

**The Future of Education is Bilingual**

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### Abstract

The “Space Race” that began in the 1950s and ended in the 1970s showed the world the importance of effective education processes for collective rights, such as national security and national leadership, and for individual rights, such as freedom of speech and the pursuit of happiness. In our time, where globalization has produced massive flow of goods, services, people, technologies, and other important needs, claims, and values, making sovereignty borders porous and building an ideology of Global Human Community, effective education processes become particularly important. Since its beginnings, bilingual education has been characterized by continued debates about their goals and effectiveness, in terms of assimilation and multiculturalism, and about the effects of these on national identity, ethnicity, and pedagogy.

The bilingual education discourse was socially triggered by the Chinese and Puerto Rican population residing in California and New York during the 1950s and 1960s, legally triggered by a 1974 Supreme Court case, and then shaped and shared by a series of laws in New York City, and at the federal level, seeking for a more inclusive and equitable education based non-English speaking students. An analysis of the history and legal trajectory of bilingual education in United States, however, showed that from having the Lau Remedies for bilingualism, bilingual education became just a section within the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), and almost forgotten at the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). Even more, no real initiatives exist including the adult learner population. And although several proposals for bilingual education projects and programs have been presented, the long struggle for this goal of democratic equality it is still alive today.

In light of the above, this paper aims to stress that attention to bilingualism is long overdue, and that the topic needs not only more attention, but also more narrowly tailored measures, as well as stronger mechanisms of enforcement, for the successful assurance of transparency and accountability. Within this context, the paper aims to illustrate how the promotion of well-structured bilingual programs, such as the Expediting Comprehension for English Language Learners (ExC-ELL) program, can positively impact language acquisition, teaching instructional practices, and ultimately student learning in two languages. The ExC-ELL program for faculty training was initiated in 2011 by Dr. Margarita Calderón and was made possible with the collaboration of staff and faculty from the five AGMUS campuses in Florida, Texas and D.C., which are the first and only universities in the United States to offer all academic programs in a dual language format. One of the institution’s targeted goals has been to strengthen the bilingual instructional practices required of exemplary and effective dual language programs, and the main goal of the training is to support faculty in enhancing and/or developing the necessary skills to be successful in a dual language teaching and learning environment. In this sense, and as this study aims to illustrate, Ana G. Méndez University System (AGMUS) also serves as a pioneer model of what is needed for the promotion of a relevant and efficient bilingual education.

Table of Contents

Introduction..... 4

The Nature of Bilingual Education in United States ..... 6

    Legal Background, Significance, and Impact of Bilingual Education..... 9

    The Sociopolitical Context of Bilingual Education: From BEA to NCLB..... 13

    Outcome and (Unintended) Impact of BEA and the emergence of ESSA..... 16

Recent Developments in Bilingual Education ..... 19

    The Expediting Comprehension for English Language Learners (ExC-ELL): Evidence-Based  
    Instruction for English Learners and Non-English Learners ..... 21

    The Business of Bilingual Education..... 25

Who gets the most benefits and how can we move ahead? ..... 28

## Introduction

The changing demographics of working professionals, required new skill sets, and new learning talents, which are driving by the adoption of learning analytics and performance. The executive attention of talent development actions, together with quality and quantify workplace behaviors, are fundamental to the performance measurements that make a difference in today's business landscape "They want to based their human capital development investment on performance, learning about employee's daily work practices on-the-job performance" (Brock, 2017). Leaders also want to measure workplace behaviors based on transfer skills for the reason that in today's dynamic and competitive market, the organization needs to survive and stay relevant, and therefore, professionals which are effectively using communication abilities and analytics properly has an advantage to diagnose and improve performance issues at the time of need.

Bilingual education (Bilingualism/multilingualism) refers to "the coexistence of more than one language system within an individual, as contrasted to mono-lingualism" (Hakuta, 2009). As well, bilingualism is defined as "a speaker's ability to use two languages for communication. Due to the complexity of its nature, the study of bilingualism relies on several fields within linguistics, anthropology, psychology, neuroscience, and education. The study of bilingualism describes language behaviors of bilingual speakers, social and pragmatic patterns of using two languages, language development, and acquisition and loss, among other issues" (Verplaestse & Schmitt, 2010).

Strategic businesses across the globe has realized the ability to communicate well in more than two languages, native language and English. It gives the employee an edge and certainly a competitive strength.

“Many American workers miss out on global business opportunities because they are competing against an increasingly skilled global workforce that is both multilingual and fluent in English” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). Bilingual education is critical at this moment in history because it provides advantages to a developing workforce in a global market that can manage customers in their home country and in the United States. Research has stated it is the way to grow a nation’s GDP”. In addition, and according to a 2007 study by California State University at Chico, “more than 65 percent of multinationals enterprises believe localization is either important or very important for achieving higher company revenues” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). Moreover, research makes clear that bilingual professionals have advantages, not only in their literacy development, but also in the development of problem-solving skills and other important areas of cognition. Given the trend toward bilingual education, it is imperative that global leaders and businesses perceive bilingualism as a dynamic and powerful skill in today’s marketplace.

The global competition is brutal and individuals who are proficient in English, and also have skills in other languages, offers a unique opportunities in the open market and in the United States. Recent surveys in California and Florida have shown that employers have a preference of bilingual employees. “More than 60 million people in the United States speak a language other than English at home. In addition, one in five students nationwide comes from a home in which another language is spoken. This percentage is expected to grow to 25% in the next few years. Yet, even with this linguistic wealth, Americans are famous for their mono-lingualism” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). It is noteworthy that globalization and immigration have brought changes and transformation to the community at large. However, as a significant fact, “the United States is the largest market in the world, and the workforce largely speaks only English” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016).

### **The Nature of Bilingual Education in United States**

The bilingual education discourse was socially triggered by Chinese and Puerto Rican population residing in California and New York during the 1950s and 1960s, legally triggered by a 1974 Supreme Court case, and then shaped and shared by a series of laws in New York City seeking for a more inclusive and equitable education for non-English speaking students. Before all laws pertaining to bilingual education were enacted, Puerto Rican parents in New York City were facing “institutional resistance to the implementation of bilingual and ESL, instruction and to their demand for community participation in the governance of neighborhood schools” (Reyes, 2006, p.376).

Puerto Ricans paired their demands for bilingual education with the African American’s struggle for obtaining desegregated and quality schooling. They used that momentum to create several organizations such ASPIRA, United Bronx Parents (UBP), and the Puerto Rican Legal Defense and Education Fund (PRLDEF). These organizations became part of the 1960s community control “school wars” that led to the 1969 School Decentralization Law, and to the negotiations that led to the creation of the 1974 consent decree. The Bilingual Education Act (BEA) of 1968 preceded these laws. The Bilingual Education Act (BEA) of 1968 “was the first federal legislation to address the education of language minority children with limited English proficiency” and once it became a law, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 was amended with the addition of Title VII (Reyes, 2006, p.370).

From the legal and the historical background, it can be said that the core principles that motivated the Chinese and the Puerto Rican community in the 1960s and 1970s to demand for the recognition that language barriers were producing educational inequalities, and thus affecting national security, were equity and quality of education.

The demand for these principles became even more challenging when in 1973, the Supreme Court, in the case of *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez* (1973), ruled that because “there is no fundamental right to an education guaranteed by the Constitution” [...] “there is clearly no constitutional right to a bilingual education” either (Wright, 2010, para.46). Although education is not a constitutional right, its relation to the ability and possibility of exercising almost every constitutional right makes it worthy of strong governmental attention. Governments can therefore assure the upholding of the principles of educational equity, adequacy, and excellence through the recognition of the existence of diverse languages in the classroom, and thus, by expanding parents’ access rights to the educational governance process. The conceptualization of these, values for the specific recognition of bilingualism, was triggered and expanded by the 1974 Supreme Court case of *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) where the Court stated that

Under these state-imposed standards there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education [...] We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful (*Lau v. Nichols*, 414 U.S. 563, 1974, para.15-16).

The *Lau* case underscored the salience of bilingualism within the education process and substantially influenced federal policy on the topic. Right after the court decision, the Office of Civil Rights of the Department of Education created the *Lau Remedies* and the essence of them was later codified into federal law through the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (EEOA), which specifically stated that

“No state shall deny educational opportunities to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by [...] (f) the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs” (EEOA, 20 U.S. Code § 1703, 1974).

Different from Title VII Bilingual Education Act regulations, which applied only to funded programs, Lau Remedies were to be applied “to all school districts and functioned as de facto compliance standards” (Wright, 2010, para.43). Moreover, although different legal actions have made it clear that “the Supreme Court never did mandate bilingual education,” since the passage of the EEOA, the text that specifically applies to bilingualism has been “viewed as a declaration of the legal right for students to receive a bilingual education” (Wright, 2010, para.41). These decisions and principles were later used by the Puerto Rican Community in New York City to shape and promote a bilingual discourse under the claim that education equity and quality cannot be attained without the recognition of the need to address the already existent and rapidly growing diversity of language at all levels and dimensions of education, such as school governance, teacher quality, and thus, student performance (Reyes, 2006). These claims were also accompanied by the idea that the accomplishment of these goals and values would be impossible, tainted, or incomplete, if the appropriate access to school and education governance is not granted to parents. Parents, as much as the students and the teachers, are a crucial component of children’s education process, and therefore, should not only be granted access, they should be included in the process (Reyes, 2006). However, although some accomplishments were made, bilingualism went from momentum and individual governmental attention to be included in the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001. According to recent studies, NCLB failed to address the specific needs of bilingual students since its enactment in 2001, and bilingual students became the population left behind by the US education system (Galvez, 2013).

### **Legal Background, Significance, and Impact of Bilingual Education**

Although the discourse for bilingual education was somehow initiated by the Chinese community's claims against educational segregation based on bilingualism, the Puerto Rican population pushed the fight even further by seeking recognition of the need for an education that recognizes language and cultural diversity to improve student performance in the classrooms, and by seeking to gain better access for parents to the education governance process. In order to understand the presence and role of Puerto Ricans in the discourse of bilingual education, one must understand not only the legal background of bilingual education and the long standing nature of challenges and struggles faced by Puerto Ricans in terms of education, but also the nature of the unresolved relationship between Puerto Rico and the US, which has created dire conditions on the island and contributed to accelerated migration of Puerto Ricans to US and other parts of the world in recent years (De Jesus & Rolón-Dow 2007).

In 1917, the United States approved the Jones-Shafroth Act, better known as the cabotage laws, or "leyes de cabotaje." This new law had two main objectives; to regulate International Trade using trade in Puerto Rico, which it did by encouraging parallel pricing for all carriers with the establishment of the Sea Land service to prevent carriers and shippers from using unfair pricing practices and to restructure the colonial civil government that was established in the island under the Foraker Act of 1900 by giving the population United States citizenship (Malavet, 2000). Some people have argued that this citizenship was granted with the idea of facilitating the draft of Puerto Ricans into the American Army, which a mere month later entered into World War I (Font-Guzmán and Alemán, 2010, p.112).

The Jones Act of 1917, in addition to granting United States citizenship to people born in Puerto Rico, also gave the residents of Puerto Rico a “Charter of Rights.” That Bill of Rights included inter alia a series of rights such as the “due process” of law when a citizen’s life, liberty or property are violated; the right to “Habeas Corpus”; prohibition of ex post facto laws; the just compensation for expropriated property; the right to bail; the right to be innocent until proven guilty; the right to freedom of speech and press; and numerous other provisions under the Constitution of the United Together (Malavet, 2000).

From 1900 to 1947, all governors of the island were from the United States and appointed by the United States President and both the governor and the US President could veto any law enacted by the Puerto Rican Legislative Branch. In 1947, a Puerto Rican was finally appointed as governor of the island and in 1948, the Jones Act was amended to allow Puerto Ricans to elect their own governor (Font-Guzmán and Alemán, 2010, p.112). In 1948, the U.S. Supreme Court expressed in *Foley Brothers Inc. v. Filardo* (336 U.S. 281) that it was a well-established principle of law that all federal legislation applies only within the territorial jurisdiction of the United States, unless a contrary intent appears. It was later established that Puerto Rico was to be subject to the Congress’ plenary powers under the “territorial clause” of Article IV, sec. 3, of the U.S. Constitution and that due to the establishment of the Federal Relations Act of 1950 all federal laws that are “not locally inapplicable” were to be automatically the law of the land in Puerto Rico.

In 1951, the U.S. Congress approved the Public Law 600, which meant that Puerto Ricans elected free association “adopted in the nature of a compact,” and which authorized Puerto Rico to draft its own constitution. This did not mean that Puerto Ricans opted to remain a colony of the United States.

However, because when the Puerto Rican Constitution was approved, on July 25 of 1952, by a popular referendum and then ratified by the U.S. Congress with a “few amendments” the United States maintained an ultimate sovereignty over Puerto Rico. This pact has been considered as a consent given by the Puerto Ricans to the commonwealth status and the United Nations therefore removed Puerto Rico from its list of non-self-governing territories (Font-Guzmán and Alemán, 2010, p.114). Under the Territorial Clause, the autonomy recognized to the island was also being interpreted by the U.S. Congress as recognition of the sovereignty over the island.

In 1976, the U.S. Supreme Court indicated in *Examining Board v. Flores de Otero* (426 U.S. 572, 1976) that the purpose of Congress in the legislations of 1950 and 1952 was to accord to Puerto Rico the degree of autonomy and independence normally associated with a State of the Union. In that same year the Puerto Rican Supreme Court was posed in *Pueblo v. Dolce* (105 D.P.R. 422, 1976) with the question of what should be the relationship between the 4<sup>th</sup> Amendment of the Federal Constitution which protects against unreasonable searches and seizures, and section 10 of article II of the Puerto Rican Constitution which offers a similar protection. The Court concluded that Puerto Rico remains subject to the will of Congress as to which rights are applicable and which not and that 4<sup>th</sup> Amendment describes the minimum level of security to be recognize by states, borders that can be expanded but not reduced.

By the end of the 1960s, there were approximately 865, 215 Puerto Ricans living in US (Rodriguez, 1991). Although Puerto Ricans are US citizens, they are also considered Hispanics or Latinos for many purposes, such as scholarships and census, and as a consequence they also get to be classified as international residents of US. The fact that Puerto Ricans are US citizens but are also categorized as international residents, instead of receiving a bigger spotlight in the international community, recent literature actually lacks a comprehensive picture of

characteristics of Puerto Ricans compared to other Hispanic groups (Collazo, Ryan & Bauman, 2010), such as the Mexican American experience (Torres, 2004). This situation perpetuates the colonial status of the Island and of Puerto Ricans by making the Island's individual and collective needs and claims invisible to the international community and to international political agendas, and by shaping and perpetuating the "Boricua achievement gap," which is shaped and shared and by the constant relegating of Puerto Ricans "as intellectually, culturally and linguistically inferior, [...] dirty, dependent upon government and a drain on the communities in which they reside" (p.9) by the media, education systems, and the US government. According to De Jesus and Rolón-Dow (2007), the "Boricua "achievement gap" partially results from dire shortfalls (or gaps) in the allocation of financial, instructional, linguistic and cultural resources for Puerto Rican students, which continually limit the educational opportunities available to them" (p.5).

In this sense, the process which renders Puerto Ricans as second-class citizens serves to better understand the discourse on bilingual education, and "the particular ways that the Puerto Rican Diaspora is formed and performed across time and in different contexts and the ensuing consequences on their educational experiences" (p.7). As De Jesús and Pérez (2009) have stated, "[i]f, during the next three decades of school wars, [U.S.] diverse immigrant community succeeds in getting the school system to respond to the linguistic and educational needs of its children, it will be because Puerto Ricans helped to lay the foundation" (p.27).

The goal of the proposals for bilingual education, which were later turned into laws and policies, as it can be seen, respond to a long struggle for the goal of democratic equality. The strength of a democracy is reflected in how educated its citizens are. Thus, the purpose of schooling is to a mechanism for the production of competent citizens that can later be part of the

democratic processes. Parents of Puerto Rican children were determined to prove that non-English speaking children were as capable of becoming part of the democratic processes as of learning as any English-speaking children could be. However, in order for these children to be able to succeed, their language diversity needs to be acknowledged and included as part of their learning process, which should include both an education of the English language and of the same academic content their English-speaking peers are learning. In short, it is the teaching process applied to non-English speaking children that need to be adjusted to their learning style, and not their learning style adjusted to the teaching style of English-speaking educators.

While there is no mandated educational model to approach bilingualism, “or to give language minorities fundamental rights directly related to the use of their native languages,” the courts have made it clear that schools cannot ignore the unique needs of non-English speaking students. It is therefore imperative for languages other than English, and cultures other than the one of US, to be taken into account at the moment of engaging in the process of creating curriculum standards and general education requirements and assessment mechanisms. This is so because these standards, requirements, and mechanisms would, in some way, affect or influence the student’s self-assessment, as well as their performance, for purposes of accountability and quality review, which would ultimately affect the equitable distribution of federal funds to states.

### **The Sociopolitical Context of Bilingual Education: From BEA to NCLB**

The Bilingual Education Act, or Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) (former 20 U.S.C. 3281) of 1968, represents “the primary federal legislative effort to provide equal educational opportunity to language minority students” which provides funding for the development of bilingual education programs by school districts (Wiese & García, 1998, p.13). Although the law passed the Congress without a single voice in dissent, there still debate

as to what the law really meant. For example, the last reauthorization before the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) came to birth, or The Improving America's Schools Act of 1994, although "increased state role and give priority to applicants seeking to develop bilingual proficiency, and modified eligibility requirements for services under Title I so that limited-English-proficient students could be eligible for services under that program on the same basis as other students" was still vague and ambiguous. However, it also introduced new grant categories, gave preference to programs which promoted bilingualism, introduced language enhancement of indigenous languages, and stood as part of a larger systemic reform effort.

Since its beginnings, bilingual education has been characterized by continued debates about their goals and effectiveness, in terms of assimilation and multiculturalism, and about the effects of these on national identity, ethnicity, and pedagogy (Reyes, 2006). For example, proponents of these type of policies have "viewed bilingual education as a way to educate language-minority children using pedagogical approaches that respected their cultural and linguistic diversity" while "opponents have objected that bilingual education policy was segregationist and undermined social integration and the "Americanization" process" (Reyes, 2006, p.369). By the early 1960s the New York City schools were already facing a time of crisis that urged for Legislature's prompt action due to the increasing amount of Puerto Ricans already living and coming into the city (McGrail, 1977). This crisis and racial/ethnic conflicts in turn produced a need for policies that more than providing solutions that could solely benefit the already established interests, could reflect political concessions aimed at the prevention of major racial/ethnic conflicts in New York City, which open the path for the eventual enactment of the New York City School Decentralization Law of 1969, "which divided the city school system into

32 Community School districts and six high school superintendencies” (De Jesús & Pérez, 2009, p.19). However, this measured proved to be not enough.

In 1974, the US Supreme Court, citing Title I of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, ruled in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), a case involving non-English Chinese speakers, that “by providing all students with the same instruction in English, school administrators failed to provide equal educational opportunities to non-English-speaking students” (Reyes, 2006, p.370). Maybe inspired by this decision, six months later, ASPIRA filed a lawsuit regarding the education of Spanish-speaking children in New York City. The case *ASPIRA of New York, Inc. v. Board of Education* (1975), resulted in a negotiated settlement, better known as the ASPIRA Consent Decree, which mandated for New York City public schools “to provide bilingual education instruction for Puerto Rican LEP/ELL students,” which established “bilingual instruction as a legally enforceable federal entitlement for New York City’s non-English-speaking Puerto Rican and Latino students” (p.371). In addition to this, on 1982, the Supreme Court on confirmed in the case of *Plyler v. Doe* that under the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution, the state does not have the right to deny a free public education to undocumented immigrant children.

It is worth noting that some efforts were made to include those whose primary language is English into the bilingual education process. On October 3, 1977, Rep. Simon, Paul [D-IL-24] introduced A bill to encourage participation by children whose language is English in bilingual education programs under the Bilingual Education Act (H.R.9419) at the 95<sup>th</sup> Congress, which intended to amend the Bilingual Education Act to authorize the participation of children whose primary language is English in bilingual education programs under such Act. The same was referred on October 3, 1977 to the House Committee on Education and Labor, reintroduced by Rep. Roe, Robert A. [D-NJ-8] (H.R.10642) on January 31, 1978, and referred to the House

Committee on Education and Labor on that same day. On May 20, 1987, amendments to The Bilingual Education Act were introduced by Sen. Kennedy, Edward M. [D-MA] “to recognize that, regardless of the method of instruction, programs which serve limited English proficient students have the equally important goals of developing academic achievement and English proficiency.” On April 28, 1988, these amendments were indefinitely postponed by Senate by Unanimous Consent.

### **Outcome and (Unintended) Impact of BEA and the emergence of ESSA**

The cases and policies discussed above were the product of enormous efforts by leaders of organizations such as ASPIRA, UBP, and PRLDEF. And as De Jesús and Pérez explained, although the 1969 Decentralization law and the 1974 ASPIRA consent decree generated “opportunities for local representation in school governance” and addressed “the specific linguistic and cultural needs of the city’s non-English speaking student population, which at the time was primarily Puerto Rican” (De Jesús & Pérez, 2009, p.19), they also “reflected political compromises between interest groups competing for control of the school system,” (De Jesús & Pérez, 2009, p.9). However, by resolving “the ambiguity regarding how institutional structures should be organized to address the educational needs of disenfranchised communities, including those for whom English was a second language” (p.27) they also “powerfully impacted the organization of the city’s education bureaucracy for years to come” (p.9).

Although efforts were made continue the legacy of the importance of having a federal mechanism in place that recognizes, promotes and protects bilingual education, the successes of these efforts were cut short by social and political developments. On January 5, 1993, Rep. Kildee, Dale E. [D-MI-9] Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 (H.R.6) which revised the Bilingual Education Act (currently all of ESEA title VII) to set Bilingual Education, Language

Enhancement, and Language Acquisition Programs and to extend its authorization of appropriations. After 244 actions, 70 titles, 49 amendments, 38 Cosponsors, and two committees the same became Public Law No: 103-382 on October 20, 1994. Simultaneously, on October 6, 1993, Rep. Serrano, Jose E. [D-NY-16] introduced a reauthorization to The Bilingual Education Act (H.R.3229) at the 103rd Congress, but after been referred to the Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education October 22, 1993, on 1994, for the first time in 40 years, Republicans were an established majority in both Houses, which meant an ‘expected form of block granting’ on education programs (Davis, 2013, p.104). In fact, by the end of the 1990s, both the President and the U.S. Secretary of Education had made it clear that they were opposed to “both the idea of a major block granting of federal education programs and the use of vouchers of any kind” (p.104) and Title VII was effectively reconfigured in almost nothing. Even more, on February 21, 1995, Rep. King, Peter T. [R-NY-3] introduced the National Language Act of 1995 (H.R.100) that could have in fact not only make English the official language of the U.S. Government, but would have repealed bilingual education, terminated the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs in the Department of Education and recaptured any unused funds.

Bilingual education was not taken seriously again until May 2, 2000, when Rep. Baca, Joe [D-CA-42] introduced the Bilingual Education and Technological Advancement Act of 2000 (H.R.4349), which “[a]uthorize[d] the Secretary of Education to make competitive grants to local educational agencies (LEAs) to provide financial assistance to elementary and secondary schools for obtaining computer software for bilingual education.” The same was referred on June 12, 2000, to the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education, Training and Life-Long Learning and together with the Bilingual Education Act, or Title VII, became part of the provisions for

bilingual education included in the 2001 reauthorization of ESEA, now known as NCLB. However, a few critics of bilingual education have insisted that the “scientifically-based research” requirement of the NCLB funding programs and grants “demonstrate the superiority of English-only immersion” in the law (Crawford, 2015). It should be noted that the latest attempt to enact the National Language Act, was introduced by Rep. Stockman, Steve [R-TX-36] on September 15, 2014 as the James Boulet National Language Act of 2014 (H.R.5473), which although “[m]akes exceptions to these requirements the use of a language other than English for: (1) religious purposes, (2) language training for international communication, or (3) school programs designed to encourage students to learn foreign languages,” repeals bilingual voting. However, recent efforts have also been made to continue to promote and protect bilingual education. On July 28, 2014, Rep. Garcia, Joe [D-FL-26] introduced The English Learning and Innovation Act into the House of Representatives with the purpose of “promot[ing] innovative practices for the education of English learners and to help States and local educational agencies with English learner populations build capacity to ensure that English learners receive high-quality instruction that enables them to become proficient in English, access the academic content knowledge needed to meet State challenging academic content standards, and be prepared for postsecondary education and careers” (H.R.5219 — 113th Congress (2013-2014), Congress.gov). This bill has been continuously introduced on previous sessions of Congress but has not been enacted yet. The most recent action was made on November 17, 2014, when it was referred to the Subcommittee on Early Childhood, Elementary, and Secondary Education.

### **Recent Developments in Bilingual Education**

The potential of the bilingual education in the United States has curved into a disadvantage due to the education policies and regulations that pays no attention to the development of a second language. Therefore, it has a direct impact in new business possibilities and prospects. It is important that educational leaders and businesses assume proactive roles as change leaders and creators of an enriched learning backgrounds employees.

“The language you choose to speak or write in is a good indicator of the global influence your work will have” (Hidalgo & Ronen, 2014). What is more, it is a general believe that if you speak and write in English, you will be heard and considered. Currently, researchers from MIT has mapped out three global language networks based on bilingual tweeters, book translations, and multilingual. “A new method for mapping on how information flows around the globe identifies the best languages to spread your ideas far and wide. For example, for non-English speakers, the choice of English as second or third language is an obvious one. For English speakers, the analysis suggest it would be more advantageous to choose Spanish over Chinese, at least if they are spreading their ideas through writing” (Hidalgo & Ronen, 2014).

Research has revealed very positive affirmations of bilingual education. These are as following: 1) more employers prefer bilingual applicants across all sectors of the economy, businesses, education, etc.; 2) more millennial generation, multilingual employees are earning more on average, and 3) more balanced bilinguals were less likely to drop out of high school and more likely to have higher occupational status and actually earned more in the labor market” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016).

Bilinguals have the capability to move among cultures and languages, which give them the cutting-edge sense of a balanced transitional bilingual education. It is the biggest return to education and investment in supporting native language development, and both the individual and society are the big winners.

Another important impact of bilingual education in today's global market deals with strong bilingual graduate's incoming college level. They will earn more in their jobs and it correlates between reducing dependence on social services and increasing the amount of revenue they contribute to the local tax base (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). The impact of bilingual workers are growing their boundaries from local to global, and embracing remarkable opportunities for those who can analyze, collaborate, and communicate with people all over the world, while delivering services in the local language of the customer. "In this information age, language and culture are the new "soft" ware, and it is adding skillset in response to market conditions" (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016).

Companies are dealing with constant reality of change. They are forced to restructure business strategies based on today's trends by creating a pipeline to gain skills that are useful in today's market and encouraging the next generations to expand on bilingual education competences. "While other nations cultivate the technical and language skills workforces to expand on opportunities both in their home markets and in the United States, we cannot allow a lack of language proficiency to leave American workers at a competitive disadvantage" (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016).

This opportunity for bilingual education presents real challenges and represents a complex movement that has forced the leaders in the academic world and in United States to make policy decisions at the high level regarding the types of bilingual educational programs

they will offer to the students. The continuous growing of the cultural transmission has been guided and developing to other communities that want to change their international role. “As the internet has become more available to more people around the world, they go online in their own languages. When they do, now they know how to connect to other languages and move their ideas, too” (Hidalgo & Ronen, 2014).

The remarkable rise of bilingual evidence-based instruction in the United States has doubled since 1980. There is, truly, reasons to validate these findings, such as: “1) arrival of new immigrants who learn English and hence become bilingual, 2) re-learning of other immigration languages and use a second language in the home; and 3) language learning opportunities in school with immersion and dual language programs” (Grosjean, 2018). Clearly stated, “English is so important in the United States that almost 98.6% of the population know it” (Grosjean, 2018).

Surely, modern society is moving to a more open groundwork of strength to be made to speak and use other languages to lead an individual personal enrichment, in which increased connections between generations and cultures, and as a result, network diversity in job opportunities and openings in the direction of a complete social order. It is the changing American society revolution that began almost 30 years ago, and now we are perceived the outcomes.

### **The Expediting Comprehension for English Language Learners (ExC-ELL): Evidence-Based Instruction for English Learners and Non-English Learners**

After combing through evidence-based research and best practices, the latest research panel (2017) from the National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine reached several conclusions about instruction for dual language learners in elementary, middle and high

schools. This has major implications for analyzing current instructional programs that are not providing quality instruction.

Their conclusion for elementary schools was that, “The instructional practices that are effective in developing elementary school-aged ELs’ knowledge of language and academic subject matter are: providing explicit instruction focused on developing key aspects of literacy; developing academic language during content area instruction; providing support to make core content comprehensible; encouraging peer-assisted learning opportunities; capitalizing on students’ home language, knowledge, and cultural assets; screening for language and literacy challenges and monitoring progress; and providing small-group academic support for students to learn grade-level core content.” They basically declared that, “Instruction that fails to address appropriately the linguistic, cultural, socioemotional, and academic needs of ELs when they first enter elementary school leads to their lack of progress and to the growing number of long-term ELs in secondary schools which in turn can lead to disengagement in these students” (p. 8-26)

The fundamental recommendation for middle schools was that, “Literacy engagement is critical during the middle school grades. During these grades, students are required to read and learn from advanced and complex grade-level texts. For ELs, this problem is acute because instructional support for long-term English learners tends to emphasize skills instead of dealing with the barriers to their motivation to learn, engagement in the classroom, and literacy engagement” (p. 8-27).

For high schools, they assert that while there is little research at the high school level, “some promising practices include a focus on academic language development that embraces all facets of academic language and includes both oral and written language across content areas; structured reading and writing instruction using a cognitive strategies approach and explicit

instruction in reading comprehension strategies; opportunities for extended discussion of text and its meaning between teachers and students and in peer groups that may foster motivation and engagement in literacy learning; provision of peer-assisted learning opportunities; and rigorous, focused, and relevant support for long-term ELs (p. 8-27).

One of the evidence-based effective programs for elementary schools was developed with a five-year grant from the U.S. Department of Education's Institute for Educational Sciences, the Bilingual Cooperative Reading and Composition model was developed by one of the authors of this paper for training elementary teachers in dual language programs. Through experimental and control cohorts of students in 5 schools, the BCIRC students outperformed control students with greater test scores on the Woodcock-Muñoz language and literacy tests and in state tests. Thus, proving that students can finish 5<sup>th</sup> grade fully bilingual and on grade-level in their content area subjects (Calderón, Hertz-Lazarowitz & Slavin 1998).

For middle and high schools, the NRP research panel conclusions above are very similar to those recommended by two panels convened by the Carnegie Corporation of New York (2007 and 2010). The Carnegie Corporation of New York also funded a five-year empirical study for developing and testing a model based on BCIRC that integrated language, literacy and subject areas for general education, ESL/ELD and Dual Language teachers in 6<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grades. The model was tested in middle and high schools in New York City and Kauai in math, science, social studies, electives, and language arts classrooms with small and large numbers of ELs, SPED-ELs, and general education students. As with BCIRC, students in experimental schools outperformed students in matched control schools (Calderón, 2007, Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2011, Calderón & Slakk, 2018). After 5 years of evidence, this instructional and professional

development model was called Expediting Comprehension for English Language Learners (ExC-ELL).

This whole-school approach used by ExC-ELL has now provided evidence that the recommendations in the National Academies' 2017 publication do result in great gains for ELs and all students when ExC-ELL is implemented as a schoolwide whole-school initiative. Since then, the same positive outcomes have resulted in schools in Virginia, Texas, Nevada and Florida, where all core content teachers in a school are involved as well as site and central office administrators. The experimental schools that used the language, literacy, content model schoolwide continue to show positive effects over the years. Some schools went from low-achieving to exemplary in two years. This framework for instruction and professional development continued to be refined and is now widely implemented as a whole-school approach to ensure success for ELs and all students. ExC-ELL is now being implemented in institutes of higher education. The Ana G. Mendéz campuses in Florida, Texas and Washington, D.C.

As the framework is used across United States and other countries, educators are beginning to see and experience how its all-embracing core turns perspectives 180 degrees as it approaches whole-school student success from a different lens. The lens zooms in from an English Learner perspective in a way that it catches all striving readers, reluctant writers and students in advanced placement classes who need all those pieces they were not offered along the way. Most importantly, it integrates English learners from diverse cultures into a well-cared for environment where they can practice social emotional strategies (Montenegro, 2017).

This type of comprehensive model adheres to the ESSA focus since (1) both content and process are connected, (2) approach is evidence-based by empirically testing components in experimental-control schools for 5 years, (3) the model addresses the need of rigorous instruction

for all students in low- and high-diversity schools, (4) it proposes content-focused collaboration opportunities for all teachers and administrators, and (5) contains effectiveness measures to evaluate designs, teacher efficacy through growth-oriented feedback from a valid and reliable observation tool, implementation and evaluation tools, administrative and structural support systems.

### **The Business of Bilingual Education**

Business leaders have recognized the benefits of the new world order related to digital economy to improve on performance, innovation and professional expectations. Technology is becoming the new normal for today's generations. Digital activity in today's world has diverse components and opens new avenues for learning and development, particularly in professionals working in business corporations. At the same time, businesses have expanded their capability beyond the limits of a building. On one hand, distance learning systems have been growing on new frontiers, establishing on new spaces, working and studying abroad. On the other hand, new software standards with cutting edge technology have been advancing into valid business applications providing meaningful globalization partners and patterns. This new digital economy placed the bilingual professionals at the center of the world. Additionally, research has shown that United States is doing a poor job of highlighting and accomplishing bilingualism within the educational system "...the roughly 300 million people in the United States, only 60 million speak a language other than English. This means that not only is a majority of the U.S. monolingual, but also that children are not learning languages other than English in school as students used to in the past" (American Academy of Arts and Science, 2016). With the constant reality of change, business trends, and educational models emerging, the global landscape needs well-qualified bilingual adults to perform better and effective to run the corporate education

program and business system of the United States in the world community.

In some schools, a motivating movement has been observed, particularly in the states of Texas and California regarding the bilingual classes and linguistic toolkit. They are currently on fire for not providing a quality education to bilingual students. “California has passed a bill that will allow voters to decide if the option of bilingual education should be returned to school districts. In 1997, the citizens of California voted to virtually end bilingual education. Now, nearly 20 years later, no amount of anti-immigrant sentiment can stand up to the vast amount of scientific research, and a little common sense, that shows us that bilingual is, quite simply, better” (Stewart, 2014)

Businesses and educational leaders have recognized the benefits of the new digital economy to improve on innovation and performance. Technology has becoming the new normal for today’s generations. Digital activity in today’s world has a diverse components and it has opened new avenues for learning and developing working professionals in corporations.

In other words, intellectual capital, which is essential for the knowledge society controlling information technology and knowledge-based commodities in order to compete in the global market. “The educational institution whose business has traditionally been knowledge is almost directly exposed to current social pressures for global change, which is changing the nature of education itself” (Jarvis, 2011, p. 22).

At the same time, organizations have expanded their capability beyond the limits of a building. “The growth of “emerging markets-markets from smaller or less developed non-English countries-has surpassed the size of the United States market. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2013 was the first year in which emerging markets accounted for more than half of the world’s gross domestic product (GDP) on the basis of

purchasing power” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). On one hand, information systems have been growing on new frontiers, creating “facts-of-the-ground” settings in the workplace. On the other hand, new software standards are developing cutting edge tools based on meaningful globalization partners and patterns.

It is not surprising to research on well-implemented bilingual programs in the educational system using current software standards that fully develop both languages (English and Spanish), and it also reflects that students are better for the academic success in dual language bilingual programs over English-only or traditional programs. “From a research perspective, bilingual is better and greatly benefit to students” (Stewart, 2014).

This overall configuration has placed the bilingual working professionals at the center of the world, and businesses at the epicenter of technology. “In the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, language will be as important to business as technology was in the last century” (Gándara & Acevedo, 2016). The computerized information helps businesses to innovate and support effective commercial processes by enhancing performance and productivity. Besides, today’s businesses are growing based on data spectrum and in real world operational competitiveness, which requires speedy and sophisticated bilingual working professionals, who understands customer diversity and better customer experience.

The new science of doing business is focused on a rapid fact-based language and culture community responsible of making decisions and optimization of professional performance. Indeed, research has shown that United States is doing a poor job of addressing and accomplishing bilingualism within the educational system “...the roughly 300 million people in the United States, only 60 million speak a language other than English. This means that not only is a majority of the U.S. monolingual, but also that children are not learning languages other than

English in school as students used to in the past” (American Academy of Arts and Science, 2016).

With the constant reality of change, companies need to perform better and more effective in order to cope with the new world domain. It requires knowledge to embrace well-qualified working professionals, who are leading the road ahead with new emerging commercial and educational models. It is a new world community, and it demands a better fit based on cultural evolution and supporting emerging needs. Certainly, success labels a lot of factors, including technology and processes. But, bilingual education is the groundwork to manage the new world domain. “Speakers of two languages put different emphasis on actions and their consequences, influencing the way they think about the world. The study also finds that bilinguals may get the best of both worldviews, as their thinking can be more flexible. By having another language, you have an alternative vision of the world” (Weile, 2015),

### **Who gets the most benefits and how can we move ahead?**

In who gets the most benefits of bilingual education, a fresh studies prove that bilingualism is increasingly common in today’s world, that it helps to grow grey matter and develop listening skills, and that could be therefore used to promote the use and development of all areas of cognitive functioning, and thus, to help students to do better in education by thinking globally (David, 2014). The Lau Remedies developed in 1974 after the Lau v. Nichols case provided specific methods, approaches, and procedures “for (1) identifying and evaluating national-origin-minority students’ English-language skills; (2) determining appropriate instructional treatments; (3) deciding when LEP students were ready for mainstream classes; and (4) determining the professional standards to be met by teachers of language-minority children” (Wright, 2010, para.50). Nonetheless, according to recent studies, since the 2001 enactment of

NCLB and the inclusion of bilingualism within its provisions, bilingual students became the population left behind by the US education system (Galvez, 2013).

NCLB fails to address the specific needs of bilingual students. According to a 2013 United States Census Bureau Report, “[o]f 291.5 million people aged 5 and over, 60.6 million people (21 percent of this population) spoke a language other than English at home” (USCB, 2013). Moreover, according to US Department of Education 2009-2010 statistics, about 4.7 million students, or approximately 10% of students enrolled in public schools during that period only, were classified as “English language learners” (Armario, 2013, para.7).

Even more, according to the National Center for Education Statistics, “the percentage of public school students in the United States who were English language learners was higher in school year 2011–12 (9.1 percent, or an estimated 4.4 million students) than in 2002–03 (8.7 percent, or an estimated 4.1 million students)” (NCES, n.d., para.5). More than a decade after the enactment of NCLB, these numbers underscores the importance of acknowledging the need for addressing bilingualism as an important aspect of the teaching and learning processes of most students.

Indeed, lack of resources for bilingual education, as well as a lack of consistency is highly significant. Even more, the bilingual population is often concentrated at poor, overcrowded schools, where they become an extra cost to often already low budget schools (Armario, 2013). This leads to the allocation of English learning students into special programs, which are usually the cause for these students to “fall behind in other subjects” (Armario, 2013, para.11). In addition, because of being behind, graduation requirements as well as Annual Yearly Progress (AYPs) become a problem for this population. For example, according to a 2013 article, English learners make for as much of 60% or less of some state’s graduation rate, and only “7

percent of fourth-grade and 3 percent of eighth-grade English learners scored “proficient” or above in a nationwide reading exam” (Armario, 2013, para.12). The flexibility left to the states in developing their own AYP standards led to the “teaching for the test” curriculums, which is causing negative effects in the English as a Second Language Curriculum and it is leaving bilingual students at a disadvantage (Galvez, 2013).

The “*Space Race*” that began at the end of the 1950s and ended at the beginning of the 1970s showed the importance of education for collective rights, such as national security and national leadership, and for individual rights, such as freedom of speech and the pursuit of happiness. In our time, where globalization has produced massive flow of goods, services, people, technologies and other important values, making sovereignty borders porous and building an ideology of Global Human Community, effective education processes become particularly important. The accelerated interaction of globalized developments generates greater intimacy between different human personalities and different institutions, which come with complex structures of emotion. Therefore, emotion is implicated in many of the significant developments in the culture of globalization, which can only be properly understood through an effective process of education that it is politically informed and culturally inclusive and responsive. From an analysis of the history and legal trajectory of bilingual education in US, it is observable that the long struggle for the goal of democratic equality it is alive. It is not to turn down NCLB; but bilingualism is in need of more attention, of more narrowly tailored and successful measures, and of stronger mechanisms of enforcement, transparency, and accountability.

Although the reasons are not completely clear and perhaps, early evidence has suggested that students tend to reap the most benefit from bilingual education. Research has stated that

achievement and satisfaction of students in bilingual education are significantly. Also, studies have begun to indicate that language support is a key to success in bilingual education.

In a traditional English environment, discussions are conducted on multiple learning levels and at multiple speeds due to delayed responses, which makes it difficult for some Spanish speaking students to follow. These communication delays can affect group participation.

Difficulties in performing group tasks in a timely manner result from language delays. There is also the potential for inhibition of expression and elimination of nonverbal communication, which can result in misunderstandings and lack of socioemotional learning processes.

The mixed results regarding on the value of bilingual distance education requires an additional research studies to be conducted. Nevertheless, and based on the evidence-built on this research paper, the question is how can we move ahead? There is no doubt that some states, such as Texas, California and Wisconsin, are moving along on the right direction. In addition, the Department of Education is aware and understand the need to establish a robust foreign language programs, Indeed, progress has been made, and some programs have been implemented, such as “the Seal of Biliteracy” and certifications.

These first step of innovative programs give the students the opening to endorse their learning in another language based on a global scale. There are baby steps, but significant because it meets the demand in the educational system, and also it gives the students the opportunity to be better prepared based on the competitive workforce. It lead-in for generations to come. Looking to the future, technology allows us to inspire and engage students in so many ways and languages. It has the potential to make bilingual education a more personalized learning. It has transformed and created the innovative way of doing business and also how much the results stand out on the world stage.

In preparation for the 2020, a bilingual business workforce needs to be defined and aligned to the business strategy, growth, and performance. The challenges and opportunities are remarkable, and in order to be successful in this global landscape, businesses and educational leaders must delineate their participation and role founded on people strategy, demographics, meaning of the new workplace order, leadership, cultivation, and talent development.

Consequently, recognizing the strengths and risks of today's business settings and also the workforce diversity, which are fundamental to develop a precise and determinate metrics and benchmarking approaches. From feelings to change, the business and educational industries demand principles that motivates engagement, belief, and behavior change. Research has shown that people identify themselves with a deep sense of values and worldview, which are focused on a one-world community. As a result, it is all about building today's talent to meet tomorrow's need.

The necessities of bilingual learners and workers is central to our world economy because they have a voice to share based on their experiences and perceptions. And so, their voices address action to enhance the society and workplace environment in which a robust immersion mentoring programs are developed, forming diversity and inclusion advisory for them. It is simple, the use of knowledge (content) and language in a diverse society sparkle a higher sense of understanding and a more equal culture, which measures growth and relationship between individuals and the society at large.

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