that when a child was able to participate effectively in the learning process in English, as determined by an assessment of the particular language skills, the child was no longer

required to participate in the program. The child could continue in the program, however, through parental request.

A pretest was given in January while a posttest followed in May. The test used for Spanish reading was the Interamerican Series (C.I.A.), also known as the Prueba de Lectura. The result of the test revealed that all grades indicated highly significant progress in the knowledge of Spanish vocabulary.

The Stanford Achievement Test (S.A.T.), was the test used for English reading. A pretest was given in October while a posttest followed in May. The result of this test revealed that all grades indicated a significant increase in reading achievement except for the third grade.

The overall results of this study indicated remarkable success. The school experienced an atmosphere of excitement and enthusiasm. The administration agreed that the bilingual staff was dedicated and committed to the programs being instituted. The bilingual teachers possessed a good command of both English and Spanish. All of this seemed to have a positive impact on the students. As a result, the school body feared that general competency tests in the future might create difficulties for the students. The principal, however, agreed to teach all students test-taking skills, which would assist them in this endeavor.

The preceding report stated that the federal government is emphasizing the transitional type of bilingual program with stated entry and exit criteria for program participants. Likewise, most of the administration and teachers at PS 155 favored a maintenance program where the first language is maintained while the students learn English.

According to Doyle (1971), the state of Michigan has the second largest majority of migrant workers in America. The majority migrate from Texas. Doyle concluded that the main reason for failure among

migrant children in the classroom was the inability of these children to speak and understand English.

In 1967, the Michigan Department of Education funded many programs for the children from migrant families. The language arts program of the Hartford, Michigan region set up a program for migrant children who were natives of Texas, Arkansas, Georgia and Florida. The program continued for seven weeks. Local teachers were employed for instruction.

The program, which was proposed by the Center for Research on Language Behavior at the University of Michigan, was named, Foreign Language Innovative Curricula Studies (FLICS).

FLICS used a drill type lesson with Spanish and English. The language lessons included: the nature of language, attitudes toward language, vowel sounds, consonant sounds and suprasegmentals (stress, pause and pitch). The language lessons provided a great deal of interaction in both Spanish and English. They were also designed to portray the importance of the migrant worker in our farm structure.

Several recommendations were concluded from this study: (a) teachers should be trained in linguistics in order that more quality instruction will be given to the Spanish-speaking student; (b) elementary education teachers should increase their teaching ability by taking courses in speech and language arts; (c) aides should be used in special school programs; (d) materials for language arts should be designed in a flexible manner in order to account for creative ideas presented by teachers and aids; and (e) coordination between Florida, Texas and the Michigan Department of Education should be encouraged so as not to duplicate programs.

According to Ramirez (1979), a study was instituted concerning the Spanish reading teachers from the San Francisco Bay area. Each teacher had acquired at least one year of experience in teaching reading in

in Spanish in bilingual programs.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the behaviors of teachers currently engaged in Spanish reading instruction in bilingual elementary schools and to identify teaching practices that are associated with student gains in Spanish reading. The eighteen teachers were given two curriculum units selected from reading lessons prepared by the Spanish Curriculum Development Center, Dade County, Florida.

Student achievement in Spanish reading was measured in terms of mean adjusted gains scores on the Interamerican Prueba de Lectura, Level II, which contains forty vocabulary items and forty comprehension questions with a total test score of eighty. The pretest was administered in February, 1977, and the posttest in May.

The teaching of decoding skills, asking the student to read sentences aloud and correcting errors in decoding were the three behaviors which had strong independent effects and contributed significantly to student achievement in Spanish reading. The teaching of grammar and the use of materials (i.e., chalkboard, etc.) made positive but non-significant contributions to reading achievement scores. The scores of the teachers in the Spanish Proficiency Test reflected a slight positive contribution to student gains. Therefore, the higher the scores of the teachers, the higher the student gains.

The results of this study revealed a linear relationship between teaching behaviors and student language learning. An analysis of the results revealed a statistically significant correlation between course work in reading methods and student reading achievement. Therefore, a teacher who is not proficient in Spanish will be unable to teach decoding skills, to correct errors in decoding or teach structural analysis successfully. If a teacher is unfamiliar with reading methodology,

students will be asked to engage in language activities (i.e., asking students to read whole paragraphs, etc.) which do not necessarily promote reading achievement.

Reyna (1980) reports that, ideally, LESA children should receive native oral language instruction prior to going into native language reading. At the same time that native oral language development and reading are taught, the LESA child should receive English as a second language instruction before the transfer at some point in time is made to English reading. A transfer could be made to English reading only if the program is transitional in nature.

In a study done in South Texas, it was concluded that thirteen percent of the teachers in that area transfer children from Spanish to English following mastery of fifty percent of the skills on a checklist. Twenty-six percent of the teachers transfer children following the completion of a particular Spanish reading book level. Ten percent of the teachers transfer children following mastery of a sufficient knowledge of the English language as measured by a test. Sixteen percent of the teachers teach both Spanish and English reading skills concurrently and transfer at a given grade level. There were no teachers who reported placing Spanish LESA children in an ESL program only and then transferring them to a regular English reading program after mastery of sufficient knowledge of the English language as measured by the completion of a given ESL reader. Nineteen percent of the teachers place Spanish LESA students with the mainstream in a regular English instruction program. Ten percent of the teachers use a combination of models (Reyna, 1980).

An extensive review of the literature has revealed that research studies on the criteria that can be used by bilingual teachers to transfer Spanish LESA children from Spanish reading to English reading

are almost non-existent (Reyna, 1980).

According to Kazlow and Lachman (1980), a study was conducted among four schools in New York City (i.e., PS 9, 46, 54 & 67). Students were assigned to a bilingual program on the basis of scores taken from English Language Assessment Battery administered at the end of 1978-79 or at the beginning of 1979-80 school years. The twentieth percentile was the cutoff point at which students could be eligible for the program. Out of two hundred twenty-nine students, one hundred fifty-nine placed below the twentieth percentile. This group represented students who possessed basic language problems in Spanish as well as English. The staff included thirteen bilingual classroom teachers. In some schools Title I personnel assisted in the Title VII program.

Evaluators visited and observed the schools four times that year. They found the staff to be cooperative and concerned about the program. The classrooms provided an atmosphere for learning. The teachers utilized textbooks and workbooks in lesson presentations. The teachers also provided whole class instruction but were working toward providing small group instruction.

In all schools combined, the number of children eligible for bilingual instruction was insufficient to form single-graded classes; therefore, bilingual classes were multi-graded. Whole class instruction, in these instances, meant exposure to inappropriate grade level curriculum.

The lessons tended to be teacher-dominated and lacked motivating activities, summaries and questions which tend to develop the verbal and intellectual skills of the students. Therefore, students did not have a sufficient opportunity to elaborate responses and expand their verbal skills.

The bicultural aspect of the program was limited to observances of heroes and holidays.

Students in kindergarten and first grade were not tested. Students in second grade were not tested in English reading. In some classes, many students were excused from taking the standardized tests.

One of the major objectives of these four schools in New York was the improvement of the Spanish reading skills of the students. The Inter-american Series, Prueba de Lectura, was used to test Spanish reading progress. According to test results, there was an improvement in Spanish reading ability across all grade levels and in all schools.

Students in grades three through five were administered the Metropolitan Achievement Test to determine English reading progress. Each of these grades displayed significant improvement in reading. Despite the growth in reading, however, all scores fell below grade level. A statistical analysis indicated that the Bilingual program did meet some of its instructional objectives.

Recommendations as a result of this study include: (a) testing should be expanded to include subject areas; (b) all pretests should be administered and scored carefully; and (d) all students should be included in the testing program. It was also concluded that provisions should be made for testing and placing those students in a bilingual program who have learning disabilities or emotional problems.

According to Chambers (1981), investigators at the Northwestern Education Cooperative in Illinois studied the effects of three language approaches to reading instruction for bilingual Spanish-English speaking children: (a) native language, (b) second language, and (c) concurrently learned languages. It was concluded that none of these approaches brought

the children to a level equal to that of native English speakers by the end of third grade.

A study done in New Jersey by the Educational Testing Services on Puerto Rican bilingual students concluded that performance on various tests in Spanish and English can be significantly predicted by measures of reading comprehension in each language. A two-phased longitudinal study of the effects of learning characteristics and reading methodology on the reading achievement of bilingual children is underway at the SEDL in Austin (Chambers, 1981).

One recently completed dissertation analyzed attitudes toward Spanish and English among children, their parents, school administrators and teachers. The most negative attitudes toward Spanish speakers and the Spanish language were held by the teachers (Chambers, 1981).

A five-year Title VII project was developed by the Austin, Texas Independent School District in order to improve achievement in several academic areas: (a) oral language proficiency, (b) knowledge of basic concepts, (c) reading ability in Spanish, and (d) proficiency in English-reading and math.

The measurement of oral language was assessed by the Oral Language Proficiency Measure (PAL Test) developed by the El Paso Public Schools. In order to assess the knowledge of basic concepts, kindergartners were tested with the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts. The project students (Spanish dominant) were tested with the Spanish version of the same test.

All other students were tested in English. Studies revealed that during the last three years of the project, the project students gained more than the non-project students (English dominant).

In order to measure improvement in Spanish reading, grades two

through five were tested with the Prueba de Lectura in the spring of each year. The project student scores revealed small but consistent gains and the gains were greater than those of the non-project students.

The California Achievement Test (CAT) was administered in the spring of each year in order to measure achievement in English reading and math. The project student scores revealed significant greater gains than non-project students on the CAT, although there was no difference in math.

A comparison of achievement gains was conducted among: English monolingual students, English dominant students, and Spanish dominant/bilingual students. The test scores for these three groups at the first grade level indicated that the means for Spanish dominant/bilingual students were consistently lower than those of the other two groups. After four or five years of participation, the gap was not closing. In fact, at the fifth grade level, the gap was significantly wider than it was at the first grade, with the Spanish dominant/bilingual falling far behind in reading and math.

One area of concern revealed as a result of this study is the inability to locate appropriate instruments for measuring achievement objectives in the bilingual program. Language instruments are frequently subjective, and many instruments are lacking true equivalent English/Spanish forms. Another problem of concern is the difficulty in obtaining an appropriate sample of students in order to assess the objectives.

Moreover, another problem of concern is the lack of evaluation models applicable for longitudinal evaluations of achievement in bilingual programs (Carsrud, 1980).

Currently attempts are being made to lengthen exposure to bilingualism by making it available at higher grade levels. According to Schwartz (1979),

the Albuquerque Public School System offers a good example of the expansion which is taking place. There are at present bilingual programs in twenty-two schools from kindergarten through sixth grade in Albuquerque. In addition, one junior high school began such a program in 1975. Eventually, the board of education hopes to offer bilingual education through the high school level.

Schwartz also says that a similar trend can be found in New York City where a number of junior high schools are currently offering bilingual programs. At PS 25 in the Bronx, students learn to speak in both tongues, and learn to read in their dominant language.

Reciprocal bilingualism is being implemented in the Los Alamos schools. The English dominant children in kindergarten and first grade are being taught in Spanish, as well as in their native tongue. The schools are also trying to develop a multi-cultural awareness on the part of the students.

The current focus on language proficiency is on communicative competence. The direction presently being taken in language assessment includes the testing of comprehension, as well as the testing of language uses. Studies have shown that all aspects of language skills do not develop simultaneously. Competent understanding occurs much before fluent speaking does. Therefore, the new emphasis is on assessing certain specific skills within the context of the dialect or native language of the individual (Schwartz, 1979).

A bilingual program was conducted at PS 75 in Manhattan. Writers visited the classrooms in order to work with bilingual students. The students wrote books in Spanish and then translated them into English. The translation of their work indicated that, as the students became more fluent in Spanish, they were more competent in mastering and dominating English as well.

Several recommendations transpired from this study: (a) many aspects of bicultural life should be incorporated into the school program; (b) the entire learning exposure of the student should be structured so as to reinforce the culture of the student; (c) the teacher should be fluent in the language of the children being taught; and (d) both homogeneous and heterogeneous groupings should be utilized in teaching languages while making use of peer instruction (Schwartz, 1979).

According to Santiago and Feinberg (1981), there is wide-spread perception among Hispanic educators that Hispanic exceptional children with limited English proficiency may be inadequately served. Their recommendations to help overcome this situation are: (a) curriculums should be modified in order to be more relevant to the needs of Hispanic students, especially with regard to bilingual and ESL programs; (b) curriculum materials and evaluation instruments for the above programs should be developed; and (c) the American public needs a change in attitude.

Although most of the research available on the subject of bilingualism is positive, there are two sides to the issue. Katcher (1981) agrees that many college-bound bilinguals have to take remedial courses in reading, writing, and math because they possess poor skills. It is her position that the schools should not be responsible for focusing on the cultural background of the student. The non-English speaking student needs to be saturated with English. Katcher says that the bilingual approach offers a crutch which only serves to lengthen dependency of students on their native tongue. The original concept of the bilingual program was to utilize two languages spoken by instructors. What has happened, Katcher says, is that at present, one language (mostly Spanish) dominates in the classroom. In many instances teachers are not truly bilingual and,

therefore, have difficulty expressing themselves in English.

On the other hand, Schon (1981) reports that thirty percent of Hispanic students in the United States complete high school. The dropout rate for Hispanics reaches as high as eighty-five percent. She says that educators are in agreement on helping minority-language students develop cognitive and academic abilities.

The most convincing recent studies and reports suggest that bilingualism can positively influence cognitive and academic abilities. In most countries, it is the educated and intellectual elite who value and promote the learning of two or more languages. In the United States, a bilingual person is considered "semi-lingual" or illiterate.

Uniformed critics of bilingual education look to the lack of success of early bilingual programs as being unsuccessful (Schon, 1981). However, recent empirical studies in bilingual education seem to indicate that positive access to two languages in early childhood can accelerate various aspects of cognitive growth (Schon, 1981).

According to Schon (1981), bilingual children exposed to a reinforcing bilingual situation are likely to have relatively high levels of competence in both languages and, therefore, are able to acquire a more accelerated cognitive growth. If a student learns to read in one language, there appears to be a transfer of ability to read in a second language known to the student. The initial reading experience of minority-language children should be in their dominant language. Their reading skills can improve concurrently with their increased knowledge of English. Most experts support the hypotheses that the skills in the first language of the child must be sufficiently developed before mastery of the second language can occur, and that the first language proficiency results in improved proficiency and achievement in the second language (Schon, 1981).

There are several bilingual projects which have been conducted recently. Some are currently in progress. These projects are sponsored by the National Institute of Education in Washington.

A National Center for Bilingual Research was established in 1979 with cooperative agreement awarded to the Southwest Regional Laboratory (SWRL). The Center is under the direction of Candido Antonio de Leon, and will be in progress until 1984. The principal purpose of the Center will be the improvement of practice and policy in bilingual education through advances in the knowledge of teaching and learning in bilingual settings. Center activities will be concentrated upon the development of longitudinal studies, data generating activities and the provision of a central focus for bilingual research in the nation.

A study, Social and Cultural Organizations of Interaction in Classrooms of Bilingual Teachers, was conducted by Erickson and Cazden from 1978-1981. The study was designed to: (a) fill in knowledge gaps about the social and cultural rules governing classroom interaction in first grade bilingual classrooms, and (b) to state clearly the implications for applying this knowledge in the design and implementation of culturally responsive educational programs for Chicanos and other bilingual populations.

A study, Assessing the Language Proficiency of Bilingual Persons, was conducted by Rivera from 1979-1981. The two major tasks of this project were: (a) the administration of a competitive research program to support fundamental research on language proficiency assessment, and (b) the operation of an experimental program of teacher training designed to introduce teachers to current research perspectives on language proficiency assessment.

Fillmore and Tripp compiled a study, Sources of Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition, from 1979-1982. The purpose of this study was to determine to what extent two sets of learner characteristics - language

learning styles and social styles - account for the variability that can be found among young children as to how quickly and efficiently they can learn a second language.

According to Schwartz (1979), during the early stages of bilingual education in the United States, bilingual instructional approaches were simply a mirror image of one existing curriculum, which was translated into the native language of the child. In the last five years, important changes have taken place. Programs of culturally appropriate and interesting materials have been developed. A national network of Materials Development and Resource Centers is servicing new bilingual schools and helping those already in progress with more experience.

There are now more capable bilingual teachers participating in the design, evaluation and improvement of curriculum materials. According to Mercado of PS 75 in Manhattan, a bilingual program must be developed with teachers who see themselves as part of a team of the "communion of people" (Schwartz, 1979).

At present, many states are evaluating and improving their bilingual education programs. The New Mexico Association for Bilingual Education (NMABE) is highlighting the outstanding accomplishments of bilingual education in New Mexico. Many states conduct bilingual education conferences throughout the year.

As noted previously, today the United States has the fourth-largest Spanish-speaking population of any country in the western hemisphere. It is projected that by the twenty-first century, more persons will speak Spanish than any other language of the Americas, including English (Pifer, 1980).

Secretary of Education, Terrel Bell, has reaffirmed a national commitment to bilingual education in this country but has given local school districts the right to use methodologies appropriate to their students and

particular situations (Cordasco, 1981). The Bilingual Education Act is due to expire in 1983 and, at this point, the future of projects supported by this act is uncertain. However, it would be a mistake, whatever the future of the Act, to believe that bilingual education will disappear (Cordasco, 1981).

According to Schwartz (1979), bilingual education now has a chance, with the support of the courts and wide-spread public approval, of becoming part of the structure of public education. Pifer (1980) expresses the challenge facing bilingual education:

What is needed now is a determined effort by all concerned to improve bilingual education programs in the schools through more sympathetic administration and community support, more and better trained teachers and a sustained, sophisticated, and well financed research effort to find out where these programs are succeeding and failing and why.

In addition, because of the increasing number of Spanish-speaking students and the lack of an adequate number of bilingual teachers in our schools, the issue of preparing materials and programs for use by the monolingual teacher within the regular classroom setting must be addressed.

According to the Times Union (April 25, 1982), the Reagan administration recently reversed the policy that required school districts to implement a bilingual program of instruction for Spanish-speaking students in the classroom.

In March of this year, the Education Department changed its guidelines that required school districts to develop bilingual programs within the schools. The guidelines now allow school districts to use "any effective approach" to teach English to bilingual students, including total immersion in English.

According to Education Secretary Terrel Bell, the previous guidelines leaned too heavily on the one approach, of requiring school districts to implement bilingual programs. He stated that the government should not be prescribing any teaching method because there are several other effective approaches to teaching bilingual students.

The new guidelines allow school districts to revise their negotiated plans on bilingual education if they so choose. If they are satisfied with their present program, they should continue with it. If they are not satisfied, they should consider alternate options.

The present bilingual program used in Duval County includes the TESOL (ESL). This program relies on entry and exit procedures. At the time that a Spanish-speaking student registers in one of the county schools, the Duval County Survey of Primary or Home Languages Other Than English form is completed. If the survey indicates that a language other than English is spoken in the home, the student is referred to the bilingual staff for testing.

If the results of the test indicate that the student fits into Category A or B, it is mandatory that he/she be placed in a bilingual program. If the parent does not wish to have the child placed in the program, a waiver must be signed by the parent. Once in the program, the Spanish bilingual student spends a half a day in bilingual classes and a half a day in regular classes.

If the results of the test indicate Category C and the student is an underachiever (based on his prior academic achievement), he/she may be placed in the program.

Exiting from the program depends upon the ability of the student to function fully in English. In grades 1-6, the student will need to score at

or above the 50th percentile on the Total Reading subtest of the SAT (Stanford Achievement Test).

The student must also demonstrate satisfactory progress in academic achievement in the areas of mathematics, science, and social studies as determined by report card progress shown at the end of two successive nine-week periods.

The student must also demonstrate the ability to function in English as determined by teacher observation in situations inclusive of academic as well as social behaviors, such as in giving and following directions accurately and participating successfully in classroom activities.

In addition, the student must demonstrate that he/she can accomplish the district minimum promotional requirements (Essential Skills Test).

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURES

A. Needs

Informally, it was stated in the review of related literature that bilingualism is an area of renewed interest in the educational system of our nation. The number of students who will benefit from this program is continually increasing. Some research and study in this field has been developed within the past decade; however, much more needs to be accomplished. It is evident from the research literature presented herein, that much time and effort in the future should be devoted to this field of endeavor. There is a definite need in our schools for supplemental material which is geared to aid the bilingual student in an effort to learn to read.

B. Objectives

The objectives for this project were selected and determined on the basis of the need for materials focusing on vocabulary which are most manageable for a regular classroom teacher who may have a bilingual student in the classroom. Bilingual students possessing a limited English-speaking ability need extra help and reinforcement with learning to read through the vocabulary presented to them. The objectives for this vocabulary were based on the premise that one student or a small group will be utilizing the material.

C. Content

The Ginn 720 Series Basal Reader was selected because it is the adopted text currently in use in Duval County for the instruction of reading. Level 7 was selected because it is generally used in the third grade. Third grade is the grade in which most schools make the transition from Spanish reading to English reading in bilingual programs which follow the transitional approach to instructing bilingual students.

D. Activities

Learning activities were selected according to those activities which are the most manageable for the classroom teacher to use in the course of daily instruction. The activities were designed for individual and possibly small group instruction. The activities were organized in sequence to go along with the vocabulary presented in the Ginn 720 Basal Reader. The vocabulary was presented on tape in English and Spanish so that it can be utilized either at a learning center or as seatwork, both individually and in a small group.

E. Evaluation of the curriculum

The evaluation procedures were conducted through the use of a short survey form which was completed by selected educators with classroom and administration expertise in Duval County following a personal review of the project by them. The evaluation determined what changes, in the materials developed, were made, if any, in order that the project might be more effective for future use.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the results of the evaluation of this project by educators in this country, the reinforcement activity is appropriate as reinforcement. The bilingual student should master at least 85% of the vocabulary words in each lesson of the text, and should possess a fairly good command of the English language before using the reinforcement activity.

This project should be expanded to include all reading levels of the Ginn 720. It has been suggested that picture cards be made for the nouns and adjectives presented in the text. Picture cards should not be made for verbs until the student has a good understanding of verb tenses. Reinforcement activities should also be made for the enrichment words presented in each lesson.

There are several limitations in regard to this study. The survey statements were specifically designed by the researcher. Therefore, the evaluation obtained may not be conclusive.

The evaluation might have been more conclusive if other experts had surveyed the project.

Due to a lack of time and the time of year this study was conducted, it was not possible to field test this project.

It is this author's conclusion that many different types of activities must be developed which will help the bilingual student in the classroom to achieve success in reading. Educators are responsible for preparing these materials to meet the needs, interests and experiences of the bilingual student.

APPENDIX

MATERIALS CHECKLIST

CURRICULUM MATERIALS SURVEY

Please circle one of the numbers for each statement listed below. The numbers represent the following: (5) strongly agree; (4) agree; (3) disagree; (2) strongly disagree; and (1) not applicable.

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The materials reflect the reading interests of the children of the age, sex, and background for which they were designed. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. Provisions are made for meeting the interests of both boys and girls.. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. The materials are suitable for children in all parts of the country. (inner-city, suburban, and rural) | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. The materials contribute to expanding the experiential background of the children. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. The informational content is relevant to the experiences of the children the materials are designed for. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. The materials appear suited to the background and experiences of the children who will use them. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. The level of complexity is appropriate to the abilities of the children the materials were prepared for. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. The concept level of the content is appropriate to the children who are to use the materials. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Motivational devices and activities are built into the materials. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. The design, format, and pictures are sufficiently attractive to motivate interest. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. The material presented provides the learner with auditory as well as visual stimuli. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. Pictures are used in order for children to cue meaning from their reading. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | Values expressed in the materials complement the known values of the group for whom they are intended. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. | Values expressed in the materials are portrayed in a positive manner. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. | The information is clearly and accurately presented. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. | There is a recognition of and provision for dialect differences in the materials | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. | The materials use the dominant language pattern consistently and accurately. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. | The language of the materials provided is adequate for the reading comprehension of the bilingual student. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. | The materials lend themselves to adaptability within the classroom. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. | The materials are readily available for the classroom teacher's use. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. | The materials complement other reading materials within the school. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. | The materials are correlated with materials in other areas of study. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. | The vocabulary and word meaning is accurate and consistent with the basal reader currently in use. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

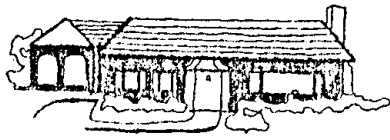
COMMENTS:

OBJECTIVE: This project is designed for the bilingual Spanish-speaking student who has been placed in the Ginn 720 Level 7 Basal Series for reading instruction. The project is designed as a supplement in order to give the moderate socio-economic Spanish-speaking student added reinforcement in the vocabulary words in order to achieve success in the basic reading skills required by this country.

IMPLEMENTATION: The basic vocabulary words are taken from Units I and II (9 lessons) of Level 7 in order to be used by the classroom teacher during a nine-week period. Each word is used in a sentence in the same context as it is used in the text. Each sentence is then translated into Spanish since that language is something the student is familiar with. By using the Spanish language, the student should experience greater comprehension of the basic vocabulary, and therefore, greater reading comprehension. The words are printed on picture cards and tape recorded on a cassette. It is suggested that the tape and picture cards be used together. The student will start the tape which will then instruct him/her to repeat the vocabulary words and sentences as they are spoken on the tape.

EVALUATION: Upon completion of each lesson, the student is provided with an activity sheet for that lesson which contains the sentences

used on the picture cards with blanks where the vocabulary words would be. A word box is available with the words provided. An answer sheet is provided in order for the child to check his/her own answers. If the student uses a word incorrectly in a blank, he/she is encouraged to repeat the picture cards.



move

The family will move into the house.

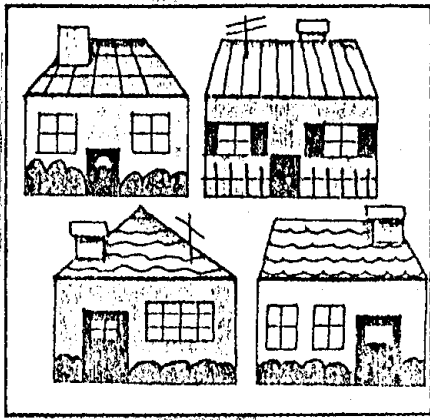
La familia se mudaran en la casa.



almost

The boy is almost at school.

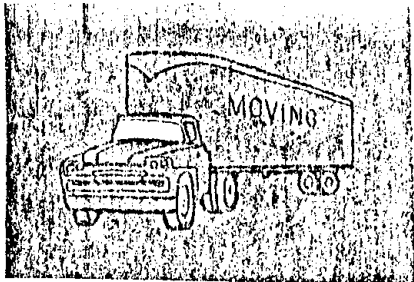
El muchacho ya casi llega a la escuela.



door

My friend lives next door.

Mi amigo vive al lado de mi.



moving

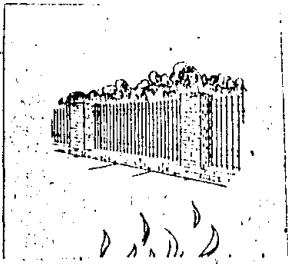
They are moving again.

Están mudándose otra vez.



family

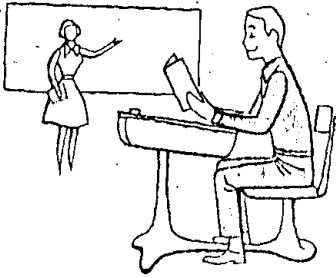
This is a very happy family.
Esta es una familia muy
alegre.



front

The fence is in front of the
house.

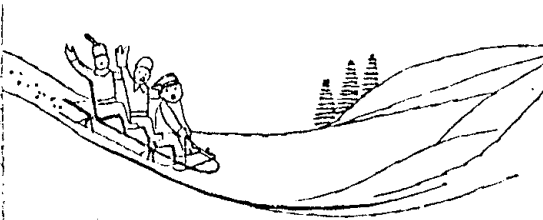
La cerca está enfrente de la
Casa.



William

William is in school.

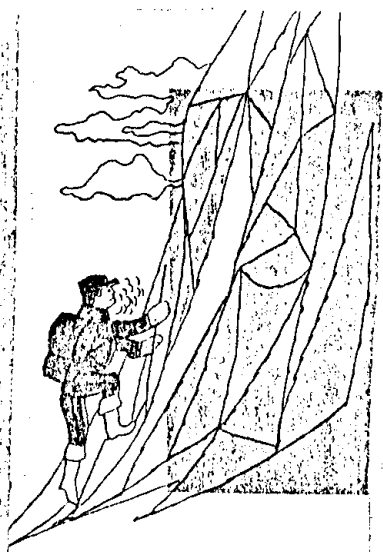
Guillermo está en la escuela.



having

The children are having fun.

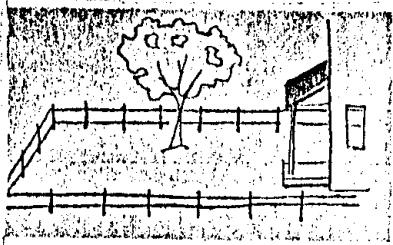
Los niños están divirtiéndose.



climbed

The man climbed almost to the top.

El hombre se ascenso casi a la cumbre.



oak

The oak tree is in front of the house.

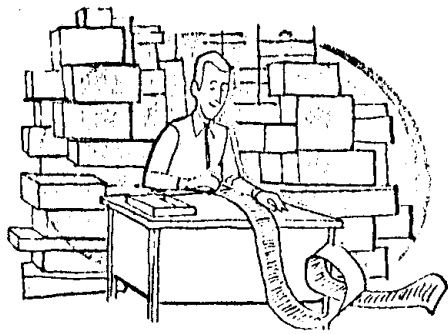
El roble está delante de la casa.



higher

The tree is higher than the man.

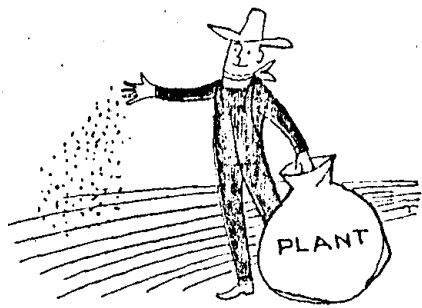
El árbol es mas alto que el hombre.



does

Father does his work quickly.

Mi padre hace su tarea pronto.



garden

The farmer plants his garden.

El labrador siembra su jardín.



better

The boy is feeling better today.

El muchacho se siente mejor hoy.



Bradleys

The Bradleys live next door.

Los Bradleys viven al lado de mi.



Stanley

The dog is called Stanley.

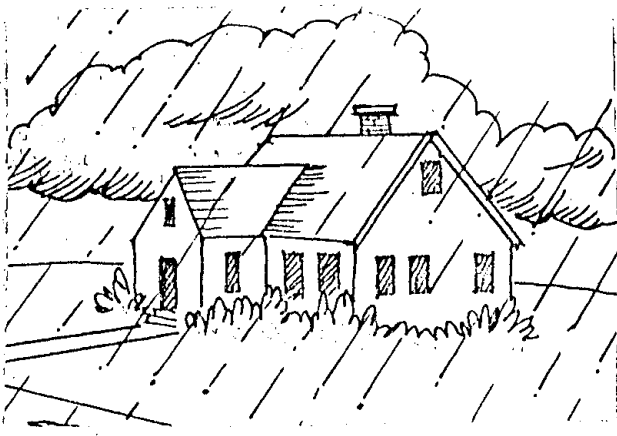
El perro se llama Stanley.

UNIT I THE BRADLEYS MOVE IN
Pages 8-15

1. The family will _____ into the house.
2. The boy is _____ at school.
3. My friend lives next _____.
4. They are _____ again.
5. This is a very happy _____.
6. The fence is in _____ of the house.
7. _____ is in school.
8. The children are _____ fun.
9. The man _____ almost to the top.
10. The _____ tree is in front of the house.
11. The tree is _____ than the man.
12. Father _____ his work quickly.
13. The farmer plants his _____.
14. The boy is feeling _____ today.
15. The _____ live next door.
16. The dog is called _____.

WORD BOX

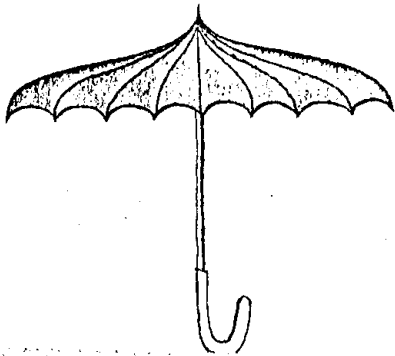
almost	does	garden	moving
better	door	having	oak
Bradleys	family	higher	Stanley
climbed	front	move	William



rain

It is beginning to rain.

Comienza llover.



umbrella

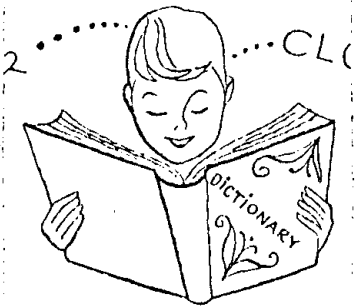
The umbrella is green.

La paraguas es verde.



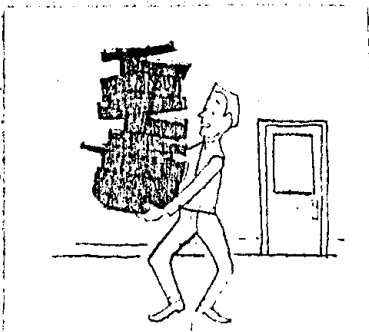
through

The birds fly through the air.
Los pajaros vuelen por el aire.



opened

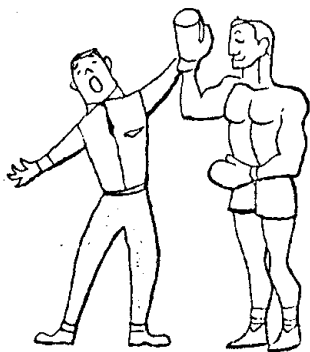
The student opened the book.
El estudiante abrio el libro.



decided

The man decided to carry the boxes.

El hombre decidió a llevar las cajas.



proudly

The man finished the fight proudly.

El hombre acabó la lucha muy orgulloso.



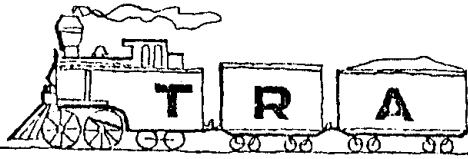
drop

Please don't drop the soap.
No dejes el jabón caer por
favor.



own

The girl has her own pail.
La muchacha tiene la cubeta
suya.



listened

They listened to the sound of
the train.
Oyeron el sonido del tren.

UNIT I IT LOOKS LIKE RAIN

pages 17-24

1. It is beginning to _____.
2. The _____ is green.
3. The birds fly _____ the air.
4. The student _____ the book.
5. The man _____ to carry the boxes.
6. The man finished the fight _____.
7. Please don't _____ the soap.
8. The girl has her _____ pail.
9. They _____ to the sound of the train.

WORD BOX

decided

opened

rain

drop

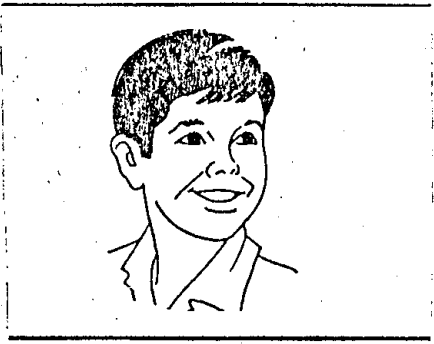
own

through

listened

proudly

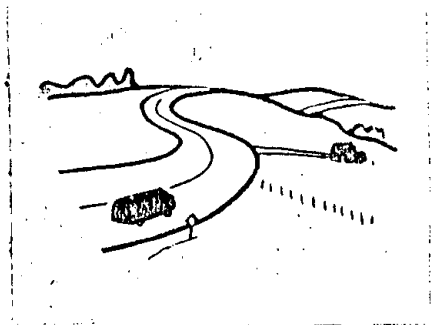
umbrella



hair

The boy wants to get his hair cut.

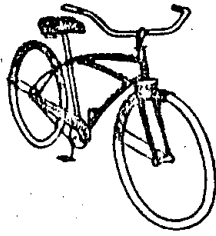
El muchacho se quiere cortar el Cabello.



hurry

Hurry back from your trip.

Regresa pronto de su viaje.



bicycle

The bicycle is new.

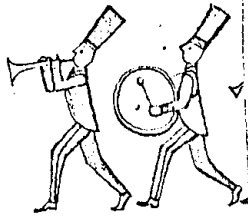
La bicicleta es nueva.



barber

The barber is cutting the boy's
hair.

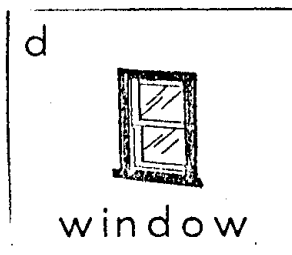
El barbero está cortando el cabello del
muchacho.



ahead

The horn player is ahead of the drummer.

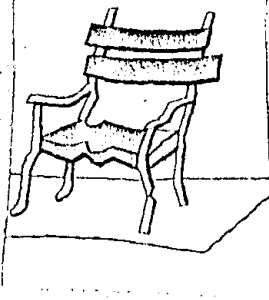
El trompetor está delante del tamborilero.



Window

The window is closed.

La ventana está cerrada.



chair

This chair is old.

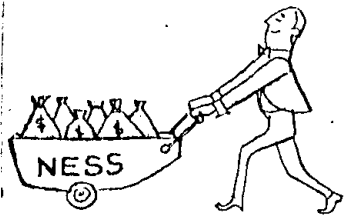
Esta silla es vieja.



gone

The boy has been gone long.

El muchacho se ha ido mucho tiempo.



push

He began to push the cart.

Comenzo a empujar la carreta.

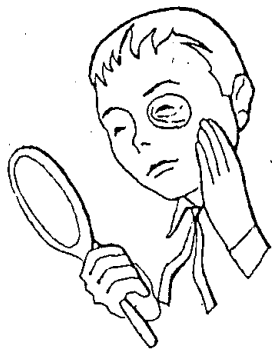
UNIT I WILLIAM GETS HIS HAIR CUT

Pages 26-31

1. The boy wants to get his _____ cut.
2. _____ back from your trip.
3. The _____ is new.
4. The _____ is cutting the boy's hair.
5. The horn player is _____ of the drummer.
6. The _____ is closed.
7. This _____ is old.
8. The boy has been _____ long.
9. He began to _____ the cart.

WORD BOX

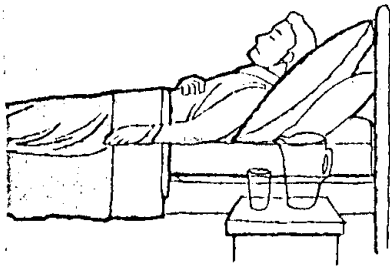
ahead	chair	hurry
barber	gone	push
bicycle	hair	window



Worried

He is worried about his eye.

Está preocupado por su ojo.



until

He waited until the doctor came.

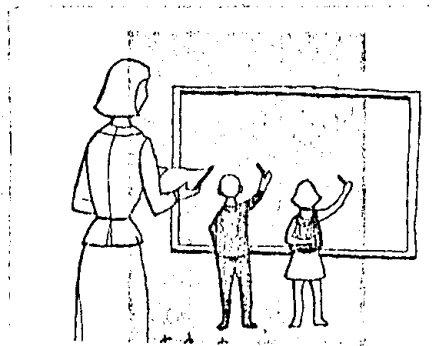
Espero hasta que vino el doctor.



across

He ran across the field.

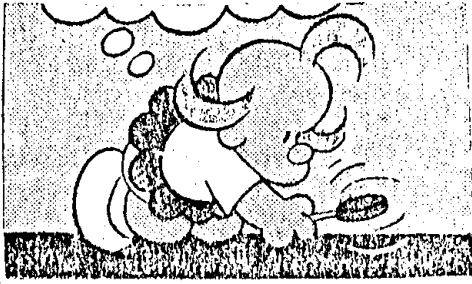
Corrio a través del campo.



showed

The teacher showed them how to write.

La maestra les enseñó a escribir.



crawled

The baby crawled on the
floor.

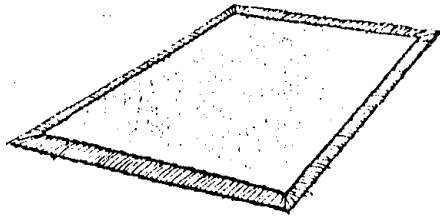
La niña gatio en el suelo.



once

The waiter came at once.

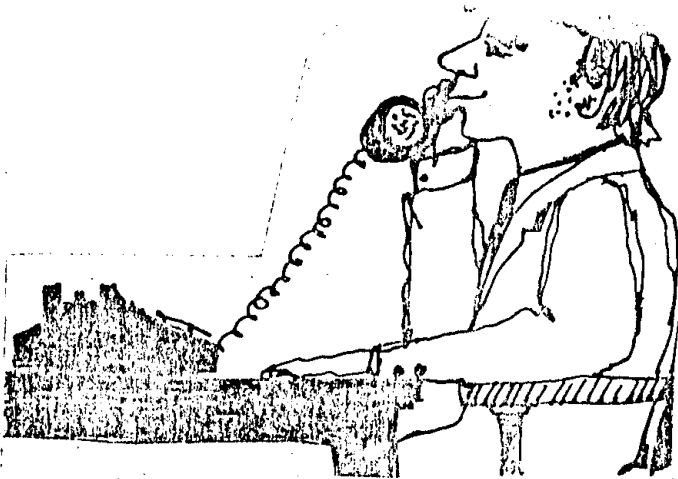
El camarero vino al punto.



floor

The rug is on the floor.

El alfombra está en el suelo.



telephone

The man talked on the telephone
two times.

El hombre hablo en el teléfono dos
veces.

UNIT I WILLIAM AND THE DOGHOUSE
Pages 32-38

1. He is _____ about his eye.
2. He waited _____ the doctor came.
3. He ran _____ the field.
4. The teacher _____ them how to write.
5. The baby _____ on the floor.
6. The waiter came at _____.
7. The rug is on the _____.
8. The man talked on the _____ two times.

WORD BOX

across

once

until

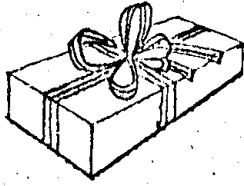
crawled

showed

worried

floor

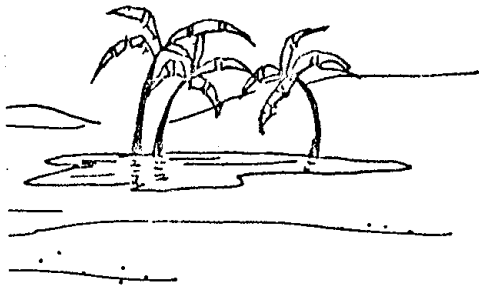
telephone



only

I got only one present.

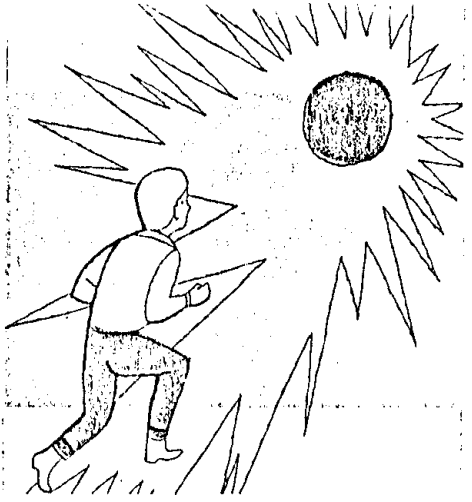
Recibi solamente un regalo.



exactly

There are exactly three trees in the picture.

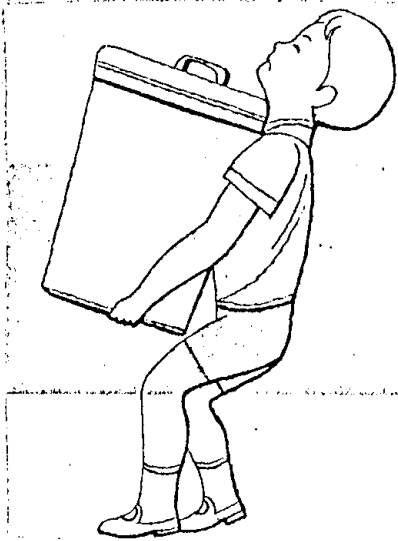
Hay exactamente tres árboles en el cuadro.



against

The sun is hot against his face.

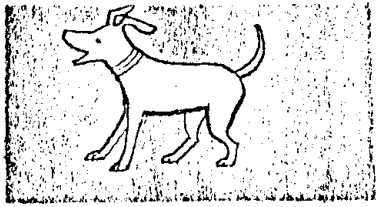
El sol está caliente contra su cara.



any

The boy doesn't have any help.

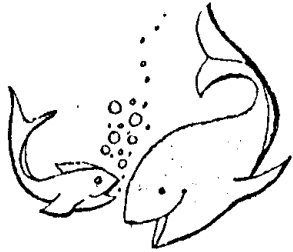
El muchacho no tiene ni algun ayuda.



puppy

The puppy is barking.

El cachorrito está ladrando.



flip

The fish did a flip in the water.

Los pescados se arrojaron en el agua.

Unit I THE BRADLEYS COME HOME
Pages 39-43

1. I got _____ one present.
2. There are _____ three trees in the picture.
3. The sun is hot _____ his face.
4. The boy doesn't have _____ help.
5. The _____ is barking.
6. The fish did a _____ in the water.

WORD BOX

against

exactly

only

any

flip

puppy

ANSWER SHEET - UNIT I

THE BRADLEYS MOVE IN - pages 8-15

- | | | | |
|-----------|------------|------------|--------------|
| 1. move | 5. family | 9. climbed | 13. garden |
| 2. almost | 6. front | 10. oak | 14. better |
| 3. door | 7. William | 11. higher | 15. Bradleys |
| 4. moving | 8. having | 12. does | 16. Stanley |

IT LOOKS LIKE RAIN - pages 17-24

- | | | |
|-------------|------------|-------------|
| 1. rain | 4. opened | 7. drop |
| 2. umbrella | 5. decided | 8. own |
| 3. through | 6. proudly | 9. listened |

WILLIAM GETS HIS HAIR CUT - pages 26-31

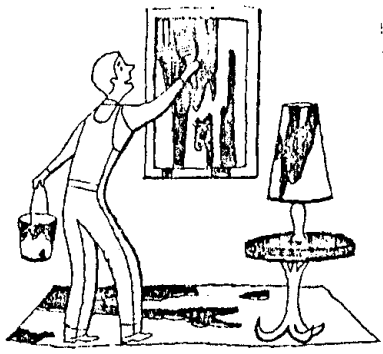
- | | | |
|------------|-----------|----------|
| 1. hair | 4. barber | 7. chair |
| 2. Hurry | 5. ahead | 8. gone |
| 3. bicycle | 6. window | 9. push |

WILLIAM AND THE DOGHOUSE - pages 32-38

- | | |
|------------|------------|
| 1. worried | 4. showed |
| 2. until | 5. crawled |
| 3. across | 6. once |

THE BRADLEYS COME HOME - pages 39-43

- | | |
|------------|----------|
| 1. only | 4. any |
| 2. exactly | 5. puppy |
| 3. against | 6. flip |



paint

The man wants to paint everything.

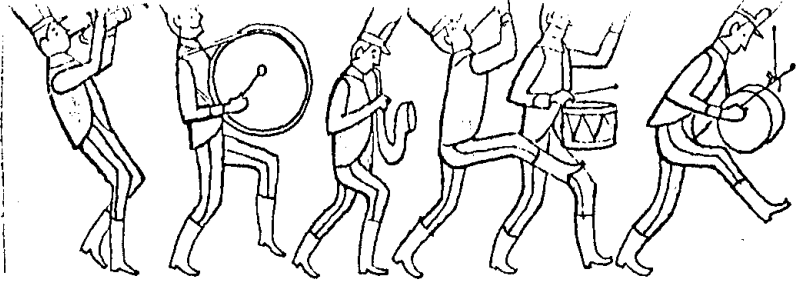
El hombre quiere pintar todo.



stomach

This man has a stomach
ache.

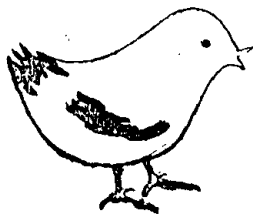
Este hombre tiene dolor de
estómago.



parade

The band led the parade.

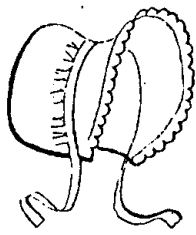
La banda fue adelante del desfile.



robin

The baby robin is looking for
food.

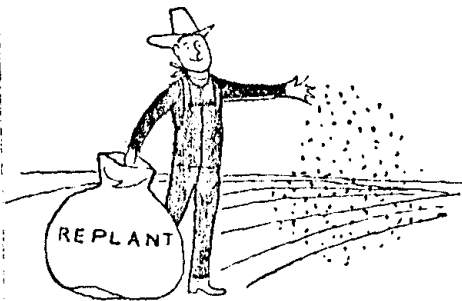
El petirrojo busca comida.



head

Cover your head with the bonnet.

Tapate la cabeza con la gorra.



ground

Plant the seeds in the ground.

Siembra las semillas en la tierra.



Jonathan

Jonathan is playing with the
ball.

Jonathan está jugando con la
pelota.

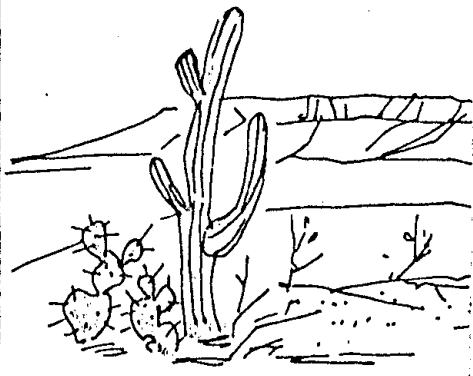
Unit II A LITTLE PATCH OF BACK YARD

Pages 48-54

1. The man wants to _____ everything.
2. This man has a _____ ache.
3. The band led the _____.
4. The baby _____ is looking for food.
5. Cover your _____ with the bonnet.
6. The seeds were planted in the _____.
7. _____ is playing with the ball.

WORD BOX

ground	Jonathan	robin
head	paint	Stomach
	parade	



cactus

There are many types of
cactus.

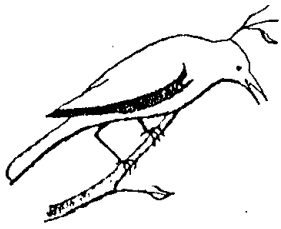
Hay varias tipos de cacto.



quietly

The boy speaks quietly.

El muchacho habla muy callado.



quail

A quail is a bird.

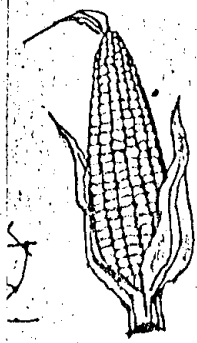
El codorniz es un pajarro.



pail

Water can be put in a pail.

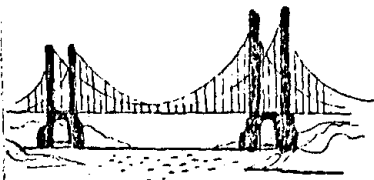
Se puede poner agua en una cubeta.



corn

Many people eat corn.

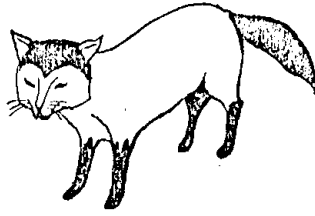
Mucha gente se come maíz.



high

The bridge is high above the water.

El puente es alta sobre del agua.



coyote

The coyote is wild.

El coyote es feroz.

Unit II I WALK THE LONG WAY
Pages 55-62

1. There are many types of _____.
2. The boy speaks _____.
3. A _____ is a bird.
4. Water can be put in a _____.
5. Many people eat _____.
6. The bridge is _____ above the water.
7. The _____ is wild.

WORD BOX

cactus

coyote

quail

corn

high

quietly

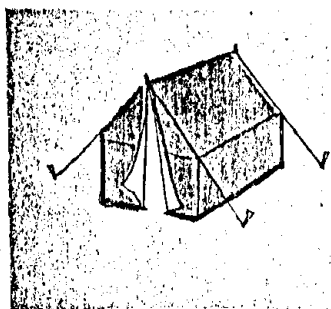
pail



Lisa

Lisa is cleaning the house.

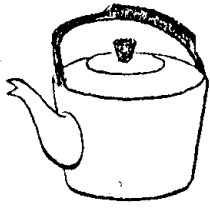
Lisa está limpiando la casa.



camp

We took the tent to camp.

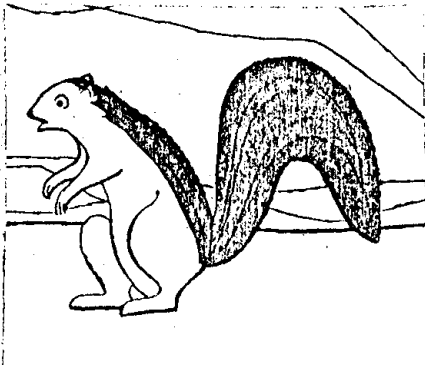
Llevamos la tienda de campaña al
campo.



Coffee

The coffee is very hot.

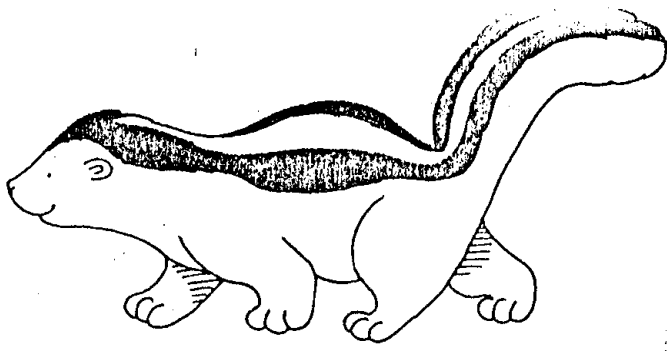
El café es muy caliente.



chipmunk

The chipmunk seems frightened.

El especie de ardilla se parece
espantado.



skunk

The skunk hunts for food.

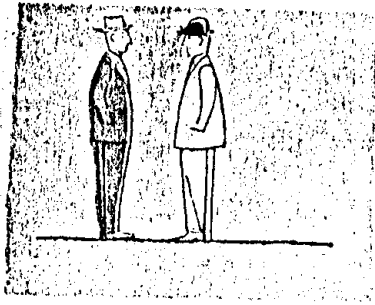
El zorrillo busca comida.



afraid

The man is afraid of the
elephant.

El hombre tiene miedo del
elefante.



borrow

The man wants to borrow some money.

El hombre quiere pedir prestado de dinero.



snake

The snake is long and black.

La culebra es larga y negra.

Unit II A NIGHT IN THE MOUNTAINS
Pages 63-75

1. _____ is cleaning the house.
2. We took the tent to _____.
3. The _____ is very hot.
4. The _____ seems frightened.
5. The _____ hunts for food.
6. The man is _____ of the elephant.
7. The man wants to _____ some money.
8. The _____ is long and black.

WORD BOX

afraid

chipmunk

skunk

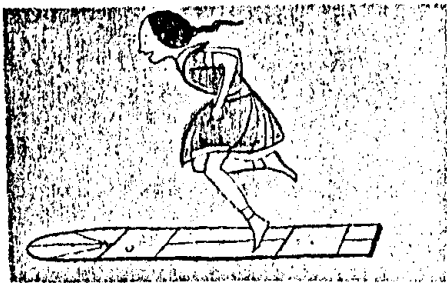
borrow

coffee

snake

camp

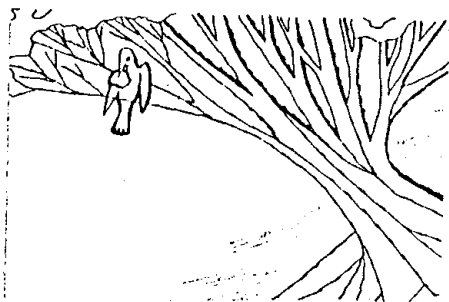
Lisa



Rosa

Rosa is jumping alone.

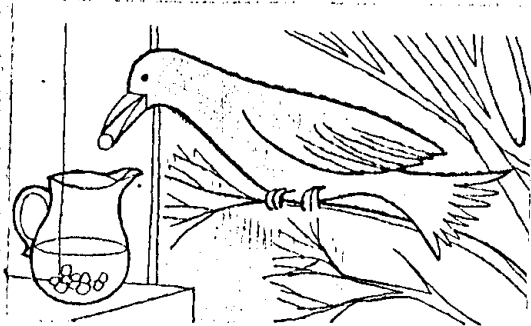
Rosa está brincando sola.



branch

A bird sat on a branch to eat.

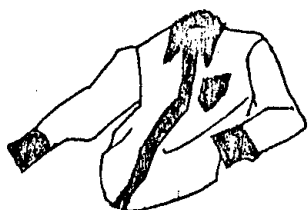
Un pajarito se sento en la rama a comer.



crow

The crow is eating something.

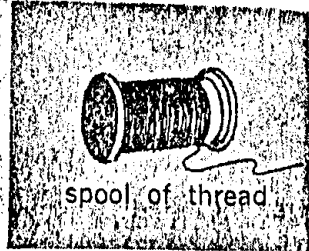
El cuervo está comiendo algo.



shirt

The shirt belongs to Joe.

La camisa es de Jose.



thread

Mother needs the spool of thread.

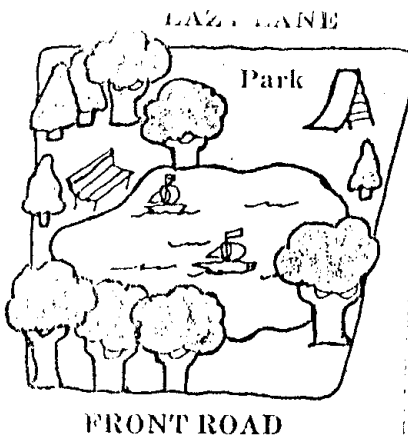
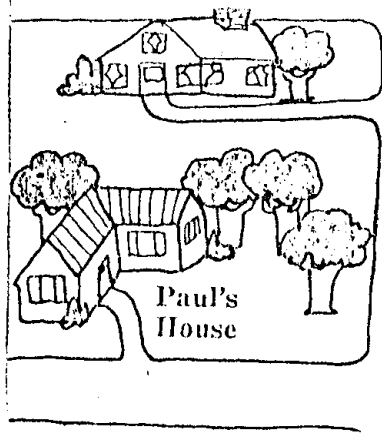
Mamá necesita el hilo en Carrete.



sorry

The boy feels sorry for what he did.

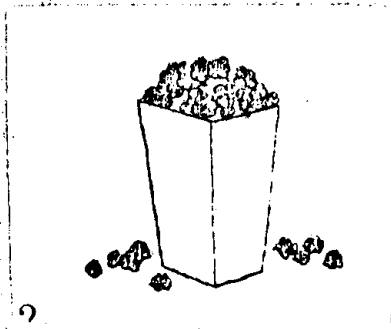
El muchacho se siente triste por lo que hizo.



neighborhood

We live in a peaceful
neighborhood.

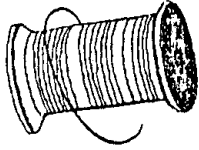
Vivemos en un vecindad
pacífico.



left

One box of popcorn is all that is
left.

Una caja de rosetas es todo que
quedo.



spool

My sister found the spool
of thread.

Mi hermana halló el hilo en
carrete.

Unit II ROSA AND THE CROW
Pages 77-83

1. _____ is jumping alone.
2. A bird sat on a _____ to eat.
3. The _____ is eating something.
4. The _____ belongs to Joe.
5. Mother needs the spool of _____.
6. The boy feels _____ for what he did.
7. We live in a peaceful _____.
8. One box of popcorn is all that is _____.
9. My sister found the _____ of thread.

WORD BOX

branch	neighborhood	sorry
crow	Rosa	spool
left	shirt	thread

ANSWER SHEET - UNIT II

A LITTLE PATCH OF BACKYARD - pages 48-54

- | | | |
|------------|-----------|-------------|
| 1. paint | 4. robin | 7. Jonathan |
| 2. stomach | 5. head | |
| 3. parade | 6. ground | |

I WALK THE LONG WAY - pages 55-62

- | | | |
|------------|---------|-----------|
| 1. cactus | 4. pail | 7. coyote |
| 2. quietly | 5. corn | |
| 3. quail | 6. high | |

A NIGHT IN THE MOUNTAINS - pages 63-75

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| 1. Lisa | 4. chipmunk | 7. borrow |
| 2. camp | 5. skunk | 8. snake |
| 3. coffee | 6. afraid | |

ROSA AND THE CROW - pages 77-83

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| 1. Rosa | 4. shirt | 7. neighborhood |
| 2. branch | 5. thread | 8. left |
| 3. crow | 6. sorry | 9. spool |

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