An experimental approach to the teaching of reading in Spanish at the primary level.

An experiment in the teaching of reading in Spanish to second- and third-grade students, conducted by the author at the Ethel Phillips elementary school, utilizes a modified version of Dr. Laubach's "syllabic, analytic-synthetic" method of language instruction. In this approach, vowels are combined in succession with each of the consonants to build syllables. Syllables are combined to form words, and these are then used to build sentences. Pictures for each key word are presented for association. Results indicate that success in school of children from Spanish-speaking homes may be directly related to the concept of self-identity. It is suggested that development of programs leading to curriculum-wide literacy in Spanish is considered by authorities in bilingualism to be one of the key factors in raising the Spanish-speaking child's level of expectation in his academic achievement. Major chapters in this study discuss: (1) the problem and definition of terms, (2) review of related literature, (3) procedures of the study, (4) analysis of data, and (5) summary, conclusions, and recommendations. A bibliography and an appendix containing sample lessons and measurement tools are included. (RL)
AN EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH TO THE TEACHING
OF READING IN SPANISH AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

ROLANDO MANS
A.B., LONG BEACH STATE COLLEGE, 1959

THESIS

Submitted in partial satisfaction of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS
in
SOCIAL SCIENCE
AT
SACRAMENTO STATE COLLEGE

Approved:

[Signature]
Chairman
Advisory Committee
Date: [Date]

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR
ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF
VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY
REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION
POSITION OR POLICY.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to extend my appreciation to Mrs. Winifred Williams, a second/third grade teacher at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in Sacramento, California, for her inestimable cooperation and support while I conducted this study in her classroom.

I am grateful also to her children who demonstrated such enthusiasm and response throughout the entire experiment. Their admirable ability to learn a completely new skill in such a short period of time is certainly commendable.

For his support of this study, thanks are due to Mr. O. Alfred Negrete, principal of Ethel Phillips School, who is always open to innovative programs which may benefit the children.

I am also indebted to Mr. Francis Bautista for his generous time in providing counsel in writing this thesis.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations of the Study</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The School</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Subjects</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Goals of the Study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Place of Reading in the Process of</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Approaches in the Teaching of</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowels and Consonants</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllables</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description and Application of the Method</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluative Procedures of this Study</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Tests</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures in Administering the Test</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures in Analyzing the Data</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Results</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Questionnaire</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of the Study</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Children's Reactions to the Syllabic Approach</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Lessons</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Measurement Tools</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Composition of Control Group by Ethnic Grouping, Grade Level, Reading Level in English, and Total Raw Scores on L-1-CEs...</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Composition of Experimental Group by Ethnic Grouping, Grade Level, Reading Level in English, and Total Raw Scores on L-1-CEs.</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Summary of Pre- and Post-Tests Means on the Prueba de Lectura (L-1-CEs)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension and Total Raw Scores on Spanish Pre-Test of Experimental and Control Groups</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension and Total Raw Scores on Spanish Post-Test of Experimental and Control Groups</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Comparison of Experimental Group's Percentiles on Post-Test and Inter-American Series Test Norms</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

INTRODUCTION

The literature illustrating the consequences of the American ethnocentric educational system on the self-concept of the Mexican American child, is abundant at the present time. Books are filled with validated statistics to support that the educational system has failed the child whose home language is other than English. Those who have managed to survive through the school system, and have reached the so-called "American dream" of success in society have emerged, in essence, as middle-class oriented Mexican Americans who find themselves in many instances alienated from their family, their home environment, and their ancestry. What has often emerged in the process—as a phoenix—is an individual who is so completely acculturated to the philosophy and way of life of the dominant culture that he has lost all traces of his own and his home language.

The specific marks of a culture are deeply imbedded in its language. If the Mexican American is to safeguard those patterns of his culture which are dear to him, he must safeguard his language. It behooves the educational system, then, if the Mexican American child is to achieve a better concept of himself, to procure bilingual programs.
that will make it possible for him to remove his low expectation of himself and raise his own level of achievement.

Bruce Gaarder (1965:17) espouses the view that the key to raising the level of expectation in young Mexican American children themselves, is through a vigorous, curriculum-wide literacy and general competency in Spanish. He indicates that of all the barriers to scholastic achievement--social, psychological, linguistic and pedagogical--this is the one for which the schools have been responsible and which the schools alone can remove.

Attitudes play a very important role in learning. The teaching of the learner's native language results in his feeling of pride and success--powerful stimulants to further learning. Conversely (Finocchiaro 1966:8), not teaching their language leads to despair and frustration.

For the native English speakers, implementation of bilingual, bicultural programs leading to literacy in a second language also imports valuable advantages. The need to promote positive attitudes among this group toward the language and culture of other different groups, while at the same time, fostering the development of another language, is not to be ignored.

In the course of this study, the writer proposes to substantiate the cultural, educational, and economic values that could be realized by both Spanish-speaking and monolingual English-speaking students through literacy in the
Spanish language, in addition to the usual literacy in English.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem. An experiment in the teaching of reading in Spanish to second and third graders was conducted by the writer at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in the Sacramento City Unified School District. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the results of the experiment and to assess the potential of this particular approach.

One of the first linguists to use the technique of syllables as building blocks, in which each of the five Spanish vowels is combined with all the consonants, was Dr. Frank C. Laubach. A pioneer in adult literacy, Dr. Laubach was principally interested in literacy for Christian witness throughout the world. Dr. Laubach's method was based on a row of pictures for initial vowels. Often a device was used in which the shape of the letter was superimposed over the picture with the similarity greatly accentuated between both picture and letter shape. Key words are a distinctive feature of this system. This method is highly successful with perfectly phonetic languages and principally, languages rich in words that have open syllables, that is, consonants followed by vowels. One day is spent for each vowel sound, using this vowel with all the consonants. Flash cards with pictures
on one side and syllables on the other enable the student to master the consonants the first day (Laubach 1947:94-96).

The writer had used this method in adult literacy campaigns in Latin America, but never with children. The approach used in this study, based on syllables, is essentially similar to the one described above, with slight variations. Vowels are combined in succession with each of the consonants to build up syllables. Syllables are combined to form words, and then these are immediately used to build sentences. Pictures for each key word are presented for association.

The question that the author had posed to himself before initiating the study was: Would this syllabic approach, a somewhat slight variation of Dr. Laubach's method, work with these children?

Concomitant with the problem of using this method with children was perhaps the question of whether it would work with bilingual children as well as with monolingual children who had had some training in Spanish but were not entirely fluent.

In addition to the two queries posed above, the study will also attempt to answer the following:

- Is this method effective enough with children that it might be successfully utilized in present bilingual programs?

- What advantages or disadvantages does this method have as compared to other popular approaches?
- What practical aspects of this method are more effective with bilingual children?
- What difficulties will bilingual children as well as those of English-speaking homes encounter in learning to read Spanish through this system?

Limitations of the Study

1. Actual instruction time was limited to two half-hour segments per week.
2. Because pre-testing instruments were not available at the beginning of the semester, the study was delayed until March 1; therefore, the length of instruction was shorter than had been anticipated.
3. Instructional materials had to be reproduced entirely by the writer on a week-to-week basis, and not as many lessons were covered because of this handicap.
4. Spanish primers had been ordered by the school where the study was made, but these did not arrive until two weeks prior to the last day of the school term; therefore, objective evaluation of children's ability to read the primers was not obtained.
5. One of the control groups, a third grade, had not received any previous instruction in Spanish and was not then being instructed in oral Spanish by the school resource teacher.
The School. The Ethel Phillips School was selected for the study. This elementary school is within the Sacramento City Unified School District, in a low socio-economic area, and has a total school enrollment of 600 students, of which 190, or 32% are of Spanish surname. There is also a high percentage of black students. The school is on its third year in the implementation of an ESEA Title VII Early Childhood Bilingual Education program.

In selecting the school that would serve as the target for the study, two factors had to be considered:

1. It was essential that the school were part of an on-going bilingual program.

2. The school should have a fairly high percentage of Spanish-speaking students.

3. The experimental group should be a second or a third grade class with a minimum of one year's background in audio lingual Spanish instruction.

The Subjects. The experimental group was a combined second-third grade class of which 18 were second graders, and 11 were in the third grade. Of these, 11 boys and 15 girls received instruction in reading. Four of the 26 subjects were absent during pre-testing; therefore, they were disregarded in the statistical analysis of the study. The ethnic composition of the group was as follows: 14 were from Spanish-speaking homes, 5 were white monolingual students, and 7 were black monolinguals. All of the
children had had audio lingual training before the reading experiment began, and were also currently receiving oral language instruction from the school resource teacher on a daily basis.

The control group did not receive any instruction in reading from the writer. Of 18 children, 10 were second graders and the rest in the third grade. Eight of the students were boys. The control group, as opposed to the experimental group, were not a combined class, and the third grade sampling was not at the time receiving any audio lingual instruction from the Bilingual Program resource teacher.

Major Goals of the Study. Time is necessarily an impediment in developing long-range objectives or goals. However, this study was attempted with the premise in mind that, though development of the Spanish language and Spanish reading skills in the cognitive domain were the primordial aims, yet other significantly important attitudinal factors were also involved. In this light, the writer designed the following secondary aims for the duration of his study:

1.0 For the student of Mexican American descent:

1.1 To develop a pride in his heritage, his culture and his language.

1.2 To achieve at an equal rate with his English-speaking counterpart.

1.3 To assert his self-identity.

1.4 To make him aware of the beauty of his
cultural language.

1.5 To aid him in strengthening family bonds as he becomes proficient in verbal and literate Spanish communication.

1.6 To develop evidence of positive transfer of learning from instruction in reading Spanish to reading ability in English.

2.0 For the student of non-English speaking background:

2.1 To develop his curiosity in learning another language.

2.2 To create a bicultural awareness.

2.3 To develop speaking and reading fluency in a second major language.

2.4 To create empathy for the non-English speaking learner, as he understands the intricacies of acquiring another language.

2.5 To inspire and create a desire in their parents to learn more about the Mexican American language and culture, as they acquire ease in the second language.

Importance of the Study

The major goals defined above could very well be the aims of any bilingual education program in the country. The advantages and purported disadvantages of bilingualism have been, in recent years, disputed, argued, debated and questioned by many scholars. It has been contended that childhood bilingualism, forced or voluntary, results in many disadvantages, such as handicaps in speech development, and emotional instability among others (Jensen 1962). It is even claimed that the upsurge in bilingual education
is a result of a segment of interested professionals who find it advantageous to perpetuate its support for language study. It has also been stated (Roeming 1971:81) that the purpose of educating those of non-English backgrounds should be solely to achieve economic development through English proficiency. The implication is that any effort in the development of bilingual skills should be primarily as a means in the educational growth of each child, and specifically, toward economic stability. Any other advantage that may accrue, such as true bilingualism, must be a by-product in the educational process.

There is enough evidence to indicate that past methods used in educating children of languages other than English have been, in the main, ineffective. Consider, for example, the dropout rate in the Spanish-speaking population of some school districts in the Southwest, compared to the total population of this particular group. Carter (1970:28) estimates that about 60 percent of the children of Mexican descent who begin Texas schools do not finish high school. California and Colorado have a 40 percent dropout rate, and Arizona and New Mexico, in that order, follow California and Colorado in percentages of dropout.

What are the reasons for the Mexican American student's evident low academic achievement and poor participation in schools? Carter (Ibid:61) remarks that there is no doubt that numerous educators, especially in conservative areas of the Southwest, believe that Mexican American children
are inferior—that they are inferior because they are so obviously Mexican. There is an assumption among educators that the culture the child of Spanish-speaking ancestry brings to the school is devoid of all value, lacking in pattern. Mexican Americans are categorized as being lackadaisical, individualistic (not cooperative), self-satisfied with their subordinate role, lazy, and imbued generally with a mañana attitude (Carter 1970:62).

Knowlton states:

The philosophy of the State and local school systems is imbued with the traditional middle-class Anglo-American value that all minority and immigrant groups should be required to abandon their native languages and cultures, give up their identity, and become absorbed as individuals into the dominant group, usually on a lower-class level. If any group resists full acculturation, it is regarded as somewhat uncivilized, un-American, and potentially subversive. There is a complete unwillingness to accept the idea that a native born American who happens to want to speak Spanish, German, or Polish, and to retain many of the values of his native culture, might well be a loyal American. As a result, the full force of the educational system in the Southwest has been directed toward the eradication of both the Spanish language and the Spanish-American or Mexican American cultures. (Knowlton 1965)

The stereotypes of educators of Mexican American children, and their concomitant low expectations of this particular ethnic group contributes to perpetuate the image of the Mexican American child as an inferior student. The schools justify their "theory" concerning this group and deprive the Mexican American child of a solid education by cultural exclusion—separate curriculum, enforcement of strict behavioral standards, special education classes,
restraints on the use of home language (Carter 1970: ch. ). This stereotype, according to Carter (Ibid: 63), provides a plausible and sufficient explanation for the behavior and failure in school of Mexican American children.

Bilingual education, though it is not intended to be a panacea for all the ills that beset the Mexican American in his educational preparation, would be one solution for alleviating some of them. Ballesteros (1970:27) points out the purposes that bilingual education would serve for the child and the school, in particular for the Spanish-speaking child:

1. It reduces retardation through ability to learn with the mother tongue immediately.
2. It reinforces the relations of the school and the home through a common communication bond.
3. It projects the individual into an atmosphere of personal identification, self-worth, and achievement.
4. It gives the student a base for success in the field of work.
5. It preserves and enriches the cultural and human resources of a people.

However, Spanish-speaking students would not be the only ones to profit from such programs. In effect, since language is the carrier of a people's culture, by being fluent and literate in Spanish, the monolingual student of English-speaking background would become sensitized to the culture and personal values of his counterpart. Other
benefits may also be envisioned. For example, Finocchiaro quotes a study made by Johnson, Flores and Edelson at the University of Illinois, in which the latter corroborate that "the addition of a foreign language to the elementary school curriculum not only does not retard children in their learning of other subject areas but may, in fact, help them in the development of vocabulary and reading comprehension (Finocchiaro 1966:8).

At the 1965 El Paso, Texas Annual Conference of Foreign Language Teachers, the following premise was issued:

...if a much greater proportion of the Anglos were to learn Spanish than now know it, their own attitudes might change, not only toward the language but also toward those who use it. And almost certainly the attitude of the Chicano toward the Anglo would change, and many of the psychological barriers which keep him from full participation in Anglo society would be broken down. (Reports of the Annual Conference of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers 1965:11).

Bilingual education means not only the teaching of English as a Second Language, but also Spanish as a second language, as well as their use as mediums of instruction in subject matter content. In disregarding the Spanish language skills that most Mexican American children bring to school, a great natural resource of a people is being neglected.

Research has shown that children should learn to read first in their mother tongue. For example, Hillerich and Thorn (1969) quote studies which suggest that children can learn to read successfully when taught first to read
in their native tongue. They also remark about the economic implications involved. Kaufman (1968) conducted a study which suggests the evidence of positive transfer of learning from instruction in reading Spanish to reading ability in English, without interference on English development. This study was geared specifically to discovering what value instruction in the reading of Spanish would have for improving reading ability in English of bilinguals who are retarded in reading English. Bell (1964:103-104) believes it should be an obligation to our communities and to our pupils to provide, in every situation where it is at all possible, the opportunity for the Spanish-speaking children to develop literacy in their vernacular, not only to improve their self-image, but also to become truly educated bilinguals.

Gaarder proposes that it is in the best interest of the Spanish-speaking child and in the national interest that such a child should be made strongly and effectively literate in both English and the other language. He also declares very explicitly that the key to raising this child's level of expectation is unquestionably the establishment of vigorous, curriculum-wide literacy and competency in Spanish (Reports of the Annual Conference of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers 1965:17).

Peña (1967:48) indicates that by achieving success in oral and written fluency in the Spanish language, Mexican American children would feel strongly motivated to do well
in other areas of the curriculum. Finocchiaro (1966:7) suggests that the development and use of one's native language may facilitate the learning of a second language; this would be especially true when both languages use the same system of writing and when they contain many cognate words. Carl A. Lefèvre, expert authority on linguistics, points out what the immediate goal of education should be:

Perhaps an ultimate aim of the public school program of native language instruction should be to develop freedom and fluency in the dialects used by persons carrying on the chief business of American society. But one of the immediate aims of the schools should certainly be to teach five-to seven-year-old children to read and write whatever dialect they were born to. (Lefèvre 1964:27).

Developing literacy in the native language should proceed on the analogy of learning native speech as infant and child (Ibid:xix).

Modiano (1968) did a comparative study of two approaches to the teaching of reading in the national language in Mexico. In each of three tribal areas of the Chiapas highland that were studied, the researcher found significantly better reading ability among children who were first taught to read in their original language. Modiano's study is now a classic research, and she urges experimental programs to begin in regions in the United States having large linguistic minorities.

Fishman (1970) has designed a typology of bilingual education programs which would, in maintenance communities, strive ideally to produce fully literate citizens capable
of operating in both English and Spanish. Andersson and Boyer (1970:45), after evaluating the literature on the subject, indicate that educators are in agreement that a child's mother tongue is the best instrument for learning, especially in the early stages of school, and that reading and writing in the first language should precede literacy in a second. These authors also conclude that preliminary research reveals that, provided one of the languages is the mother tongue, children who learn through two languages tend to learn as well or better than those who learn through only one.

Having established the significant role of Spanish as a component of prime importance in the self-concept and liberal education of the Spanish-speaking child, as well as the social and psychological gains to be derived by monolingual English speakers, it is necessary to comment on the import ensuing this study.

The U.S. Department of Education is gradually but increasingly recognizing the need for improved programs for the non-English speaking students. In California, for instance, 64 proposals for bilingual education programs were submitted to the State Department of Education for funding in 1971. Of these, four were approved and funded at a cost of $651,000 for the same school term. In California there are at present 49 bilingual, bicultural programs operating under ESEA Title VII. In the nation as a whole, nearly 160 bilingual programs are now in effect; and for
1971-1972, final Congressional appropriations for bilingual education have been approved in the amount of $35 million (Reyes 1971: personal communication).

Most of the present bilingual programs in California have been in operation less than five years; new ones are being funded each year. The author had the experience of participating as an official consultant to the California State Department of Education in the evaluation of bilingual, bicultural preliminary proposals for Title VII funding. Fifty per cent of the proposals read by the writer stated literacy in both languages as one of the long-range goals in their programs. The other fifty per cent were vague or did not explicitly indicate literacy in the Spanish language for all students as one of the major objectives. Since most bilingual education programs begin at the Kindergarten level and/or first grade, and progressively add one grade as funds are continued, the writer did not observe much reading readiness in Spanish literacy in any of the five bilingual programs visited in the Sacramento area. Of all the programs viewed by the writer, the Brentwood, California, program seems to be working tangibly towards that goal. Bilingual Spanish speakers and monolingual English speakers observed in one fifth grade class were reading quite fluently from Spanish textbooks and other teacher-made instructional materials.

Though the Early Childhood Bilingual Education Program at Ethel Phillips, the school in which this study was
conducted, is now in its second year of operation, and includes a few third grade groups, little evidence of developmental reading skills in Spanish was observed by the writer prior to initiating the study.

To produce truly literate individuals who would be capable of interacting fluently and comfortably in both English and Spanish, bilingual education programs will have to implement effective training in the reading of Spanish. Prospective methods which will be quick in producing visible results in the areas of vocabulary and comprehension will have to be attempted. Utilization of those methods that are more effective in generating optimum results will have to be pursued. One such method is the subject of this study.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms used in this study are defined as follows:

**Mexican American**: The term "Mexican American" shall mean an American citizen of Mexican descent. For the purposes of this study, "Chicano" will be used synonymously with Mexican American.

**Brown**: This epithet, used in the statistical tables (see chapter IV), will convey the same significance as Chicano or Mexican American.

**Monolingual**: A person who speaks and understands one language. In this study, all students who are not of
Mexican American descent will be considered in this category.

**Bilingual**: A person who understands and speaks two different languages. Since there are various degrees of bilingualism, all students who are from Spanish-speaking homes will, in this study, be considered bilingual though a few of them may understand, but not speak, Spanish.

**Bilingual bicultural 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" (Andersson & Boyer 1970:12).

**Audio-lingual method**: A method of language instruction characterized by a model and student imitation and repetitions of language patterns and structural elements of the language.

**Native language**: The home language of any student will be termed "native language." In this study, the terms "mother tongue" and "vernacular" will be used interchangeably with "native language."

**Literacy**: The ability to read and write a language. In this study, this term has been most frequently used in relation to the skill of reading.
Culture: "The customs, traditions, mores, values, beliefs, and language of a group of people" (Finocchiaro 1964:133).

Linguist: A person who analyzes and describes a language as it is used by its native speakers. There are several branches of linguistic science, e.g., structural, historical, comparative, and contrastive.

Phonemic Languages: In phonemic languages, used interchangeably here with "alphabetic languages," the sounds of speech are represented by distinct symbols, each denoting a single sound.

Cognates: Words in one language which look similar to and have the same meaning as words in another language, e.g., (Spanish-English) nacional/national, are cognate words (Finocchiaro 1964:132).

Decoding: In this study, the term "decoding" will refer to the process by which the reader receives the signals of graphic symbols, and is able to analyze them. This process involves internalizing and interpreting these symbols.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

I. THE PLACE OF READING

IN THE PROCESS OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

The order of presentation in learning any language is from listening to speaking, to reading, and finally to writing. However, there is some disagreement among linguists and teachers of English as a second language, regarding the manner and time of presentation of these essential skills. While Finocchiaro (1964:70) stipulates that listening and speaking should always precede reading and that it is only after students can say material with reasonable fluency that they should be permitted to see it, Bell (Allen 1964:101) believes that this sequence need not necessarily follow in the strict sense of the word. He writes:

In spite of the fact that many educators, including some foreign language teachers, believe that reading and writing should be delayed, it seems justified to insist that the instructional program for Spanish-speaking first graders should include the early introduction of a formal reading program...This order of presentation is extremely important, especially in the early stages of language learning; however, this ordering can be applied to small units of language as well as to large. (Bell, in Allen 1964:101).

Of course, his remark is in reference to the learning of English as a Second Language by Spanish speakers.
Manuel (1965:113) feels that the acquisition of language production and reading could go along together. He reasons:

Learning a language has four interrelated but different phases: learning to understand spoken language, learning to use language in speech, learning to understand written language, and learning to produce written language. To a certain extent understanding spoken and written language precedes production of spoken and written language, and to a certain extent they go along together. A little understanding paves the way for production, and soon the two are going forward at the same time. (Manuel 1965:113).

Manuel elaborates that, "In learning one's mother tongue the process is normally from speech to the written work, but speech and reading develop together, once the reading has begun." (Ibid)

Though divergence of opinions does exist, and, recognizing that language is an arbitrary system of vocal symbols that develops progressively through a hierarchical pattern of listening, imitating, and producing sounds, it follows that the sequence of listening, speaking, reading and then writing, would be a logical one. For the native speaker of Spanish, who already is in control of the sound system of the language, the process of learning to read the Spanish printed word presents little difficulty. For the monolingual English speaker, second language learning means acquiring new habits of using the speech organs and learning the forms and the arrangements of forms required by the system (Finocchiaro 1964:13). Installing the sound system before beginning the decoding process, then, is essential for the latter group.
The benefits that could accrue to the Spanish-speaking learner by becoming truly biliterate have been pointed out in the first chapter. Some authorities are convinced of this fact. Neijs writes:

> It has also been demonstrated that an individual who is literate in his own language can learn to read and to understand a second language more easily than an illiterate can (Neijs 1961:47).

Theodore Andersson (1970:53) concludes that if the Spanish-speaking learner would receive instruction through both Spanish and English throughout his educational career, he would have a decided advantage over his English-speaking classmate, and his so-called handicap of bilingualism would disappear. He remarks that this would be possible because of the excellence of the Spanish writing system. "There are no 'reading problems,' as we know them, among school children in Spanish-speaking countries." (Ibid).

In deciding whether to teach reading to a Spanish-speaking child in his native language before he is introduced to this skill in the English language, some considerations should be made. Manuel (1965:113) believes that it is best not to start formal instruction in reading in two languages at the same time. If the child knows both English and Spanish, then either one could be used to introduce reading. Nevertheless, Manuel feels that, because the school curriculum is so extensive, and the length of time that a learner has in which to acquire all the survival English skills that he will need is so short,
only the more able Spanish-speaking children should attempt to develop a high level of efficiency in both Spanish and English (Ibid:191).

Considering the language ability in their native dialect that these children already bring with them to school, and the virtual facility which would take to develop literacy in their own dialect, cultivating this capacity in the more able students alone would, admittedly, be a waste of potential and natural resources of a people.

Andersson firmly believes that:

because Spanish has a much better writing system than English (i.e., the writing system matches the sound system) speakers of Spanish can master reading and writing very quickly and can begin to acquire information from the printed page more easily and at an earlier age (Andersson 1970:53).

Manuel (1965:122) believes that instruction in reading Spanish should begin after the children have mastered the basic techniques of reading English, and that instruction in Spanish should be given to all those "who qualify." He describes this mastery level at a point reached at the end of grade 3 in which these students attain an average and above-average level of achievement.

Robert Lado, in the 1965 Annual Conference Report of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, recommends that children be taught literacy in Spanish first. The report adds:
To continue to ignore this problem and to proceed with literacy in English as if the pupils knew the language natively will result in double illiteracy, i.e., "persons deficient in spoken English and in written Spanish (1965 Annual Conference Report of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers:15).

John Plakos (1967:12) recommends that, since Spanish-speaking children may lack the vocabulary and the experiences out of which conceptual language skills grow, it is, therefore, necessary to enlarge their stock of concepts and to develop their language at levels K through grade two. Early lessons should lead to reading and writing in Spanish in the first and second grades. He continues:

These same Spanish-speaking children come to school with relatively no command of English. For this reason, they must be immersed in learning experiences which enable them to build not only concepts but also a phonological and structural command of English. Eventually, in the second grade, they can be advanced to the more complex skills of reading and writing in English after they attain sufficient listening comprehension and speaking fluency in English (Plakos 1967:12).

Armando Rodriguez plainly illustrates the importance of cultivating the bilingualism that Spanish-speaking children bring to schools, by quoting from a keynote address by Commissioner Harold Howe:

First, the evidence is clear that people learn languages best if they learn them young. Mexican American children offer their Anglo classmates a great natural teaching resource. It is time we stopped wasting that resource and instead enabled youngsters to move back and forth from one language to another without any sense of difficulty or strangeness.

Second, the proper conduct of bilingual programs should produce a dramatic improvement in the performance of Spanish-speaking children.
By "proper conduct" I mean those teaching arrangements which permit a child to begin learning to read and write immediately in Spanish, and learning English in music, art, and recreation periods--rather than forcing him to postpone all serious academic work until he learns English (Rodriguez 1968:5).

In a three-year program conducted in Pecos, New Mexico, and designed to teach children from first to sixth grade the basic skills in Spanish, the results were exciting. Spanish-speaking children were given 30 minutes of daily Spanish instruction for a period of three years. Among the results were listed the following:

1. A change in community and administrative attitude toward the use and place of Spanish in the school.

2. Development of reading skills which enabled students to read easily material designed for native speakers of Spanish at the various levels (grades 1-6).


Valencia (1970:28-29) on a report evaluating the Pecos Project also indicates that "the experimental group perceived a positive transfer effect in English language development among students who are given Spanish language instruction, while the control group envisioned the transfer effect to be 'minimal.'"

Positive attitudinal changes reflecting self-confidence, pride in their native culture and adjustment to a bilingual environment, were also objectively assessed in the evaluation of the Pecos project.
Carter (1970:169) cites another experimental project conducted in the Harlandale Independence School District in San Antonio, Texas, in which four first grade groups were taught reading and writing in Spanish as well as in English. Guy C. Pryor, the evaluator, reported that one of the four classes clearly made more progress in practically every aspect of the measures than the sections which were taught in English only. In the other schools, the degree of difference between the control and experimental classes was not so pronounced. His report concludes:

The pupils in the bilingual (Spanish) sections of all four schools could speak, read, and write in two languages at the end of the first grade. This in itself might be considered a justification for the program (Carter 1970:160).

Carter notes that this final point deserves the serious consideration of educators.

II. COMPARATIVE APPROACHES IN THE TEACHING OF READING

There are various approaches to the teaching of reading. These could be labeled according to the linguistic units which they stress, or according to the processes involved in the initial steps of teaching.

Gray (1969:76) divides the early methods of teaching reading into two groups: those which approach the teaching of reading through initial emphasis on the elements of words and their sounds, as aids to word recognition; and those which approach it through the use of words or larger
language units, and lay emphasis on the meaning of what is read.

In the first group listed above may be found the "alphabetic methods," in which the names of letters are taught in an attempt to recognize and pronounce words; the "phonic method," in which the sounds of letters are used; and the "syllabic method," in which the sounds of oft-recurring syllables are used.

The second group is based on the assumption that meaningful units (words, phrases, sentences, story) should be the point of departure (Gray 1969:82).

In essence, the method which uses letters or syllables as a point of departure is labelled as the "synthetic approach" because synthesis takes place as letters are combined to form syllables and words. Neijs (1961:22) asserts that the reading and recognition drill of words is reached fairly soon in most methods of the synthetic approach. She explains that, "If the nature of the language permits, it has been found possible by introducing a few well-selected letters and by skillfully combining them, to read words and short sentences after two or three lessons." (Ibid:22).

Among the advantages listed by this author for this approach are the following:

1. It is logical and systematic, particularly in languages where every basic sound is represented by a symbol.
2. It pays due attention to the mechanical aspects of reading, which can promote accuracy and independence, particularly in word recognition.

3. It is easy to teach, and the basic instruction can be included in a relatively small amount of material, presented in a way which makes for quick progress. (Ibid).

This method, however, has a few disadvantages as well. It may emphasize word elements at the expense of fluency for meaning, and both the content and the methods are imposed by the teacher (Gray 1969:77).

The "analytic or global" approach starts from "meaningful wholes," i.e., words, sentences or stories. In a word method, for instance, familiar words serve as starting points and as basic units, which after recognition drill, are analyzed into letters or syllables. In a sentence method one or more short sentences are introduced and taught and drilled until visual recognition has been attained. (Neijs 1961:22). Among the advantages of this approach are:

1. The rhythm and pattern of speech are caught from the start.
2. Interest is stimulated because reading makes sense at once.
3. Words can be introduced as units of thought.

Gray points out the chief criticisms raised against this approach:

1. Attention is directed to the development of the attitudes and skills required for getting the meaning that word recognition is often neglected. Teachers tend to neglect word recognition skills so long that pupils are seriously retarded.
2. Teachers omit training in word recognition and assume that pupils will acquire this skill on their own, without guided development.

3. Teachers untrained in analytic methods find it difficult to apply (Gray 1969:83).

The "eclectic approach" makes simultaneous use of analysis and synthesis within every lesson. For instance (in one lesson): introduction of some key words followed by their analysis into syllables, followed by the synthesis of these syllables into new and different words, then concentration on one vowel (say, the initial vowel of the key words), synthesis of the vowel with two or three consonants into syllables, synthesis of these syllables into new words and analysis of these words. One of the advantages of such an approach is that very quick progress can be made, but a disadvantage is that the rapid changes from analysis to synthesis and vice versa tend to confuse learners (Neijs 1961:23).

The "onomatopoeic" method makes use of sounds of inanimate objects or animals to form words which allude to its referent, such as: buzz, cuckoo, clank, etc.

The approaches to the teaching of reading in English will vary from those in the teaching of reading in Spanish. Because English spelling offers so many degrees of difficulty in decoding for native speakers and even more so for those whose mother tongue is not English, consideration of the language to be taught must be weighed before a specific approach is chosen.
Over 90 per cent of the world's languages have one sound for a letter and one letter for a sound. In such languages learning to read is swift and easy, requiring from one to twenty days. This is actually happening in over two hundred languages (Laubach 1947:103).

Some alphabetic languages are more syllabic than others (In an alphabetic language the basic sounds or phonemes are represented, as a rule, by different letters or marks). Spanish, Portuguese and many native African languages are of the syllabic type. The Spanish word mano (hand), for example, is made up of two syllabic units, ma and no. Such units can be learned readily as wholes, because most of them when presented separately form familiar words with which clear, vivid meanings have already been associated (Gray 1969:40). When given syllables have been learned, they are combined into words whose pronunciations and meanings can be recognized immediately because they are made up of familiar units. Gray recognizes that the teaching techniques for such languages will differ significantly from those required in languages in which the phonetic elements are learned and applied separately (Ibid). He also observes:

There is wide agreement among authorities that teachers should, whenever possible, make effective use of syllabic units (Ibid:41).

Thonis proposes that "you only learn to read once." She notes that a child who speaks Spanish generally learns to read Spanish easily because of the high degree of correspondence between speech and print. Once a child has
accomplished this initial task, he merely learns to read a new code when he attempts to master another language (Nuevas Vistas--A Report of the Second Annual Conference of the California State Department of Education 1969:23-24).

The approach used in the Marysville Bilingual Program for the teaching of reading is eclectic. It is a combination of language experience, phonics, individualized instruction and association of sound with symbol. The technique used follows the pattern used in the teaching of reading in English, a modification of Van Allen's technique (Thonis 1971: personal communication).

The approach used in the Brentwood, California Bilingual Program, as observed by the writer, was a global one, emphasizing word and phrase elements which, when learned, were used in forming new meaningful material. This method had been initiated the previous year with the fifth grade children observed, and it seemed to be effective with these intermediate children, as most of the Spanish-speaking children as well as the monolingual English speakers were obviously successful in decoding the printed word from their Spanish reading textbooks.
SUMMARY

Much of the research seems to offer divergent opinions as to the best approach for the teaching of reading. In determining what method to use, the target language is of prime consideration. Although alphabetic languages make use of letter-sound characters in writing, languages vary radically in both form and structure. Spanish is a highly phonemic language which lends itself fairly easy to various, successful ways of presenting phonemic patterns for teaching purposes. Consideration should be given to the role of the syllable as a prominent and very effective unit in forming words. The opportunity for monolingual English speakers as well as Spanish-speaking children with a basic sound structure in Spanish to become fluent in both languages should not be disregarded.

A diversity of opinions also exists concerning the most profitable time in which to introduce reading skills in Spanish at the elementary level. There is disagreement among linguists and educators relative to the role that the introduction of reading skills should play in the four stages of language learning.

Because of the perfectly phonemic nature of Spanish, as well as the rapid progress which a young learner could easily attain in becoming literate given the most effective technique, it is imperative that bilingual programs around the state begin to explore and use methods that will
deliver literacy to young students in the most fruitful manner. The benefits to be gained, both in creating attitudinal and intellectual changes in all groups concerned, are inestimable.
CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

I. BACKGROUND

An experiment in the teaching of reading in Spanish to second and third graders was conducted by the writer at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in the Sacramento City Unified School District. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the results of the experiment and to assess the potential of this particular approach.

Vowels and Consonants. In teaching a phonetic language like Spanish, the alphabet method is a much better approach in the teaching of reading. While it is true that the Spanish language makes use of all the consonants, the most important letters are the vowels (a, e, i, o, u and sometimes y). No written words are possible in Spanish without making use of the vowels. In the spoken and written Spanish language, the vowels always have the same phonetic value. They occur in every word, and when combined with a consonant, they form a simple, prominent, and frequently repeated syllable.

Teaching the consonants in English has the disadvantage that their names are inconsistent, and are seldom or never used in the body of a word. Learning the names of the letters in the English alphabet, therefore, is not of great
value to the child who is being introduced to the reading program, since so many of them are not used with the sound of their names.

In the syllabic method of reading in Spanish, the learner focuses attention on syllables at first rather than on individual letters, and eventually the details of form and sound are recognized, and their significance as elements of words are perceived (Gray 1969:66).

**Syllables.** Syllables are the basic elements in literacy teaching in Roman script. They are logical "building blocks;" and in Spanish, syllables are the blocks that immediately build words which are easily recognized when combined with other syllables.
II. DESCRIPTION AND APPLICATION OF THE METHOD

The method used by the writer was a syllabic approach. Well-illustrated, commercially-made charts were used:

- **ala**
  - a
  - A

- **lápiz**
  - la
  - La

- **taza**
  - ta
  - Ta

- **papa**
  - pa
  - Pa

- **mama**
  - ma
  - Ma

- **a ma ta la pa**
These charts have a picture on one side, the vowel to be learned in the lesson, and syllables in which consonants are used with the vowel. A word is immediately formed with the particular syllables. On the far right side, the syllables are shown in manuscript in both upper and lower case letters.

Using the above charts as a guideline in developing worksheets, further individual lessons were developed, but some changes were made: more than five key pictures were usually included in the worksheets, the syllables in upper and lower case were omitted, as well as the key syllables at the bottom; key words were separated into syllables, as well as other sample words using the syllable to be learned. (See p. 38)

For example, on Lesson I, the first vowel to be learned in combination with other consonants, was a (ah). A drawing of a wing (ala) is shown. The vowel a will serve to illustrate the beginning sound of this word. The word is broken into two syllables, a - la, and then regrouped to form ala. Other words beginning with the same vowel are given alongside this illustration, such as amo (I love), ama (she, he, it loves), Ana, and so on. The next illustration is a pencil, with the syllable la (lah) next to it, the word lá - piz divided into syllables, and then the complete word, lápiz. Other words using the syllable la at the beginning or somewhere in the word, are also shown.
a
a-la
ala
a-wo
amo
ama
Ana
la
la-piz
lapiz
la-vá
pa-la
sa-la
la
vá
vaca
va-so
la-vá
vaso
lava
pá
pala
sala
ta
ta-za
taza
ta-pa
pá-pa
pata
pa
pa-pá
papa
pa-la
pata
ma
ma-ma
mama
ma-ta
mata
mapa
dama
cá
cas-a
casa
cas-i
casí
ca-ma
cama
va
va-ca
vaca
va-so
la-vá
vaso
lava
Presentation

Worksheets were not distributed to the children until after the lesson was presented on the chalkboard. The reason is a simple one: children should not try to read on their own at the beginning stages of the instructional sequence to avoid forming incorrect habits in visual and auditory discrimination. Once the lesson is reproduced on the board, the teacher should model the sounds first, and the children repeat.

A typical, 30-minute lesson plan is as follows:

I. LESSON IS REPRODUCED ON THE CHALKBOARD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>a - la</th>
<th>a - mo</th>
<th>a - ma</th>
<th>A - na</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a- la</td>
<td>ala</td>
<td>amo</td>
<td>ama</td>
<td>Ana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la</td>
<td>la - va</td>
<td>pa - la</td>
<td>sa - la</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la - piz</td>
<td>lava</td>
<td>pala</td>
<td>sala</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la piz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta</td>
<td>ta - pa</td>
<td>pa - ta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taza</td>
<td>tapa</td>
<td>pata</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa</td>
<td>pa - la</td>
<td>pa - ta</td>
<td>ta - pa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa - pa</td>
<td>pala</td>
<td>pata</td>
<td>tapa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papa'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma</td>
<td>ma - ta</td>
<td>ma - pa</td>
<td>da - ma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma - ma</td>
<td>mata</td>
<td>mapa</td>
<td>dama</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mama'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**II. ANALYSIS OF THE KEY WORDS INTO SYLLABLES AND SYNTHESIS OF THE SYLLABLES INTO NEW WORDS.**

Working from the board, the teacher models the vowel a. The students repeat the vowel. The teacher reads the syllables out: a - la. The students read the syllables after him. The teacher reads the complete word in a natural, normal manner: ala. The students repeat, ala.

After this key word has been introduced, the teacher begins reading the exercise words which are set apart from the key word: a - mo. The students repeat, a - mo. The teacher reads the complete word, amo, and the students repeat.

As the teacher moves along in the lesson, words are given their English definitions. It will not be necessary to translate every word, however, as children in bilingual programs will have encountered many of these same words in previous audio lingual instruction.

**III. REVIEW OF LEARNED WORDS.**

After the entire lesson has been modeled by the teacher, and the children have accurately read each word modeled,
he has the group as a whole repeat each of the synthesized words after him at a vigorous, rapid pace.

IV. FOLLOW UP OF THE LESSON.

Individual sheets are handed to each student. The children look at the illustration on their worksheets and read the key word. The picture reinforces the key word. The teacher asks students, at random, to read a few or the words (skipped) from the chalkboard. They may read from the board, or if they prefer, use their own worksheets. Questions may be asked by the teacher about definitions of words; if a child has difficulty reading a word, another classmate is called upon to "help" him decode the word.

Lesson II. Lesson II is a quick review of Lesson I, the introduction of meaningful phrases. Once the children begin to respond to the sound-symbol-meaning association, which is a fundamental factor in literacy, they will use this skill in decoding other words that use the syllables learned, and are, consequently, able to read phrases even entire sentence structures readily.

On Lesson II, the children will already be able to read simple, easy sentences, and meaningful word groups:

MAMA ME AMA. (MOTHER LOVES ME.)
MAMA AMA A PAPA. (MOTHER LOVES DAD.)
MAMA LAVA LA TAZA. (MOTHER WASHES THE CUP.)
ANA MATA LA PATA. (ANA KILLS THE DUCK.)
LALA SACA LA VACA. (LALA TAKES OUT THE COW.)
Lesson III. The next lessons combine the rest of the consonants with the first vowel in the same manner as the first lesson (sa, ja, na, da, ga, ra) and new words are formed using these key syllables. The process is identical with the second vowel, e (eh) and the others.

Phrases joined by the word y (and) are introduced in lesson VI, as well as plural forms (See Appendix A).

As instruction progresses, the vocabulary increases, and more complex phrases and sentences are introduced. At the conclusion of lesson X, for instance, children will already be reading such sentences as:

EL ELEFANTE SE BAÑA.  (THE ELEPHANT TAKES A BATH.)
EL SERRUCHO ES DE PAPA.  (THE SAW BELONGS TO DAD.)
LA TAZA ESTÁ EN LA MESA.  (THE CUP IS ON THE TABLE.)

It is crucial that sounds are enunciated accurately. Children will have to produce sounds in Spanish that do not exist as such in their English phonology. The teacher should take careful note that these sounds are produced as precisely as possible by the student. If sounds such as ña (as in lassagna) are enunciated na, the model immediately reinforces the correct sound (i.e., a-ra-ña) clearly, and the entire group vocalizes it. In this manner, everyone benefits from each other's mistakes.

Diphthongs (ei, ie, ua, au, ia, ai, and so forth) are introduced after all the vowels have been taught with the consonants because letter progression should proceed from easy to more difficult patterns. The introduction of
clusters (pla, cla, fle, cli, fru, bra, gru, etc.) and sentences using these should be delayed until the end of the instructional sequence after their constituent elements have been learned; for instance, pla after pupils can recognize pa and la easily (Neijs 1961:68-69). Because of time limitations, the writer was unable to introduce diphtongs or clusters.

The Spanish primer, LIBRO PRIMERO DE LECTURA, by Alfredo M. Aguayo, was used in the classroom the last two weeks of school. The author uses the analytic-synthetic method, and presents the material from known to unknown elements. In no lesson does the author offer more than one new sound or literal element.

Although diphtongs had not been formally taught, the children in the experimental class were able to read from the primer in w words containing diphtongs (i.e., nuevo, nueve, viene, veo, and suave).

Determiners were not taught in isolation, but in context, and when students read "La taza esta en la mesa," (The cup is on the table) it was not necessary to indicate that La meant the, or that en meant on. Students were readily able to correlate these words with their English referents when they read them in the context of the entire sentence structure.

One of the advantages of this method is the amount of incidental learning that occurs. The frequent usage of function words (se seca, la casa, cerca del cafetal,
al cafetal, con leche, una bicicleta, un gato) in sentence structures reinforces cognition, and children are quick to grasp their value and meaning in their contextual setting.

III. EVALUATIVE PROCEDURES OF THIS STUDY

Two sets of objective data were collected: (1) from the pre-tests and post-tests administered by the writer, and (2) from the questionnaire completed by the home-room teacher (See Appendix B). Subjective evaluation by the writer was also made of the children's ability in reading the primer.

The Tests. Both experimental and control groups were pre-tested four weeks after instruction had been initiated because tests were not available at the beginning of the instructional sequence. A post-test was administered the last week of school to both groups. The method of evaluation was test-retest, in which the Prueba de Lectura, Nivel 1 Primario-Forma CEs (Reading Test I primary - Form CEs) of the Interamerican Series was used. The first section of this Spanish test measures vocabulary and the second half measures comprehension. Both sections were timed. The total possible score on the entire test was 80 points (See Appendix B).

There were 30 half-hour modules of actual literacy instruction.
Procedures in Administering the Test. The writer administered the pre- and post-tests in each of the two groups. Instructions were given in both English and Spanish. No help was offered any of the students during testing.

Procedures Used in Analyzing the Data. A vocabulary and a comprehension raw score was obtained for each of the subjects in both the experimental and control groups. Pre- and post-test scores means, ranges, and standard deviations were computed for comparative analysis between the two groups, using Bartz' formulas (Bartz 1958). Per cent of mean increase between the pre- and post-test for both groups were computed, and gains were evaluated. Percentiles on the experimental group's post-test scores were calculated, and compared with the percentile norms obtained by the sample population used in devising the Inter-American Series tests.

A table indicating grade level, ethnic composition, and reading ability in English, as subjectively categorized by each of the home-room teachers, was devised so that analysis in terms of these factors would provide insight into the gains made by each of the three ethnic groups participating in the study.

A questionnaire (See Appendix B) was completed by the home-room teacher of the experimental group. Since she was a participant-observer throughout the study, her opinion concerning observable attitudinal changes as a result of instruction in Spanish literacy, is to be considered of practical value in the interpretation of the results.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

An experiment in the teaching of reading in Spanish to second and third graders was conducted by the writer at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in the Sacramento City Unified School District. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the results of the experiment and to assess the potential of this particular approach.

The evaluation instrument used was the Spanish Prueba de Lectura, Nivel 1 Primario - Forma CEs (Reading Test I primary - Form CEs) of the Interamerican Series. Pre- and post-tests were administered which were expected to provide statistical evidence that literacy in Spanish had taken place among the experimental group. An informal evaluation was made possible by means of a questionnaire completed by the home-room teacher.

As stated in Chapter I, the following questions were proposed to be answered by the analysis of this study:

1. Will this particular syllabic approach, a derivation of Dr. Laubach's method which was devised mostly for adults, work with these children?

2. Will this approach be successful with bilingual children, as well as with monolingual English-speaking children who were receiving audio lingual instruction
in Spanish, but were not entirely fluent?

3. Is this method effective enough with children that it might be successfully utilized in bilingual programs?

4. What advantages or disadvantages does this method have compared to other popular approaches?

5. What practical aspects of this method are more effective with bilingual children?

6. What difficulties will bilingual children and monolingual English speakers encounter in learning to read Spanish through this approach?

The subjects of this study were second and third grade children from three different classrooms at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in the Sacramento City Unified School District. The control group were selected from separate second and third grade classrooms, while the experimental group was a single class composed of second and third graders, taught by the writer.

Table I shows the composition of the control group in terms of ethnic grouping, grade level, and the total raw scores, out of 80 possible points, on the Spanish post-test. The reading levels of F - Fast, A - Average, and S - Slow, for the reading of English was supplied by individual home-room teachers.

Table II is the equivalent data for the experimental group. Four children (marked by asterisks) were disregarded.
in most statistical analyses due to absenteeism during administration of the pre-test.

**TABLE I**

**COMPOSITION OF CONTROL GROUP**

**BY ETHNIC GROUPING, GRADE LEVEL, READING LEVEL**

**IN ENGLISH, AND TOTAL RAW SCORES ON L-1-CEs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>English Reading Level</th>
<th>Total Raw Scores on Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

W= White Anglo
Br= Brown
Bl= Black
A= Average
S= Slow
F= Fast
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>English Reading Level</th>
<th>Total Raw Scores on Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>59*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>58*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>53*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>50*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>Bl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Student did not take pre-test. Disregarded in other statistical analyses.

W = White Anglo  A = Average
Br = Brown       S = Slow
Bl = Black       F = Fast
I. TEST RESULTS

The pre- and post-test scores of the two groups were compared to determine whether there was significant growth in Spanish literacy and also to determine whether the experimental group showed more growth than the control group.

It is evident from the data on Table III which shows a 10.0 per cent increase in mean in the control group, and a 38.2 per cent increase in mean among the experimental subjects, that growth had occurred. However, the figures disclose a much greater growth in the experimental group, as the writer had expected.

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF PRE- AND POST-TESTS MEANS
ON THE "PRUEBA DE LECTURA" (L-1-C5.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X Pre-Test</th>
<th>X Post-Test</th>
<th>Xd</th>
<th>% Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that high scores could be attained by the control group by random marking, should not be overlooked. It is quite possible for non-reading children to achieve scores as high or even higher than some readers by marking at random than they could achieve on the same test a year later after having learned basic reading skills (Fuller 1970:79).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</th>
<th>CONTROL GROUP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RANGE</td>
<td>MEAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOCABULARY</td>
<td>11-30</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPREHENSION</td>
<td>4-25</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL RAW SCORES</td>
<td>18-50</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
<td>CONTROL GROUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RANGE</td>
<td>MEAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOCABULARY</td>
<td>11-41</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPREHENSION</td>
<td>4-29</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL RAW SCORES</td>
<td>21-66</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The range, mean, and standard deviation of the vocabulary and comprehension sections, as well as of the total raw scores for both groups on the pre- and post-tests are provided on Tables IV and V. It is interesting to note that the total mean score of 43.7 and standard deviation of 11.9 obtained by the experimental group on the post-test, closely approximates the mean score of 42 and standard deviation of 13.7 obtained from a group of 71 subjects upon which reliability coefficients for the same Spanish reading test were computed. (Manuel 1967:21). The significance of this comparison gains momentum when we realize that the normative sampling to whom the test was administered were selected not only from widely distributed school systems around the United States, but also from Mexico, Puerto Rico and other Latin American countries (Manuel 1967:1). No "national" norms representative of the United States, or specific linguistic groups within this country, however, have been developed independently for the Inter-American Series tests.

Undoubtedly, the norms for the population used in the writer's study will not correspond with those upon which the Inter-American Series were developed; however, Table VI was developed to compare the percentiles obtained by the experimental group on the post-test, and the percentiles computed by the authors of the Test Manual (Manuel 1967:23). The percentile norms of the Inter-American Series were based on 1049 scores from 13 different cities.
TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S PERCENTILES ON POST-TEST AND INTER-AMERICAN SERIES TEST NORMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUPIL</th>
<th>RAW SCORE</th>
<th>PERCENTILE (Post-Test)</th>
<th>PERCENTILE NORM *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 22

* Per norms supplied by the Inter-American Series, based on 1049 scores from 13 cities (Manuel 1967:23).
II. TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

No standardized test to ascertain attitudinal changes or behavioral growth as a result of having acquired literacy in Spanish was administered the experimental group. However, since the home-room teacher was in a better position than the writer to observe any behavior modification in her children, her opinions will command more authority than any subjective evaluation devised by the writer.

The following observations summarize the questionnaire completed by the classroom teacher:

1. As a result of literacy skills in Spanish, the participating children experienced improvement in self-identity, as well as a better understanding of others.

2. An awakening of a new skill learned successfully was evident in the general attitude of the participating children.

3. Learning Spanish literacy skills added a new social dimension for the Spanish-speaking children.

4. Observable changes in children from Spanish-speaking homes were reflected in behavior modification as exemplified by these children carrying home the Spanish worksheets studied in class, bringing newspapers, books and records from their home to be shared with other students (See Appendix B).
SUMMARY

The findings of this study seem to indicate that:

1. The teaching of reading in Spanish can be successful using the syllabic, analytic-synthetic approach, with children who already can read English.

2. As evidenced by the data (see Table II) provided by the test scores, this syllabic approach proves to be effective not only with Spanish-speaking students, but also with those who come from monolingual, English-speaking homes.

3. Since the experimental group that participated in the study was part of the bilingual program operating at the Ethel Phillips School, and they had had audio lingual instruction in Spanish, their background had prepared them ideally to receive literacy instruction. The syllabic approach used, then, would seem to work effectively with children who are participants in a developmental bilingual program.

4. The length of actual instruction was quite limited, and in order for children to become fluently literate in Spanish, more time should have been devoted to teaching. However, if significant gains were attained by the experimental children in only 30 half-hour sessions, it seems reasonable to conclude that this method is effective.

This research has shown that the syllabic approach is admirably suited to the teaching of reading in Spanish.
This method is easy to teach and produces quick results because it is based on a logical and systematic plan. It can promote independence in reading, particularly in word recognition, at a more rapid pace than other approaches with which the author is familiar.

5. With the syllabic approach children are able to put syllables together quickly and build meaningful words. For the Spanish-speaking child, building words that he is able to recognize and relate instantly to items in his own cultural milieu, the ability to decode Spanish words and to read entire sentences becomes a truly meaningful experience. It was evident that, as lessons progressed in difficulty, the children became more enthusiastic about the skill which they were mastering.

6. Certain disadvantages exist in the use of any approach in the teaching of reading, and the writer recognizes that this method also has certain pitfalls that may be incurred by the instructor. It is very easy to allow children to become word readers by using the syllabic approach. However, this weakness can be overcome early if children are enlightened as to the main purpose in reading, that of understanding entire sentences and paragraphs, not merely isolated words. Constant drill is necessary to overcome this potential weakness. With bilingual children, because their Spanish vocabulary may vary in fluency, and also with the monolingual English-
speaker who may not be completely fluent in the target language, it is essential that words and phrases whose meanings are not immediately recognized, be given their definition. A final warning must be made concerning the legitimacy of sound reproduction in learning to read Spanish. It is very easy for the monolingual English-speaker, as well as the bilingual child from Spanish-speaking homes to transfer sound values from English into Spanish. There will be a tendency to mispronounce Spanish sounds that do not exist in English phonology or that have a different sound value (rr, ñ, ll, y, z). It is important that the teacher model constantly to reinforce correct pronunciation. However, once these sounds have been correctly installed in any learner, progression in Spanish literacy will be unbounded.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

A review of the literature reveals that success in school of children from Spanish-speaking homes may be directly related to the concept of self-identity.

Research has shown that one reason for the low academic achievement of Mexican American children in school is due to the inferior image that middle class educators hold of the values which these children bring to school. In rejecting the Spanish-speaking child's language, for instance, teachers are repudiating his culture.

The philosophy of the American educational system has been based fundamentally on the premise of inculcation of Anglo-American middle-class ideals and deprecation of cultures and languages which are different from the dominant ones. Consequently, the emphasis placed by the educational system has been in the total eradication of the Spanish language from the school milieu, and the Mexican American culture that accompanies it.

The literature has pointed out specific benefits that may accrue both the Spanish-speaking child as well as his non-Spanish-speaking counterpart as a result of bilingual education. It has been evident throughout the literature
that it is in the best interest of the Spanish-speaking child and in the national interest that he be made strongly and effectively literate in both English and Spanish. The establishment of programs leading to curriculum-wide literacy in Spanish is considered by authorities in bilingualism to be one of the key factors in raising the Spanish-speaking child's level of expectation in his academic achievement.

An examination of the literature will aid the reader in understanding the place and value of the Spanish-speaking child's home language in the initial development of his basic education.

In order to produce truly bilingual individuals—from Spanish-speaking homes as well as non-Spanish-speaking homes—effective techniques in the teaching of reading in Spanish will have to be implemented in existing curricula of present bilingual education programs.

Various approaches to the teaching of reading were described and compared. Their advantages and disadvantages were pointed out.

The research conducted by the writer was concentrated on a syllabic approach to the teaching of reading in Spanish to Spanish-speaking and non-Spanish-speaking second and third grade children at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School in the Sacramento City Unified School District. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the results of the experiment and to assess the potential of this particular
reading technique.

There were 30 half-hour modules of actual literacy instruction in Spanish. Pre- and post-tests were administered by the writer to the experimental and control groups to ascertain significant gains in Spanish literacy. The Prueba de Lectura, Nivel 1 Primario - Forma CEs (Spanish Reading Test I primary - Form CEs), composed of a vocabulary and a comprehension section, and with a total possible score of 80 points, was the standardized instrument used in this study. A questionnaire completed by the homeroom teacher served to ascertain observable behavioral changes in the children as a result of literacy in Spanish. Subjective evaluation by the writer was made of the children's ability in reading a Spanish primer.

Tabulations of all tests for both groups were made and tables were provided indicating ranges, means, and standard deviations of raw scores on the pre- and post-tests. Means of pre- and post-test scores were compared, and gains in both control and experimental groups were evaluated. Percentiles on the post-test scores of the experimental group were determined, and compared with the percentile norms obtained by the sample population used in the Inter-American Series tests.

The following questions related to the effectiveness of the syllabic approach used in this study were posed by the author at the outset of this investigation:
1. Will this particular approach, a variation of Dr. Laubach's method, devised mostly for adults, work with children?

2. Will this approach be successful with bilingual children, as well as with monolingual English-speaking children who, though not entirely fluent, were receiving audio-lingual instruction in Spanish?

3. Is this method effective enough with children that it might be successfully utilized in bilingual programs?

4. What advantages or disadvantages does this method have compared to other popular approaches?

5. What practical aspects of this method are more effective with bilingual children?

6. What difficulties will bilingual children and monolingual English speakers encounter in learning to read Spanish through this system?

**Summary of Children's Reactions to the Syllabic Approach.**

Before the syllabic approach was initiated as part of the children's weekly curriculum, it was of vital importance that the writer familiarize himself with the students and that the students accept the writer's role in the classroom as that of a teacher. The author succeeded in establishing rapport with the students by taking full control of the class and discipline during the actual instructional modules.
To further establish rapport between the children and the writer, the latter spent the first two lesson periods in the teaching of music to the children. The children participated in singing familiar songs, while at the same time, new ones were introduced by the writer. Stories in Spanish were read aloud and dramatized by the writer. Riddles and games used in conjunction with the material that was being presented, served to make the experience of learning to read an enjoyable one. As a result of these preliminary and related activities in which the children in the experimental group participated, they began to respond favorably to the writer, and also to the new material to be learned.

As children began to get involved in the actual process of decoding, an atmosphere of fun and enjoyment was created. Children were praised constantly as they grew proficient in their ability to learn to decode words in Spanish. Such comments by the teacher as, "I knew when I first saw this class that you were a bright group," and "Isn't this really simple? All you have to do is learn to read the syllables and you can put words together easily!" as well as other informal remarks to indicate approval and to foster a learning environment served to encourage the children.

One of the rewards experienced by the writer was being able to watch the children in the experimental group become increasingly excited as they became more literate.
in Spanish. To the extent that their literacy skills developed, their faces reflected delight and enthusiasm as they were able to make sense out of the graphic symbols. Their eagerness shown by waving their hands in excitement and crying, "Yo se, yo se!" (I know, I know), in response to the writer's question of "Who wants to read now?" was a manifestation of success experienced in learning a new skill. To the writer, this alone was worth the time and effort devoted to the study.

II. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results of this study, and the review of the literature, the following conclusions were reached regarding the applicability of the syllabic method used in this experiment:

1. The research seems to indicate that the teaching of reading in Spanish is successful using the syllabic, analytic-synthetic method, with children who already can read English.

2. As evidenced by the data provided by the test scores, this syllabic approach proves to be effective not only with Spanish-speaking students, but also with those who come from monolingual, English-speaking homes.

3. The syllabic approach used in this study would seem to work effectively with children who are participants in a bilingual program, and who are receiving audio-lingual instruction in Spanish.
4. This research has shown that the syllabic approach is admirably suited to the teaching of reading in Spanish. This method is easy to teach and produces quick results because it is based on a logical and systematic plan. It can promote independence in reading, particularly in word recognition, at a more rapid pace than other approaches with which the author is familiar.

5. With the syllabic approach children are able to put syllables together and build meaningful words immediately. For the Spanish-speaking child, building words that he is able to recognize in sentences and relate instantly to items in his own culture, the ability to decode Spanish words and to read entire sentences on his own becomes a truly meaningful experience. This was evident in this experiment, for as lessons progressed and children became increasingly literate, they also became more enthusiastic about the skill which they were mastering.

6. One potential weakness in using this method is that children may easily be allowed to become word readers. However, this weakness can be overcome early if children are enlightened as to the main purpose in reading—that of understanding entire sentences and paragraphs, not merely isolated words. Constant drill is necessary to overcome this potential weakness.

Based on observations by the home-room teacher of the experimental group, the following conclusions related to
attitudinal changes were reached as a result of this study:

1. As a result of literacy skills in Spanish, the children in the experimental group experienced improvement in self-identity, as well as a better understanding of each other's cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

2. An awakening of a new skill learned successfully was evident in the general attitude of the experimental children.

3. Learning Spanish literacy skills added a new social and academic dimension for the Spanish-speaking children.

4. Observable changes in children from Spanish-speaking homes were reflected in behavior modification as exemplified by these children carrying home the Spanish worksheets studied in class, bringing newspapers, books, and records from their home to be shared with other students.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made by the writer based on the findings and conclusions of this study:

1. Bilingual programs observed by the writer revealed that emphasis on readiness for Spanish literacy or actual instruction in the reading of Spanish was lacking. To enhance the Spanish-speaking student's command of his native language, in a truly bilingual program the Mexican American child should be given instruction in the reading and writing of Spanish early in his educational training.
2. In view of the advantages in dual education, and in particular, literacy instruction in Spanish would have in promoting positive attitudes among the non-Spanish-speaking groups toward the language and culture of their Spanish-speaking counterparts, the writer recommends that the former be trained as well toward the attainment of this skill.

3. The writer recommends that the Spanish literacy class initiated by him at the Ethel Phillips Elementary School be continued, and furthermore, that sequence in Spanish literacy be maintained among the experimental group taught for the purposes of this research.

4. Provisions for establishing more effective literacy instruction in Spanish among all the classes participating in the Early Childhood Bilingual Education Program in the experimental school should be made.

5. As was indicated, time was a limiting factor in this research, and a longitudinal study in which the syllabic approach would be used, initiated at the first grade level, could be the basis for another in-depth research.

6. To determine the effectiveness of the syllabic method over other reading approaches, it is recommended that additional experiments be conducted in which perhaps a global approach might be used in separate experimental and control groups, and a comparative analysis of this
approach and the syllabic method, be delineated.

7. Obviously one of the key elements in bilingual education is the teacher who can teach Spanish-speaking and non-Spanish-speaking students the reading and writing skills in Spanish. Teachers who attempt to instruct in this area must have a fluent and literate command of Spanish. Training in Spanish literacy of prospective bilingual teachers, at a higher education level, is urged by the writer. Retraining of instructional staff in existing bilingual programs is advocated if truly bilingual, bicultural individuals are to be produced.

8. The writer sees the immediate need for more trained teachers and other instructional personnel who are able to teach Spanish subject matter at the elementary level. It is, therefore, recommended that institutions of higher learning implement legitimate bilingual education programs in their teacher-training curriculums. Classes in methods and techniques in the teaching of second languages are a real necessity as more and more bilingual education programs are emerging throughout the nation.

In conclusion, by training more teachers to assume the responsibility of producing bilingual, bicultural and biliterate citizens, many school districts will become instrumental in sensitizing all individuals--Spanish-speakers as well as English-speakers--to culturally and linguistically different people. Hopefully, harmony and understanding will be the by-products of this attempt.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

AGUAYO, Alfredo M.
1961 Libro Primero de Lectura. Guatemala: Cultural Centro Americana, S.A.

ANDERSSON, Theodore and Mildred Boyer

BALLESTEROS, David

BARTZ, Albert E.

BELL, Paul W.

CARTER, Thomas P.

FINOCCHIARO, Mary

1966 Bilingual Readiness in Earliest School Years- A Curriculum Demonstration Project. In Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) ED 012 903.

FISHMAN, Joshua A.
FULLER, Wanda LaVerne

GAARDER, Bruce

GRAY, William S.
1969  The Teaching of Reading and Writing--An International Survey. Monographs on Fundamental Education X. UNESCO.

HILLERICH, Robert L., and Florence H. Thorn
1969  ERMAS: Experiment in Reading for Mexican American Students. In Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) ED 035 526.

JENSEN, J. Vernon

KAUFMAN, Maurice

KNOWLTON, Clark S.
1965  Bilingualism, A Problem or Asset. Address delivered to the meeting of staff and faculty of Anthony School District, Anthony, New Mexico. In Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) ED 010 744.

LALO, Robert
LAUBACH, Frank C.

LEFEVRE, Carl A.

MANUEL, Herschel T.

MODIANO, Nancy

NEIJS, Karel
1961 Literacy Primers - Construction, Evaluation and Use. UNESCO.

NEW MEXICO State Department of Education

PEÑA, Albar A.
1967 Teaching Content in Spanish in the Elementary Schools. In Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) ED 018 301.

PLAKOS, John
REYES, Daniel C.
1971 Former Coordinator of Title VII, ESEA Bilingual Education for the California State Department of Education.

RODRIGUEZ, Armando

ROEMING, Robert F.

SACRAMENTO CITY Unified School District
1971 Early Childhood Bilingual Education Program An ESEA Title VII Second Continuation Application.

THONIS, Eleanor
1971 Director, Bilingual Education Program, Sacramento, California.

VALENCEIA, Atilano A.
APPENDIX A

LESSONS
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Word 1</th>
<th>Word 2</th>
<th>Word 3</th>
<th>Word 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>a-la</td>
<td>a-mo</td>
<td>a-ma</td>
<td>A-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>a-la</td>
<td>a-mo</td>
<td>a-ma</td>
<td>A-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la</td>
<td>lá-piz</td>
<td>la-v a</td>
<td>pa-la</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la</td>
<td>lá-piz</td>
<td>lava</td>
<td>pala</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta</td>
<td>ta-z a</td>
<td>ta-p a</td>
<td>pa-t a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta</td>
<td>ta-z a</td>
<td>tapa</td>
<td>pata</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa</td>
<td>pa-p a</td>
<td>pa-la</td>
<td>ta-p a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa</td>
<td>pa-p a</td>
<td>pala</td>
<td>tapa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma</td>
<td>ma-m a</td>
<td>ma-t a</td>
<td>ma-p a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma</td>
<td>ma-m a</td>
<td>mata</td>
<td>mapa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca</td>
<td>ca-s a</td>
<td>ca-s i</td>
<td>ca-m a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca</td>
<td>ca-s a</td>
<td>casi</td>
<td>cama</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va</td>
<td>va-ca</td>
<td>va-so</td>
<td>la-v a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>va</td>
<td>va-ca</td>
<td>vaso</td>
<td>lava</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mamá me ama.
Mamá ama a papá.
Mamá lava la taza.

Ana mata la pata.
Papá va a la sala.

Lala saca la vaca.
La dama tapa la cama.
sa
sa-po  sa-la  ma-sa
sapo  sala  masa

ja
ja-bón  ja-món  ja-rro
jabón  jamón  jarro

na
na-ran-ja  na-da  A-na
naranja  nada  Ana

da
da-do  dá-til  se-da
dado  dátil  seda

ga
gal-lo  ga-lli-na  ga-to
gallo  gallina  gato

ra
ra-ta  ra-ma  ra-dio
rata  rama  radio
El sapo salta en la rama.
Mamá mata el gallo.
Sara lava la naranja.

La rata corre en la cama.
Ana saca la caja.
Papá asa la gallina.
El gato mata la rata.
Mamá lava con jabón.
Rosa lava la cara de Ana.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>fa</strong></th>
<th><strong>fa-</strong></th>
<th><strong>fa-mi-lia</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>faro</strong></td>
<td><strong>fam</strong></td>
<td><strong>ilia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lla</strong></td>
<td><strong>lla-</strong></td>
<td><strong>lla-ma</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>llave</strong></td>
<td><strong>lma</strong></td>
<td><strong>llama</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ha</strong></td>
<td><strong>ha-cha</strong></td>
<td><strong>ha-ma-ca</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>hacha</strong></td>
<td><strong>ha-c</strong></td>
<td><strong>hamaca</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>za</strong></td>
<td><strong>za-pa-to</strong></td>
<td><strong>ra-</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zapato</strong></td>
<td><strong>ra-z</strong></td>
<td><strong>raza</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cha</strong></td>
<td><strong>cha-rro</strong></td>
<td><strong>mu-cha-cho</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>charro</strong></td>
<td><strong>muchacho</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ña</strong></td>
<td><strong>a-ra-ña</strong></td>
<td><strong>ca-ña</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>araña</strong></td>
<td><strong>caña</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ba</strong></td>
<td><strong>ba-nano</strong></td>
<td><strong>ca-ba-llo</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>banano</strong></td>
<td><strong>caballo</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Yo-lan-da
Yolanda
Ya-te
Yate
papá y mamá
La casa y la vaca
la taza
las tazas
la rosa
las rosas
La dama va a la casa.
La dama lava la taza.
La dama llama a Ana.
Papá da la pala a Paca para matar la rata.
Ya Ada y Paca van para la sala.
Mamá halla la llave.
Mamá saca la taza chica.
Mamá llama la vaca y da caña a la vaca.
e
enano

es
esca-lera
estufa

le
león
leña
letra

pe
pelota
pera
pelo

se
serrucho
seda
señor

de
dedal
dedo
derecho

me
mesa

mecánico
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ve</th>
<th>ve-la</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ventaña</td>
<td>vela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>te</td>
<td>te-la</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tela</td>
<td>teléfono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>ne-gro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nene</td>
<td>negro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re</td>
<td>re-don-do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reloj</td>
<td>redondo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ce</td>
<td>ce-pi-llo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cebolla</td>
<td>cepillo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ye</td>
<td>yer-ba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ye-gua</td>
<td>yerba</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
El elefante se baña.
El elefante baja la pata.
Elena da paja al elefante.
La pelota es de Pepe.
Pepe da la pelota a Elena.
Elena, dale la pelota a Pepe.
El serrucho es de papá.
Papá serrucha las ramas.
Las ramas se secan.
Las ramas secas dan leña.
La taza está en la mesa.
Mamá se pone el dedal en el dedo.
lle
lle-na
lle-va
lleña
lleva
g
ge
ges-to
gen-te
gesto
gente
be
be-so
Be-ni-to
be-be'
beso
Benito
bebe'
que
que-so
que-ma
queso
quema
he
he-la-do
her-ma-no
helado
hermano
fe
ca-fé
fe-liz
fe-o
café'
feliz
feo
El queso se hace de la leche.

Elena llena el jarro de leche.

Ella hace el queso.

¿Qué hace la hermana de Elena?

Ella hace el queso de la leche.

Esta es la casa de César.

La casa queda cerca del cafetal.

Dame café con leche.

César carga el café en la carreta.
i
i-gle-sia
iglesia
in-vier-no
invierno
li
li-bro
libro
lin-do
lindo
li-ma
lima
hi
hi-lo
hilo
hi-jo
hijo
vi
vi-no
vino
vi-vo
vivo
mi
mi-li-tar
militar
mi-sa
misa
si
si-lla
silla
sie-te
siete
ti
ti-gre  ti-je-ras  tie-ne
tigre  tijeras  tiene
di
di-ne-ro  di-fe-ren-te
dinero  diferente
pi
pi-ña  pi-de
piña  pide
ni
ni-do  ni-ño
nido  niño
bi
bi-go-te  bi-ci-cle-ta
bigote  bicicleta
ji
ji-ne-te  ji-to-ma-te
jinete  jitomate
Este es mi hilo.
Esta es mi iglesia.
Mi hija va a la iglesia.
Este es mi libro.
Isabel pide piña.
Isabel pide leche.
Isabel pide las tijeras
Isabel pide dinero.
Felipe es el hijo del jefe.
Felipe vive en la calle de Lima.
Esta es mi silla.
Tito tiene una bicicleta grande.
ri
rí-o   ri-sa   Ri-car-do
rio    risa   Ricardo

ci
ci-ne   cin-ta   cír-cu-lo
cine    cinta   círculo

fi
fi-la   fí-ja-te   fin
fila    fíjate   fin

chi
chi-le   chi-ca   chis-me
chile    chica   chisme

qui
qui-ja-da   quie-ro
quijada   quiero

lli
gal-li-na   po-lli-to
gallina   pollito

ki
kios-co   ki-lo
kiosco    kilo
gi
gi-rá-sol  gi-gan-te
girasol  gigante

gui
gui-tár-ra  á-gui-la
guitarra  águila

gue
gue-rre-ro  gue-rra
guerrero  guerra

ñi
ni-ni-to  pe-que-ni-to
niñito  pequeño

Mira esa fila de niñas.

La niña pide la cinta verde.
En el kiosco venden galletas.

La niñita se llama Ñica.

Miguel lleva la guitarra.
o
o-jo  o-so
ojo   oso

co
corre com-prar co-sa
corre comprar cosa

do
do-ce-na de-lo-ri-so
docena doloroso

ho
ho-ja hombre
hoja   hombre

no
no-via nombre noche
novia nombre noche

po
pol-li-to poco
pollito poco

bo
bo-ta bon-dad
bota   bondad
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mo</td>
<td>montaña</td>
<td>mo-nu-men-to monumento</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>som-bre-ro</td>
<td>so-pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lo</td>
<td>lo-ro</td>
<td>lo-bo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ro</td>
<td>ro-sa</td>
<td>Ro-ber-to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>to-ro</td>
<td>to-ma-te</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jo</td>
<td>jo-y a</td>
<td>Jo-se'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>go-ta</td>
<td>gol-pe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>golpe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
vo  
vol-cán  vo-tar
volcán  votar

llo  
 llo-rar  llo-vien-do
 llorar  lloviendo

cho  
cho-que  cho-co-la-te
choque  chocolate

fo  
fo-ga-ta  fo-co  fo-to
fogata  foco  foto

zo  
zo-rra  zo-pi-lo-te
zorra  zopilote

yo  
yo-yo  yo-do
yoyo  yodo

Está lloviendo.
¡Mamá, me gusta tu comida!
Lorenzo hizo el pozo.
u
u-vas u-ña
uvas uña
mu
muñeca
muñeca mucho
bu
bu-rro
burro bue-no
bueno
cu
cua-tro
cuatro cu-chi-llo
cuchillo
du
du-raz-no
durazno du-ro
duro
lu
lu-na luz lum-bre
luna luz lumbre
llu
llu-via
lluvia
hu
hu-mo hue-so
humo hueso
APPENDIX B

MEASUREMENT TOOLS
APPENDIX B

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. As a result of the Spanish reading lessons, did you notice attitudinal changes in the children? YES NO

2. If there were attitudinal changes as a result of literacy in Spanish, were they related to the Spanish language and the people who speak it, content matter in other areas, or attitudinal changes in teacher-pupil relationships? YES NO

Explain:

3. In your opinion, would you say that the method used by Mr. Mans in teaching reading in Spanish was:

difficult_____ complicated____
very easy____ quick in producing results____
slow in producing results____

4. Specifically for the non-Spanish-speaking child, would you say that such a method is quick and effective for them, or too complicated for them to attain success?

5. Did you, as a teacher of non-Spanish-speaking background, learn to read any Spanish as a result of listening in on the lessons? YES NO

6. Do you believe that for the Spanish-speaking child to learn to read his own native language would be beneficial or would in some way interfere with his learning of English?
7. Did you notice any observable improvement(s) in Spanish-speaking children as a result of learning to read elementary Spanish (general school attitudes, improvement in subject matter content, peer relationships, etc.)?...........

8. If you did (question 7) observe improvements, can you list any concrete changes in behavior of children from Spanish-speaking homes?

9. Again related to question 7, did you observe any improvement in self-concept in both Spanish-speaking and Black children as a result of having learned to decode a language other than English?......................

10. Do you believe that children who began to read Spanish in your class should continue the training in Spanish literacy?...................

11. REMARKS

_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________

102
The other measurement tool employed was Prueba de Lectura, Nivel 1--Primario--Forma CE (Copyright 1966 by Herschel T. Manuel). The test is available from Guidance Testing Associates, 6516 Shirley Avenue, Austin, Texas 78752.