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PERCEPTIONS OF ARAB/CHALDEAN STUDENTS REGARDING THEIR EXPERIENCES IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

by

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School of Wayne State University

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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MAJOR: CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

Approved by:

Advisor

Date

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my father,

Mr. Mohammad Jalal Enayah
Acknowledgments

I wish to express my heartfelt thanks and sincere appreciation to Dr. Donald Marcotte, my major advisor, whose belief in me and whose direction guided me through this process. Dr. A. Rouchdy, my cognate advisor, whose constructive criticism and recommendations were very valuable in completion of this research.

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Table of Contents

Dedication ................................................................. ii
Acknowledgments ......................................................... iii
List of Tables ............................................................. viii
List of Figures ............................................................. x
Chapter 1 – Introduction ............................................... 1
  Background ............................................................... 1
  Statement of the Problem ............................................. 6
  The Purpose of the Study ............................................. 7
  Research Questions .................................................. 7
  Hypotheses ............................................................... 8
  Significance of the Study ............................................ 8
  Definition of Terms .................................................. 9
  Assumptions ............................................................ 10
  Limitations .............................................................. 10
Chapter II – Review of Related Literature ...................... 12
  Introduction ............................................................ 12
  Immigration ............................................................ 12
  The Arabs ............................................................... 15
  Chaldeans ............................................................... 20
  Culture ................................................................. 26
  Language ............................................................... 29
  Acculturation and Assimilation ................................. 30
  Prejudice and Discrimination ................................. 33

Reproduced with permission of the copyright owner. Further reproduction prohibited without permission.
<p>| Cultural Pluralism | ........................................................... 35 |
| Biculturalism and Multiculturalism | ........................................................... 36 |
| Bilingualism | ........................................................... 39 |
| History of Bilingual Education | ........................................................... 41 |
| Legislation | ........................................................... 43 |
| Bilingual Education | ........................................................... 45 |
| Controversy of Bilingual Education | ........................................................... 48 |
| Bilingual Classroom | ........................................................... 50 |
| Assessment | ........................................................... 51 |
| Bilingual Education Programs | ........................................................... 53 |
| Bilingual Instruction | ........................................................... 54 |
| Language Shift | ........................................................... 56 |
| Language Switching | ........................................................... 58 |
| Bilingual Teachers | ........................................................... 59 |
| Schools | ........................................................... 61 |
| Family | ........................................................... 63 |
| Community Involvement | ........................................................... 65 |
| Attitudes | ........................................................... 66 |
| Student's Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education | ........................................................... 68 |
| Chapter III – Methodology | ........................................................... 70 |
| Research Design | ........................................................... 70 |
| Variables in the Study | ........................................................... 71 |
| Research Questions | ........................................................... 71 |
| Hypotheses | ........................................................... 72 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Factor Analysis — Perceptions of Bilingual Education</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics — Age of Student</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Gender of Students</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Ethnicity of Students</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics — Years Lived in the United States</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Received Bilingual Education During Middle School</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Number of Years in Bilingual Education During Middle School</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Language Spoken in Home</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Language Spoken with Friends</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Types of Individual who Assisted Students</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Perceptions of General Relations between Immigrant and Other Students</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Problems with Other Students Because Student Was an Immigrant</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Frequency Distributions — Problems with Teachers or Other Students Because of Language or Nationality</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>t-Tests for One Sample — Perceptions of Bilingual Education Program</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Multivariate Analysis of Variance — Perceptions of Bilingual Education by Self-reported Academic Success</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical Analysis

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

The multilingual nature of American society reflects the rich multicultural heritage of its people. Such language diversity is an asset to the nation, especially in its interaction with other nations in the areas of commerce, defense, education, science, and technology. Advantages of being bilingual or multilingual are often overlooked because of the ethnocentrism practiced in the United States (Golinick & Chinn, 1990). While bilingualism is usually recognized as a sign of an educated and cosmopolitan elite, policies in the United States often seek to eliminate bilingualism among those who have the best possibility of becoming fluent bilinguals (i.e., children who enjoy the privilege of a home language other than English) (Padilla & Fairchild, 1990).

Individuals who speak two languages fluently are respected and rewarded with social and economic benefits in a multilingual society. Laws against discrimination based on language and national origin are part of this society. Conversely, this same society provides minimal bilingual instruction to culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students, with a lack of sufficient resources committed to providing foreign language instruction to build a competent, multilingual work force (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega, & Yawkey, 1997).

The most salient feature of bilingualism is that it is a multifaceted phenomenon. Whether it is considered on a societal or an individual level, bilingualism has a myriad of definitions, descriptions, and interpretations (Hoffmann, 1991). The debate over bilingual education has focused on the
political implications of the programs (Garcia & Padilla, 1985). The passage in 1968 of the federal Bilingual Education Act (Title VII) brought an exciting, yet controversial, approach to educating students with nonEnglish language backgrounds to the attention of educators throughout the United States (Ovando & Collier, 1985). Despite the language and cultural diversity that exists in the United States, Americans cannot seem to agree on whether bilingualism is a valued asset, an unnecessary skill, or un-American (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega, & Yawkey, 1997).

Davis & Ostrom argued that through the history of social psychology, attitude has played a central role in the explanation of social behavior. Attitude is usually defined as a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event. Since attitude is considered a hypothetical construct that is unobservable, it must be inferred from measurable responses that reflect positive or negative evaluations of the attitude's object (Encyclopedia of Psychology, 1994).

Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor. As described by Eagly and Chalkone (1993), attitudes are people’s evaluations of objects. The stronger the attitude, the less likely it is to change over time (Erber, et al. 1993).

In the life history of a language, attitude may be an important factor. In language growth or decay, restoration or destruction, attitude may be central to its development. The status and importance of language in society and within individuals is derived in a major way from adopted to learned attitude (Baker, 1988). Feelings about language (i.e., thinking of a language as more pleasant or...
harsher sounding than another language) and reactions to the use of a particular language variety or dialect in different situations comprise what are generally called language attitudes (Ramirez, 1985).

Student attitudes, teacher expectations, and previous failures in school can play an important role in academic performance of low-status students. Levine and Hovighurst attested to the importance of examining student attitudes in conjunction with conditions in schools they attend as a means of identifying reasons that students fail.

Self-concept is related in complex ways to other aspects of attitude and behavior in the classroom. For example, a student who has low self-concept as a learner due to previous classroom failures may feel that s/he has little chance to do better in the future. These feelings could result in reduced efforts and lower levels of self-concept and sense of control over their learning outcomes. Efforts to evaluate and enhance the cultural attitudes of the plurastic population of American public schools are relatively recent phenomena (Cooke, 1973).

Attitudinal and motivational factors are important in students' success in bilingual education, especially with children who experience learning difficulties (Baker, 1988). Because of the central role played by language in formal education, language attitudes of teachers and the role they may play as mediating variables have become a concern needing investigation (Ramirez, 1985).

Unfortunately, children in most bilingual situations may be exposed at times to hostility from people who (usually monolingual themselves) are so intolerant that they cannot bear a language other than the majority language
being spoken in their presence, even if the people speaking the other language are engaged in a completely private conversation (Saunders, 1988).

To carry out a role, individuals must feel that they can be successful. Therefore, students must believe that they can be high achievers to try to achieve academically. This evaluation of beliefs in ability can be altered depending on the perceived costs, rewards, and motivations involved (Ballantine, 1997).

Attitudes toward bilingual education are an issue that appears to be influenced by underlying liberal-conservative ideological dimensions. These dimensions are correlated with positions taken on many key social, economic, and political issues currently being debated. Not surprisingly, liberals are more likely to favor bilingual education than conservatives (Cole, 1983). Individuals who believed that bilingual education funding should be increased are those with more liberal attitudes toward bilingual education (Hosch, 1984).

Understanding the relationship between attitudes and student achievement has motivated many scholars and educational researchers to develop articles and research reports about this subject. Shin and Krashen (1996), conducted a study that included 794 teachers from six school districts in central California to determine teacher attitudes toward principles of bilingual education and student participation in bilingual programs. Although teachers appeared to strongly endorse the principles of bilingual education, they indicated minimal support for actual participation by students in bilingual programs. Teachers with supplementary training in English as a second Language and bilingual education were more supportive of bilingual education.
Parents' attitudes towards dual language immersion programs were investigated through a study that was conducted by Saucedo (1997). Results indicated that most parents had favorable attitudes about dual-language immersion. 97% were satisfied with their children's second language learning and most were also satisfied with their academic progress and enhanced cross-cultural attitudes and appreciation.

In his investigation of knowledge and attitudes of school administrators toward bilingual education programs, Metti (1991) found that 48% of administrators opposed establishment of individualized bilingual instruction using bilinguals teachers or tutors in their school buildings. A high percentage reported they lacked sufficient knowledge about bilingual education to elicit an opinion about providing services through individualized instruction. Another finding of this study was that 62% of administrators linked exemplary academic performances of LEP students to their enrollment in bilingual/ESL programs.

Roumaya (1997) investigated teachers' perceptions and effectiveness of instructional strategies to promote academic achievement. She found that teachers' support for [bilingual] programs justified the contention that bilingual education is an appropriate strategy to attain maximum cognitive development for limited English-speaking Arab/Chaldean students.

The perceptions of Michigan School Board Members toward bilingual education was investigated by Economou (1988). He found that board members had general information about student placement and goals, but they were not knowledgeable of laws and regulations of bilingual programs that could affect the allocation of funds of these programs.
The aforementioned studies investigated attitudes and perceptions of teachers, administrators, school board members, and parents toward bilingual education programs. While these studies provided support for bilingual programs, there is a need to study perceptions and attitudes of students regarding their participation in these programs as they are at the core of the issue. The study of the perceptions of Arab/Chaldean students toward bilingual education can add to the body of knowledge about effects of attitudes on bilingual education programs.

Statement of the Problem

Certain factors may affect the perception of Arab/Chaldean students toward bilingual education. A problematic relationship among the factors associated with bilingual education may have a negative effect on educational outcomes for these students.

Linguistic diversity is a reality in the United States. The language diversity that exists in the United States is naturally extended into the schools. Students who speak little or no English cannot understand lessons that are presented in English. These students range from indigenous minorities such as Native Americans to very recent immigrants from the Middle East, Asia, and Africa. The challenge to provide an effective education for these students is being met by providing bilingual education, which can also provide language majority students with opportunities to become functionally proficient in a second language.

The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) of the U. S. Department of Education monitors districts' compliance with Title VI of Civil Rights Act (1964), reviewing...
procedures for identifying limited English proficient (LEP) students and educational programs for national origin minority students. The OCR also investigates complaints of alleged noncompliance brought against school districts. Current OCR policy allows school districts to use any method or program that has proven successful, or school districts may implement any sound educational program that promises to be successful (OCR Memorandum, May 25, 1970, In Hernandez, 1977).

Most stakeholders in education (e.g., specialist, teacher, parent, or student) have opinions on bilingual education programs. These individuals, along with the media, the curriculum, and the bilingual program itself, comprise the educational environment of the students and have their effect on students' perception of bilingual education. Since the learning process of students is dependent on many factors; including feelings, knowledge, and beliefs; students' perceptions can be an important factor affecting their achievement.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of Arab and Chaldean high school students (ACHSS) toward bilingual education. The findings of this study can help educators determine the extent to which students' perceptions of their bilingual education programs affected the success of these students in terms of mastering the school curriculum.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study.
1. To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?

2. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically?

3. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?

4. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?

**Hypotheses**

The following hypothesis will be tested in this study:

$H_{01}$: ACHSS students will perceive that bilingual education has not been an important factor in helping them succeed in school.

$H_{02}$: There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically.

$H_{03}$: There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States.

$H_{04}$: There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program.

**Significance of the Study**

The information derived from this study may provide insights into the kind of factors that affect, positively or negatively, the ACHSS' perceptions toward bilingual education. The study can provide a better understanding of ACHSS' needs and that will lead to a modification of the school environment to improve
the delivery of service to Arab and Chaldean High School Students. By investigating these relationships from ACHSS students’ perspectives, school administrators can begin to redesign bilingual education programs to better serve the needs of the students. There is a need to remove the stigma of being in “special classes” differentiate ACHSS and other immigrant students from the mainstream student population.

Parents, teachers, administrators, and other professionals need to recognize the importance of considering students’ attitudes toward bilingual education as a means of helping immigrant students learn English, while retaining their native language. Negative attitudes about school can lead to at-risk behavior that can eventually cause students to drop-out that can affect their ability to function in society and in the workplace.

**Definition of Terms**

**Attitudes**
Positions of a person showing or meant to show a mental state, emotion or mood. Positive and negative attitudes are shown by people of all ages and from all cultures. Positive attitudes expected to produce favorable behaviors toward the attitude object, while negative attitudes are expected to produce unfavorable behaviors.

**Bilingual Education**
The use of two languages as media of instruction.

**Bilingualism**
The practice of alternately using two languages.

**Bicultural**
Being able to participate fully in two cultural communities.

**Biculturalism**
The ability to participate fully in two cultural communities.

**Diversity**
Unlikeness.
Minority Group

Minority groups are terms often used in discussions about ethnic groups and the relationships to the majority or dominant group in the United States.

Multicultural Education

Is the educational strategy in which students' cultural backgrounds are viewed as positive and essential in developing classroom instruction and school environments.

Multilingual

Function in many languages.

Perception

Perception refers both to the experience of gaining sensory information about the world of people, things, and events, and to the psychological processes by which this is accomplished.

Assumptions

The following assumptions are made for the study:

- Teachers in regular and bilingual education classes make an effort to assist Arab and Chaldean high school students in becoming acculturated to schools and society in the United States.

- Arab and Chaldean High School Students receive support in all subject areas through an extensive bilingual program.

Limitations

The following limitations are acknowledged for this study:

- The study is limited to Arab/Chaldean students enrolled in one high school within Detroit Public Schools. Arab/Chaldean students in other school districts may not share the same socioeconomic statuses or attend schools in urban school districts.

- This study is also limited to high school students. Elementary and middle school students may have had different experiences in socialization and bilingual classes than the high school students included in this study.

- The bilingual education program in this school district may differ from those with a larger population of Arab/Chaldean students or in schools with a more diverse multicultural bilingual education program.

Therefore, generalizations of the findings may not be appropriate beyond this
group. However, this study may result in additional studies on the effects and outcomes resulting from immigrant student participation in bilingual education programs.
Chapter II
Review of Related Literature

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature that supports the need for a study on bilingual education. As the United States becomes more linguistically, culturally and ethnically diverse, educators are committed to assisting in the development of a language-competent society. A language-competent society in which all residents of the United States have a realistic opportunity to develop the highest possible degree of proficiency in English-speaking individuals to learn a second (foreign) language while those who are not native speakers of English should have an opportunity to develop proficiency in their mother tongue. The topics of this review of literature include: a) a historical overview of Arabs and Chaldeans, b) language, c) culture, d) bilingualism, e) bilingual education, f) controversy over bilingual education, and g) attitudes toward bilingual education. The review of literature is a compendium of research literature obtained from expert researchers in the fields of bilingualism and bilingual education presented in books and articles.

Immigration

Until the latter half of the 1800s, immigrants to the United States entered freely and without federal controls. The federal government, in the first century after independence, allowed unrestricted admission of aliens and the automatic qualification of immigrants and their children as citizens. The first restrictive immigration law, passed in 1875, prohibited "obnoxious" immigrants (persons
who were destitute, active in immoral activities, or physically handicapped). The 1875 Immigration Act was followed by additional acts in 1882, 1891, 1903, and 1917 which excluded immigrants on a variety of moral, economic, and physical grounds (U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1991).

Until late in the 19th century, most immigrants to the United States were from England, France, Germany, Ireland, Scotland, Sweden, and other places in Northern Europe. From the 1870s until the 1920s, when Congress severely restricted immigration, many immigrants also came from Italy, Poland, Russia, and other parts of Eastern and Southern Europe. After provisions of 1965 legislation liberalized immigration, the number of immigrants increased rapidly. More than 6 million legal immigrants entered the United States in the 1980s (Hall, 1990). In 1990, Congress once again increased immigration quotas, from about one-half million to approximately 700,000 per year. The Census Bureau estimates that the proportion of U.S. population growth accounted for by immigration will increase from about one-fourth in the 1980s to more than one-third in the year 2005 (Pear, 1990).

Several types of immigrants enter the United States, and these types vary in their socioeconomic conditions and in their course of adaptation in the United States. The major challenge of immigration is the adaptation of immigrants. Since the new waves of immigrants differ from those in the past, different problems of adaptation – whether economic, social, cultural, or political – are expected to occur. Some modifications in research perspectives are required to move immigration studies forward. Additional interdisciplinary approaches would provide new viewpoints, and the latest data, along with new methods of
research, should be used (Edmonston & Passel, 1994).

The United States also experienced two additional sources of new residents other than conventional stream of immigrants. First, several large groups of refugees have arrived in the United States from Cuba, Southeast Asia, and Central America. These refugees are admitted outside the immigration quota and preference system. Second, large-scale illegal immigration to the United States began in the 1960s and had continued to increase during the 1970s and 1980s (Edmonston & Passel, 1994).

Most recent immigrations stem from the former Soviet bloc countries, Kurds in northern Iraq, the former Yugoslavia, Central American countries, and Cambodia. Immigration is often motivated because of wars or military occupations, and economic problems and opportunities. Once families are established in new locations, other family members join them, expanding the immigrant community in the new location (Ballantine, 1997).

As a result, persons from all over the world have joined Native Americans in populating this nation, bringing different cultural experiences with them. The conditions they encountered, the reasons they came, and their expectations about life here differed greatly, causing each ethnic group to view itself as distinct from other ethnic groups. Although all Americans all share a common history, specific experiences in that history have varied greatly from group to group (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

School-age immigrants are a diverse and changing group. The proportion of White immigrant youths of high school age have declined from one in two in 1970 to one in seven in 1990. In the meantime, the proportion of Asians
increased rapidly from 1 in 20 to nearly 1 in 3. Hispanics already represented a significant proportion – more than one third of the high-school-age immigrant population in 1970. That proportion is expected to continue to increase, however, through the 1970s and 1980s, so that by 1990 one out of two high-school-age immigrants was Hispanics (Vernez & Abrahames, 1996).

The Arabs

A paucity of consideration and study in modern times has focused on Arabia and the Arabs when compared to other countries comparable to Arabia in size and of all the people approaching the Arabs in historical interest and importance (Hitti, 1961). The reasons which make the Arabian Arabs, particularly the nomads, the best representatives of the Semitic family biologically, psychologically, socially and linguistically should be sought in geographical isolation and in the monotonous uniformity of desert life. With the decipherment of the cuneiform writing in the middle of the 19th century and comparative study of the Assyro-Babylonian, Hebrew, Aramaic, Arabic, and Ethiopic tongues, it was found that those languages had striking points of similarity and were therefore cognates. In the case of each one of these languages, the verbal stem is triconsonantal; the tense has only two forms, perfect and imperfect, the conjugation of the verb follows the same model (Hitti, 1961).

It was early in the 6th century A.D. that the Arabian peninsula began to emerge from its isolation to play a part in world affairs (Mansfield, 1992). In medieval times, Arabia gave birth to a people who conquered most of the then civilized world, and to a religion, Islam, which still claims the adherence of [about
a billion] of people representing nearly all the races and many different climes. Within a century of their rise, this people became masters of an empire that extended from the shores of the Atlantic ocean to the confines of China. This territory was greater than*that of Rome at its zenith (Hitti, 1961).

Six centuries ago, the Arabic historian, Ibn Khaldun, when speaking of Mohammad's miracle in uniting the Arabs, said, if you have spent all the riches on earth, you would not have achieved unity among the Arabs. But God achieved unity among these people (Stewart, 1962). As people make history more than history makes people, there can be no race or nation whose history is more personalized than that of the Arabs. For nearly 1,400 years from the rise of the prophet Mohammad, the story of the Arab world unfolds like a long mountain range, with soaring peaks of conquest and power representing the great historical figures. In between these peaks, steep troughs and valleys show a sharp decline after each great figure has left the scene (Nutting, 1964).

The Arabs built a culture as well as an empire. Heirs of the ancient civilization that flourished on the banks of the Tigris and the Euphrates, in the land of the Nile and on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean, they absorbed and assimilated the main features of the Greco-Roman culture, and subsequently acted as a medium for transmitting many of those intellectual influences to medieval Europe. These influences ultimately resulted in the awakening of the Western world and in setting it on the road towards its modern renaissance. No people in the Middle Ages contributed to human progress so much as the Arabian and the Arabic-speaking people (Hitti, 1961).

The Universal Jewish Encyclopedia provided information that minorities
were grateful to Muslims for the internal autonomy which they retained under their regime. The Jews had their own chief, the Resh Galutha (exilarch, head of the Diaspora), who was greatly honored by the caliph [the head of the Muslim state]. Since he was their representative at the court, the masses found little occasion to feel the governing hand of the sovereign power directly. Taxes were paid to the head of the Diaspora, litigations were settled by Jewish judges. Their prominence in finance was attested to by the many important positions which they occupied at various times in the governments. The names of numerous Jews who were ministers of finance, tax collectors, or bankers to the court are mentioned in Syria, Iraq, and Egypt (Universal Jewish Encyclopedia, 1989).

No people in the world have demonstrated such enthusiastic admiration for literary expression and are so moved by the spoken or written world as the Arabs. Other languages do not appear to be capable of exercising control over the minds of its users such irresistible influence as Arabic. Arabs assimilated the ancient prose of Persia and the classical heritage of Greece and adapted both to their own peculiar needs and ways of thinking. Their independent work in medicine and philosophy was less conspicuous than their contributions in alchemy, astronomy, mathematics and geography. Arabs and Moslems carried on original thinking and research in law, theology, philology and linguistics (Hitti, 1961).

At the end of the 11th century, the world of Inner Islam was in a state of confusion. At this point, western Christendom began its four centuries of battle with Islam into the eastern Mediterranean. This dissension within the Muslim world gave the first Crusaders initial success. In 1099, the Crusaders seized
Jerusalem and massacred thousands of Muslims and Jews. This conflict that was occurring was neither a clash nor a fusion between two cultures. The Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem was hardly representative of the best of medieval Christendom (Mansfield, 1992). Jerusalem was “a rude military settlement, without the impulse, or at any rate without the time, for the creation of any achievements of civilization” (Arnold & Guillaume, 1931, p. 57). The Abbasid dynasty lasted some 500 years – until the Mongol, Hulago khan, sacked Baghdad in 1258, had the last caliph kicked to death, and according to contemporary chronicles, piled some 800,000 corpses in the streets. But the empire’s decline, like that of Roman Empire, had begun long before this event (Mansfield, 1992).

The Arab world, now, includes a land mass of 4.5 million square miles that extends over North Africa and South-West Asia. Arab is a name given to a nation of 200 million people who live in 22 nation-states and have a common linguistic and cultural heritage, although approximately 10% of the Arabs are not Muslims.

The most serious deficiency in research about Arab society is the lack of attention given to modern, urban, and often Western-educated Arabs (Nydell, 1987). Any writer who embarks on an attempt to describe and interpret the contemporary Arab world to Western readers is confronted by a set of formidable difficulties. At the superficial level, stereotyped perceptions of the Arabs and the Islamic religion are encountered. These two perceptions are closely associated with them in the Western mind (Mansfield, 1992). Every myth about Arabs is treated as if it cannot be contradicted and as if there is nothing more to be said.
(Said, 1975). Researchers, especially anthropologists, tended to focus on village life and nomadic groups, while studying traditional social patterns. Interesting as these studies are, they offer little, directly applicable information for Westerners who observe or interact with Arabs who are well-educated, well-traveled, and often very sophisticated (Nydell, 1987). A more complex problem is that average educated Westerners are unaware that they may be prejudiced towards Arabs. Although the New England or Hampstead liberal would be alarmed to find himself making a derogatory generalization about “Blacks”, “Chinese” or “Jews,” he feels no such compunction in his thoughts about “Arabs” (Mausfield, 1992).

Many studies have sought to investigate the sources of prejudice and stereotypes concerning ethnic and minority groups. Communications mass media; including newspapers, novels, movies, radio, and television; have had a major role in influencing prejudice and negative stereotyping (Al-Qazzaz, 1975).

Arabs began immigrating to the United States as early as the mid-19th century. However, notable numbers began to arrive only in the last decade of the 19th century and in the years preceding the First World War. This early wave of Arab immigration included a high percentage of illiterates, unskilled laborers, and single males. Although political and/or religious reasons were sometimes given as factors behind the migration of the first Arabs to the New World, the primary factor appears to be economic (Abraham & Abraham, 1981). The second wave of Arab immigration to the United States began after World War II. Among the new immigrants were a significant number of Muslims from Lebanon, Palestine, Yemen, and Iraq. This wave included political refugees, displaced Palestinians, and a substantial number of students and professionals. In Michigan, the number
of Arab-Americans in the southeastern part of the state has been estimated to be between 250 and 300 thousand people.

As in any other situation where languages are in contact, Arabic spoken in the United States is changing as a result of influence of English. Many different linguistic innovations have been incorporated into the language, with interference from English occurring on various linguistic levels. However, in many cases, this interference does not lead to language attrition, but rather to the creation of an ethnic language with special uses understood only by members of the Arab-American community (Rouchdy, 1992).

Chaldeans

Chaldea, also spelled Chaldaea, Assyrian Kaldu, Babylonia Kasdu, Hebrew Kasddim, land in southern Babylonia (modern southern Iraq) frequently mentioned in the Old Testament. The name should be applied to land bordering the head of the Persian Gulf between the Arabian desert and the Euphrates delta. Chaldea is first mentioned in the annals of the Assyrian king, Ashurnasirpal II (reigned 884/883-859 BC), although earlier documents referred to the same area as the “Sealand.” In 850 BC, Shalmaneser III of Assyria raided Chaldea and reached the Persian Gulf, which he called the “Sea of Kaldu” (Brittanica, 1986). The Assyrian empire collapsed with extraordinary speed (Langer, 1972). In 625 BC with this decline of Assyrian power, a native governor, Nabopolassar, was able to become king of Babylon by popular consent and to inaugurate a Chaldean dynasty that lasted until the Persian invasion of 539 BC (Brittanica, 1986).
Babylonia had become dominantly Chaldean during Neo-Assyria times. Naboplassar finally organized Chaldean power and spent his energies finishing off Assyria. In 605 BC, Nebuchadrezerzer, the crown prince, commanded the armies of Babylon in the battle of Carchemish against the Egyptian army of Necho. The battle ended in an overwhelming defeat for Necho and Nebuchadrezzar fell heir to the western empire of Assyria. Shortly after Nabopolassar died. Nebuchadrezzar was crowned king in the fall of 605 BC. In the years following his accession, Nebuchadrezzar campaigned in Syria-Palestine pacifying his newly won territories. In 601 BC, he marched against Egypt. The clash was bloody, but indecisive, with each side retiring. Jerusalem finally fell in July, 586 BC. The city and its temple were laid to waste, with many Jews taken captive to Babylon. The city, newly built by Erarhaddon, had become a wonder of the Ancient World. Nebuchadrezzar’s death in reality was the end of Babylon as a world power. In 539 BC, Cyrus the Great marched on Babylonia and the country fell almost without struggle (Larger, 1972).

Christianity in Iraq and Iran dates from the late 2nd century AD. In the 5th century AD, the church of the East embraced Nestorianism, a heresy that declared Christ to be man and God, the son to be his divine counterpart. A union with Rome was first realized in 1551, when the elected patriarch John Sulaka went to Rome and made his profession of the Catholic faith. From this period, Nestorians who become Catholics were referred to as Chaldeans (Brittanica, 1986). The decision to convert to Catholicism or to remain as Nestorians was frequently accompanied by violence among the differing factions (Doctoroff, 1984). Other unions were realized in 1672, 1771, and 1778, with the current
unbroken line of "patriarch of Babylonia" originating in 1830 (Brittanica, 1986).

The members of the Chaldean community of Metropolitan Detroit trace their origin to what is now the nation of Iraq, although many of them came to America before the nation of Iraq was in existence. Unlike most Iraqis, who are Muslim, Chaldeans are Roman Catholics. They are known as "Chaldeans," a name that has special religious and linguistic significance. Whereas the majority of Middle Easterners in the Detroit area claim Arabic as their mother language, Chaldeans speak a modern dialect of Aramaic, which they call Chaldean, although most recent immigrants also speak Arabic, the national language of their homeland (Sengstock, 1999). Hence the [Chaldean] community is actually a tri-lingual community, with both Aramaic and Arabic being spoken, as well as English. A considerable amount of conflict is present in the community over which is the "real" ethnic language (Sengstock, 1981).

The majority of Detroit's Chaldeans hail from a single town, Telkaif, (pronounced T'l kef or T'l kef), that is located near the northern region of the Tigris River, not far from the ruins of the ancient city of Nineveh. The village is also called Telkeppa, in the Chaldean language, a term referring to the rocky hill on which the village is located (Bazzi, 1991). Telkaif maintained a fairly stable population of about 12,000 during the early 20th century, when the first migrants began coming to Detroit. At that time, the town was primarily a community of family farmers, most of whom raised wheat and barley and kept herds of sheep and goats. Some residents were also traders, mediating between Arabs and Kurds, able to speak several languages. In the last quarter the 20th century, the town has grown, with the population numbering close to 30,000. The city is more.
diverse in terms of culture and ethnicity, as persons from other villages in the region have moved to the area (Sengstock, 1999).

The first Chaldean to arrive in the United States settled in Philadelphia in 1889; he later returned to his homeland. Chaldeans began to establish themselves in the Detroit area around 1910. The earliest migrants came to Detroit directly from Telkaif. Following the Second World War, most migrants have been Chaldeans who were born or lived at least a portion of their lives in Baghdad or one of the other Iraqi cities. Since 1965, migrants are again coming directly from the village of Telkaif, largely to escape the political turmoil in the northern part of Iraq, manifested in conflicts between the government of Iraq and the Kurdish people who live also in that area (Sengstock, 1981). Federal legislation (PL 89-236) which was passed in 1965 and took effect in 1968 has continued the increase of Chaldean immigrants. The 1965 Immigration Act only utilized quotas for each hemisphere while setting the upper limit for each country at 20,000. A criterion for preferred admittance based on the relationship to United States citizens and specialized labor skills was also established. As a result, in 1977 it was estimated that approximately 15,000 members of the Chaldean community reside in Detroit, the largest Chaldean community outside of Iraq (Doctoroff, 1984).

From a pragmatic standpoint, the Chaldeans present an important new influence on the American scene. The Chaldean community is an example of the "new migration" into the United States that has occurred since 1980 (Heer, 1996; Henry, 1990; Henslin, 1997; Lind, 1995; Stevenson, 1992). Although Chaldeans have been in the Detroit area since the early 1900s, the greatest migration has
occurred in recent decades (Sengstock, 1999).

The Chaldean community is commonly identified as part of the Arabic community of Detroit, but many Chaldeans do not view themselves as part of this ethnic group. Most tend to associate the Arabic community with the Arabic language and the Islamic religion. Chaldeans, on the other hand, preferred to emphasize their own Chaldean Christian religion and their Chaldean-Aramaic language as their distinctive heritage.

Several competing labels have generally been used by Chaldeans to identify themselves. When the original immigrants came to this country prior to Iraqi independence, most identified themselves as "Telkeffees," a reference to their village of origin, or as "Chaldean," a reference to their religious group. With the arrival of newer immigrants who were born and reared in their homeland after the establishment of the nation of Iraq, the identity of "Iraqi" is another option. As the Arabic population in the United States has grown, another identity has become possible; with some Chaldeans choosing to identify themselves as "Arabs." A number of people in the community also choose joint identification patterns: Iraqi Chaldean, Chaldean American, Iraqi American, etc. (Sengstock, 1999).

Prior to both the 1990 and 2000 decennial census of the United States, members of the Chaldean community petitioned the U.S. Census Bureau to record the numbers of the persons giving the response "Chaldean" to the U.S. census question on ancestry or ethnic origin. In 1990, the Census Bureau refused, contending that Chaldeans were a religious group, not an ethnic group, and that the U.S. Congress had forbidden the recording of census data on the
basis of religion (McKenney, 1998). Chaldean community leaders continue to contend, however, that Chaldeans are an ethnic group, and hope that the Census Bureau will change its position and provide the requested data (Sengstock, 1999).

As a group, the Chaldeans have been relatively successful economically, establishing themselves in the retail grocery business as entrepreneurs of small neighborhood markets (Doctoroff, 1984). In the 1962 community census, over half of the nuclear Chaldean families received the bulk of their support from the retail grocery business or its allied industries. Many of these stores were small, owned and operated by one man assisted by his wife and children. However, the Chaldean grocery business has been increasingly expanding beyond this level (Sengstock, 1974).

Today with increased enrollment in public schools, Chaldean parents in Detroit are fearful of attacks by Blacks upon their children and are pulling their children, especially girls, out of school as soon as it is legally permissible. Teachers have complained that many Chaldean children were disinterested in class, even disruptive at times, and were neither prepared nor inclined to cooperate. Many children also spent a great deal of their free time in their parents' stores, limiting their time of study (Sengstock, 1999). Additionally, new immigrants sometimes do not enroll their adolescent children in school, so the school system is never aware of their existence. As in Detroit, the Chaldean drop-out rate in the suburbs is a major concern of educational administrators.

With employment in their father's stores needed and assured, Chaldean boys frequently do not finish high school (Doctoroff, 1984). Many young
Chaldeans, who would formerly have listened with interest as their fathers and uncles talked to them of good opportunities for opening a store, are searching for other occupations. More young Chaldeans already are moving into other occupations and into education for their professions (Sengstock, 1974).

Some members of the Chaldean community continue to be drawn away from the community, as has occurred in the past and as occurs with other ethnic groups. These individuals are the ones who "assimilate;" as their contact with Americans increase and their contact with Chaldeans decreases. Even with the inevitable losses due to assimilation, the Chaldean community seems destined to remain a separate entity for some time (Sengstock, 1999).

Culture

Culture provides an individual with an identity through acceptable language; actions, postures, gestures, and tones of voice, facial expressions, handling of time, space, materials, work ethnics, play, emotional expressions, and methods of self-defense (Hall, 1977). Many different definitions have been developed for culture, but no single definition is available that is acceptable to all social scientists. Culture can be defined as the way of life of a social group; the total human-made environment (Berger, 1995; Geertz, 1995) (Banks, 1999). Young defined culture as folkways, which provide support for the use of continuous methods of handling problems and social situations. The core of learned behavior or patterns of a group as they are handed down from a previous group or generation and as they are added to by their group and then passed on to other groups or to the next generation (in Kroeber & Kluckhohn,
Anthropologists defined culture as a way of perceiving, believing, evaluating, and behaving (Goodenough, 1987).

Culture can be better understood from knowledge of what forms it takes and how it works. If the concept and definition of culture were as universally accepted as is the concept of carbon or iron, then one could say that this conduct is culture, rather than behavior. According to White, "... this is the way I use the word." Culture is a world-concept; and may be defined as a concept they please (White, 1975). Culture is a notoriously imprecise (ill-defined) term, used in widely different contexts in the social science as well as humanities. Even in anthropology there seems to be nearly as many definitions of culture as there are anthropologists (Brogger, 1992).

Culture in educational programs involves not only subject matter but also the style of presentation. In the ideal bilingual program; subject matter, presentation in the classroom, and language choice work together to expand the child's sense of being. The need to harmonize these three components is may be more critical in some sources than in others (Di Pietro, 1985).

Exploration of education for language-minority students with a map drawn from cultural analysis is important. Understanding concepts and research related to culture in multiethnic classrooms can help teachers discover the "hidden curriculum"- that is, the implicit lessons taught and implicit messages sent among students, teachers, parents, and administrators (Ovando, 1998).

When educators, politicians, or citizens notice that a particular segment of the school population is not profiting adequately from educational systems, they begin to search for explanatory causes. Explanations, of course, are heavily
influenced by assumptions on which they are based. For example, prior procedures were to place recently arrived ethnic minority students in the lowest curriculum track, along with English-speaking children who were functioning at low achievement and ability levels. The apparent assumption was that lack of English-language skills equaled lack of academic potential (Moore, 1967).

Researchers and educators have tried to explain language minority students lower academic achievement when compared to mainstream students as a result of the concept of cultural deprivation or cultural deficit. In the United States, the idea that some immigrant group’s cultural traits are undesirable dates back at least to the second half of the 19th century. In an effort to eliminate undesirable traits, many Americanization classes included instruction in dominant cultural values, practices, beliefs, and traditions (Franklin, 1983).

Teachers should assist students in understanding complex characteristics of different ethnic groups as a way of discouraging students from developing new stereotypes when ethnic groups are studied in school (Banks, 1999).

To understand the different cultural experiences brought to the classroom by students, it is necessary first to examine their origins. Most people have the same psychological and biological needs that must be met to survive. How they fulfill these needs may vary greatly, with these variations depending in part on available resources and climatic conditions in the region. Their cultural orientations may also depend on the group’s relationship to the dominant society (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).
Language

The word language itself comes from Latin, "tongue", and its original meaning is "that which is produced with the tongue". Language is not only oral speech; it is also writing, pictures, symbols that catch the eye, like red and green traffic lights; gestures made with hands and facial expressions; societal sounds made not only with the voice, but also by mechanical means (i.e., fire alarms or door bells) (Pie, 1954).

United States linguists, Bloch and Trager, developed the following definition of language. A language is a scheme of arbitrary vocal symbols by means that allows a social group to cooperate. Different systems of vocal communication constitute different languages; the degree of difference needed to establish a unique language cannot be explained precisely. No two people use language exactly the same, although people are able to recognize their friends' voices over the telephone, even if they are speaking the same language (The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1993).

Language functions as a medium to enable humans to communicate messages to one another. In addition, it is an integral aspect of culture that allows individuals to make judgements beyond the basic message (Ovando, 1998). Language and their associated dialects symbolize and identify group memberships and can be the principal means of mediating and manipulating social relations. Language forms a framework for the evaluation of others' social background, prestige, and personality as well as ethnicity (Saville-Troike, 1980).

People appear to acquire social identity as members of a group by acquiring its vocabulary, topics, and attitudes, as well as the structural forms of
its language (Eastman, 1990). Different languages are equally good, since each is equally adequate for a given time and place. Linguistically speaking, there is no such thing as a good or an inferior language. Each language is appropriate for its time, place and circumstances (Gonzalez, 1974).

At the present time, the languages of the world number approximately 3,000. Although the exact number of languages are unavailable, there are more than 1,000 Native-American languages, with a similar number of unique languages spoken in Africa. While there are several thousand languages spoken in the world, more than 95% of the world's population speak fewer than 100 languages (Katzner, 1975).

The creativity of humanity continues to produce new words which condense and codify new, changed aspects of experience. This dynamic process implies that language reacts to changes. Technology and science are the source of approximately half of the new terms. New words are makers of cultural attention. By studying new words, linguists can tell where culture has focused its attention. Technology not only brought new terms to language, but gave new definition for older words. For example, the word "computer" is very old, and until World War II, meant "a person who computes". Now it refers almost exclusively to machines (Gozzi, 1990).

**Acculturation and Assimilation**

The first function of immigrant society is to postpone the his/her assimilation by a process of gradual acculturation (Teske & Nelson, 1974). The difference is that acculturation does not require an immediate change of values, reference...
group, or individual psychology. Assimilation is a one-way street, but acculturation provides the immigrant with a new home instead of making him homeless (Haugen, 1987).

In 1915, the National Americanization committee, with the cooperation of the local Board of Commerce, launched an "English First" project in Detroit. Employers, like Henry Ford, made attendance at Americanization classes mandatory for their foreign-born workers. As Americanization took a coercive turn, proficiency in English was increasingly equated with political loyalty. For the first time, an ideological link was forged between language and "Americanization." The educational goal was to replace immigrant languages and cultures with those of the United States (Crawford, 1989).

The traditional perspective of immigrant adjustment, the so called "melting pot," viewed the individual immigrant as assimilating into United States society by gradually adopting resident cultural values and the English language, eventually intermarrying with the resident population (Edmonston & Passel, 1994).

For students whose primary language was not English, acquiring a second language usually means adapting to a second culture as well. As individuals learn a second language, they do more than change the way they communicate. They undertake a major reorientation that affects every aspect of their lives (Hernandez, 1997).

A person's world, view, self-identity, his system of thinking acting, feeling, and communicating, can be disrupted by a change from one culture to another (Brown, 1986). The essence of acculturation is a change in the language learner's perspective of others, as people once viewed as "they" are gradually
embraced and encompassed as a part of "we" (Damen, 1987).

While extensive assimilation and acculturation to the norms of the dominant group in a society can weaken ethnic ties, they do not eradicate them completely. In some cases, a group may reinforce its cultural distinctiveness by deliberately adopting or emphasizing behaviors which distinguish them from the society at large. Language and dialect are often potent symbols in this process of differentiation (Romaine, 1995).

Assimilation is the process by which subordinate groups adopt the dominant culture. Either cultural patterns that distinguished the subordinate from the dominant group have disappeared, or their distinctive cultural patterns have become part of the dominant culture, or a combination of the two has occurred (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

The policy debate about the degree of social and demographic incorporation of immigrant groups often centers on the issue of how rapidly such groups enter the mainstream of American life. The theoretical paradigm that thus constitutes the point of departure for examining this issue is that of assimilation, as represented in the classic works of Child (1943), Handlin (1951), Park (1950), and Thomas and Znaniecki (1927) and in more contemporary writers; such as Chavez (1989), Gordon (1964), and Sowell (1981). This perspective views immigrants as gradually absorbing the cultural values and norms of the majority group, a process sometimes called cultural assimilation. After cultural assimilation comes structural (educational and occupational), marital, and identificational assimilation. The different stages of assimilation generally occur at different rates among different groups (Bean, 1994).
The assimilation process should develop in stages. During these stages, the new cultural group would:

1. Change its cultural patterns to those of the dominant group;
2. Develop large-scale primary-group relationships with the dominant group;
3. Intermarry fully with the dominant group;
4. Lose its sense of peoplehood as separate from the dominant group;
5. Encounter no discrimination;
6. Encounter no prejudiced attitudes; and
7. Not raise issues that would involve value and power conflict with the dominant group (Gordon, 1964).

Prejudice and Discrimination

Two causes of ineffective inter-ethnic relations are prejudice and discrimination. Both stem from a combination of several factors:

1. Lack of understanding the history, experiences, values, and perceptions of ethnic groups other than one's own;
2. Stereotyping the members of an ethnic group without consideration of individual differences within the group;
3. Judging other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of one's own group;
4. Assigning negative attributes to members of other ethnic groups; and
5. Evaluating the qualities and experiences of other groups as inferior to one's own.

In other words, prejudice and discrimination are extreme forms of ethnocentrism (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). "Prejudice is a negative attitude toward an entire category of people" (Schaefer, 1988, p. 55). Forms of prejudice may range from
a relatively unconscious aversion to members of the out-group to a comprehensive, well-articulated, and coherent ideology, such as the ideology of racism (Yetman, 1985).

Whereas prejudice focuses on attitudes, discrimination focuses on behavior. Discrimination “involves behavior that excludes all members of a group from certain rights, opportunities, or privileges” (Schaefer, 1988, p. 55). Prejudice is the arbitrary denial of the privileges and rewards of society to those whose qualifications are equal to the dominant group. Although prejudice may not directly hurt members of the out-group, it can be easily translated into discriminating behavior that harms members of the out-group (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Discrimination occurs at two levels: individual and institutional. Individual discrimination is attributed to or influenced by prejudice (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). Institutional discrimination refers to the effects of inequalities, which are rooted in a system-wide operation of a society. It involves policies or practices which appear to be neutral in their effect on minority individuals or groups but which have the effect of disproportionately impacting upon them in harmful or negative ways (Yetman, 1985). The consequences are the same regardless if the discrimination is toward an individual or group. Members of certain ethnic groups may not receive the same benefits from society as the majority group (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). Unfortunately, whether actual or perceived, subtle or blatant, some forms of racial and ethnic discrimination are a reality of life in most culturally plural environments. Schools may be one of the first places in which language-minority children discover that they are perceived as different by the
mainstream culture (Ovando, 1998).

**Cultural Pluralism**

Cultural pluralism characterizes a society in which members of diverse cultural, social, racial, or religious groups are free to maintain their own identity, while simultaneously sharing a large common political organization, economic system, and social structure. Cultural pluralism can be a sensitive issue. Biculturalism can, conceivably, be seen as a matter of individual choice, but a positive or a negative stance on pluralism involves the way of life of all Americans, and touches on the most basic structures of democratic society (Ovando, 1998).

The classic statement of a cultural pluralist position was written by Kallen and appeared in *The Nation* in 1915. He rejected both the Anglo-conformity and melting pot theories as useless in describing what was occurring in society or in providing worthy ideals for the future (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). Accordin to Kallen, cultural pluralism was based on a philosophical examination of the past and on three propositions:

1. No one chooses his/her ancestry;

2. Each minority culture has something positive to contribute to American society; and

3. The idea of democracy and equality carries an implicit assumption that there are differences between individuals and groups that can be viewed as “equal” (Newman, 1973).

Today's advocates of cultural pluralism often call for the maintenance of enough sub-societal separation to guarantee the continuance of the ethnic cultural tradition and the existence of the group, without at the same time interfering with the carrying out of standard responsibilities to the general American civil life. (Gordon, 1964, p. 158)
Havighurst (1978) defined "constructive pluralism" as pluralism that meets the following conditions: (a) mutual appreciation and understanding of every subculture by the other ones; (b) freedom for each subculture to practice its culture and socialize its children; (c) sharing by each group in the economic and civic life of the society; and (d) peaceful coexistence of diverse life styles, folkways, manners, language patterns, religious beliefs, and family structures.

For a democratic, pluralistic, and complex society to function true to its underlying premises, its members need an awareness of their responsibilities as citizens, as well as skills necessary to carry out these responsibilities. Learning to get along in a multicultural society should be an imperative at the schooling process, not a neglected option (Ovando, 1998). The commitment to, or perceived values of, cultural pluralism appear not to be supported broadly by various individuals and groups in society, as documented by legislation and attacks from the political right over the past few years. Further, values that under-gird cultural pluralism may not be subscribed to in a behavioral sense by a majority of Americans (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

The effort to replace the "melting pot" myth with the view of America as a pluralist society is not a question of preference but a question of fact. Being a statement of basic fact, it is critical that it be reflected in all aspects of education. A future question is whether or not educators are teaching the truth and reality about a society (Feinstein, 1993).

**Biculturalism and Multiculturalism**

Individuals who have competencies in, and can operate successfully in,
two or more different cultures are either bicultural or multicultural. Biculturalism or multiculturalism are two conditions that indicated that one has mastered the knowledge and developed the skills necessary to feel comfortable and communicate effectively \( \) with people of the culture encountered and \( \) in any situation involving groups of people of diverse cultural backgrounds (Hoopes, 1979).

Individuals are often multilingual, as well as multicultural. Having proficiencies in multiple cultures does not lead to rejection of the primary cultural identification. It allows for a broad range of abilities that can be drawn upon at any given occasion as determined by the particular situation (Gibson, 1976).

Biculturalism exists when a person has the volition and capacity to negotiate two sets of cultural assumptions, patterns, values, beliefs, and behaviors comfortably. Biculturalism in essence says that a person has come to terms with two worldviews — usually one which is learned from one's parents and an adopted one. Being bicultural, however, does not necessarily mean giving equal time to both cultures in terms of behavior. There may be many traits from one culture or both which are understood but not necessarily acted out, such as religious rituals, cosmological interpretations, or family traditions (Saville-Troike, 1978).

Just as a bilingual individual may possess varying degrees of competence in the two (or more) languages, s/he may also exhibit different degrees of biculturalism. Normally, less fluent bilinguals can be expected to be less bicultural as well, in the same way as one would predict that a fluent bilingual will be more familiar with both cultures, depending on the way they have acquired
Educators need to learn about other cultural groups. They should make an effort to interact with persons who are culturally different from themselves, if multicultural education is going to become a reality in the formal school situation. Multicultural education is an educational reform movement with a major goal of restructuring curricula and educational institutions. In a multicultural educational setting, students from diverse social-class, racial, and ethnic groups— as well as both gender groups—can experience equal educational opportunities. Multicultural education consists of three major components: a) an educational reform movement whose aim is to create equal educational opportunities for all students; b) an ideology whose aim is to actualize American democratic ideas, such as equality, justice, and human rights; and c) a process that never ends because there will always be a discrepancy between democratic ideas and school and practices (Banks, 1998). Educators should challenge ineffective procedures and policies, and have the strength to change schools to insure better learning and equality of all students (Ovando, 1998). Multicultural education aims to positively integrate cultural diversity into the total learning process. A critical element of this integration is the incorporation of issues and strategies related to membership in different microcultures, especially related to race, gender, and class. Educators should take affirmative steps to ensure that cultural diversity is integrated throughout the curriculum. An essential aspect of multicultural education is the examination of contemporary and historical issues. Students need to learn that individuals from other ethnic, religious, and socioeconomic groups may have different perspectives on the same issue and
that these perspectives may be as valid as their own (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Multicultural education is needed to help all of the nation's future citizens to acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to survive in the 21st century. Nothing less than the nation's survival is at stake. In the 21st century, a nation whose citizens cannot negotiate on the world's multicultural global stage may be at a tremendous disadvantage, and its very survival may be imperiled (Banks, 1998).

**Bilingualism**

Most generally accepted definitions of bilingualism usually meet with some sort of criticism. Bilingualism as a concept has open-ended semantics. Definitions are numerous and are continually being proffered without any real sense of progress being felt as the list extends (Beardsmore, 1986).

There are almost as many definitions of bilingualism as there are scholars investigating it. Every researcher uses the definition that best describes his/her field of enquiry and his/her research aims. In this sense, all definitions are arbitrary (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981). Bilingualism has often been defined and described in terms of categories, scales, and dichotomies such as ideal vs. partial bilingual, coordinate vs. compound bilingual etc. These definitions are related to factors, such as proficiency and function (Romaine, 1995).

Considerable literature is available on bilingualism. This literature covers a wide range of aspects of language competence relative to individual abilities, and descriptions of societal situations of the level of community interaction (TOSI, 1984). Mackey (1967) suggested that there are four questions which a
description of bilingualism must address:

1. **Degree** concerns proficiency. How well does the bilingual know each of the languages?

2. **Function** focuses on the uses a bilingual speaker has for the languages, and the different roles they have in the individual’s total repertoire.

3. **Alternation** treats the extent to which the individual alternates between the languages and

4. **Interference** has to do with the extent to which the individual manages to keep the languages separate, or whether they are fused (In Romaire, 1995).

Bilingualism implies the ability to use two different languages. There are differences of opinion about the degree of fluency required for both languages. Whereas some maintain that a bilingual individual must have native-like fluency in both languages, others suggest that measurable competency in two languages constitutes bilingualism (Baca & Cervantes, 1989).

Certain factors affect the degree of an individual’s bilingualism, such as the place where the languages are learned, the age of learning, and the motivation for learning the language. Due to these factors, some bilinguals have better control of the different systems of the languages they speak than other bilingual speakers (Rouchdy, 1974).

To be considered bilingual, a person must have the ability to use two different languages, whereas the term multilingual is usually reserved for individuals possessing the ability to use more than two languages. This deceptively simple definition of bilingualism may seem perfectly adequate for general usage; however, it leaves open several issues that have been a constant source of confusion and lack of clarity in the theoretical and research literature.
on this topic (Hornby, 1977).

More nations are becoming bilingual as the number of countries recognizing two or more languages as "official" continue to increase. Official languages are used for governmental affairs, as well as in schools and the business sector (Ramirez, 1985). The goal of strong bilingual proficiency includes development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing modes in both languages, as well as the ability to use both languages for all academic work across the curriculum at each grade level (Ovando, 1998).

While English continues as the common language in which residents of the United States communicate, competence in languages other than English are actively being promoted by culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) groups and the business community. Schools are being expected to develop and maintain native languages of students learning English, while teaching foreign languages to high levels of proficiency to students who speak only English (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega & Yawkey, 1997).

**History of Bilingual Education**

The United States has not always been a nation with English as the only language of its schools and a prevalence of Anglo cultural patterns. During the 18th and 19th centuries, different groups with varied national and language backgrounds settled across the country. As long as some sense of geographical and psychological openness existed, varied linguistic and cultural groups generally coexisted successfully (Ovando, 1998). Historical records show that during the 19th century many public and private schools offered courses in
languages other than English, not only as foreign-language classes but as content-area instruction as well. In the Midwest in 1900, for example, records show that at least 231,700 children were studying in German in public elementary schools (Tyack, 1974). At the turn of the century in New Mexico, either Spanish or English or both could be the language of a school’s curriculum (Leibowitz, 1971). During the second half of the 19th century, bilingual or non-English-language instruction was provided in some form in some public schools (Kloss, 1971).

Hope for culturally and linguistically appropriate education was not reestablished until after World War II. Several factors helped to set the stage for the establishment of bilingual education programs, including:

- the Brown decision of 1954 and subsequent discussions of the meaning of educational equity,
- a national interest in upgrading the quality of American education in response to the Soviet Launching of the Spotnik satellite 1957, and
- research on the development and treatment of children in poverty who were often from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega & Yawkey, 1997, p. 33).

As part of national effort to secure equal educational opportunities for all American students, the federal government has acted to protect the rights of national origin minority students and those who are limited in English proficiency during the last two decades. A substantial body of federal law has emerged that establishes the rights of language of minority students and defines the responsibilities of school districts serving them. This body of laws has changed significantly in its scope and interpretation and continues to evolve. Those who are responsible for state and local educational policies and programs can turn for
guidance and direction to these laws and regulations. By doing so, they can ensure that the increasing number of minority students are provided with the educational opportunities guaranteed by a democratic society (Hernandez, 1997).

The arrival of Cubans into Miami following the revolution of 1959 reintroduced bilingual instruction into United States schools. The occurrence was a response to a very specific local condition — to meet the educational needs of Cuban refugees as they immigrated to Miami. Cubans quickly established private schools taught in Spanish, with the hope that they recognized that the political situation would not be easily changed, they began to influence the public schools to establish bilingual classes (Ovando, 1998).

In 1964, Texas began to experiment with some bilingual instruction in two school districts. By 1968, bilingual education was being provided in at least 56 locally initiated programs in 13 states (Andersson & Boyer, 1970).

**Legislation**

The first federal legislation for bilingual education, passed by Congress in 1968 under Title VII of the Elementary and secondary Education Act. This act created a small, but significant, change in policy for linguistic minorities. The civil rights movement and the climate of social change of the 1960s had spurred the passage of legislation, such as the Civil Rights Act of 1965, which focused on special needs of minorities. The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 represented the first national acknowledgment of special education needs of children with limited English proficiency (LEP) (Ovando, 1998).

Expenditures for providing bilingual education were another concern.
Under pressure from the White House, Congress approved no funding for Title VII during the first year. For 1969, $7.5 million was appropriated for bilingual education, just enough to finance 76 projects serving 27,000 children. Even this meager subsidy doubled the number of children enrolled in bilingual classroom in the United States. By 1972, the total number of students being served by bilingual education programs had risen to 112,000 of the estimated 5 million language-minority children of school age (Crawford, 1998).

The 1968 law specified that services were to be provided to "children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English" and from families with incomes below $3,000 per year. The 1974 amendments changed the law to include all children of "limited-English-speaking ability" (LES), ending the low-income requirement. The 1978 amendment expanded the definition additionally to include children of limited English proficiency (LEP). The last change allowed students to remain in a program until they reach full proficiency in English rather than requiring that they be tested and exited solely on the basis of oral skills (Leibowitz, 1980).

In 1974, a class action suit on behalf of 1,800 Chinese children (Lau v. Nichols) was brought before the Supreme Court. The plaintiffs claimed that the San Francisco Board of Education failed to provide programs designed to meet the linguistic needs of these non-English-speaking children. They argued that if the children could not understand the language used for instruction, they were being deprived of an education equal to that of other children and were, in essence, doomed to failure. In a unanimous decision, the Supreme Court stated the following: "Under state imposed standards, there was no equality of
treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education" (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990, 226).

United States Commissioner of Education, Terrel Bell, announced these so-called Lau Remedies of August 11, 1975. The guidelines told districts how to identify and evaluate children with limited English skills, determine what instructional treatments would be appropriate, decide when children were ready for mainstream classroom, and develop professional standards teachers should meet. Also, the Lau Remedies established a timetable for meeting these goals (Crawford, 1989).

**Bilingual Education**

A goal of education, bilingual or other, presumably is to enable children to develop their capacity for creative use of language as part of successful adaptation of themselves and their communities in the continuously changing circumstances characteristics of contemporary life (Alatis & Staczek, 1985).

Schools are providing appropriate education to culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students, especially those with, or at-risk of, learning problems. The government support of these programs is part of the larger, historical effort in the United States to improve educational equity across groups that have been historically discriminated against on the basis of characteristics including race, national origin, gender, disability, and economic status (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega & Yawkey, 1997).
Education have observed that as contemporary classrooms become increasingly multilingual, approaches developed with the special needs of "prototypical" student population in mind often fail to address the actual needs of large segments of learners (Underwood, 1986). Teachers need instructional strategies and techniques that work effectively with students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Hernandez, 1997).

Children who speak limited English cannot understand English-speaking children or lessons that are presented in English. Not only are children faced with trying to learn new subject matter, they must also learn a new language and culture. Many of these children may not be able to keep up with the schoolwork and may drop out of school unless an appropriate intervention is provided to them (Gollnick & Chiss, 1990). Approximately 45% of Mexican-American children drop out of school before the 12th grade, and the attrition rate of Native American students may be as high as 55%. Although language differences may not be the sole contributor to the academic problems of these children, they are considered by many to be a major factor (Garcia, 1976).

Bilingual-bicultural education has been compared to an impressionist painting – attractive from a distance but ambiguous when near the picture. This decade-old assessment by civil rights consultant, Gary Orfield (1989), remains prevalent among school officials and parents today. Federal bilingual education policy appears to be a complex array of regulations, legal precedents, funding restrictions, and assorted red tape (Crawford, 1989).

When the literature on bilingual education was reviewed, the randomness surrounding research questions and research findings become evident. The
research consists of a loosely connected mosaic of "facts." There appears to be an absence of a consistent paradigm in bilingual research and, consequently, a profound lack of theoretical coherence or unity. The task for the future is to reassess the publics' thinking about bilingual education, make decisions about that critical knowledge issues as they relate to instructional and educational policy, and generate a research strategy that can develop a knowledge base concerning bilingual education, knowledge acquisition, and bilingual proficiency (Padilla, 1990).

Bilingual education can be justified as

1. the best way to attain maximum cognitive development for LEP students,
2. a means for achieving equal educational opportunity and/or results,
3. a means of easing the transition into the dominant language and culture,
4. an approach to educational reform,
5. a means of promoting positive interethnic relations, and
6. a wise economic investment to help linguistic minority students become maximally productive in adult life for our society and themselves (Baca & Cervantes, 1989).

Monolingual Americans are put to shame by the worldwide spread of English. By some estimates, English is spoken today by one billion people, two-third of whom learned it as a second language. "Fifty million precollegiate Chinese young people are studying English, reports the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, while less than 5,000 of their counterparts in
the United States are studying Chinese, a ratio of 10,000 to one" (Crawford, 1998, p. 163).

Regardless of whether bilingual education in the United States is perceived as more or less effective, it appeared that bilingual programs for linguistic minority students from economically disadvantaged families can have to do more than simply provide traditional or continuing instruction in the native language if it is to improve their achievement substantially in English and other subjects (Levine & Havighust, 1992).

**Controversy of Bilingual Education**

The passage in 1968 of the federal Bilingual Education Act brought an exciting, yet controversial, approach to educating students with non-English-language backgrounds to the attention of educators throughout the United States (Ovando, 1998). Bilingual education is not without controversy. It is an issue that stirs the emotions of many people either as advocates or opponents (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). Voices ranging from angry and xenophobic, to concerned and insecure call on governments to put diversity back into the bottle and return the nation to the idealized homogeneity of previous eras. Other voices highlight diversity as a resource, an opportunity for enrichment and enlightenment among nations operating in the international arena. These voices frequently also point to the importance, for nations that preach human rights in the international arena, of implementing human rights at home (Ovando, 1998).

Activities aimed at punishing children for speaking their native languages still persist in contemporary America. In Louisiana, for example, children have been asked to kneel for speaking a language other than English. In
Pennsylvania, children have been held back a grade for speaking a language other than English (Soto, 1997).

William J. Barnett had never set foot in bilingual classroom on September 26, 1985, the day he launched a broadside against two decades of federal policy on the schooling of language-minority children. Like most Americans, the Secretary of Education had only a vague notion of what bilingual education meant in practice (Crawford, 1989).

The notion of a home-language gift (maintaining and protecting home languages and cultures) can be viewed as part of a critical analysis of educational practices. Bilingual research has shown the benefits of maintaining native language to both academic school success and the enhancement of family communication (Cummins 1979; Hakute 1986; Krashen 1988; Wong & Fillmore 1991).

The debate over bilingual education has largely ignored methodological focus and concentrated on its political implications. Where educational issues have been stressed, its supporters have, at best, argued in favor of bilingual education. When two languages are used or developed, bilinguality is perceived to be an asset for individuals in a multicultural environment. More recently, bilingual education was used mainly as a bridge to mainstreaming, without the admission that monolingualism, not bilingualism, was the actual goal (Garcia & Padilla, 1985).

Parents of LEP students also vary in their support for bilingual and ESL programs. Recent immigrants usually place high priority on their children's learning English in school. Ethnic groups differ in their support for bilingual
education, and individual families within a cultural group may have different opinions about what is best for their children (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Bilingualism is sometimes regarded by minorities as a necessary evil, representing a compromise between the need to retain their own language and identity, while maintaining political and economic links with the majority. This controversy may well involve a conflict of interests – the desire for independence clashing with economic and political improbabilities. Bilingualism might then be viewed as a symbol of such conflict (Hoffmann, 1991).

**Bilingual Classroom**

Teachers who enter a classroom with 30 students generally find that students have individual differences, although they may appear to be from the same cultural group. These differences extend beyond intellectual and physical abilities. Students bring different historical backgrounds, religious experiences, and day-to-day living experiences to school. These experiences can influence the way the students behave in school (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Most bilingual and ESL classes are heterogeneous, with students demonstrating various levels of proficiency in the materials being mastered. Teachers have to individualize their instructional strategies to provide optimal educational experiences. They may need to develop lessons from many different materials and creating new lessons that meet the needs of their students (Ovando, 1998).

Nearly 90% of LEP students receive some type of bilingual services designed to meet their language need for periods of approximately 3.5
years. Approximately 30% of these students receive instructional context that are not specific to LEP students, such as the monolingual English classroom, while the remainder (70%) receive services in contexts that are designed specifically for such students in ESL or bilingual classroom settings (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega, & Yawkey, 1997).

Learning activities that promote English language and literacy development are characterized as natural, interesting, purposeful, and relevant. An optimal classroom environment is comfortable, supporting, and accepting (Hernandez, 1997). The attitudes, behaviors, and the perceptions of classroom teachers can have a profound effect on the social atmosphere of the school and attitudes of students. Teachers are even more important than the instructional materials they use because their instructional delivery may influence how they are perceived by students (Banks, 1981). Unfortunately, many language minority students may fail to achieve academically when placed in classrooms in which instruction is not adapted to meet their needs (Adamson, 1993).

Assessment

Attempting to understand the issues that affect assessment of language-minority students can be challenging, complicated, and sometimes very confusing. School personnel frequently have to make immediate decisions in response to legal mandates or administrative pressure without the benefit of a testing expert or financial resources needed to perform a carefully planned testing component of school programs. Teachers complain that many tests mandated by school system seem to be inappropriate. These tests are
considered problematic because they include items with cultural bias or 
vocabulary to which students have not yet been exposed. Students have not 
developed test-taking skills and the tests may not measure what they say they 
measure (content validity). Many standardized tests are normed on white 
middle-class children and are not reflective of the varied cognitive styles of the 
children (Ovando, 1998).

Schools conduct widespread testing of students for entrance into special 
programs or schools (e.g., gifted, advanced courses, special education 
programs, colleges and universities, and professional schools). These 
standardized tests have limited the access of oppressed group members to more 
rigorous study at all educational levels. While these students are often precluded 
from entering professional schools, disproportionately large numbers are placed 
into special education programs for learning disabilities or emotionally impaired 
(Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Educators continue to seek new and different ways to "evaluate how 
students approach, pursue, and interpret meaning construction and 
problem-solving tasks" (Garcia & Pearson, 1994, 338). While many factors can 
influence test performance of students from diverse backgrounds, factors related 
to language and culture are of special concern to teachers in multilingual 
classrooms (Hernandez, 1997). In reality, "... it is almost impossible for a formal 
test to capture what bilingual students know in their two languages" (Garcia, cited 

Formal language tests do not adequately capture ways that students 
acquire and use both languages (Garcia & Pearson, 1994). Generally speaking,
teachers are advised to be cautious in administering and using the results of formal, English-only tests administered to language minority students (Cohen, 1987; Cummins, 1984; Garcia & Pearson, 1994).

Bilingual Education Programs

Special educational programs for language minority students have caused tremendous controversy among educators, lawmakers, and the general public. Many current bilingual education programs grew out of the civil rights movement of the 1960s, in which there was a call for a system of education where the language minority students would receive equal access to education (Lindhold, 1990).

Goals of a bilingual program differ, depending on the amount of proficiency in the two languages desired by the community (Ovando, 1998). The objectives of most bilingual education programs are to develop greater competence in English among LEP children (Alatis & Staczek, 1985).

In practice, however, the vast majority of bilingual education programs are traditional, designed with the goal of improving students' proficiency in English while providing support in their native language until the students are able to benefit from monolingual English instruction (Gonzalea, Brusca-Vega & Yawkey, 1997). Once the overall philosophical-political goals of a bilingual program are determined, the model(s) of bilingual instruction used by a school district can be determined. Ideally, the models should be based on a detailed examination of community needs, which are based on factors that include: psychological, sociological, economic, political, religious, cultural, geographical, demographic,
The primary goal of all public programs in the United States is students' full proficiency in English. Transitional bilingual programs tend to be less concerned with development of complete proficiency in the primary language (L1), because L1 instruction is gradually phased out. Maintenance and two-way bilingual programs, however, strive for full proficiency in both of languages (Ovando, 1998).

Prior to any program education attempt, the researcher must define the students that are going to be served by a particular program under consideration. Without a series of well-defined performance objectives, education models and data-collection procedures are likely to be haphazard or unfocused at best (Cohen, 1979). Program participants must be identified, as it is important to know who will be in the program before attempting to assess program effectiveness (Cardoza, 1983). Although most administrators and evaluators have taken classes and attended workshops on development of performance objectives, a text on evaluating bilingual programs would be incomplete if it did not briefly review approaches for developing specific and measurable goals.

Program labels, oversimplified and misleading, can complicate discussion of bilingual education. English as a second language (ESL), immersion, and transitional bilingual education (TBE), are typically described as discrete "methods" of teaching (LEP) children. In practice, however, overlap exists among these educational treatments. Some of the most successful programs draw techniques from all three. At the same time, there is considerable variation within each model (Crawford, 1989).
Bilingual Instruction

Students most often associated with bilingual and ESL instruction are limited-English-proficient students who lack the necessary English skills for immediate success in an all-English curriculum. Bilingual instruction for such students is a way of providing equity and quality in educational programs. Through bilingual instruction, including instruction in ESL, LEP students can begin to develop the linguistic and academic skills appropriate at their level of cognitive development (Ovando, 1998).

An important goal of education should be a language-competent society. What this means is a society in which all residents (citizens and immigrants) of the United States have the opportunity in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in English. At the same time, English-speaking individuals should have an opportunity to develop an ability to understand, speak, read, and write a second language (Padilla, 1990).

As in any linguistic community, LEP students are likely to represent a wide range of standardized and nonstandardized language variations. Such students also may receive primary language signals in the classroom which differ from the language they are familiar with at home. Therefore, in coming to understand the student's backgrounds, the bilingual or ESL teacher is dealing with more than the standard form of the home language. In the context of the classroom, variation in language may be represented in English, as well as in other languages used by students (Ovando, 1998).

Instruction in language arts and reading in both languages, whether as a first or second language, is usually conducted on a daily basis, following the
goals of the bilingual education program. From the teacher's perspective, various instructional arrangements are possible:

- Bilingual resource teacher-assists monolingual (L2) teachers with native language instruction and specific content areas that are taught bilingually.

- Bilingual aide-assists monolingual (L2) teacher with native language instruction, though the aide (parent) may lack educational preparation and pedagogical training.

- Team teaching approach-two model bilingual teachers, each consistently using one language with a group of pupils (Gonzalez & Lezama 1976); or two basically monolingual teachers (one in L1 and the other in L2), each providing instruction in language and content areas (Ramirez, 1985).

Four goals are basic to providing second language learners with the quality education to which they are legally entitled:

- To develop a full range of oral and literacy proficiencies in English.

- Ensure equal access to the core curriculum and promote the academic achievement of students to the highest level of their ability.

- Foster critical thinking skills and the requisite feelings and attitudes that enable students to be thoughtful and productive individuals.

- Facilitate the two-way acculturation process that Corte's (1991) defined as “multiculturation” and to support primary language development in ways that are feasible and appropriate (Hernandez, 1997).

**Language Shift**

Many factors affecting language retention and language loss. They range from cultural and emotional associations with the language to family and community structure, number and proximity of speakers, and outsiders' attitudes toward the speakers. Demographics, social and political context, cultural values, and language factors all contribute to create an environment that encourages or inhabits language shift (Conklin & Lourie, 1983).
Some ethnolinguistic communities are communities that are characterized as having stable bilingual situations, while other ethnolinguist communities may be experiencing a language shift. Numerous factors affect the degree of language retention among ethnolinguistic groups. These include, for example:

- The status of the group (economic/political power, social status);
- The status of its language (attitudes and use of the language, linguistic status);
- Demographic considerations (group size, birthrate, immigration patterns); and
- Institutional/governmental support (use of language in school, mass media, and government) (Ramirez, 1985).

Many reasons have been posed for language shift and language death. Many studies of language shift have looked at a community's transition to the new language. The classic pattern is that a community that was once monolingual becomes transitionally bilingual on the way to the eventual extinction of its original language. Thus, language shift involves bilingualism as a stage on the way to monolingualism in a new language (Romaine, 1995).

For the vast majority of students, the question is not whether they will learn English; as it is a virtual certainty that they will develop some level of English language proficiency. The real question is how rapidly they may lose their primary language proficiency and what the immediate and long-term effects of this loss may be both at home and at school (Hernandez, 1997).

Attitudes are more accessible to observation in the context of societal multilingualism. For example, in the case of bilinguals among minority groups, it is easier to notice that cultural, social and motivational factors can influence a group's maintenance or loss of bilingualism (Hoffmann, 1991).
Language Switching

The ability to code switch (alternate between languages in utterance or conversation) is one of the developmental aspects of bilingualism. Code switching may occur at the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level (Ramirez, 1985). Code switching is considered by linguists to be a creative use of language by bilinguals who know both codes (languages) well. This ability is not to be confused with L1 interference, which is now referred to as "L1 influence." For example, first-language influence might affect a student's pronunciation or word order in the second language. In code switching, items are inserted in the second language represent a "clear break" between the two phonemic and morphologic systems. Code-switching is also not the same as language borrowing, in which vocabulary items from one language are borrowed and incorporated into the second language (Ovando, 1998).

Recent studies of code-switching have tended to focus attention on different aspects of it: grammatical/syntactic or discourse/pragmatic. The difference between the grammatical and pragmatic approach to the study of code-switching lies mainly in the level at which explanations are sought. The pragmatic framework assumes that the motivation for switching is basically stylistic. Code-switching is generally treated as a discourse phenomenon that cannot be satisfactorily handled in terms of the internal structure of sentences. The grammatical perspective is primarily concerned with accounting for the linguistic constraints on code-switching (Romaine, 1995).
Bilingual Teachers

Thelen (1973) has captured the essence of the bilingual education. A growing number of teachers, paraprofessionals, administrators, educators, curriculum specialists, psychologists, evaluators, counselors, trainers, professors, and parents have become involved in the implementation of bilingual education. Unlike other professionals in other fields of education, most of these individuals had very little specialized training designed to prepare them for this work. What they had was a vision, an understanding of the need to provide a meaningful education to millions of children in this country who come from homes in which a language other than English is spoken.

A bilingual teacher learns how to become a teacher first. Methods for teaching language arts, reading, second language, math, science, and social studies in a bilingual program are the same as for any other teacher. Differences, however, are created by the two major variables of language and culture. How the two languages are used in the classroom is one aspect of instructional methodology. A second aspect concerns culture (Ovando, 1998).

The importance of linguistic knowledge in working with bilingual students cannot be denied. This knowledge helps teachers determine the differences among students that can cause instructional problems within a classroom. An understanding of both the target language and the mother language enables them to make a contrastive analysis of both languages, using the dominant language as a bridge to help the students correct their mistakes (Rouchdy, 1981).

One way of modifying instructional methods could be for teachers to
implement a bilingual developmental program that uses both the first and second languages of students. This type of program also stimulates their holistic development. Cognitive and academic areas need to be stimulated. In addition, affective areas; such as self esteem; culture, ethnic and linguistic identity; and social values of the minority culture also need to be respected and nurtured (Gonzalez, Bruska-Vega & Yawkey, 1997).

Teachers must be strongly committed to a racially tolerant school atmosphere before such a sitting can be created and maintained (Banks, 1981). In many schools, teachers cannot assume that language minority students receive academic support in their primary language and ESL until such time as they are ready to be mainstreamed into general education classes. As a result, teachers with limited or no specialized training in second language development can find themselves teaching content in English to students who have not developed full proficiency in academic or communicative language skills (Hernandez, 1995).

Teachers also need to be extremely careful that students are not placed at different academic levels based on their clothes, grooming, language, and behavior. To a large degree, students have learned to behave in a manner expected of the group in which they are placed (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

The heart of the educational process is in interactions between teachers and students. Through this interaction, teachers make a major impact upon the child and can help develop his/her willingness to learn. The way the teacher interacts with the student may be a major determinant of the quality of education that students receive in public schools (United States Commission on Civil
Rights, 1973). Most teachers are also aware that cooperation with, and support from, parents can be an important determinant of students' success in school (Levine & Havighurst, 1992).

Schools

The United States has always been a nation of immigrants. Much of the United States' strength has come from its energetic immigrant populations. In this country of sustained immigration, proactive school leaders are those who assess the changing populations of their schools and communities, value that diversity, and view their roles as facilitating the incorporation of all students and families into the school community. Proactive leaders orient school personnel to understand changes occurring throughout the nation as a whole, as well as within the local school community (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989).

By the latter part of the 1980s, the sense of urgency being expressed about the crisis in United States schools and society had reached an unprecedented level. In 1987, for example, Arkansas Governor William Clinton told members of the American Association of College of Teachers Education (AACTE), “We don’t have as much time as people think” to reform schools. Without fundamental reform, he proceeded to the point out, there will be a constantly widening gulf between the highly educated, well paid segment of the work force and those who have not received an adequate education (Education Daily, 1987).

The rapid growth numbers of young immigrants and children born to immigrants has had a dramatic and cumulative effect on the current composition
of school and college-age children and youths. Changes in ethnic composition within the population reflect one dimension of changes in diversity of the school-age population (Vernez & Abrahames, 1996). For students who bring with them a language and culture different from that of the school, becoming oriented to new behaviors, attitudes, and routines can be a challenge in itself (Hernandez, 1997). Virtually all students, who have historically fallen outside of the mainstream in American schools, are at-risk for poor treatment in a system that is only beginning to adopt to their needs (Gonzalez, et al., 1997). Any discussion of school-community relations that is significant and meaningful requires a discussion of community power relations (Willie, 1978).

According to Banks (1998), the hidden curriculum has been defined as the curriculum is not explicitly taught, but all students learn. The school's attitudes toward cultural and ethnic diversity are reflected in subtle ways in the school culture (i.e., kinds of pictures on bulletin boards, racial composition of the school staff, and fairness with which students from different racial, cultural, and ethnic groups are disciplined and suspended).

When visitors enter a school, they can usually feel the tension that exists when cross-cultural communication is poor. They can observe whether cultural diversity is a positive and appreciated factor at the school. If minority students or males are waiting to be seen by the assistant principals in charge of discipline, the visitor may wonder whether the school is providing effectively for the need of all its students (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990).

Bilingual schools can minimize negative attitudes toward the native language among minority children as they learn the second language. At the
same time, bilingual schools can help develop healthy attitudes toward self-identity and the ability to get along with others (Ramirez, 1985).

**Family**

Changes are occurring in schools as a response to reform movements that are placing increasing responsibilities for learning and school encouragement on families. Educational professionals need to understand and begin to learn to work with families (Gonzalea, et al., 1997). Home-school partnerships are no longer a luxury. There is an urgent need for schools to develop strategies to include parents as an important component in determining the academic success of all children. One element that contributes to children's success across all populations is parent involvement in children's education (Swap, 1993).

Traditional definitions of parent involvement imply that parents need to be both supportive and active. Parents are expected to display high levels of commitment to their children and their children's education while participating in observable activities that support the school (Hernandez, 1997). Many parents are reluctant to get involved with schools because they lack a sense of empowerment and believe that their opinion will not matter anyway. Other parents are reluctant to become involved with schools because of their painful memories of their own school days (Banks, 1998).

Students come from families that vary in terms of socioeconomic status, educational commitment, and social support. While such information about students is valuable, it becomes even more important when the student
population includes children of ethnic and language-minority groups (Ovando & Collier, 1998). The school system must accept the variation among students and attempt to help them adapt to the school system, preparing them for future roles in society (Ballantine, 1997). Home environment factors that can influence student achievement include: social class of family, early home environment, Parenting style, type of mother-child interaction, effect of the mother working, parent involvement in school decisions and activities, family and student aspirations, and number of children in family (Rubin & Borgers, 1991).

Children are pressured to acquire the dominant language of the society, especially if it is different from the parents’ language(s). In the case of linguistic minorities, children are usually under strong external pressure to learn the language of the society at large, while being under internal family pressure to maintain the home language (Romaine, 1995). Levine and Havighurst (1992) argued that society needs to develop national policies and programs to ensure that families are able to provide their children with an environment conducive to success.

Despite plans on paper to inform the community about bilingual education, it is unrealistic to assume that the community can absorb basic or detailed information without face-to-face interactions and closer ties between the school and the community. These ties allow information to be disseminated through first hand observation and established social networks (Ovando & Collier, 1998).

American education is founded on the principle that the school experiences involving learning must extend to the family and the home. In
practice, however, the gap between home and school is evident. The large number of immigrants from various countries that entered the United States since 1980 have altered the perceptions of home life-styles in this country. As a result the school's function has changed from that of extending home experiences to a process of alienation from home values (Di Pietro, 1985).

**Community Involvement**

Bilingual families are by no means a rarity in today's world. Indeed, bilingualism is a far more common occurrence than predominantly monolingual native speakers of a world language, such as English (Saunders, 1988). Each society has certain goals for its educational system that, ideally, are put into practice in the schools and classrooms. In homogeneous societies there is often consensus on key goals, and national education programs determine uniform curriculum and materials. But heterogeneous societies include constituencies with competing goals. Functional theories hold that these goals give direction to the school, helping it to function smoothly and support the societal system. Conflict theorists argue that goals of the dominant power groups in society represent only one segment of society, and competing and contradictory goals are held by other groups in society (Torres, 1994).

Formal schooling is perceived by individual members of ethnic communities as an important contributor to upward mobility. As institutionalized instruments of state and federal governments, schools have clearly articulated, sociocultural, political, ideological, technical, and academic goals which guide what they want the citizenry to learn. These national goals can either
complement or contradict those of ethnic communities. Ethnic communities often nurture natural linkages with ancestral traditions while concurrently expecting their children to become affiliated with the social and economic American "goal life" (Ovando, 1998). Controversies occur between community members and the school over issues, such as curriculum and school structure. Most families desire to have their children learn, but not be exposed to ideas that may contradict family values and morals. For example, school personnel may consider sex education important for teenagers, while some families object to the school's taking over this educational task (Ballantine, 1997).

Ovando (1985) concluded that the communication of expectations between parents and educators must be bi-directional, although most school communication is through formal channels and most parental communication through informal channels. Educators, parents, and students all impact and change each other in many ways. Social change generally involves "changers" and "changees," meaning that parents, educators, and students have to be recognized as diverse human beings who are constantly testing the waters to determine what to do next.

**Attitudes**

Davis & Ostrom stated that through the history of social psychology, attitude has played a central role in the explanation of social behavior. Attitude is usually defined as a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event. Since attitude is considered a hypothetical construct that is unobservable, it must be inferred from measurable responses that reflect positive or negative evaluations of the attitude's object (Encyclopedia of...
Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor; which means that attitudes are people’s evaluations of attitude objects (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The stronger the attitude, the less likely it is to change over time (Erber, et al. 1993).

In the life history of a language, attitude may be crucial. In language growth or decay, restoration or destruction, attitude may be central. The status and importance of language in society and within individual derives in a major way from adopted or learnt attitudes (Baker, 1988). Feelings about language (i.e., thinking of a language as more pleasant or harsher sounding than another language) and reactions to the use of particular language variety or dialect in different situations comprise what are generally called language attitudes (Ramirez, 1985).

Student attitudes, teacher expectations, and previous failures in school can play an important part in the academic performance of low-status students. Levine and Hovighurst attested to the importance of examining student attitudes in conjunction with conditions in the schools they attend as a means of identifying reasons pupils fail in the classroom. Self-concept is related in complex ways to other aspects of attitude and behavior in the classroom. For example, a student who has a low self-concept as a learner due to previous classroom failures may feel that s/he has little chance to do better in the future. These feelings could result in reduced efforts and lower levels of self-concept and sense of control over their learning outcomes.
Attitudinal and motivational factors are important in students' success in bilingual education, especially with children who experience learning difficulties (Baker, 1988). Because of the central role played by language in formal schooling, the question of teacher language attitudes and the role they may play as a mediating variable in the investigation (Ramirez, 1985).

Attitudes toward bilingual education is an issue which seems to be influenced by an underlying liberal-conservative ideological dimension, which is correlated with positions taken on many of the key social, economic, and political issues currently being debated. Not surprisingly, liberals are more likely to favor bilingual education than are conservatives (Cole, 1983). Those individuals who believed that bilingual education funding should be increased were those with more liberal attitudes toward bilingual education (Hosch, 1984).

Unfortunately, children in probably any bilingual situation may be exposed at times to hostility from people who (usually monolingual themselves) are so intolerant that they cannot hear a language other than the majority language being spoken in their presence, even if the people speaking the other language are engaged in a completely private conversation (Saunders, 1988).

To carry out a role, individuals must feel that they can be successful. Therefore, students must believe that they can be high achievers to try to be so. This evaluation of beliefs in ability can be altered depending on the perceived costs, rewards, and motivations involved (Ballantine, 1997).

**Student's Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education**

Student attitudes can be an important indicator of academic performance, especially for low-status students. According to Levine and Hovighurst (1992),
student attitudes and conditions in schools they attend need to be investigated to identify reasons that students fail.

Self-concept is a factor that impacts other aspects of attitude and classroom behavior. Students who have low self-concept due to experiences with previous classroom failures may lack the confidence to be successful in the future. These feelings could lead to reduced efforts and lower levels of self-concept and sense of control over learning outcome. Efforts to evaluate and enhance cultural attitudes of mainstream students in American public schools are phenomena now under study (Cooke, 1973).

Attitudinal and motivational factors are important in students' academic success in bilingual education, especially with children who experience learning difficulties (Baker, 1988). Because of the central role played by language in formal education, language attitudes of teachers and the role they may play as mediating variables have become a concern needing investigation (Ramierez, 1985).

Unfortunately, children in most bilingual situations can experience hostility from people (generally monolingual). These individuals may be so intolerant that they cannot bear a language other than the majority language being spoken in their presence, even if the people speaking the other language are engaged in a completely private conversation (Saunders, 1988).

To carry out a role, individuals must feel that they can be successful. Therefore, students must believe that they can be high achievers to attain academic success. This self-evaluation of beliefs in ability can be altered depending on perceived costs, rewards, and motivations (Ballantine, 1997).
This chapter provides a description of the methods that were used to collect and analyze the data needed to describe the sample and answer the research questions posed for this study. The topics included in this chapter are: research design, variables in the study, research questions, setting for the study, population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Each of these topics is discussed separately.

**Research Design**

A causal-comparative research design was used in this study. The primary data collection tool was an original survey developed by the researcher to examine Arab and Chaldean high school students' (ACHSS) perceptions toward bilingual education. This type of research design attempts to examine a cause and effect relationship when the independent variable is not being manipulated. This type of research is also called an ex post facto research design because the causes are being studied after they had an effect on the outcomes. In the present study, the students' attitudes toward bilingual education may be affecting their academic achievement and their social adjustment in high school. The primary threat to this type of design is the lack of control over the independent variable, which can lead to alternative explanations of the outcomes (Borg & Gall, 1989).
Variables in the Study

The following variables were examined in this study:

Dependent variables: Perceptions of bilingual education

Independent variables: Length of time in the United States

- Participation in bilingual education in middle school
- Problems encountered because of being in bilingual education programs
- Types of educators who helped students make the adjustment to their school
- Treatment by teachers or other students because of language difficulties

Personal characteristics
- Age
- Gender
- Ethnicity
- Language spoken in home
- Language spoken with friends outside of school.

Research Questions

These variables were used to address the following research questions and test the associated hypotheses:

1. To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?

2. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically?

3. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?

4. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?
Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

$H_{01}$ ACHSS students will perceive that bilingual education has not been an important factor in helping them succeed in school.

$H_{02}$ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically.

$H_{03}$ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States.

$H_{04}$ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program.

Population and Sample

The study was conducted at one high school in a large urban area. The students in this school were generally from families with low to lower middle socioeconomic statuses. The high school draws from two middle schools in this school district. Of the 2,000 students in this high school, approximately 250 are either Arab or Chaldean speak the Arabic language. The majority of the remaining students are African American. Most of the students qualify for free or reduced lunch, with the school qualifying for school-wide Chapter 1 funding. The school enrolls students in grades 9 through 12 and offers a wide variety of academic programs and support services. College preparatory, business education, and general education programs are available to all students. Students who want to pursue career/technical programs are available to all students. Students who want to pursue career/technical programs are transported to vocational technical centers throughout the school district for part
of their school day. They continue their academic classes at this school. Bilingual programs are available for LEP ACHSS students to help ease their transition into the mainstream classes. The school also offers special education classes for students with special needs.

All ACHSS students who receive part or all of their instruction in bilingual classes were asked to participate in this study. These students have immigrated to the United States and require special services to help them make the transition into academic and career/technical classes for mainstream students. Approximately 250 students were considered eligible for bilingual educational services.

As the population was finite and all members could be identified, a census of the population was used. Use of a census eliminated sampling bias and minimized sampling error that could occur with the use of a random sample. The limitation of a census was that the results may not be generalizable beyond the students being studied. As the results of this study were not intended to be generalized to all bilingual high school students, this limitation caused by using a census was not considered critical (Kerlinger, 1985).

**Instrumentation**

An original survey was developed by the researcher to obtain information on ACHSS students' perceptions of bilingual education. The survey was divided into three sections. The first section included 33 attitudinal statements that students were asked to rate using a 5-point Likert scale. The ratings ranged from 1 to 5, with a 1 indicating strongly disagree and a 5 strongly agree. The second
section of the survey obtained information regarding ACHSS's experiences in making the transition to United States schools. These questions used a combination of forced choice and open-ended responses. Personal characteristics of the students are provided in the third section of the survey. These items used a combination of forced choice and fill-in responses.

Validity and Reliability.

As this instrument has not been used in previous research, validity and reliability information was not complete at the beginning of the study. The content validity had been determined prior to collecting data from the students. Internal consistency as a measure of reliability was obtained from the students who participated in the study.

Content validity.

The instrument was reviewed by three bilingual educators who had experience in working with high school students. They were asked to make suggestions and comments regarding the instrument. If there was a consensus that an item needed to be changed, the questionnaire was revised to reflect the change. After the changes were made, the educators who originally reviewed the content validity of the instrument, reviewed it a second time. Consensus was reached at that time, indicating the questionnaire had good content validity.

Construct validity.

Using student responses to the perceptual items on the survey, a principal components factor analysis using a varimax rotation was used to determine if factors would emerge that could be used as subscales measuring the latent variable, perceptions of ACHSS on bilingual education. The results of this
analysis are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Factor Analysis
Perceptions of Bilingual Education

<table>
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</table>

Eigenvalues

3.90  3.48  2.79  2.69  2.52  2.51  2.34  1.45

Percent of Variation

11.83  10.55  8.47  8.15  7.64  7.61  7.08  4.39

Factors:
1 Need for bilingual education
2 Benefits of bilingual education
3 Importance of bilingual education
4 Bilingual education environment
5 Positive effects of bilingual education
6 Academic success
7 Transfer to regular education
8 Perceptions of regular education teachers

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Eight factors emerged from the factor analysis, explaining 65.7% of the variance in Arab/Chaldean students perceptions of bilingual education. The eigenvalues associated with each of the factors were greater than 1.00 indicating the amount of variance explained by each of the factors was statistically significant. Based on these findings, the eight factors were used as subscales in measuring ACHSS perceptions of bilingual education.

Reliability.

A Cronbach alpha coefficient procedure was used to determine internal consistency as a measure of reliability. The obtained alpha coefficient of .93 provided evidence that the items on the survey had good reliability.

Pilot test.

Ten ACHSS students from a different high school were asked to complete the instrument as a pilot test. The students were asked to indicate the length of time required to complete the instrument, indicate any statements that they felt were ambiguous or hard to understand, and make general comments on the instrument (e.g., length, other topics that should be considered, etc.). As the students provided no comments that required changing the survey, it was considered ready to use with the target sample.

Focus group.

Following completion of the data analysis, a focus group meeting was held with 10 to 12 ACHSS students who had participated in the study. The purpose of this focus group was to obtain additional discussion regarding the results of the study and the role of bilingual education in helping to attain academic success. These students were apprized of the findings and asked to
discuss them, indicating their agreement and providing additional comments regarding reasons for the findings. The researcher facilitated the meeting and had a scribe help take notes. The students in the focus group were assured that all matters discussed during the meeting were confidential and that no individual was identifiable in the report of the findings. Results of the focus group are presented in Chapter IV.

**Data Collection Procedures**

The data collection commenced following approval from the Behavioral Investigation Committee (BIC) to conduct the study. The bilingual teachers allowed students in their classes to participate in the study and a time for data collection was established.

The researcher sent an informed consent form home to the parents of the bilingual students, asking for approval for their children to participate in the study. Only students with signed consent forms were allowed to participate in the study. The students also were asked to sign an assent form indicating their willingness to participate in the study. This form was explained to the students at the beginning of the data collection period. Students who did not want to participate in the study and refused to sign the assent form were asked to return to their regular classroom.

The researcher distributed survey packets to the students at this time. Because of the varying levels of English fluency among the students, the items were read to them, both in English and Arabic. This process caused the data collection period to be extended, but provided additional assurances that
students understood the items. Following completion of the surveys, the students were asked to replace them in the envelopes they received at the beginning of the data collection. They were asked to seal the envelope to ensure the students' anonymity.

To further ensure anonymity, the researcher did not code the surveys in any way. The students were also instructed to refrain from placing any identifying information on the survey.

Only students who were present on the day planned for data collection were included in the study. Students whose parents had signed informed consent forms, but who were absent from school were excluded. Students were not allowed to remove the survey packets from the room where data collection was being conducted. All data collection was considered complete at this time.

**Data Analysis**

The data obtained form the surveys were entered into a computer file for analysis using SPSS - Windows, ver 10.0. The data analyses were divided into two sections. Descriptive statistics, including frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion were used to develop a profile of the students using their demographic characteristics. The research questions were answered using inferential statistical analyses, including t-tests for one sample and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). All decisions on the statistical analyses were made using an alpha level of .05. Figure 1 presents the statistical analyses that were used to address the research questions.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Statistical Analysis</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?</td>
<td>Perceptions of bilingual education</td>
<td>t-Tests for one sample were used to determine the extent to which ACHSS students differed from the neutral point on their perceptions of bilingual education. Mean scores that were significantly above the neutral point reflected positive perceptions of bilingual education, with mean scores that were significantly below the neutral point indicating a negative perception toward bilingual education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{01}$ ACHSS students will perceive that bilingual education has not been an important factor in helping them succeed in school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically?</td>
<td>Dependent Variable: Perceptions of bilingual education</td>
<td>One-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences in perceptions of bilingual education by high and low academic success. If there was a significant difference on the MANOVA, the univariate F tests were examined to determine which of the subscales were contributing to the significance of the findings. If there was a significance on the univariate F tests, the mean scores were examined to determine the direction of the difference between high and low academic performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{02}$ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically.</td>
<td>Independent Variable: Academic success based on a median split of self-reported grades</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Statistical Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?</td>
<td>Dependent Variable: Perceptions of bilingual education</td>
<td>One-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences in perceptions of bilingual education by length of time in the United States. If there was a significant difference on the MANOVA, the univariate F tests were examined to determine which of the subscales were contributing to the significance of the findings. If there was a significance on the univariate F tests, a posteriori tests were used to determine which groups were contributing to the significant results.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent Variable: Length of time in the United States divided into three groups using 33 1/3% of the students in each group.</td>
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<td>H_{03} There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States.</td>
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<td>4. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?</td>
<td>Dependent Variable: Perceptions of bilingual education</td>
<td>One-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences in perceptions of bilingual education between students who had participated in bilingual education programs in middle school and those who had not participated in these program. If there was a significant difference on the MANOVA, the univariate F tests were examined to determine which of the subscales were contributing to the significance of the findings. If there was a significance on the univariate F tests, the mean scores were examined to determine the direction of the difference between high and low academic performance.</td>
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<td>Independent Variable: Participation in bilingual education in middle school</td>
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<tr>
<td>H_{04} There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program.</td>
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Chapter IV

Results of Data Analysis

This chapter presents the results of the data analyses that were used to describe the sample and address the research questions posed for this study. The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of Arab and Chaldean high school students (ACHSS) toward bilingual education. The findings of this study could assist educators in determining the extent to which students' perceptions of their bilingual education programs affected the success of these students in terms of mastering the school curriculum.

A total of 116 Arab/Chaldean high school students (ACHSS) participated in this study. These students represented a cross-section of all ACHSS students in the high school from 9th through 12th grade.

The data analysis is divided into two sections. The first section provides a description of the students based on their demographic characteristics. The second section addresses each of the research questions posed for this study.

Description of the Sample

The students provided responses to their personal characteristics on the questionnaire. The students indicated their ages on the survey. Their responses were summarized using descriptive statistics. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 2.
Table 2

Descriptive Statistics
Age of Student

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</table>

The students ranged in age from 14 to 19, with a median of 16 years. The mean age of the students was 16.23 (sd=1.22). Three students did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked to provide their gender on the survey. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency Distributions
Gender of Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the participants (n=69, 62.2%) were female. Forty-two (37.8%) students reported their gender was male. Five students did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked to describe their ethnicity as either Arab or Chaldean. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions. The
results of this analysis are shown in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arab</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaldean</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eleven (9.7%) of the participants reported their ethnicity was Arab, with 102 (90.3%) indicating Chaldean as their ethnicity. Three students did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked to indicate the number of years they had lived in the United States. Their responses were summarized using descriptive statistics for presentation in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years Lived in the United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean length of time the students had lived in the United States was 4.93 (sd=3.39) years, with a median of 4 years. The range of time in the United
States was from 1 to 16 years. Two students did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked if they had received bilingual education during middle school. Frequency distributions were used to summarize their responses to this question. Table 6 presents the results of this analysis.

**Table 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Received bilingual education during middle school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>58.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sixty-six (58.9%) of the students had received bilingual education during middle school, with 46 (41.1%) indicating they had not participated in bilingual education during this period. Four students did not provide a response to this question.

The students who had been in bilingual education during middle school were asked to report the number of years they had been in their programs. The responses to this question were summarized using frequency distributions. Table 7 presents the results of this analysis.
Table 7
Frequency Distributions
Number of Years in Bilingual Education During Middle School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years in bilingual education during middle school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One year</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twelve (18.2%) students had been in bilingual education during middle school for one year, with 21 (31.8%) reporting they had been in bilingual education for two years. Thirty-three (50.0%) students indicated that they had spent three years in bilingual education during middle school.

The students were asked to indicate the language that is spoken in their home. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 8 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 8
Frequency Distributions
Language Spoken in Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Spoken in Home</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaldean</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic/Chaldean</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly Arabic/Chaldean with some English</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Half of the students (n=58, 50.0%) indicated they spoke mostly Arabic/Chaldean with some English, with 36 (31.0%) participants reporting they spoke Chaldean in their homes. Thirteen (11.2%) students reported that Arab/Chaldean was spoken in their homes and 8 (6.9%) students indicated that Arabic was the language spoken in their homes. One (0.9%) student reported English was spoken in his/her home.

The students were asked to report the language they used with their friends outside of school. Frequency distributions were used to summarize their responses. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language spoken with friends</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaldean</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic/Chaldean</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly Arabic/Chaldean with some English</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest group of students (n=53, 46.1%) indicated they used mostly Arabic/Chaldean with some English with their friends, with 40 (34.8%) reporting that English was the language they used most with their friends. Fifteen (13.0%) students used a combination of Arabic/Chaldean with their friends and 6 (5.2%) used Chaldean with their friends. One (0.9%) student indicated s/he used Arabic.
with his/her friends outside of school. One student did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked to indicate which individuals within a school setting helped them get adjusted, feel comfortable, and learn during the first two years at their school. They were provided with a list of six types of individuals and were instructed to indicate all that applied. As a result, the number of responses exceeded the total number of respondents. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 10.

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Individual who Assisted Students</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual education teacher</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab/Chaldean student</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular education teacher</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School administrator</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream Student</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraprofessional</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the students (n=87, 75.0%) reported that bilingual education teachers assisted them to get adjusted, feel comfortable, and learn during their first two years at the school. Fifty-seven (49.1%) specified Arab/Chaldean students as the group who provided them with assistance during this time. Nineteen (16.4%) indicated regular education teachers gave them assistance during their first two years at the school, with 10 (8.6%) reporting that
school administrators providing this type of assistance. Mainstream students provided assistance to 3 (2.6%) students, with 2 (1.7%) indicating that paraprofessional provided assistance to them in getting adjusted, feeling comfortable, and learning during their first two years.

The general relations between Arab/Chaldean students and other students at their school were the focus of the next question. The responses to this question were summarized using frequency distributions. Table 11 presents the results of this analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of general relations between immigrant and other students</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nineteen (16.5%) students perceived that general relations between immigrant and other students were excellent and 62 (53.9%) reported these relations as good. Twenty-six (22.6%) students considered these relations were average, with 8 (7.0%) reporting them as poor. One student did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked if they had any problems with other students
because they were immigrants. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 12.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems with other student because respondent was an immigrant</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirteen (11.6%) students indicated they had had problems with other students because they were immigrants, with 99 (88.4%) reporting no problems because of their immigrant status. Four students did not provide a response to this question.

The students were asked if they thought they had been treated unfairly by teachers or other students because of their language or nationality. The results of the frequency distribution that were used to summarize the responses to this question are presented in Table 13.
Table 13

Frequency Distributions
Problems with Teachers or Other Students Because of Language or Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems with other teachers/other students because of language or nationality</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the students (n=96, 84.2%) reported they were having problems with teachers or other students because of their language or nationality, while 18 (15.8%) indicated they were not having these types of problems. Four students did not provide a response to this question.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

Four research questions and associated hypotheses were addressed in this study. Each of the hypotheses was tested using inferential statistical procedures, with all decisions on the statistical significance of the findings made using an alpha level of .05.

**Research question 1.** To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?

\[ H_0 \]: ACHSS students will perceive that bilingual education has not been an important factor in helping them succeed in school.

The mean scores for each of the eight subscales derived from the factor analysis were compared with the neutral point of 3 using t-tests for one sample to determine the extent to which students' perceptions of the specific aspects of
being bilingual education were positive or negative. Scores that were significantly above the neutral point indicated positive attitudes toward the subscale, with scores that were significantly below the neutral point reflecting negative perceptions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 14.

### Table 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Sig of t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need for bilingual education</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>18.23</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of bilingual education</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of bilingual education</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>10.74</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual education environment</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive effects of bilingual education</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>15.76</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic success</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer to regular education</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>9.54</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of regular education teachers</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean scores for the eight subscales measuring specific aspects of bilingual education were significantly above the neutral point of 3. These findings indicated that Arab/Chaldean students had positive perceptions of bilingual education.

**Need for bilingual education.** The obtained t-value of 18.23 for the comparison of the mean score of 4.25 (sd=.74) with the neutral point of 3 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 115 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that students' perceptions of the need for bilingual education was
Benefits of bilingual education. The comparison of the mean of 3.61 (sd=.80) with the neutral point of 3 produced a t-value of 8.22, which was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 115 degrees of freedom. Based on this finding, it appears that Arab/Chaldean students were positive about the benefits of bilingual education.

Importance of bilingual education. When the mean score of 3.84 (sd=.84) was compared to the neutral point of 3, the resultant t-value of 10.74 was statistically significant. This result indicated that students had positive perceptions regarding the importance of bilingual education.

Bilingual education environment. The comparison of the mean score of 3.90 (sd=.89) for the subscale bilingual education environment with the neutral point of 3 produced a t-value of 10.91. This result was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, with 115 degrees of freedom. From this finding, it appears that Arab/Chaldean students were positive in regard to bilingual education environment.

Positive effects of bilingual education. When the mean score of 4.05 (sd=.71) was compared with the neutral point of 3, using t-tests for one sample, the obtained t-value of 15.75 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 115 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that Arab/Chaldean students had positive perceptions regarding the positive effects of bilingual education.

Academic success. The mean score of 3.90 (sd=.73) was compared with the neutral point of 3 to determine the extent to which Arab/Chaldean students
were positive about bilingual education in regard to academic success. The resultant t-value of 13.23 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, with 115 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that Arab/Chaldean students were positive in regards to academic success.

Transfer to regular education. The Arab/Chaldean students’ mean score of 3.38 (sd=.77) was compared to the neutral point of 3 using a t-test for one sample. The obtained t-value of 9.54 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, with 115 degrees of freedom. Based on this finding, Arab/Chaldean students had positive perceptions regarding transfer to regular education.

Perceptions of regular education teachers. The comparison of the mean score of 3.38 (sd=.98) for perceptions of regular education teachers with the neutral point of 3, produced a t-value of 4.11. This outcome was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 113 degrees of freedom. This finding provided evidence that Arab/Chaldean students had positive perceptions of regular education teachers.

Based on the statistically significant findings in a positive direction for the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education, it appears that Arab/Chaldean students had positive perceptions regarding this program. As a result of this analysis, the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected.

Research question 2. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically?

H₀₂ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful
The mean scores for the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education were compared between Arab/Chaldean students who had achieved academic success and those who had not been successful academically using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Academic success was based on self-reported grades, with all As, mostly As and some Bs, mostly Bs and some As, and all Bs included in the academically successful group. The students who self-reported their grades as mostly Bs and some Cs and less were in the group considered academically unsuccessful. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 15.

Table 15
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Perceptions of Bilingual Education by Self-reported Academic Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling's Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>8, 102</td>
<td>.615</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Hotelling's trace of .06 was obtained on the MANOVA. The associated F ratio of .79 yielded on this comparison was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 8 and 102 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that Arab/Chaldean students who achieved academic success and those who had not been academically successful did not differ in their perceptions of bilingual education. To further examine this lack of statistical significance, descriptive statistics were obtained for each of the eight subscales. Table 16 presents the results of this analysis.
An examination of means and standard deviations for each of the eight subscales showed that Arab/Chaldean students had similar perceptions on bilingual education. As a result of these analyses, the null hypothesis of no difference between academically successful Arab/Chaldean students and those who were not academically successful on perceptions of bilingual education is retained.

*Research question 3. Is there a difference in perceptions of*
bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?

$H_{03}$ There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States.

A MANOVA was used to compare the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education programs between Arab/Chaldean students who had lived in the United States less than 4 years and those who had been in the United States for 4 years and over. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Perceptions of Bilingual Education by Time Lived in the United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling's Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.55</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>8.103</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The MANOVA produced a Hotelling’s trace of .55. The associated F ratio of 7.13 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 8 and 103 degrees of freedom. This result indicated there was a statistically significant difference between Arab/Chaldean students who had lived in the United States for 4 years or less and those who had lived in the United States for more than 4 years. To determine which of the subscales were contributing to the significant findings, the univariate F tests were interpreted. Table 18 presents the descriptive statistics and results of the univariate F tests.
Table 18

Univariate F Tests
Perceptions of Bilingual Education by Time Lived in the United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of Bilingual Education</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need for bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>22.74</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual education environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive effects of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>30.65</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer to regular education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of regular education teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four years or less</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than four years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Five of the eight subscales; benefits of bilingual education, importance of bilingual education, bilingual education environment, positive effects of bilingual education, and academic success; differed significantly by the length of time the student had been in the United States.

Benefits of bilingual education. The comparison of the benefits of bilingual education between Arab/Chaldean students who had been in the United States...
for four years of less (m=3.91, sd=.74) and those who have been academically unsuccessful (m=3.24, sd=.75) produced an F ratio of 22.74, which was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 and 1 and 111 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that Arab/Chaldean students who had been in the United States for shorter time were more positive regarding the benefits of bilingual education.

Importance of bilingual education. The F ratio of 13.56 obtained for the comparison of the mean scores on importance of bilingual education between students who had been in the United States for four years or less (m=4.06, sd=.82) and those who had been in the United States for more than four years (m=3.50, sd=.78) was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 111 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that Arab/Chaldean students who had been in the United States for shorter periods of time were more likely to have positive perceptions of the importance of bilingual education.

Bilingual education environment. When the mean score of 4.02 (sd=.95) for Arab/Chaldean students who had been in the United States for four years or less and the mean score of 3.71 (sd=.81) those who had been in the United States for more than four years were compared, the resultant F ratio of 3.35 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 111 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that students who had lived in the United States for four years or less had more positive perceptions of the bilingual education environment than those who had been in the United States for more than four years.
Positive effects of bilingual education. An F ratio of 9.62 was obtained for the comparison of positive effects of bilingual education between the mean scores of students with four or less years in the United States (m=4.22, sd=.65) and those who have been in the United States for more than four years (m=3.81, sd=.74). This result indicated that students who had been in the United States for fewer years were more likely to have positive perceptions about the effects of bilingual education.

Academic success. The mean scores for academic success for students who had been in the United States for four years or less (m=4.19, sd=.63) and those who have been in this country for more than four years (m=3.51, sd=.67) were compared. The resultant F ratio of 30.65 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 111 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that students who had been in the United States for fewer years were more likely to have positive perceptions regarding the effects of academic success due to participation in bilingual education programs.

Five of the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education. In each analysis, students who had been in the United States for fewer years were more likely to have more positive perceptions regarding bilingual education. As a result of the outcomes on these analyses, the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected.

Research question 4. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?

H₀₄  There is no difference in perceptions of bilingual education
programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program.

A MANOVA was used to determine if there was a difference in the perceptions of Arab/Chaldean students who had participated in bilingual education in middle school and those who had not been in these programs during middle school. The dependent variables in this analysis were the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education. Table 19 presents the results of this analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling's Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>8,100</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The MANOVA produced a Hotelling's trace of .09. The F ratio of 1.06 obtained for this analysis was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 8 and 100 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that perceptions of bilingual education did not differ between students who had participated in bilingual education during middle school and those who had not participated in these programs. To further investigate the lack of significant differences on perceptions of bilingual education, descriptive statistics were obtained for each of the eight subscales. Table 20 presents the results of this analysis.
Table 20

Descriptive Statistics

Perceptions of Bilingual Education by Self-reported Academic Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of Bilingual Education</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need for bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual education environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive effects of bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer to regular education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of regular education teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not participate in bilingual education during middle school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students' mean scores did not appear to be substantive when the eight subscales were compared between those students who had been in bilingual education during middle school and those who have not been in these programs during middle school. As a result of the nonsignificant findings, the null
hypothesis of no difference is retained.

**Focus Group**

Ten Arab/Chaldean students participated in a focus group to discuss the findings of the study. These students ranged in age from 14 to 18 years and included five males and five females. Eight students were Chaldean and 2 were Arab.

The focus group was held after school in the researcher's classroom. The meeting lasted for 60 minutes, with the researcher asking the question and reporting the results of the statistical analysis for the question. The students each provided a response to the question. To help students be more open about their responses, the researcher assured them that all discussion in the focus group would be confidential. Their responses were summarized using content analysis.

1. To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?

In reviewing the responses of the students, there was a general belief that being in a bilingual classroom promoted their usage of the English language and literacy development in a natural, interesting, purposeful, and relevant way. They experienced the feeling of support, comfort, and acceptance in these classrooms. The students felt that in addition to stimulating their development, their self-esteem, ethnic, and linguistic identity were respected and nurtured. The male and female students were in agreement on these responses, with little difference among the age groups.
2 Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful academically?

The bilingual students who perceived they academically successful thought that participation in the bilingual program was responsible for their success. They believed that the interactions between teachers and students promote learning and understanding for all students. Bilingual teachers, according to the students in the focus groups, made a major impact upon motivation to learn and improved their abilities in learning the English language.

3. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?

Bilingual education, like other long-term programs, becomes less appreciated the longer a student lives in the United States. Through this period of acculturation and assimilation into the majority culture, students indicated they needed bilingual education to help them master the English language and retain their native language. Students want to be mainstreamed into general education classes and lose the stigma of being an immigrant who requires special programs to function in school.

4 Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?

According to the students in the focus group, participating in bilingual education programs in middle school and then continuing these programs into high school causes students to become less interested in receiving their instruction in bilingual classrooms. They feel more capable because of their
previous bilingual experiences and believed they belonged in mainstreamed classes.

The students in the focus group were generally satisfied with their experiences in bilingual education, although they appeared to understand that eventually they needed to be mainstreamed into general education classes. The benefits of mainstreaming, according to the general consensus of the students, far outweighed any negative aspects. By being mainstreamed, they would be considered part of the general population of the school, and not part of a group of "newcomers" who were not capable of doing work in American schools. Participation in general education classes provided greater opportunities to obtain scholarships and become prepared for life after high school. The focus group students comments also centered on their ability to maintain their native language, culture, and interests, while adopting those of the dominant culture in their schools.

Based on an analysis of their comments during the focus group meeting, it appeared that Arab/Chaldean high school students were ready to face the challenges of living in the United States. They also thought that participation in bilingual education was an appropriate way of making the transition from their native country to the United States. They were also concerned about becoming accepted if they did not become mainstreamed while in high school.

**Summary**

The results of the data analysis that were used to describe the sample
and address the research questions have been presented in this chapter. Conclusions and recommendations that can be derived from these findings are presented in Chapter V.
Chapter 5
Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Summary

Most stakeholders in education (e.g., specialists, teachers, parents, and/or students) have opinions on bilingual education programs. These individuals, along with the media, the curriculum, and the bilingual program itself, comprise the educational environment of foreign-born students and have their effect on students’ perception of bilingual education. As the learning process of students is dependent on many factors; including feelings, knowledge, and beliefs; students’ perceptions can be an important factor, affecting their achievement.

The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of Arab and Chaldean high school students (ACHSS) toward bilingual education. The findings of this study can help educators determine the extent to which students’ perceptions of their bilingual education programs affected the success of these students in terms of mastering the school curriculum.

Because of the diverseness of the population in the United States and the influx of immigrants in this country in the last 20 years, bilingual research lacks a consistent paradigm which has led to a lack of theoretical coherence or unity. Bilingual research has shown the benefits of maintaining native language to both academic school success and enhancement of family communication (Cummins, 1979; Hakute, 1986; Krashen, 1988; Wong & Fillmore, 1991).

Parents, teachers, administrators, and other professionals need to recognize the importance of considering students’ attitudes toward bilingual
education as a means of helping immigrant students learn English, while retaining their native language. Negative attitudes about school can lead to at-risk behavior that can eventually cause students to drop-out that can affect their ability to function in society and in the workplace.

Arabs began migrating to the United States in the last decade of the 19th century and in the years preceding the First World War. While these immigrants often cited political and/or religious reasons for their decision to come to the United States, the primary reason appeared to be economic (Abraham & Abraham, 1981). Following World War II, a second wave of Arab immigration to the United States began. These immigrants came from Lebanon, Palestine, Yemen, and Iraq. This wave included political refugees, displaced Palestinians, and students and professionals. In Michigan, the number of Arab-Americans in the southeastern part of the state has been estimated to be between 250 and 300 thousand.

While English continues to be the common language of residents in the United States, competence in languages other than English are being promoted by culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) groups and the business community. Schools are being expected to develop and maintain native languages of students learning English, while teaching foreign languages to high levels of proficiency to students who speak only English (Gonzalez, Bursca-Vega, & Yawkey, 1997).

Culturally and linguistically appropriate education was reestablished after World War II, with several factors helping to set the stage for establishing bilingual education programs. These factors included:
• the Brown decision of 1954 and subsequent discussions of the meaning of educational equity,

• a national interest in upgrading the quality of American education in response to the Soviet Launching of the Spotnik satellite 1957, and

• research on the development and treatment of children in poverty who were often from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds (Gonzalez, Brusca-Vega & Yawkey, 1997, p. 33).

As part of a national effort to secure equal educational opportunities for all American students, the federal government has acted to protect the rights of national original minority students and those who are limited in English proficiency during the last two decades. Federal laws have emerged that acknowledged the needs of children with limited English proficiency (Ovando, 1998), although no funding was provided for educational programs to serve this group. In 1975, Terrel Bell, United States Commissioner of Education, announced guidelines that school districts had to use to identify and evaluate children with limited English skills, determine appropriate instructional treatments, determine when children were ready for mainstream classrooms, and develop professional standards for teachers. The result of these guidelines is the bilingual educational programs in place in most schools at the present time.

Methods

A causal-comparative research design was used in this study, with an original instrument developed to obtain Arab/Chaldean students' perceptions of bilingual education. The sample included 116 Arab/Chaldean students in one high school in the Detroit Public Schools. These students were either participating in bilingual education at the time of the study, or had been involved.
in bilingual education during their educational programs.

The instrument used in this study was divided into three sections. The first section included 33 attitudinal statements that were rated using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The second section obtained information regarding Arab/Chaldean students' experiences in making the transition to United States schools, with the third section used to collect data on the personal characteristics of the students. A principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation was used to determine if factors would emerge from the survey that could be used as subscales in addressing the research questions. Eight factors (need for bilingual education, benefits of bilingual education, importance of bilingual education, bilingual education environment, positive effects of bilingual education, academic success, transfer to regular education, and perceptions of regular education teachers) emerged from the factor analysis, explaining 65.7% of the variance in perceptions of bilingual education. The associated eigenvalues were greater than 1.00, indicating that the amount of variance being explained by each factor was significant. Based on these findings, the eight factors were used as subscales in subsequent analyses.

Results of Data Analysis

The students had a mean age of 16.23 (sd=1.22), with the majority reporting their gender as female. The mean number of years the students had lived in the United States was 4.93 (sd=3.39) years, with a range from 1 to 16 years. The largest group of students (n=66, 58.9%) reported they had received bilingual education during middle school. Arabic/Chaldean with some English was the language combination spoken in the home, with mostly English and
some Arabic/Chaldean spoken with friends. When asked which types of individuals provided the greatest amount of assistance, the students indicated the bilingual education teachers and other Arab/Chaldean students. Most of the students reported the general relationships between immigrant and other students as good, with few students reporting problems with other students because the respondent was an immigrant. When asked if they had been treated unfairly by teachers or other students because of their nationality or language, the majority reported no.

Research questions.

Four research questions were posed for this study. Each of these questions were addressed using inferential statistical analyses, with an alpha level of .05 used as the criterion for determining the statistical significance of the findings.

Research question 1. To what extent do ACHSS students perceive that bilingual education has been an important factor in helping them succeed in school?

The mean scores for each of the eight subscales measuring perceptions of ACHSS students regarding bilingual education were compared to the neutral point of 3 using t-tests for one sample. Each of the subscales were statistically significant in a positive direction, indicating students had positive perceptions of bilingual education. Based on these findings, it appears that Arab/Chaldean high school students were positive in regards to bilingual education programs in which they were enrolled.

Research question 2. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who have achieved academic success and those who have not been successful
A multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if there was a difference in the perceptions of bilingual education by self-reported academic success. The students were divided into two groups, academically successful (self-reported grades of all As, mostly As and some Bs, mostly Bs and some As, and all Bs) and those who were academically unsuccessful (self-reported grades as mostly Bs and some Cs and less). The dependent variables in this analysis were the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education. The results of this analysis were not statistically significant, indicating that academic success or failure was not a determinant of perceptions of bilingual education.

Research question 3. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs relative to the length of time the ACHSS students have lived in the United States?

The eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education programs were used as the dependent variables in a one-way MANOVA. The independent variable was the length of time in the United States. Using a median split, the students were divided into two groups, those who had been in the United States for four years or less and those who had been in the United States for more than four years. The results of the MANOVA were statistically significant. To determine which of the subscales were contributing to the significant findings, the univariate F tests for the eight subscales were examined. Five subscales; benefits of bilingual education, importance of bilingual education, bilingual education environment, positive effects of bilingual education, and academic success; differed significantly. In each significant finding, an inspection of the mean scores indicated that Arab/Chaldean students who had been in the
United States for four years or less had higher scores indicating more positive perceptions of bilingual education. The remaining three subscales did not differ between the two groups.

Research question 4. Is there a difference in perceptions of bilingual education programs between students who received bilingual education in middle school and those who did not participate in this type of program?

Participation in bilingual education programs during middle school was the independent variable in a one-way MANOVA, with the eight subscales measuring perceptions of bilingual education. Results of this analysis were not statistically significant, indicating that perceptions of bilingual education did not differ regardless of whether students were involved in bilingual education during middle school.

Focus Group.

Ten students who had participated in the study were included in a focus group to examine the results and add further information to explain the findings. Eight of the participants were Chaldean and two were Arab. The meeting lasted for 60 minutes, with the researcher asking the questions and reporting the results of the statistical analysis. The students in the focus group provided thoughtful responses that indicated they believed that bilingual education provided a transitional period to help them adjust to American schools, learn the language, and have a peer group that understood their difficulty. Academic success was not a factor in their perceptions of bilingual education as the students reported because all students regardless of their academic ability or motivation benefitted from this program. Students who had been in the United States for fewer years
had more positive perceptions of bilingual education because they perceived it was more helpful. As students became more acclimated to the school and the United States, the importance of participating in bilingual education decreased. Finally, participation in bilingual education, according to the students, did not make a difference to their perceptions of bilingual education in high school.

Conclusions

The Arab/Chaldean students in the present study were all in bilingual education and had all immigrated to this country from a Middle Eastern country, such as Iraq, Lebanon, Yemen. These students generally were unable to speak English and were accustomed to a school system that operated differently from what they encountered in the Detroit Public Schools. Bilingual education programs appeared to help them make the transition both into society and the school.

These students were generally positive about bilingual education. They understood the need for this program and recognized its benefits. Bilingual education, mandated by the federal government and supported by state boards of education, provide students with support during the period when they are learning English and becoming acclimated to the public school system. The immigrant students are placed in classes that allow them to communicate with their teachers and other students, regardless of their levels of English proficiency rather than being placed into regular education classes where they would not understand the language, customs, or culture. As they make progress toward becoming proficient in the English language, they are gradually mainstreamed into general education classes.
A lack of differences between academically successful students and those who were not academically successful provides impetus to the consideration that bilingual education should benefit all students. Based on this finding, it appeared that the bilingual education program in the school where the study was being conducted was meeting its goals of helping all students, not just academically successful ones, make the transition to general education.

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that students who have been in the United States for fewer years were more likely to appreciate bilingual education. This finding was not surprising as those who have lived in the United States for more years were becoming assimilated into the majority culture and understood the culture of the school. Students newer to the system could appreciate the extra help they received in their classes to master the content using a language in which they were comfortable.

Bilingual education programs are usually of a limited time period, with students expected to be fully mainstreamed after three years of bilingual education. Participation in bilingual education programs both in middle and in high school did not make a difference in their perceptions of bilingual education. When this question was developed, it was thought that students who remained in bilingual education would perceive greater benefits. This finding perhaps indicated that additional time in bilingual education is not beneficial.

In this time of decreasing funding for special programs, such as bilingual education, and increased need due to additional immigrants entering the country, funding is essential to provide educational opportunities for students. Bilingual education as shown in this study is beneficial to students in helping
them become productive citizens in this global society.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

The following topics should be considered for further research in this area:

- Examine the effects of participation in bilingual education during K-12 education on college success for Arab/Chaldean students.

- Study the academic ability of students enrolled in bilingual education as compared to those in general education.

- Replicate this study with different ethnic groups to determine if the results are the same.

- Investigate parents' perceptions of bilingual education in terms of the social impacts on their culture.

- Use a longitudinal research design to determine if students who complete three years of bilingual education make the transition to general education classes successfully.
Appendix A

Survey
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Place a check mark (✓) in the column closely matches your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

1. Bilingual education improves my learning.
2. Bilingual education improves my confidence in myself.
3. Bilingual education helps me to do my homework easily.
4. Bilingual education helps me to learn new subject matter.
5. Bilingual education helps develop my native language and culture.
6. Bilingual education provides me skills to get a job.
7. Bilingual education helps me to handle classes other than bilingual classes.
8. Bilingual education helps prepare me for college.
9. In bilingual classrooms I can use my native language.
10. In a bilingual classroom I feel that I am in a friendly place.
11. Speaking two languages is important for me to succeed in a global society.
12. I can achievement better when my teachers are bilingual.
13. I feel comfortable when I speak my native language with my bilingual teacher.
14. My bilingual teachers enhance the information in textbooks.
15. My bilingual teachers help me to understand school's regulations.
16. I need bilingual classes in other subjects like business and government.
17. My parents support bilingual education.
18. My closest friends are bilingual.
19. It is difficult for me to learn when the language spoken at home is different from the language spoken at school.
20. Learning a second language can benefit me in the future.
21. I have been successful in school.
22. Nonbilingual teachers value my native language.
23. Because of my bilingual education classes, I will be able to attend college successfully.
24. I have done well in high school because of participation in bilingual classes.
25. My motivation to attend classes is improved because I am able to participate in bilingual education.
26. Bilingual education helps me to be successful in school.
27. I would like to be able to participate in regular classes as soon as possible.
Place a check mark (✓) in the column closely matches your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28. I feel that I have been accepted by non-Arabic students in my classes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I can function successfully in a nonbilingual classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. My regular education teachers treat me like the other students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. I am glad that my school is required by law to provide bilingual education to bilingual students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I am glad that my school cannot cancel bilingual education.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I recommend participation in bilingual education classes to my friends and family members.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answer the following questions:

1. Who helped you get adjusted, feel comfortable, and learn at school during the first two years? (Check all that apply)
   - School Administrator
   - Bilingual Education Teacher
   - Arab/Chaldean Student
   - Regular Education Teacher
   - Paraprofessional
   - Mainstream Student
   - Other (Specify) __________________________________________

2. How do you feel about the general relations between Arab/Chaldean students and other students at your school.
   - Excellent
   - Good
   - Average
   - Poor

3. Have you had any problems with other students because you are Arab/Chaldean?
   - Yes
   - No

   If yes, please describe what type of problems you have had.

   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________

4. Have you been treated unfairly by teachers or other students because of language or nationality?
   - Yes
   - No

   If yes, please describe how you feel you have been treated unfairly

   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________

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Please answer the following questions as they refer to you:

Age

_________ years

Gender

☐ Male
☐ Female

Ethnicity

☐ Arab
☐ Chaldean

How long have you been living in the United States? ___________ years

Did you receive bilingual education during middle school? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, for how many years? ___________ years

What language is spoken in your home?

☐ Arabic ☐ Chaldean ☐ Arabic/Chaldean ☐ English
☐ Mostly Arabic/Chaldean, with some English

What language do you use with your friends outside of school?

☐ Arabic ☐ Chaldean ☐ Arabic/Chaldean ☐ English
☐ Mostly Arabic/Chaldean, with some English

How would you describe the grades you receive in school? (Check one)

☐ All As ☐ Mostly As and Some Bs ☐ Mostly Bs and Some As
☐ All Bs ☐ Mostly Bs and Some Cs ☐ Mostly Cs and Some Bs
☐ All Cs ☐ Mostly Cs and Some Ds ☐ Mostly Ds and Some Cs
☐ All Ds ☐ Mostly Ds and Some Es ☐ Mostly Es and Some Ds
☐ All Es

Thank You for Taking the Time to Complete this Survey!!!!
Appendix B

Parent Consent Form
Dear Parents:

I am a doctoral student in Curriculum and Instruction at Wayne State University. I am conducting research on Arab/Chaldean high school students' perceptions of bilingual education as a factor in their academic success as part of the requirements for my degree. This study will ask 9th through 12th grade students to complete a questionnaire regarding their experiences in their bilingual education classes.

The students' participation in the study should take no more than one class period. The information derived from the questionnaire will not be provided to the school on an individual basis, but will be available in summarized form only when the final report is accepted.

Participation in the study is voluntary. Students whose parents choose not to allow them to participate in the study will not be penalized by the school in any way. Participation in this study can permit students to experience research in a positive manner and help them develop an understanding of the research process.

The results of this study may provide educators with additional information on the positive effects of bilingual education classes as a means of helping them achieve success in school.

If you do not want your child to participate in this study, please sign the attached form and return it to your child's teacher. If you have questions about the research process, please contact me at (313) 866-7700 or if you have questions about your child's rights when participating in research, you can contact Dr. Peter Lichtenberg of Wayne State University Behavioral Investigation Committee at (313) 577-1628.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation in making this study successful.

Sincerely,

Lina Enayah
I do not want my son/daughter, ________________________________, to participate in the study on Perceptions of Arab/Chaldean Students Regarding their Experiences in Bilingual Education.

_____________________________  _______________________
Parent Signature                           Date

Please return this form to your child's teacher if you do not want your child to participate in this study.
Appendix C

Student Assent Form
STUDENT ASSENT FORM

Perceptions of Arab/Chaldean Students Regarding Their Experiences in Bilingual Education

Lina Enayah
Principal Investigator

After I complete the questionnaire, my responses will be included in a research project that explores Arab/Chaldean high school students’ perceptions of bilingual education classes. My responses will be recorded by number, not name—so no one will know that I participated in this study. If I have any questions about the research project, I can ask Ms. Enayah (313-866-7700) or Dr. Peter Lichtenberg at (313) 577-1628.

________________________________________
Student

________________________________________
Witness
Appendix D
Correspondence
TO: Ms. Lina Enayah, Teacher
FROM: Dr. Crosby, Principal, Pershing High School
DATE: May 17, 2000
SUBJECT: Survey Approval

I approve of your conducting the survey during the months of May and June 2000. I understand that this survey will be filled out by the Arab and Chaldean students of Pershing High School for the purpose of fulfilling the requirements of your doctorate degree. If you have any problems, feel free to contact me.
MEMORANDUM
(PROVISIONAL APPROVAL)

TO:  Luna Mohammed Jalal Enayah
      Education
      32600 Concord Dr - Apt #819
      Madison Heights, MI 48071

FROM:  Peter A. Lichtenberg, Ph.D.
        Chairman, Institutional Review Board - 803

DATE:  May 23, 2000

Re:  Protocol 05-56-00(B03)-ER: "Perceptions of Arab-Chaldean Students Regarding Their Experiences in Bilingual Education." Source of Funding: Departmental Funding

The above-referenced protocol, Parental Information/Permission Letter, and Student Assent Form were APPROVED following Expedited Review (Category #7) by the Chairman of the Wayne State University Institutional Review Board (803) for the period of June 15, 2000 through June 15, 2001.

EXPIRATION DATE: June 15, 2001

This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals that may be required.

Federal regulations require that research be reviewed at least annually. It is the Principal Investigator’s responsibility to obtain review and continued approval before the expiration date. You may not continue any research activity beyond the expiration date without HIC approval.

- If you wish to have your protocol approved for continuation, please submit a completed Continuation Form at least six weeks before the expiration date (See enclosed). It may take up to six weeks from the time of submission to the time of approval to process your continuation request.

- Failure to receive approval for continuation before the expiration date will result in the automatic suspension of the approval of this protocol on the expiration date. Information collected following suspension is unapproved research and can never be reported or published as research data.

- If you do not wish continued approval, please submit a completed Closure Form when the study is terminated (See enclosed).

All changes or amendments to your protocol or consent form require review and approval by the Human Investigation Committee (HIC) BEFORE implementation.

You are also required to submit a written description of any adverse reactions or unexpected events on the appropriate form (Adverse Reaction and Unexpected Event Form) within the specified time frame

C Dr. Manuel Mazan, 219 EDU
TO: The Teaching Staff at Pershing High School  
FROM: Lina Enayah, Teacher, Pershing High School  
DATE: May 25, 2000  
SUBJECT: SURVEY

The purpose of this memo is to ask for your cooperation in conducting my survey. I am currently working on my Doctorate degree in Education at Wayne State University.

I have approval from the Office of Research and Evaluation in Detroit Public Schools to administer the survey to bilingual students at Pershing High School. I also secured permission from the school's administration.

I would be very appreciative if you send to my classroom (#309) the bilingual students who didn't fill out the survey yet for the first ten minutes of first and fourth hour this Friday, May 27, or Tuesday, May 30, 2000.

Thank you very much for your support to my efforts.

pc: Mr. A. Hargraves

Approved: _________________________
Detroit Public Schools  
Request for Approval to Conduct Research  
Office of Research, Evaluation and Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Researcher Requesting Approval</th>
<th>Position of Researcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LINA M. J. ENAYAH</td>
<td>BILINGUAL TEACHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Address of Researcher (Include the Name of Department/Office, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERSHING HIGH SCHOOL _ BILINGUAL DEPARTMENT</td>
<td>18875 RYAN RD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DETROIT MI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32600 CONCORD DR. # 819 MADISON HTS. MI 48071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>248 588-9418</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Address</td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED. D.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree Sought (If Applicable)</td>
<td>Signature of Advisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LINA ENAYAH</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of the Project's Director (If other than that of the Researcher)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Signature of Project Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name and Address of Organization Sponsoring the Research (If applicable)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONDITIONS FOR MAINTAINING ANONYMITY AND SHARING PROJECT RESULTS**

I agree to maintain the anonymity of individual students, staff members and schools in any report(s) and in any publication(s), e.g., journal articles, books, etc., which incorporate any information derived from the research conducted within the Detroit Public Schools.

I agree to provide the Office of Research, Evaluation and Assessment with a summary of the research results, complete documentation and information on the location of the complete research and, in the future, subsequent publications.

**Instructions:** Completed request forms must be typewritten and submitted with a copy of each instrument (tests, questionnaires, interview schedules, etc.) to the Detroit Public Schools, Office of Research, Evaluation and Assessment/Outside Research Requests, 5025 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, MI 48202. Telephone Number (313) 494-2022.
References


Appel, R., & Muysken, P.C. J. Language contact and bilingualism, London, U.K.; Edward Arnold


sociodemographic incorporation among Hispanic immigrants to the United States, in B. Edmonston and J. Passel (eds.) Immigration and Ethnicity. (P.75).


Economou, Louis G. (1988). Perceptions of Michigan school board...
members toward bilingual education.


Arab Americans: Understanding a Neglected Minority. (pp. 67-79).


Vernez, G. (1989) *education for the all, a landmark in pluralism*. London:
Falmer Press.


Abstract

PERCEPTIONS OF ARAB/CHALDEAN STUDENTS REGARDING THEIR EXPERIENCES IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

by

LINA MOHAMMED JALAL ENAYAH

May 2002

Advisor: Dr. Donald R. Marcotte
Major: Curriculum and Instruction
Degree: Doctor of Education

The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of Arab and Chaldean high school students (ACHSS) toward bilingual education. The findings of this study can help educators determine the extent to which students' perceptions of their bilingual education programs affected the success of these students in terms of mastering the school curriculum.

A total of 116 Arab/Chaldean students in one high school in a large urban school district participated in this study by completing an original survey developed by the researcher. The survey measured perceptions of ACHSS toward bilingual education, and demographic characteristics of the students.

Four research questions were developed, with associated hypotheses were developed for the study. Scores on each of the eight subscales derived from the survey were significantly above the neutral point, indicating students were in agreement about benefits of bilingual education. Mean scores on each of the eight subscales did not differ relative to the academic achievement of the students. When length of time in the country (4 years or less or greater than 4 years) was used as the independent variable, statistically significant differences...
were found for five subscales; benefits of bilingual education, importance of bilingual education, bilingual education environment, positive effects of bilingual education, and academic success.

Students who had been in the country shorter periods had more positive perceptions of bilingual education than those in the country for longer periods of time. ACHSS who had attended bilingual education during middle school did not differ in their perceptions of bilingual education from students who had not been in this program during middle school.

Based on findings of this study, it appeared that AACHS students were satisfied with their bilingual education programs, their satisfaction with the program was not based on academic achievement, and students with less time in U.S. were more likely to be positive about bilingual education. Increased exposure to bilingual education (participation during middle school) was not a determinant of agreement with perceptions of bilingual education. Additional study is needed with AACHS and students from other immigrant groups to examine student perceptions of bilingual education programs.
Autobiographical Statement

LINA MOHAMMED JALAL ENAYAH

Education

2001
Doctor of Education
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan
Major: Curriculum and Instruction

1996
Master of Arts
Oakland University, Rochester, Michigan
Major: Linguistics

1987
Bachelor of Arts
Kuwait University, Kuwait City, Kuwait

Certifications

Provisional Teaching Certificate Grades 7-12
Language Arts and Bilingual Education

Professional Experiences

2000 to present
Dearborn Public Schools, Dearborn, Michigan
Bilingual Teacher

1996 to 2000
Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan
Bilingual Teacher

1994 to Present
Wayne County Community College, Detroit, Michigan
Adjunct Faculty

1988 to 1990
Minister of Education, Kuwait
English as a Foreign Language Teacher