

**THE AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION FROM  
THE 1700'S TO 2006**

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University of Pittsburgh, 2008

The purpose of this study is to explore the American attitude toward foreign language education in the United States. The author wished to explore events that may have shaped foreign language education from the 1700's until today.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	X
LIST OF FIGURES.....	XIII
ACNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	XVIII
NOMEMCLATURE .....	XIX
1.0 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.0.1 Foreign Language Status in the United States.....	1
1.0.2 The Author’s Intent with the Study.....	2
1.1 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY .....	4
1.1.1 Overview of each Section.....	5
1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	7
1.2.1 Research Question.....	8
1.3 STUDY LIMITATIONS.....	9
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW - INTRODUCTION.....	10
2.1 EXPLORATION OF THE THREE AREAS BEING STUDIED IN THIS CHAPTER.....	12
2.1.1 Foreign Language Instruction.....	12
2.1.1.1 Definition of the term foreign language.....	12

2.1.1.2 Advantages and disadvantages of being a native speaker of English.....	14
2.1.1.3 Foreign Language Education.....	15
2.1.1.4 Lack of foreign language competence impacts American businesses.....	17
2.1.1.5 The global language became the English language.....	18
2.1.1.6 Not all business meetings are conducted in the English language.....	19
2.1.1.7 Lack of foreign language competence impacts national security.....	20
2.1.1.8 Modern day endorsement of foreign language education.....	26
2.1.2 Federal Funding for Foreign Language Instruction .....	28
2.1.2.1 Funding for foreign language education resulting from the Cold War.....	28
2.1.2.2 Funding for foreign language education in the 1990's.....	29
2.1.2.3 Funding for foreign language education in the 2000's.....	30
2.1.2.4 Funding for languages other the three mostly commonly taught.....	36
2.1.3 Foreign language course enrollment .....	43
2.1.3.1 Immigration trends between 1900 and 2006.....	43
2.1.3.2 Overall foreign language course enrollment in grades 9 to 12 between the 1948 and 2000.....	47
2.1.3.3 Foreign language course enrollment between the 1950's and the 1960's.....	49
2.1.3.4 Foreign language course enrollment between the 1980's and the 1990's.....	49
2.1.3.5 Foreign language course enrollment in tertiary institutions between 1960 and 2002.....	50

3.0 RESEARCH METHOD - INTRODUCTION.....	55
3.1 CATEGORIZATION OF RESEARCH AREAS.....	56
3.2 BASIC RESEARCH APPROACH .....	57
3.3 RESEARCH PROCEDURE.....	58
3.4 INSTRUMENTATION.....	59
3.5 ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	60
3.5.1 Data Analysis on Immigration Patterns.....	60
3.5.2 Data Analysis on Federal Funding for Foreign Language Instruction.....	62
3.5.3 Data Analysis on Foreign Language Course Enrollment.....	63
4.0 FINDINGS - INTRODUCTION.....	66
4.1 AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 1700's.....	68
4.1.1 U.S. immigration in the 1700's .....	68
4.1.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1700's .....	69
4.1.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1700's .....	71
4.1.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1700's .....	71
4.1.5 Summary of the 1700's.....	72
4.2 AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 1800's.....	73
4.2.1 U.S. immigration in the 1800's .....	73
4.2.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1800's .....	77
4.2.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1800's .....	79
4.2.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1800's .....	80

4.2.5 Summary of the 1800's.....	82
4.3 AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 1900's.....	83
4.3.1 U.S. immigration in the 1900's .....	83
4.3.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1900's .....	88
4.3.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1900's .....	91
4.3.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1900's .....	92
4.3.5 Summary of the 1900's.....	95
4.4 AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 2000's.....	97
4.4.1 U.S. immigration in the 2000's .....	97
4.4.2 Foreign language instruction in the 2000's .....	102
4.4.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 2000's .....	107
4.4.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 2000's .....	110
4.4.5 Summary of the 2000's.....	116
5.0 DISCUSSION - INTRODUCTION.....	118
5.1 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT U.S IMMIGRATION FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006.....	119
5.2 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THE U.S. FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006.....	120
5.3 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT U.S. FUNDING FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006.....	123



5.4 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSE ENROLLMENT FROM THE 1700’S TO 2006.....	124
5.5 OVERALL STUDY DISCUSSION.....	126
6.0 EPILOGUE .....	127
APPENDIX A: University of Pittsburgh’s Institutional Review Board Completion of Module and Approval Form.....	129
APPENDIX B: Immigration record between 1900 and 1929 .....	131
APPENDIX C: Immigration record between 1940 and 2006 .....	140
APPENDIX D: Pattern of foreign language course enrollment in United States’ public secondary schools and institutions of higher education between 1948 and 2002 .....	149
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	157

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Total Funding for International Education and Foreign Language Studies, including President, Senate, and House requests from 2000 to 2008.....	32
Table 2. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 1900 to 1999.....	44
Table 3. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 2000 to 2006 .....	46
Table 4. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000 .....	48
Table 5. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002 .....	51
Table 6. Total enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002 .....	53
Table 7. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1820 to 1899 .....	74
Table 8. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1889 and 1900 .....	80
Table 9. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1900 to 1999 .....	84
Table 10. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1900 to 1999.....	86

Table 11. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1909 and 1981 .....	93
Table 12. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 2000 to 2006 .....	98
Table 13. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 2000 to 2006 ....	100
Table 14. Foreign language requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units in 2005 .....	105
Table 15. Final Amounts for International Education and Foreign Language Studies from 2000 to 2007 .....	108
Table 16. Percentage Distribution of High School Graduates, by Highest Level of Foreign Language Course Completed from 1982 to 2004.....	110
Table 17. Enrollment in French, German, and Spanish courses in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools in 2000 .....	113
Table 18. U.S. college student enrollment in specific foreign language courses, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean in 2002.....	115
Table 19. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	131
Table 20. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	134
Table 21. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	136
Table 22. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	138

Table 23. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006.....	140
Table 24. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006.....	143
Table 25. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006.....	150
Table 26. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006.....	147
Table 27. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000.....	145
Table 28. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002.....	151
Table 29. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002.....	152
Table 30. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in U.S. two-year colleges in 2002.....	154
Table 31. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in U.S. four-year colleges in 2002 by undergraduate students .....	155
Table 32. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in U.S. four-year colleges by graduate students in 2002.....	156

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. International Education and Foreign Language Studies funding appropriation, including President, Senate, and House requests from 2000 to 2008 .....	32
Figure 2. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 1900 to 1999.....	44
Figure 3. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 2000 to 2006.....	46
Figure 4. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000.....	48
Figure 5. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002.....	51
Figure 6. Enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002.....	53
Figure 7. Total enrollment per modern foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002 ...	54
Figure 8. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1820 to 1899.....	74
Figure 9. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1820 to 1899....	76
Figure 10. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1889 and 1900 .....	81
Figure 11. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1900 to 1999.....	85

Figure 12. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1900 to 1999.....	86
Figure 13. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1909 and 1981.....	94
Figure 14. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 2000 to 2006.....	99
Figure 15. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 2000 to 2006..	100
Figure 16. Foreign language requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units in 2005 .....	106
Figure 17. Final Amounts for International Education and Foreign Language Studies from 2000 to 2007 .....	108
Figure 18. Percentage Distribution of High School Graduates, by Highest Level of Foreign Language Course Completed from 1982 to 2004.....	111
Figure 19. Enrollment in French, German, and Spanish courses in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools in 2000 .....	113
Figure 20. U.S. college student enrollment in specific foreign language courses, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean in 2002.....	115
Figure 21. APPENDIX A - University of Pittsburgh’s Institutional Review Board Completion of Module and Approval Form .....	129
Figure 22. APPENDIX A - Memorandum from the University Pittsburgh’s Institutional Review Board informing that the approval was based on no involvement of human subjects .....	130
Figure 23. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	132

Figure 24. APPENDIX B - Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929.....	133
Figure 25. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	134
Figure 26. APPENDIX B - Total Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929.....	135
Figure 27. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	137
Figure 28. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929.....	137
Figure 29. APPENDIX B - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	138
Figure 30. APPENDIX B - Total African immigrants from (other Africa) to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 .....	139
Figure 31. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....	141
Figure 32. APPENDIX C - Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....	142
Figure 33. APPENDIX C - Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006....	142
Figure 34. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....	143
Figure 35. APPENDIX C - Total Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006.....	144

Figure 36. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....146

Figure 37. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....146

Figure 38. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....147

Figure 39. APPENDIX C - Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....148

Figure 40. APPENDIX C - Total African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....148

Figure 41. APPENDIX D- Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from Oceania to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006 .....150

Figure 42. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002.....151

Figure 43. APPENDIX D - Enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002.....152

Figure 44. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment per modern foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002.....153

Figure 45. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment per year of foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002.....153

Figure 46. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. two-year colleges in 2002.....154



Figure 47. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. four-year colleges in 2002 by undergraduate students .....155

Figure 48. APPENDIX D - Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. four-year colleges by graduate students in 2002.....156

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## **NOMENCLATURE**

APA – American Protective Association

CAL – Center for Applied Linguistics

CLRC – Civilian Linguistic Reserve Corps

DLI – Defense Language Institute

ESEA – Elementary and Secondary Education Act

FIE – Fund for the Improvement of Education

FLAP – Foreign Language Assistance Program

FLIP – Foreign Language Incentive Program

HEA - Higher Education Act

IHE - Institutions of higher education

I.Q. – Intelligence Quotient

JNCL-NCLIS - Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for  
Languages and International Studies

LEA – Local Education Agency

LEP – Limited English Proficiency

MiWLA – Michigan World Language Association

NCES – National Center for Education Statistics

NSEP – National Security Education Program

NCLB – No Child Left Behind

NDEA – National Defense Education Act

NSLI – National Security Language Initiative

OELA – Office of English Language Acquisition

SEA – State Education Agency

UN – United Nations

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

## **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0.1 Foreign Language Status in the United States**

In a Report to the President of the United States in 1979, the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies declared that the lack of foreign language competence diminishes the capabilities of the United States in diplomacy, in foreign trade, and in individual comprehension of the world in which we live and compete (Lange, 1987, Autumn). This lack of foreign language competence needs to be overcome if the United States is going to have a voice in the rapidly changing world order. According to Brecht & Walton (1994, March, p. 190), the United States will need to develop a national capacity for dealing with languages and cultures beyond those of Western Europe<sup>1</sup> as it is public knowledge that Spanish, French, and German are the most commonly taught foreign languages in the United States. For more details regarding foreign language course enrollment see Appendix D.

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<sup>1</sup> Countries of Western Europe are: Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Norway, Netherlands, Portugal, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom.

## **1.0.2 The Author's Intent with the Study**

As a foreign language observer, the author became increasingly interested in language education in American society. The United States has been home to several non-English languages; nonetheless, there seems to be a lack of choices when it comes to a career that involving foreign language. The choices, based on foreign language course enrollment, consistently seem to be Spanish, French, and German, regardless of the focus of the nation's global participation.

As a basis for this study, the author decided to explore the American attitude, between the 1700's and 2006, that has fostered the current state of foreign language education in the United States. To accomplish this task, the author surveyed government initiatives, both primary and secondary sources. The former include government data reports on immigration figures, language enrollment, and budget appropriations. The latter include books and journals that have been written by language educators and policy-makers who specialize in reporting and discussing proposed language education policies.

The author presents an argument based on contextual factors which are likely to have affected foreign language education in the United States. The factors explored in this work are:

- immigration,
- foreign language instruction,
- federal funding for foreign language instruction,

- foreign language course enrollment

The above factors were studied to look for a possible relationship between the various immigrant groups and foreign language education in the United States.

## 1.1 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

In this section the author discusses the organization of this study. This work is composed of six chapters:

- Chapter 1 – organization
- Chapter 2 – literature review
- Chapter 3 – research method
- Chapter 4 – findings
- Chapter 5 – discussion
- Chapter 6 – epilogue

In addition to the six chapters, there are four appendices:

- Appendix A – Review Board approval
- Appendix B and C - immigration records
- Appendix D – enrollment in foreign languages

The last section of this work is the study's bibliography.

An overview of each section follows.



### 1.1.1 Overview of Each Section

In chapter one, the author discusses the objective of this study, which is to explore the American attitude toward foreign language education from the 1750's to today (section 1.0). In section 1.1, the author provides an overview of the organization of the study. Section 1.2 describes the conceptual framework, and presents the research question. Section 1.3 describes the study limitations caused by a lack of primary government records.

In chapter two, the author explores literature related to three areas, foreign language instruction (section 2.1.1), federal funding for foreign language instruction (section 2.1.2), and foreign language course enrollment (section 2.1.3).

In chapter three, the author discusses the research method in section 3.0. Section 3.1 categorizes the research into instruction, funding, and course enrollment; section 3.2 describes an historical methodology, which is the research approach followed; section 3.3 discusses the historical research procedure; section 3.4 explains the instrument used in this study, which is government reports and literature pieces, and lastly, section 3.5 addresses the analysis of data.

In chapter four, the author presents the findings that emerged from a review of literature. The introduction, section 4.0, is followed by four sections organized around the American attitude toward foreign language education in the 1700's, 1800's, 1900's and 2000's.

In chapter five, the author discusses the four study topics separately in an historical context. The rationale for organizing the discussion in this fashion was to attain a flow for each of the topics. For example, immigration can be projected from the 1700's to 2006 in one section, unlike the way it was presented in chapter four, where each of the topics was studied in a single time frame. The last part of chapter five, the author presents an overall discussion.

In chapter six, the author presents an epilogue on the concept framework that foreign language education in the United States is impacted by the attitudes of American citizens, who act based on the dynamics of the population of which they are part.

The appendices are arranged in the following order:

Appendix A - forms approved by the university's Review Board.

Appendix B - immigration records between 1900 and 1929.

Appendix C - immigration records between 1950 and 2006.

Appendix D - enrollment figures in foreign language courses.

Finally, in the last section, the author lists the bibliographic references that have been used in this study.

## 1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A person or group's attitude can be defined by its beliefs, feelings, values, and the disposition to act in certain ways. As a foundation for this research, the author believes that the attitudes of American citizens have impacted the development of foreign language education in the United States. An example can be found in the event that led to the National Defense Education Act, NDEA, passed in 1958.<sup>2</sup> The American attitude was shaped by a success that the Soviet Union achieved in outer space. The United States felt threatened by the Soviet Union's launch of Sputnik and the potential that this event would have on the spread of communism around the globe (Brecht & Rivers, 2000, p. 3). As a result, foreign language education was considered a priority, for in addition to the realization that the U.S. was falling behind the Russians in mathematics and science, the country was also declared to be lacking in foreign language competence (<http://www.nsf.gov/pubs/stis1994/nsf8816/nsf8816.txt>). Consequently, the American attitude toward foreign language education was shaped by an international event. Members of the U.S. government then passed an act with the intent to strengthen the nation's educational institutions, and thus, the nation's population.

Today the argument that foreign language education in the United States is necessary for international relations prevails in the views of some; Brecht and Rivers (2000) stated, "The language needs of the U.S. federal government, and particularly those of the armed forces, are of unprecedented scope and complexity" (p. xi). In contrast to 1958 when the need for foreign

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<sup>2</sup> For more information about the *National Defense Education Act*, see: U.S. Department of Education <http://www.ed.gov/about/overview/fed/role.html>

language education was related to technological advances, today the need has broadened to include the economy. Brecht and Rivers (2000) wrote that the current need in the realm of the economy encompasses software, communications, and financial services. According to them, American companies are unable to penetrate foreign markets because of a shortage of language expertise.

This study will investigate the interrelationship between immigration patterns and the attitude of the American people between the 1700's and 2006 and draw conclusions on how these variables have impacted federal funding and the development of foreign language education in the United States.

### **1.2.1 Research Question**

The following question and time frame were chosen as the basis for this study:

**Research Question: What has the American attitude toward foreign language education been from the 1700's to 2006?**

As previously mentioned, the author chose to explore four factors in this study; three of these are presented in chapter 2; they are:

- foreign language instruction,
- federal funding for foreign language instruction,
- foreign language course enrollment

The literature studied to answer the research question mentioned above will be discussed in the next chapter.

### **1.3 STUDY LIMITATIONS**

This study was partially hampered by the lack of primary government source information particularly during the 1700's and 1800's. For example, immigration records were only available after 1820. Language education information was not available during the 1700's. Funding data was not available until the start of the 2000's. In the last decade of the 1900's, governmental records only listed French and German course enrollment, excluding Spanish.

The author believes that it is necessary to include information from the 1700's in this study because this is when the nation was born and attitudes were first being shaped. To make up for the lack of government records, secondary literature sources were used to fill the information gap.

## 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW - INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the author explores foreign language instruction, federal funding for foreign language instruction, and foreign language course enrollment. The sections are presented as follows:

2.1.1 Foreign language instruction

2.1.2 Federal funding for foreign language instruction

2.1.3 Foreign language course enrollment

These three factors will serve as a basis to answer the research question:

**What has the American attitude toward foreign language education been from the 1700's to 2006?**

The author believes that through the exploration of literature, she will attain a better understanding of the factors that have shaped foreign language education in the United States.

The sources of information for answering the proposed research question will be:

- books and academic journals
- government records

The books and academic journals cited in this study have been written by professionals who specialize in foreign language education. Government records will include immigration and foreign language course enrollment data in addition to funding appropriations.

## **2.1 EXPLORATION OF THE THREE AREAS BEING STUDIED IN THIS CHAPTER**

In this chapter, foreign language instruction, federal funding for foreign language instruction, and foreign language course enrollment are explored.

### **2.1.1 Foreign Language Instruction**

Prior to exploring the area of foreign language instruction, the author believes that it is necessary to define the term foreign language.

#### **2.1.1.1 Definition of the term foreign language**

Carol Klee stated in Rosenthal (2000, p. 49) that foreign languages were originally defined in relationship to the classical languages, for modern languages were not perceived as being worthy of study. The National Center for Education Statistics, NCES, defines foreign languages as:

A group of instructional programs that describes the structure and use of language that is common [in foreign nations] or indigenous to individuals of the same community or nation, the same geographical area, or the same cultural traditions. Programs cover such



features as sound, literature, syntax, phonology, semantics, sentences, prose, and verse, as well as the development of skills and attitudes used in communicating and evaluating thoughts and feelings through oral and written language.<sup>3</sup>

Based on the definition offered by the NCES, Latin would no longer be viewed as a foreign language, for it lacks the oral component since it is no longer a spoken language. According to Cindy Kendall, website manager for the Michigan World Language Association, MiWLA,<sup>4</sup> many organizations throughout the United States have renamed the term “foreign languages” to “world languages.” There has been a movement over the past 8 to 10 years to move from the term “foreign” due to its negative connotation regarding “aliens.” The shift from “foreign language” to “world language” is apparent in local, state, and national organizations and policies, and in other areas, such as business. Sandrock (2002) explains that the move to “world languages” emphasizes that “languages connect us rather than keep us separated, that languages help us understand the world and participate in multilingual communities. Many people in the United States use in the home or community the languages taught in our schools, so there is nothing foreign about it” (p. x).

One may argue that this last comment refers specifically to the U.S., for the comment is based on the concept that foreign languages are no longer foreign as a result of these languages being spoken in American homes. Looking from a language learner’s perspective though,

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<sup>3</sup> For more information on the definition of “foreign languages” by the National Center for Education Statistics see ([nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/glossary/f.asp](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/glossary/f.asp))

<sup>4</sup> For more information about the Michigan World Language Association see <http://www.miwla.org/>

foreign language is still foreign language when one engages in communication in a language that is not known by the learner, such as English-speaking students who learn a non-English language and non-English-speaking students who learn the English language.

Although the change from “foreign” to “world” has been embraced by members of the foreign language education community, in this work the author takes the liberty of using “world language” and “foreign language” interchangeably.

#### **2.1.1.2 Advantages and disadvantages of being a native speaker of English**

Sandrock (2002, p. x) stated that there are many people in the U.S. who use the languages taught in the nation’s schools in their homes; nonetheless, Americans are said to be part of a monolingual society (Lambert, 1987, p.10). Dlabay & Scott (2001) wrote about being a native speaker of English:

Being a native speaker of English is both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is an advantage because you already know the major language of international business. It is a disadvantage because you may decide wrongly that there is little need to learn another language. (p. 69)

Because of the status of the English language in a global society, Americans face the risk of not bothering to educate themselves in other languages.

### 2.1.1.3 Foreign Language Education

During the 1750's, American schools were providing education in various foreign languages; private schools in Philadelphia offered instruction in German, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic (Crawford, 1992a, p. 36).

Thomas Jefferson, in 1787, argued that American students up to sixteen years of age should learn Latin, Greek, French, Spanish (Simon, 1980, p. 77). He encouraged his son-in-law, T. M. Randolph Jr.<sup>5</sup> to learn French and Spanish because “our [the United States] connection with Spanish is [was] already important, and will [would] become daily more so. Besides this, the ancient part of American history is written chiefly in Spanish” (Schmid, 2001, p. 16). However, during that time, foreign language knowledge was not restricted to the elite of the United States. Based on newspaper advertisements, bilingualism and even trilingualism<sup>6</sup> were not uncommon even within the lower social strata. Crawford (1992a) wrote, “Run away . . .

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<sup>5</sup> Thomas Mann Randolph, Jr. (1768-1828), son-in-law of Thomas Jefferson, Governor of Virginia and U.S. Congressman. See *The Papers of Thomas Jefferson* Volume 29: 1 March 1796 to 31 December 1797 (Princeton University Press, 2002), 81-3

<sup>6</sup> Bilingualism is the ability to use two languages; trilingualism is the ability to use three languages, in both cases, especially with equal or nearly equal fluency. See <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>

from John Orr, near Skuylkill, Philadelphia, a Servant Man named James Mitchell. . . . He was being a Traveller, and can talk Dutch [German], Spanish and Irish, [Pennsylvania Gazette, November 5-12, 1749]” (p. 36). Despite this, even in the 1950’s, multilingual<sup>7</sup> skills were not recognized as a trait of a well-educated person as noted by Conant (1959), “At no time in the educational history of this country has mastery of a modern foreign language come to be recognized as the hallmark of a well-educated man or woman” (p. 4).

Since the end of World War I, demographers and sociolinguists have charted a steady pattern of linguistic assimilation of immigrants to English (Schmidt, Sr., 2000, p. 121). An example of such a trend was reported in 1919 when Ohio governor, James Cox, proposed a law to abolish all instruction in German in the state (Schmid, 2001, p. 136).

This process of assimilation to the English language started an anti-assimilation movement, of which a guiding principle was that the study of foreign languages should be encouraged and the rights of individuals and groups to use other languages must be respected (Crawford, 1992b, p. 129). Catherine Snow and Kenji Hakuta say that schools are depriving children of bilingual skills that the country could use; in addition, Crawford (1992b, p. 316) noted that Americans complain about the dismal state of foreign language teaching and that American schools are notoriously poor in the field of foreign language instruction. Similarly, Spalding (1980) reported from the 1979 President’s Commission regarding foreign language knowledge in the nation, “Americans incompetence in foreign languages is nothing short of scandalous, and it is becoming worse” (p. 178). The lack of foreign language competence is an element that negatively impacts American businesses.

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<sup>7</sup> Multilingualism is the ability to use several languages. See <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/-multilingualism>

#### **2.1.1.4 Lack of foreign language competence impacts American businesses**

American multinational businesses are severely hampered by the low number of Americans who are competent in languages other than English. To remediate the lack of foreign language competence, Intel Corporation is training its workforce in other languages and cultures. Present languages that are part of a cultural-training curriculum for Intel employees are Mandarin, Japanese, and Spanish (Workforce Management, 2004, Oct.). Business leaders in the United States have been at the forefront in promoting linguistic and cultural efficiency. “English may be the international language of business, but the ability to speak more than one language is critical to succeed in business in Europe, Asia/Pacific and Latin America” (Marshal & Heffes, 2005, Apr.). “There is a significant competitive advantage for executives to be multilingual and in 10 years, it will be more important than ever for executives to be at least bilingual” (Expansion Management, 2005, Apr.).

Building knowledge in language and culture will optimize the economic foundation of the United States, for “International trade, especially exports, which constituted a small fraction of the U.S. economy in the early 1960s, now represents a major driving force.” From 1985 to 1994, exports rose from 7.2 percent to 10.2 percent of the nation’s gross domestic product. Trade specialists argue that foreign growth stimulates the United States economy (Brecht & Walton, 2003). This trend in trading has been emphasized by American business firms, and “more than 60,000 jobs where language was required were reported by these companies” (Arnett, 1976, May).

### **2.1.1.5 The global language became the English language**

Burn & Perkins (1980, May) explain how English became the global language:

After World War II we [the United States] were the ostensible scientific leader of the world. The countries that had competed with us, France and Britain, were exhausted; a good part of their youth had been killed. The Russians, Germans, and Japanese had lost tens of millions of people and many of their factories and laboratories were destroyed. The United States dominated science, which incidentally led to English becoming the monopoly world language because everybody wanted to plug into our science. (p. 19)

As a result of this historical consequence, the United States may have become the source of a monopolistic world language and “devoutly monolingual” (Lambert, 1987, p. 10); English has been recognized as the “lingua franca” of the business world. Schmidt, Sr. (2000) defined the term language status as deriving “from the fact that linguistic change includes the birth and death of languages as well as their spread, growth, and decline” (p. 39). As a consequence of the spread of the English language after WWII, there is a belief in the nation that Americans do not need to learn a foreign language, for the rest of the world speaks English (Baron, 1990, p. 1).

### **2.1.1.6 Not all business meetings are conducted in the English language**

Peterson (2002), states that the English language is no longer necessarily the official language of business; at Airbus executive meetings, “if a majority speaks Spanish, French, or German, the meeting is held in that language.”

Although half of all business deals in Europe are conducted in English (McCrum, MacNeil, & Cran, 2002, p. 10), Dlabay & Scott (2001) believe that “learning any language will help to understand the culture of those who speak it” (p. 70), a skill much needed in business. Simon (1980) reported on the comments made by Dr. Carl Zimmer regarding American language problems when conducting business:

There are language problems; many American managers, who have been stationed abroad with a subsidiary of a U.S. corporation, fail to speak the host country’s language even after living in the country for many years. When a major American bank acquired majority interest in a European bank, the manager sent there by the U.S. bank demanded that his colleagues and employees conducted all business in English . . . U.S. corporations that are profitable and are well respected by the public have hired host-country managers to run their operations, or they employ Americans who make an effort to become familiar with their new environment. (p. 36)

Lee Nehrt, chairman of The *Business and International Education organization*,<sup>8</sup> in 1977 “called upon the American Council on Education to help reverse the present trends, to ‘encourage universities to examine existing foreign language requirements, to improve language sequences for non-majors’ and to encourage or even to require all students to study a foreign language” (Simon, 1980, p. 38).

The inadequacy of foreign language education in the United States hinders not only the American economy; but also American national security.

#### **2.1.1.7 Lack of foreign language competence impacts national security**

The recognition that the lack of foreign language instruction was putting American security at risk had already been reported in the 1940’s: “It has been pointed out, and with justification, that languages are the weakest point in our national armor” (Kroff, 1943, p. 236). At that time, “Under-Secretary of State, Sumner Welles, Vice President Wallace, Ambassador Grew all have insisted publicly on the value and importance of learning French, Spanish, German” (Kroff, 1943, p. 236), with French and German being critical for the post-war reconstruction period (Kroff, 1943, p. 237). At the time the “purpose and objectives of foreign-

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<sup>8</sup> Some companies that represented the Business and International Education in 1977 were General Electric, IBM, First National City Bank, Arthur Anderson and Company, B. B. Goodrich, Sunkist Growers, Carnation, and ALCOA.



language teaching have [had] undergone vast changes . . . We no longer are [were] teachers of French but of France, not only of German, but Germany” (Kroff, 1943, p. 237).

As stated above, the teaching of German and French was necessary for post-war reconstruction. Learning French, Spanish, and classical languages had been stressed in the 1700’s (Simon, 1980, p. 77). Today a national security challenge requires the creation of language capacity in Middle Eastern languages as described by Friel (2001):

After Sep. 11, the FBI put out a plea for translators fluent in Arabic, Pashto and Farsi. But skilled translators in those languages are in short supply. Of an American Translator Association’s 8,200 members, only one is qualified to translate Pashto.

It is apparent that the U.S. Department of Defense is suffering as a result of the lack of foreign language instruction. Each year millions of dollars are spent in training foreign-service and military personnel (Crawford, 1992b, p. 386). The position taken by Americans that the rest of the world speaks English, and consequently that Americans have no need to learn foreign languages (Lambert, 1987, p.10) has had a harmful effect on the development of culture and language capacity in the United States. As a result, the U.S. as a nation faces a national security challenge, as has been pointed out by Rep. Anna Eshoo (D-CA):

As a nation, I think we’ve not sufficiently valued and embraced foreign languages. So we have to do everything we can to improve our capabilities because the security of our nation and the safety, certainly of our dedicated men and women serving abroad, really depends on it. (Tare, 2006)

In a report submitted to the House of Representatives and to the Senate by the Joint Inquiry on the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001<sup>9</sup> – the House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence and the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence expose the linguistic inadequacy that engulfs the United States:

Finding: Prior to September 11, the Intelligence Community was not prepared to handle the challenge it faced in translating the volumes of foreign language counterterrorism intelligence it collected. Agencies within the Intelligence Community experienced backlogs in material awaiting translation, a shortage of language specialists and language-qualified field officers, and a readiness level of only 30% in the most critical terrorism-related languages used by terrorists. (Systematic Finding 6, page xvi)

The Association of American Universities (January, 2006) recognizes that not only the nation, but also its allies face enemies in the form of hostile governments and stateless groups:

In the area of national security, America and its allies face enemies – both hostile governments and a stateless enemy organized across geopolitical borders – that not only threaten us with traditional warfare but also seek the ability to undertake biological, chemical, and nuclear attacks.

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<sup>9</sup> S. Rep. No. 107-351. 107<sup>th</sup> Congress, 2D Session. H. Rep. No. 107-792. (Dec. 2002).

This threat is rooted in ideological and cultural differences. Yet our nation lacks the level of language and cultural knowledge needed to confront successfully those who threaten us. (p. 7)

Condoleezza Rice, U.S. Secretary of State, also recognizes that inadequate language capacity poses a threat in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, at a time when the global environment requires much more from any given society; her comments have been recorded by the Association of American Universities (January, 2006):

As the global center of gravity shifts from West to East ... American students must be at the forefront of our engagement with countries like China and India, Iraq, and Afghanistan. To prepare young Americans to understand the peoples who will help define the 21<sup>st</sup> century, nothing is more important than our ability to converse in their native tongues. (p. 16)

The view that foreign language education is related to the security of the United States is described in Title VI/Fulbright-Hays (Title VI/F-H)<sup>10</sup> cited by Brecht & Rivers (2001):

The security, stability, and economic vitality of the United States in a complex global era depend on American experts in and citizens knowledgeable about world regions, foreign

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<sup>10</sup> Higher Education Act, as amended, Title VI – International Education Programs. Part A, Sec. 601: Findings and Purposes, 20 USC § 1121.

languages, and international affairs, as well as on a strong research base in those areas.  
(p.1)

The need for education in the languages and cultures of others has been recognized also by political leaders. For example, President George W. Bush said, “Learning somebody else’s language is a kind gesture, because it suggests ‘I care about you’” (Macery, 2006, Jan 26). Another political leader, Representative Rush Holt (D-NJ),<sup>11</sup> proposed a Bill to encourage foreign language instruction:

[The Bill] amends the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA) to establish programs to encourage early foreign language instruction, including grants to: (1) partnerships of institutions of higher education (IHEs) and local educational agencies (LEAs) for activities relating to foreign language instruction at elementary or secondary schools, with priorities for high-need LEAs and less-commonly taught foreign languages; (2) IHEs that develop innovative programs for the teaching of foreign languages, with priorities for combining foreign languages with science and technology and for less-commonly taught foreign languages.

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<sup>11</sup> H. R. 3676 – National Security Language Act (Dec. 8, 2003). Referred to the House Subcommittee on Select Education.

In order to overcome this national security challenge, the federal government has to train the nation's linguists. "The Defense Language Institute<sup>12</sup> in Monterey, California, teaches 13% of all college-level language instruction in the United States" (Edwards, 2000).

The capacity building that is provided by the DLI is, undoubtedly, a model for any language program. DLI prepares military linguists<sup>13</sup> for a diverse set of jobs, including intensive listening, reading, and speaking in functional situations (as native speakers use their languages). Each instructional program is based on meaningful discourse in real-world contexts. These linguists participate in basic language programs that last 26 to 64 weeks, depending on the difficulty of the language. Classroom instruction takes at least six hours per day, five days per week, with an additional 2-3 hours of homework each night (DLI Brochure, 2003). The extensive amount of time expended to learn a foreign language has been explained by Maceri (2006, Jan. 25) who testifies to the fact that learning a foreign language is a complex process, especially languages with a non-Roman alphabet:

It takes a long time for an English speaker to become fluent in an "easy" Western European language. When the language is virtually unrelated to English, as it is the case with Arabic, Chinese, Korean, etc., it takes much longer.

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<sup>12</sup> The Defense Language Institute was established in 1941 as a secret school on the Presidio of San Francisco to teach Japanese language to American soldiers of Japanese descent (Nisei). For more information see <http://www.dli.army.mil>

<sup>13</sup> The term "Military linguists" does not include graduates of college and university programs in the field of Linguistics. The term is used in the armed forces to refer to language specialists.

Although the level of commitment of DLI is not easily transferred to the traditional language education in American institutions, government leaders have stressed the need for foreign language instruction. This point of view can be verified in the recommendation described in the No Child Left Behind Act:<sup>14</sup>

- Increase the number of Americans mastering critical need languages and start at a younger age
- Increase the number of advanced-level speakers of foreign languages, with an emphasis on critical need languages
- Increase the number of teachers of critical need languages and resources for them

#### **2.1.1.8 Modern day endorsement of foreign language education**

The complexity in learning foreign languages should not halt the education of American students. This view has been stated by peace seekers. In a panel report on language to the United States National Commission for UNESCO,<sup>15</sup> there was a loud cry for the importance of language and the need for “fostering interest in the study of foreign languages and cultures as a contribution to international understanding and peace” (Doyle et al. August, 1948). In addition,

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<sup>14</sup> Information obtained from the U.S. Department of Education website; document titled: Teaching Language for National Security and American Competitiveness, January 2006.

<sup>15</sup>UNESCO, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, is a specialized agency of the United Nations. It was founded in 1946 and has headquarters in Paris. The World Book Encyclopedia. (1993). Vol. 20, p. 24.

the Panel recommended that a meeting of language experts, previously scheduled but not held, be rescheduled:

This Panel urgently recommends that the United States National Commission, and UNESCO, give greater recognition to the fact that inability to communicate readily through the medium of language is a major barrier to international understanding and peace.

This Panel greatly regrets to note that the general international conference of language experts, proposed by the United States National Commission at its meeting September 11-13, 1947, has not been held; and strongly recommends that such a meeting be held in 1949. (p. 318)

In addition to the Panel's endorsement of the proposition by the United States National Commission, members of the panel also provided the Commission with an action program; according to Doyle et al. (August, 1948), the Panel requested:

That the United States National Commission recommend to school-systems and administrators increased and improved teaching of foreign languages in the grade schools of the United States; and that provision be made for pupils who have successfully begun the study of foreign language in grade school to continue it in secondary school without interruption. (p. 319)

Today there is a push for education in languages that are viewed as critical. These languages, according to *The Washington Post*, are Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi; there are only 15 public schools in the nation where Arabic is being taught at the moment (2006, Jan.8).

In this section the author explored topics that relate to foreign language education. The literature studied in this section suggests that the ability to communicate in English and other languages can further enhance the American economy, international diplomacy, and national security (Crawford, 1992b, p. 152).

## **2.1.2 Federal Funding for Foreign Language Instruction**

In this section the author explores literature related to funding appropriations for foreign language education.

### **2.1.2.1 Funding for foreign language education resulting from the Cold War**

As a result of the Cold War between the United States and Russia, allocation of funding for education rose significantly. “After the Soviet Union beat the United States into space with the



launch of the Sputnik satellite” (Friel, 2001), foreign language was among the perceived critical needs of U.S. education at the time when the National Defense Education Act was passed:<sup>16</sup>

Sputnik raised questions about the ability of the nation's education system to compete. Congress responded with the National Defense Education Act of 1958. It emphasized science education and became a significant part of the country's science policy. The act provided a student loan program, aid to elementary and secondary school instruction in science, mathematics and foreign languages, and graduate student fellowships.

In fiscal year 1958, the year before Sputnik, according to government records, the National Science Foundation's appropriation had leveled at \$40 million. In fiscal year 1959, it more than tripled at \$134 million; and by 1968 the Foundation budget stood at nearly \$500 million; funding increased by about 12 times in the decade between 1958 and 1968.

### **2.1.2.2 Funding for foreign language education in the 1990's**

In 1991, during the presidency of George H. W. Bush, “the Senate Intelligence Committee was so dubious about the recruiting pool for American spies that it established a \$150 million National Security Educational Fund to improve college programs in foreign

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<sup>16</sup> For more information about the National Defense Education Act passed in 1958 see <http://www.nsf.gov/pubs/stis1994/nsf8816/nsf8816.txt>

languages and international studies” (Crawford, 192a, p. 253). President Clinton concurred with former President Bush concerning the necessity to invest in foreign language education. In a remark prepared for delivery by U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley (2000, Sep. 19), President Clinton was mentioned as a proponent of foreign language education:

I would like to emphasize that President Clinton and his staff [members] have been leaders in the effort to improve foreign language acquisition. At the beginning of the Administration, we made competency in foreign languages part of the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. In 1993, we provided funding to four national language organizations to develop national standards in foreign language. These standards were issued in 1996, and they have given us a strong foundation for improving foreign language acquisition.

At the end of President Clinton’s term, about \$69.7 million was appropriated to fund International Education and Foreign Language Studies.

### **2.1.2.3 Funding for foreign language education in the 2000’s**

Rush Holt, New Jersey Representative, introduced the National Security Language Act<sup>17</sup> in 2003 on the basis that “we [Americans] can no longer keep our nation safe if we do not

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<sup>17</sup> For more information about the National Security Language Act introduced by Representative Rush Holt see [http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003\\_cr/hr3676.html#txt](http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003_cr/hr3676.html#txt)

commit ourselves to learning the languages and cultures of critical areas around the world.” Representative Holt explained that the need for language education goes far beyond what has been accomplished in the U.S. traditional educational system regarding language education:

Al Qaeda operates in over 75 countries, where hundreds of languages and dialects are spoken. However, 99 percent of American high school, college and university programs concentrate on a dozen (mostly European) languages. In fact, more college students currently study Ancient Greek (20,858) than Arabic (10,596), Korean (5,211), Persian (1,117), and Pashto (14) put together. We need to do more to make sure that America has the language professionals necessary to defend our national security. This cannot be done overnight. We are already years overdue.

The necessity to build capacity in languages other than the three most commonly taught in the United States (Spanish, French, and German) has been also pointed out by Friel (2001), when wrote that out of 8,200 members of an American Translator Association, only one was qualified to translate Pashto.

Funding for foreign language education is continuing during the presidency of George W. Bush. The appropriation funds from 2000 to 2008 are shown in the table and graph below.<sup>18</sup>

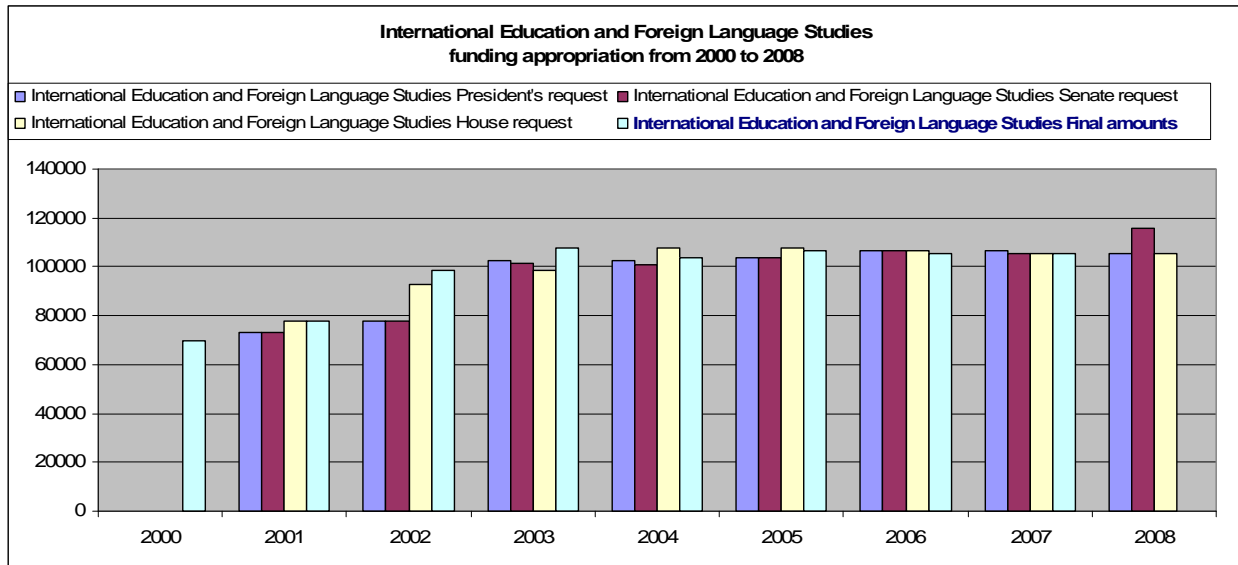
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<sup>18</sup> Figures on International Education and Foreign Language Studies were acquired from the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS. For more information see <http://www.languagepolicy.org>

**Table 1. Total Funding for International Education and Foreign Language Studies (I.E.F.L.S.), including President, Senate, and House requests from 2000 to 2008**

All the dollar amounts are in thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
I.E.F.L.S. President's request		73,022	78,022	102,500	102,500	103,600	106,800	106,700	105,700
I.E.F.L.S. Senate request		73,022	78,022	101,500	100,700	103,600	106,800	105,700	115,600
I.E.F.L.S. House request		78,022	93,000	98,500	107,700	107,600	106,800	105,700	105,700
<b>I.E.F.L.S. Final amounts</b>	<b>69,702</b>	<b>78,022</b>	<b>98,500</b>	<b>107,700</b>	<b>103,600</b>	<b>106,800</b>	<b>105,700</b>	<b>105,700</b>	



**Figure 1. International Education and Foreign Language Studies funding appropriation, including President, Senate, and House requests from 2000 to 2008**

According to the JNCL-NCLIS report, as shown in the above table and graph, the appropriation of funding in the 2000 Fiscal Year for International Education and Foreign Language Studies was \$69,702,000; the final amount for 2001 was \$78,022,000; therefore, between 2000 and 2001, there was an increase of 11.94 percent. The greatest increase shown in the above table is from 2001 to 2002, with a growth of 26.25 percent. One may assume that the impact of 9-11 may have played a role in the funding increase between 2001 and 2002; I attribute this hypothesis to a similar reaction to the 1958 Sputnik fund increase.

While the increase in international education was the largest in 2002, sporadic funding for foreign language education was taking place. For example, the U.S. Department of Education awarded \$6,000,000 for the Elementary School Foreign Language Incentive Program, FLIP.<sup>19</sup> This program is described by the U.S. Department of Education Foreign Language Program Office as follows:

The program supports incentive payments to public elementary schools that provide students with a foreign language program designed to lead to communicative competency. A program leading to communicative competency is comparable to a program that provides at least 45 minutes of instruction per day for not less than four days per week throughout an academic year.

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<sup>19</sup> For more information about the Elementary School Foreign Language Incentive Program see <http://www.ed.gov/programs/flip/index.html>

According to the U.S. Department of Education Foreign Language Program Office, funding appropriations for the fiscal years 2000 to 2006 were respectively, \$0; \$0; \$6,116,985; \$0; \$0; \$2,022,000; and \$2,586,573. The funding appropriation for FLIP, similar to funding for International Education and Foreign Language Studies, reached the highest level in 2002, with an amount of \$6,116,985. The 2002 funding is accentuated when it is compared to the amount appropriated for 2001 and 2003; which were both \$0.

Funding for foreign language education can be justified under the current federal No Child Left Behind Act, NCLB, in which foreign language was declared as a “core academic subject.” This declaration can be found in Title IX, Part A, Section 9101, Number 11. One such funding came from the Foreign Language Assistance Act, FLAP<sup>20</sup> of 2001 (<http://www.ed.gov/-legislation/FedRegister/finrule/2006-2/051906d.html>), which is described as one of the largest sources of funding for foreign language education:

[FLAP] is one of the largest federal sources of funding for foreign language programs in U.S. schools. The projects are funded on both the Local and State Education Agency (LEA and SEA) levels. According to the Department of Education, the LEA program “provides grants to establish, improve, or expand innovative foreign language programs for elementary and secondary school students. In awarding grants under this program,

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<sup>20</sup> For more information about the Foreign Language Assistance Program see <http://www.ed.gov/-programs/flapsea/index.html> and the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, NCELA [http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/oela/OELAprograms/4\\_FLAP.htm](http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/oela/OELAprograms/4_FLAP.htm)

the secretary of education supports projects that: (a) show the promise of being continued beyond their project period and (b) demonstrate approaches that can be disseminated and duplicated by other LEAs.” Similarly, the SEA program “provides grants to establish, improve, or expand innovative foreign language programs for elementary and secondary school students. In awarding grants under this program, the secretary of education supports projects that promote systemic approaches to improving foreign language learning in the state.”

The funding appropriation for FLAP resulted from a Reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, ESEA, which was actually signed in 1965 as the centerpiece of President Lyndon Johnson's War on Poverty:<sup>21</sup>

The House/Senate Education Conference Committee approved the final version of the education bill, H.R. 1, Leave No Child Behind on December 11, 2001. H.R.1 provides for sweeping reforms in elementary and secondary education. That is good news for the foreign language and international education community. FLAP is included in the final Conference Report. FLAP is now a part of Title V – Promoting Informed Parental Choice and Innovative Programs, Section D – Fund for the Improvement of Education, FIE. FLAP is no longer included with Bilingual Education, which is now consolidated into one block grant.

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<sup>21</sup> For more information about the Reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act see [http://languagepolicy.org/grants/FLAP/all\\_about\\_flap.html](http://languagepolicy.org/grants/FLAP/all_about_flap.html)

There is an addition to the FLAP program, the Foreign Language Incentive Program, FLIP. FLIP was a part of FLAP in the early 1990's but was not included the last time ESEA was reauthorized. Under this program:

*The Secretary shall make an incentive payment for each fiscal year to each public elementary school that provides to students attending such school a program designed to lead to communicative competency in a foreign language.*

Through FLIP, foreign language education is encouraged to take place at the elementary level. And also through such a program, one may assume that appropriation funds for foreign languages continue to be part of the national budget.

#### **2.1.2.4 Funding for languages other the three mostly commonly taught**

The need to educate Americans in languages other than the three most commonly taught was declared by Rush Holt at the time when the National Security Language Act was passed. Holt stated that his bill proposed a financial incentive for college students who major in current critical need languages:

The National Security Language Act would expand federal investment in education in foreign languages of critical need, such as Arabic, Persian, Korean, Pashto, and Chinese. Specifically, my bill would provide loan forgiveness of up to \$10,000 for university



students who major in a critical need foreign language and then take a job either in the federal workforce or as a language teacher.<sup>22</sup>

According to the National Center for Education Statistics,<sup>23</sup> the U.S. institutions of higher education showed an increase of 18 times in enrollment in Arabic from 1960 to 2002, rising from 641 to 10,584. Enrollment in Korean rose 31 times from 168 in 1960 to 5,211 in 2002; enrollment in Chinese rose 18 times from 1,844 in 1960 to 34,153 in 2002. Enrollment in Persian or Pashto was not reported. Assuming that each of these college students enrolled in Arabic, Korean, and Chinese would have received a \$10,000 grant, the grant appropriation for these three languages in 2002 would total \$ 500 million.

Below are some of the funding appropriations in chronological order, which were reported by Digest of Education Statistics, 2006. These funds relate to Chapter 4 federal programs for language education and related activities:<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> For more information about this funding see [http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003\\_cr/hr3676.html](http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003_cr/hr3676.html)

<sup>23</sup> For more information on enrollment in foreign language courses in United States' institutions of higher education see [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table\\_11.asp](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table_11.asp).

<sup>24</sup> For more information about Chapter 4 federal programs for language education and related activities see [http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017\\_4.pdf](http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017_4.pdf).

- 1948** *United States Information and Educational Exchange Act* (Public Law 80-402) provided for the interchange of persons, knowledge, and skills between the United States and other countries.
- 1958** *National Defense Education Act* (Public Law 85-864) provided assistance to state and local school systems for strengthening instruction in science, mathematics, modern foreign languages, and other critical subjects; improvement of state statistical services; guidance, counseling, and testing services and training institutes; higher education student loans and fellowships; foreign language study and training provided by colleges and universities; experimentation and dissemination of information on more effective utilization of television, motion pictures, and related media for educational purposes; and vocational education for technical occupations necessary to the national defense.
- 1968** *Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments of 1968* (Public Law 90-247) modified existing programs, authorized support of regional centers for education of handicapped children, model centers and services for deaf-blind children, recruitment of personnel and dissemination of information on education of the handicapped; technical assistance in education to rural areas; support of dropout prevention projects; and support of bilingual education programs.

The following figures show a summary of the amounts for foreign language appropriation for Fiscal Years 2007 and 2008:<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> For more information on appropriation funds for Fiscal Year 2008 see <http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/budget/fy2008/>, [http://languagepolicy.org/legislation/appropriations\\_fy\\_2007\\_fy\\_2008.html](http://languagepolicy.org/legislation/appropriations_fy_2007_fy_2008.html), <http://languagepolicy.org/documents/appropriations/Approp%20report%20lang%20House%2008.doc>, and [http://exchanges.state.gov/NSLI/fact\\_sheet.htm](http://exchanges.state.gov/NSLI/fact_sheet.htm)

## **Appropriations FY 2007**

The budget passed by Congress for fiscal year 2007 followed the same funding patterns as FY 2006 and funded the various government agencies (except for Defense and Homeland Security where appropriation bills were passed) at the same levels as the prior year, i.e. International Education and Foreign Language Studies at \$105.8 million, the Foreign Language Assistance Program at \$21.7 million, Civic Education at \$29.1 million, the National Endowment for the Humanities at \$140.9 million, and Education and Cultural Exchange (State Dept.) at \$437.1 million.

### **Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP)**

For the first time in his Administration, President Bush did not eliminate FLAP. The President requested a \$2 million increase to \$23.7 million for FY 2007. As a part of NSLI, FLAP was re-focused to create incentives to teach and study critical languages including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean along with other languages the Administration deemed to fall under this heading.

### **Title VI and Fulbright-Hays**

The budget proposes level funding for Title VI and Fulbright-Hays, except for a \$1 million increase for Title VI domestic programs. The increase was to establish a nationwide distance education E-learning Clearinghouse to deliver foreign language education resources to teachers and students across the country. The new E-learning

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Clearinghouse is a part of the President's NSLI. In addition, the Overseas Programs/Fulbright-Hays Institute for International Public Policy received \$1.6 million (FY 06 funding was \$1.6 million).

### **Advancing America through Foreign Language Partnerships**

As a part of NSLI, this is a program of competitive grants to establish fully articulated language programs of study in languages critical to US national security. Twenty-four grants of \$1 million each would be made to institutions of higher education for partnerships with school districts for language learning from kindergarten through high school and into advanced language learning at the postsecondary level. The goal is to “produce significant numbers of graduates with advanced levels of proficiency in languages critical to national security, many of whom would be candidates for employment with agencies and offices of the Federal Government, across a wide range of disciplines.” The funding level request for this program is \$24 million. New legislation authorizing the creation of this program is needed.

### **Language Teacher Corps**

This program was funded under the Fund for the Improvement of Education. The Administration requested \$5 million that will provide training to college graduates with critical language skills who are interested in becoming foreign language teachers. This program is also a part of NSLI.

### **Teacher-to-Teacher Initiative**

This is another NSLI program; it funded intensive summer training sessions for foreign language teachers, especially those of critical languages. Three million dollars was requested to fund this initiative.

### **National Security Education Program**

There was an additional \$19.2 million requested for NSEP. Of this increase the Flagship programs received \$10.2 million and the Civilian Linguistic Reserve Corps, CLRC, was to receive \$9.0 million. The total budget request for NSEP was \$27.2 million. This program is intended to provide and maintain a readily available civilian corps of certified expertise in languages determined to be important to the security of the nation.

### **Appropriations for FY 2008**

The President's budget proposal for fiscal year 2008, the Senate Committee recommendations, and the House Committee recommendations have been released. The budget proposal allots \$56 billion for education, with almost half of that going toward President Bush's No Child Left Behind Act. Of importance for foreign languages would be the \$2 million increase in FLAP funding (\$24 million).

### **Senate Recommendations**

The Labor, Health and Human Services, Education and Related Agencies Appropriations Act for FY 2008 has strong report language regarding the Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP):

The Committee intends for funding available under this program to promote the goal of well-articulated, long-sequence language programs that lead to demonstrable results for all students. The Committee directs the Department not to make grants to schools that are replacing current traditional language programs with critical needs language instruction. ... At least 75 percent of the appropriation must be used to expand foreign language education in the elementary grades...

The Committee is concerned that this program ... is unavailable to the poorest schools because grant recipients must provide a 50 percent match from non-Federal sources. The Committee, therefore, strongly urges the Secretary to use her ability to waive the matching requirement ...

### **House Recommendations**

Among other things, the House Committee increases the Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP) by \$3 million; in higher education, International Education and Foreign Language Studies receives a \$9.9 million increase.

Like the Senate Committee, the House Committee has some strong views on a number of these programs, such as International Education and Foreign Language Studies, where they urge greater coordination and improved data gathering and reporting.

In this section the author explored literature related to funding that has been allocated to foreign language education. There seems to be a relationship between funding and critical events such as the Sputnik and 9/11.

### **2.1.3 Foreign language course enrollment**

In this chapter the author explores foreign language enrollment in United States educational institutions. Enrollment records to be explored relate to secondary and tertiary levels. In order to explore the attitudes that impact foreign language course enrollment, the author chose to explore the composition of the population. To accomplish this task, immigration patterns were studied.

#### **2.1.3.1 Immigration trends between 1900 and 2006**

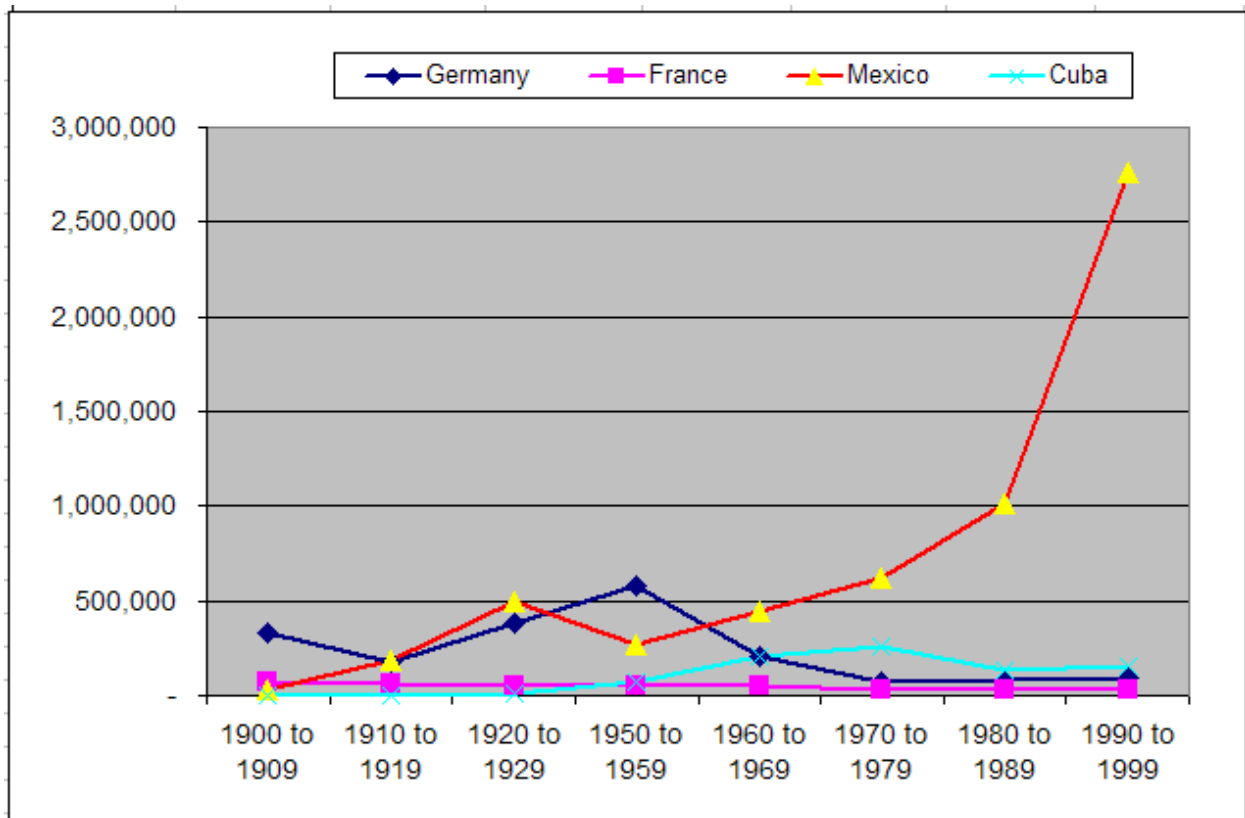
The author believes that attitudes toward foreign language education may be related to the population composition. Based on this belief, the author chose to explore immigration patterns between 1900 and 2006. Based on the author's professional experience with foreign language education in the U.S., the author chose to focus on immigration that relates to countries of the most commonly studied foreign languages in the U.S., which are French, German, and Spanish. Regarding the Spanish language, the author chose to study the immigration pattern from Mexico and Cuba because of their proximity to the United States; regarding the German and French languages, the author chose to explore the immigration patterns from Germany and France.

The following table and graph show immigration pattern from 1900 to 1999.

The immigration figures shown in the next two tables and graphs were obtained from the United States Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, 2006, table 2.<sup>26</sup>

**Table 2. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 1900 to 1999**

	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999
Germany	328,722	174,227	386,634	576,905	209,616	77,142	85,752	92,207
France	67,735	60,335	54,842	50,113	46,975	26,281	32,066	35,945
Mexico	31,188	185,334	498,945	273,847	441,824	621,218	1,009,586	2,757,418
Cuba	-	-	12,769	73,221	202,030	256,497	132,552	159,037



**Figure 2. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 1900 to 1999**

<sup>26</sup> Note that the government record that follows only reports legal immigrants. For more information about immigration, see Appendix B.



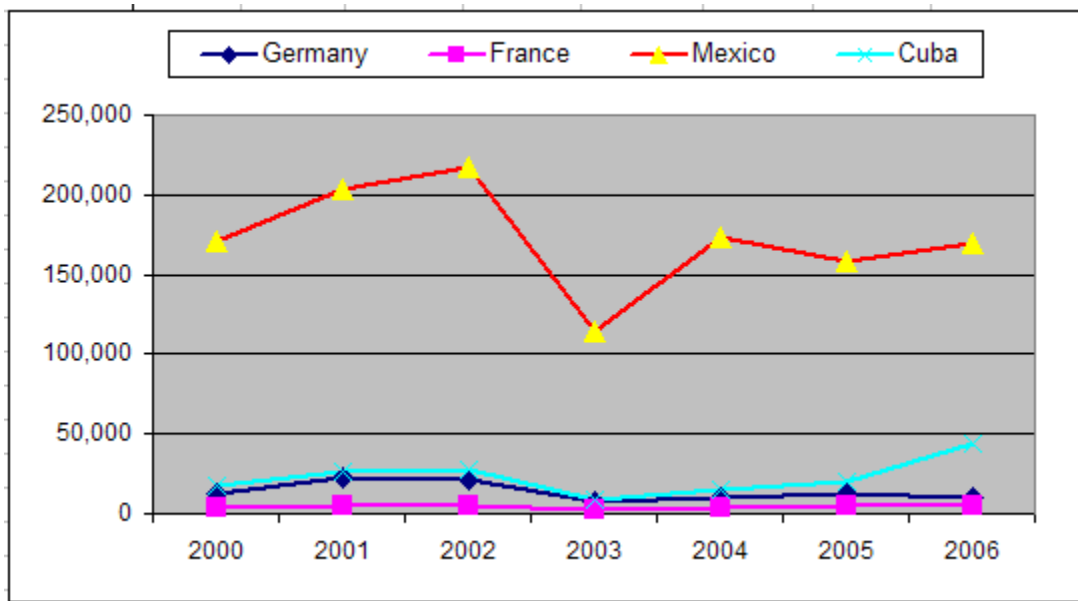
The above table and graph show that immigration from the regions in reference were as follows:

- Immigration from France (shown in pink) had no significant gains throughout the time between 1900 and 1999.
- Immigration from Cuba (shown in light blue) had a positive, but not significant, slope between 1950 and 1979.
- Immigration from Germany (shown in dark blue) declined significantly between 1950 and 1960, a decade after WWII. There was a negative slope, although less drastic, during the decade after, from 1960 to 1970, with no significant change after 1970.
- Immigration from Mexico (shown in red), unlike the other countries, showed a significant positive slope starting in 1950 with 273,847 and peaking in 1999 with 2,757,418; an increase of about 10 times, that is 1,000 per cent.

The following table and graph show immigration pattern from 2000 to 2006.

**Table 3. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 2000 to 2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Germany	12,230	21,992	20,977	8,061	10,270	12,864	10,271
France	4,063	5,379	4,567	2,926	4,209	5,035	4,945
Mexico	171,445	204,032	216,924	114,758	173,711	157,992	170,046
Cuba	17,897	25,832	27,435	8,685	15,385	20,651	44,248



**Figure 3. Persons obtaining legal permanent resident status from Germany, France, Mexico, and Cuba: Fiscal Years 2000 to 2006**

The above graph shows that immigration from Mexico has been far greater than immigration from the other three referenced countries, Germany, France, and Cuba, combined. Perhaps as a result of these immigration patterns, according to the U.S. Department of Education’s Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement and Academic Achievement for Limited

English Proficient Students (OELE), between 1990 and 2000, students with limited English proficiency were mainly composed of two groups:

- Spanish students, grew by 57 percent from 1,636,874 in 1990 to 2,584,684 in 2000, and
- Asian/Pacific Island students, grew 18 percent from 360,251 to 426,555 during the same time period.

This population composition may be related to the choice of foreign language courses, in which Spanish seems to have been the language chosen by students in most U. S. educational institutions.

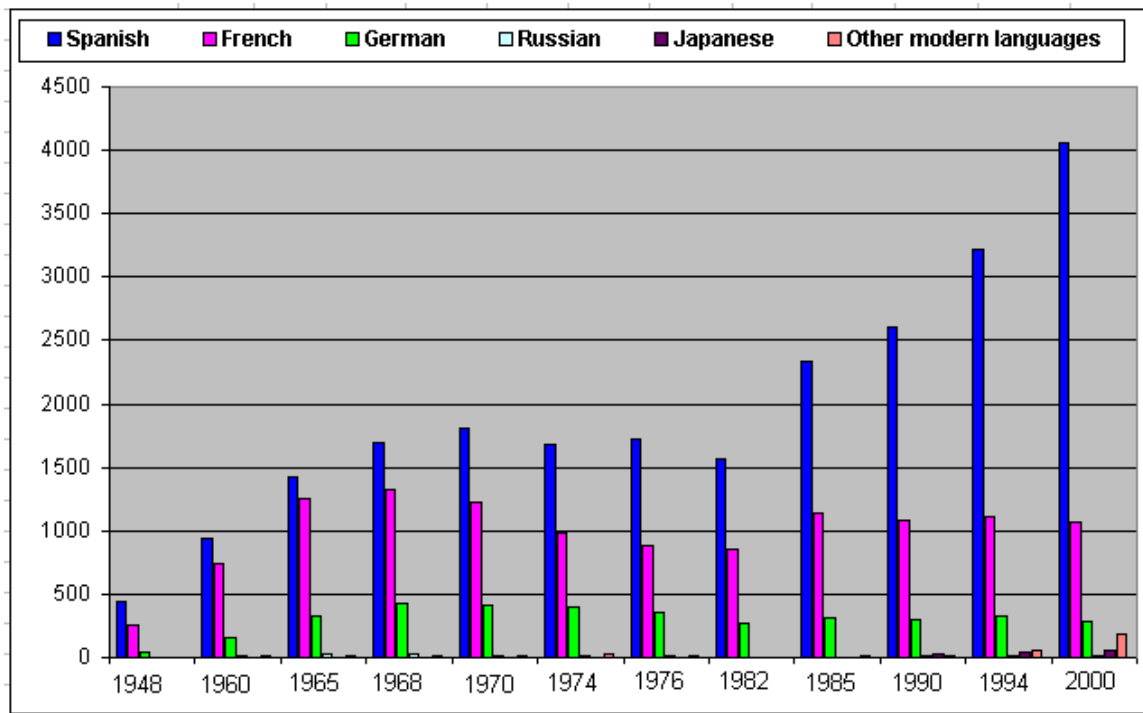
### **2.1.3.2 Overall foreign language course enrollment in grades 9 to 12 between the 1948 and 2000**

The tables and graph that follow depict the trend of enrollment in foreign language courses. The first set shows the enrollment of students in grades 9 through 12 from 1948 to 2000. The data reported were collected from the National Center for Education Statistics, NCES, Table 55, 2005 and The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL.

**Table 4. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000**

Figures in thousands

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Languages	1948	1960	1965	1968	1970	1974	1976	1982	1985	1990	1994	2000
total enrollment grades 9-12	5,602	8,589	11,610	12,718	13,336	14,103	14,314	12,405	12,388	11,338	12,213	13,514
Spanish	443	933	1,427	1,698	1,811	1,678	1,717	1,563	2,334	2,611	3,220	4,058
French	254	744	1,251	1,328	1,231	978	888	858	1,134	1,089	1,106	1,075
German	43	151	328	423	411	393	353	267	312	295	326	283
Russian	0	10	27	24	20	15	11	6	6	16	16	11
Japanese	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	42	51
Other modern languages	1	9	9	18	15	23	9	3	18	15	59	179



**Figure 4. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000**

The above table and graph show that enrollment in U.S. public secondary school foreign language courses was dominated by Spanish, especially from the 1980's to 2000, which is represented by a continuous positive slope. The author wishes to note that the language enrollment choice of Spanish is consistent with the increase in immigration from Mexico, as shown in the figures in the immigration section.

### **2.1.3.3 Foreign language course enrollment between the 1950's and the 1960's**

Eshelman (1964, Sep.), wrote about the increase in foreign language education as a result of the Sputnik era, "In 1958, approximately one student out of seven in public high schools was studying a modern foreign language; in 1962 the ratio was one to every four" (p. 107). According to these figures, there was an increase in enrollment in foreign language courses from 14 percent to 25 percent between 1958 and 1962.

### **2.1.3.4 Foreign language course enrollment between the 1980's and the 1990's**

Between 1980 and 1990, there was a 30 percent increase in enrollment in modern languages in United States colleges and universities (Tse, 2001, p.55). In 1994, during a period of massive immigration from Mexico, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign

Languages (ACTFL) reported that there were more than 6 million students studying languages other than English in the United States, with 33 percent of them in grades 7 through 12 (Tse, 2001, p.55). During the same period, 64.5 percent of high school students enrolled in languages other than English were studying Spanish (Draper & Hicks, 1996). Although one may assume that the reported figures represent a great number of students, the figures reported by ACTFL indicate that less than 2 out of 5 U.S. high school students enrolled in a foreign language course, which is generally one or two years of Spanish, French, or sometimes German, but almost never do these students enroll in languages such as Russian, Chinese, or Arabic (Crawford, 1992a, p. 207).

As indicated by the NCES, Spanish was the most studied foreign language throughout the United States<sup>27</sup> between the 1980's and the 1990's. In 1994, Spanish accounted for 67 percent of all foreign language enrollments in the nation's public schools in grades 9 to 12.

#### **2.1.3.5 Foreign language course enrollment in tertiary institutions between 1960 and 2002**

The author chose to explore the figures that have been reported by Welles (2004) and the projection table 11 that is shown on the National Center for Education Statistics' web site [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table\\_11.asp](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table_11.asp), entitled "Projection of Education Statistics to 2015" to study enrollment foreign language enrollment patterns in the U.S. institutions of higher education. Enrollment figures between 1960 and 2002 are shown below,

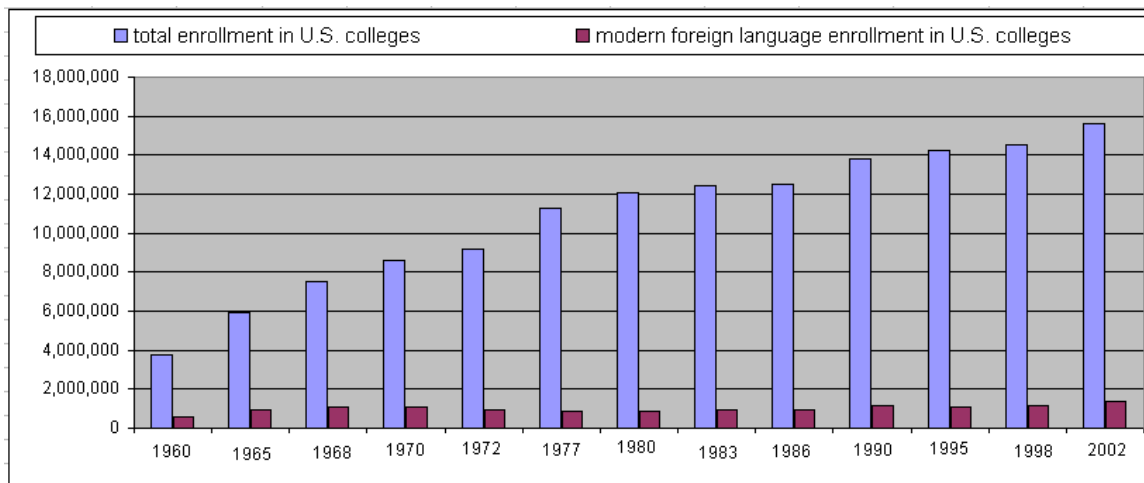
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<sup>27</sup> For more information about foreign language course enrollment see Appendix D.

where the first set of data is a comparison between total enrollment and enrollment in foreign language courses.

**Table 5. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002**

	1960	1965	1968	1970	1972	1977	1980	1983	1986	1990	1995	1998	2002
total enrollment in U.S. colleges	3,789,000	5,920,864	7,513,091	8,580,887	9,214,820	11,285,787	12,096,895	12,464,661	12,503,511	13,818,637	14,261,781	14,507,000	15,608,000
modern foreign language enrollment in U.S. colleges	608,749	975,777	1,073,097	1,067,217	963,930	883,222	877,691	922,439	960,588	1,138,880	1,096,603	1,151,283	1,347,036



**Figure 5. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002**

The above table and graph show that while total enrollment in U.S. colleges had a growth of about 4 times between 1960, with 3,789,000 and 2002, with 15,608,000, enrollment in foreign language courses did not show similar growth; while in 1960 foreign language enrollment was 608,749, in 2002 it was 1,347,036, with a growth of about 2 times.

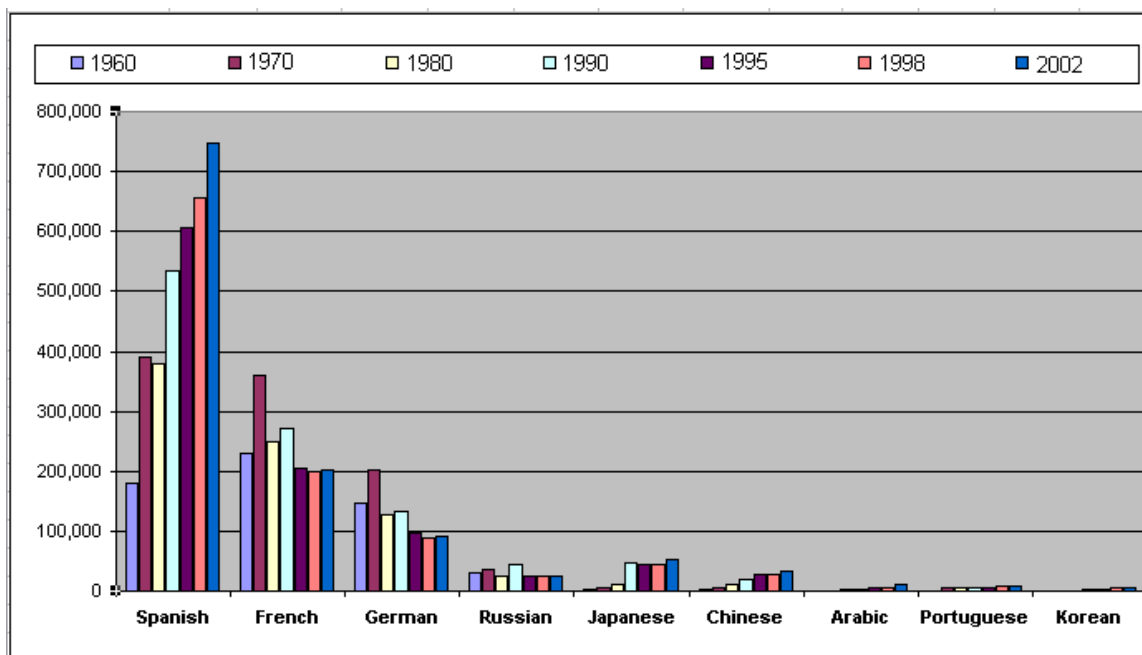
An important factor in the analysis of the enrollment figures is not so much a growth comparison, but a comparison between the two variables of total enrollment and enrollment in foreign language. Whereas in 1960 there were about 6 times as many students enrolled in U.S. colleges compared to the number of students enrolled in foreign language courses, in 2002 the ratio increased to about 12 times. Consequently, between 1960 and 2002, the gap between the total number of students enrolled in U.S. colleges compared to the number of students enrolled in foreign language courses doubled.

In addition to exploring the relationship between total enrollment and foreign language enrollment, the author chose to explore the foreign language enrollment distribution. The next table and graph show figures from 1960 to 2002 of U.S. college students enrolled in specific foreign language courses, Spanish, French, German, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean.



**Table 6. Total enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002**

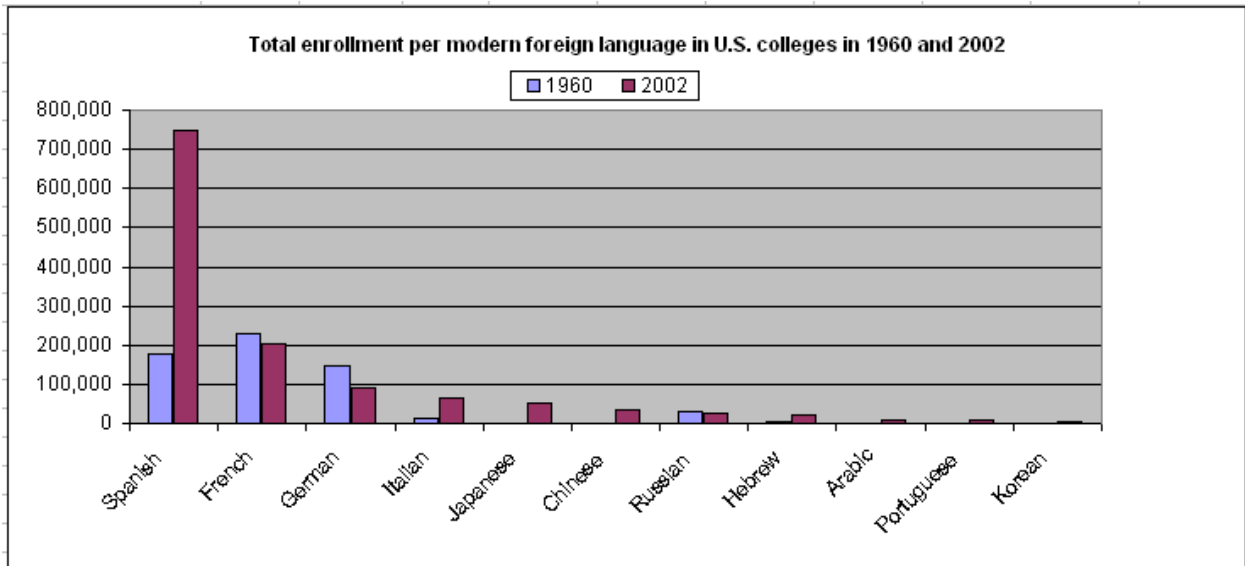
Languages	1960	1970	1980	1990	1995	1998	2002
Spanish	178,689	389,150	379,379	533,944	606,286	656,590	746,267
French	228,813	359,313	248,361	272,472	205,351	199,064	201,979
German	146,116	202,569	126,910	133,348	96,263	89,020	91,100
Russian	30,570	36,189	23,987	44,626	24,729	23,791	23,921
Japanese	1,746	6,620	11,506	45,717	44,723	43,141	52,238
Chinese	1,844	6,238	11,366	19,490	26,471	28,456	34,153
Arabic	541	1,333	3,466	3,475	4,444	5,505	10,584
Portuguese	1,033	5,065	4,894	6,211	6,531	6,926	8,385
Korean	168	101	374	2,286	3,343	4,479	5,211



**Figure 6. Enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002**

As shown in the above table and graph on enrollment in foreign language courses in U.S. colleges between 1960 and 2002, Spanish was the leading language with a significant positive slope. Chinese showed a positive slope, however, the number of students enrolled in Chinese courses was insignificant by comparison with the Spanish numbers. The following graph also shows the same set of data as the graph above; however, it depicts enrollment in 1960 and 2002

only. Spanish, once again is, by a huge margin, the leader in foreign language enrollment. For more variations in enrollment in U.S. colleges, including a breakdown between four and two-year colleges, see Appendix D.



**Figure 7. Total enrollment per modern foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002**

In this section the author explored immigration patterns between 1900 and 2006 and foreign language enrollment patterns between 1948 and 2002. The objective of this exploration was to study the relationship between immigration and foreign language course enrollment, for the author believes that the population composition has an impact on foreign language course enrollment.

### **3.0 RESEARCH METHOD – INTRODUCTION**

The author's intention in conducting this study was to explore the American attitude toward foreign language education in the United States from the 1700's until today. The author found this topic increasingly appealing because of the country's diverse immigration composition. The author's perspective is based on the concept that this composition results in varying attitudes that shape the nation's foreign language education system.

The author chose to explore data from U.S. government agencies like the U.S. Department of Education, including the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES); U.S. Department of State; U.S. Department of Defense; and Office of the Director of National Intelligence, in addition to data on immigration from the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service. Other data were collected from organizations that specialize in foreign language education in the United States; three of these organizations are the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL, and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL).

### **3.1 CATEGORIZATION OF RESEARCH AREAS**

As a means to guide this study, the author engaged in the exploration of three topics; they are foreign language instruction, federal funding for language instruction, and foreign language course enrollment.

The author believes that these three topics are related. The ethnic composition of the country's population influences foreign language course enrollment due to the attitudes of the nation's stakeholders. Based on this belief, an exploration of immigration patterns is also included in this study. Increased interest in a particular foreign language results in greater funding allocations. The author accepts the idea that funding allocations are decided by political leaders who are voted into office by the people whom they serve. The interaction among American citizens then results in mandated requirements: type of language, length of study, and so forth.

### 3.2 BASIC RESEARCH APPROACH

A historical methodology was used in this study. This chapter delineates the reasoning for the choice and provides an overview of the data collection and analysis techniques. Krathwohl (1993) wrote that historical method consists of the discovery, selection, organization, and interpretation of evidence to describe a situation or to answer a question about past events (p. 501). In this work, the author tried to discover what the attitude of Americans concerning foreign language education is. The author explored U.S. government records, in addition to records that have been compiled by other organizations and authors that specialize in foreign language education in the United States.

According to Krathwohl (1993), historical researchers are free to choose and interpret their data; however, they are judged by the intelligence and honesty they bring to the task; consequently, the match of a strongly developed rationale with carefully selected and organized data to show their congruence is always partly an art. The author believes that the scope of this study afforded her with an honesty component based on the type of explored data: governmental records, and records compiled by other organizations and authors that specialize in foreign language education in the United States. The latter are reputable authors because they write using government data; the author believes that these authors too report with honesty (Krathwohl, 1993).

### **3.3 RESEARCH PROCEDURE**

The author explored the literature to learn about the American attitude toward foreign language education from the 1700's to today. The author chose to accomplish this task with a historical perspective (Krathwohl, 1993) because she found that the study based on a chronological order would be appropriate. The rationale for this approach is that there is a relationship between the attitudes of the country's citizens, and attitudes may change over time based on historical occurrences.

The outcome goal of this exploration is to learn about the American attitude toward foreign language education within the study time frame.

### 3.4 INSTRUMENTATION

To fulfill the doctoral program's requirements, the author sought the approval of the University of Pittsburgh's Institutional Review Board, IRB, to conduct this research. The request was based on the fact that the study did not include the use of human subjects. The means for data collection were focused on government reports and literature pieces. Permission was granted as shown in Appendix A.

The study's data on immigration from 1900 to 1929 were acquired from the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, 2006, table 2; immigration figures are shown in Appendix B. Also acquired from the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, 2006, table 2 were data related to immigration from 1950 to 2006, shown in Appendix C.

Another set of data was acquired from the National Center for Education Statistics, Table 55, 2005 and The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL. These data refer to the foreign language course enrollment in the United States' public secondary schools and institutions of higher education between 1948 and 2002. These figures are shown in Appendix D.

### **3.5 ANALYSIS OF DATA**

The author chose to explore governmental records that relate to the three topics mentioned in this work, immigration, federal funding for foreign language instruction, and foreign language course enrollment.

#### **3.5.1 Data Analysis on Immigration Patterns**

The data sets that the author will be using to explore immigration patterns originated from the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, published in 2006.<sup>28</sup> Immigration content data will be discussed throughout this work, and will also be shown in Appendix B. Secondary sources from writings composed by professionals who specialize in foreign language education are also referenced throughout this work.

Although this work's time frame starts in the 1700's, governmental records on immigration only started in 1820; consequently, prior to 1820, the author relied on secondary sources. To make use of the available government data the time periods shown on tables and graphs are from 1820 to 1899, 1900 to 1999, and 2000 to 2006.

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<sup>28</sup> For more information about data on immigration between 1820 and 2006, see the 2006 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS\\_2006\\_Yearbook.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS_2006_Yearbook.pdf).



The author analyzed trends in immigration from the 1700's to 2006 from various world regions as a basis for reference. These regions are Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. Although immigration from these four world regions was explored, the author focused on immigration from regions that have a relationship to the most taught languages in the U.S., which are Europe (Germany and France), and Latin America and the Caribbean (Mexico and Cuba). The rationale for studying patterns of immigration from Germany and France was because French and German are two of the most commonly taught languages; governmental records and secondary sources point out that Germans composed the greatest number of immigrants in the 1700's and in the early part of the 1800's. French is also one of the most commonly taught languages; in addition, the author wished to explore the role France played in the U.S. at the time surrounding the Louisiana purchase in the beginning of the 1800's.

Immigration from Mexico was explored because the author wished to study if there was a change in the number of Mexican immigrants between the 1700's and 2006, especially considering that the current foreign language mostly studied in the U.S. is Spanish. The choice to explore immigration from Cuba was based on the fact that Cuba is not geographically far from the United States; in addition, the author wished to investigate if immigration from Cuba peaked during the decade of the 1960's when Fidel Castro became the Cuban leader.

### 3.5.2 Data Analysis on Federal Funding for Foreign Language Instruction

The data sets that the author will be using to explore federal funding for foreign language instruction originated from the National Defense Education Act,<sup>29</sup> from the National Security Language Act,<sup>30</sup> from the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS,<sup>31</sup> and from the National Center for Education and Statistics.<sup>32</sup> Secondary sources related to funding for foreign language instruction originated from writings composed by professionals who specialize in foreign language education; these sources have been referenced throughout this work.

Although this work's time frame starts in the 1700's, governmental records on federal funding for foreign language instruction were only provided in the 2000's; therefore, prior to 2000, the author relied on secondary sources.

The author's objective was to analyze the trends in federal funding for foreign language instruction to explore immigration patterns or world occurrences, such as the Cold War and the September 11 attack. The author came to the study with the conception that if federal funding for foreign language instruction were to empower American citizens, and consequently, the

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<sup>29</sup> For more information about the National Defense Education Act passed in 1958 see <http://www.nsf.gov/pubs/stis1994/nsf8816/nsf8816.txt>.

<sup>30</sup> For more information about the National Security Language Act introduced by Representative Rush Holt see [http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003\\_cr/hr3676.html#txt](http://www.fas.org/irp/congress/2003_cr/hr3676.html#txt).

<sup>31</sup> For more information about the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS see <http://www.languagepolicy.org>.

<sup>32</sup> For more information about the National Center for Education and Statistics, see [http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017\\_4.pdf](http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017_4.pdf).

nation, to participate in a changing world, funding would be managed to provide various language choices in the nation's academic institutions and to promote life-long learning. This promotion would encompass the use of native languages from generation to generation and a strong graduation and entrance requirement in the secondary and college institutions, respectively.

The author also came to the study with the assumption that if federal funding were allocated simply based on the nation's critical times, such as the Cold War or the September 11 attack, funding allocation would happen in an uneven, lump payment format. That is, considerable funding would be allocated immediately after a particular crisis toward a few institutions, but not as a continuous, nationwide focus.

In order to fulfill the author's preconceptions, foreign language enrollment data were analyzed, for the author believed that enrollment would show if funding for foreign language instruction was allocated to empower American citizens on a continuous basis or simply during critical times.

### **3.5.2 Data Analysis on Foreign Language Course Enrollment**

The data sets that the author will be using to explore foreign language course enrollment originated mainly from the National Center for Education Statistics, NCES.<sup>33</sup> Secondary sources

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<sup>33</sup> For more information about the National Center for Education and Statistics, see [http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017\\_4.pdf](http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007017_4.pdf).

on funding for foreign language instruction originated from writings composed by professionals who specialize in foreign language education; these sources have been referenced throughout this work.

Although this work's time frame starts in the 1700's, governmental records on immigration were not available prior to the last decade of the 1800's; consequently, prior to 1889, the author was limited to secondary sources.

The author's objective was to learn the extent to which the United States as a nation was committed to a comprehensive foreign language education plan. The author was coming from a perspective that language learning is a continuous process. Consequently, one of the goals was to explore this learning bridged from elementary to secondary to tertiary levels. Unfortunately, federal data only started to be recorded in the last decade of the 1800's, and, in addition, data reporting a substantial enrollment in foreign language courses at the elementary level were not available. Therefore the bulk of this work in relation to foreign language enrollment explores enrollment in American public high schools from 1948 to 2000 and institutions of higher education, including two and four-year colleges, from 1960 to 2002. Some of these data tables and graphs are shown in Appendix D.

The author came with the perception that language learning starts at a late phase assuming the secondary level as a starting point; in addition, the author had a preconceived view that language courses offered were confined between the three mainly taught languages, French, German, and Spanish. The exploration of foreign language course enrollment would serve as a means to confirm or refute the author's preconception.

The author will explore immigration patterns, the attitude of the American people regarding foreign language instruction, federal funding for foreign language instruction, and foreign language course enrollment within four time frames, 1700's, 1800's, 1900's, and 2000's.

The author believes that after this exploration, she will better understand the attitude of the American people toward foreign language education.

In this section the author provided an introduction to the research method with a categorization of the areas being studied. In addition, the author wrote about the research approach and procedure, and lastly, research instrumentation and intended analysis of data.

## 4.0 FINDINGS - INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the author reports what she learned about the American attitude toward foreign language education from the 1750's to today through the exploration of literature. This chapter is divided into four main sections, each with four subsections, as shown below:

### Section 4.1 – 1700's

- Section 4.1.1 immigration
- Section 4.1.2 foreign language instruction
- Section 4.1.3 federal funding for foreign language instruction
- Section 4.1.4 foreign language course enrollment

### Section 4.2 – 1800's

- Section 4.2.1 immigration
- Section 4.2.2 foreign language instruction
- Section 4.2.3 federal funding for foreign language instruction
- Section 4.2.4 foreign language course enrollment

### Section 4.3 – 1900's

- Section 4.3.1 immigration
- Section 4.3.2 foreign language instruction
- Section 4.3.3 federal funding for foreign language instruction
- Section 4.3.4 foreign language course enrollment

### Section 4.4 – 2000's

- Section 4.4.1 immigration
- Section 4.4.2 foreign language instruction
- Section 4.4.3 federal funding for foreign language instruction
- Section 4.4.4 foreign language course enrollment

## **4.1 AMERICAN ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 1700'S**

The 1700's was the period when the United States was born as a nation. It was in this century that the nation obtained its independent status. Consequently, during this period the attitudes of the "American people" who were members of this new nation started to be shaped. The population composition of the 1700's was diverse due to the immigration trends. Many people from other nations were migrating to America, where the term "immigration" was coined in 1789 (McCrum, MacNeil, & Cran, 2002, p. 289).

### **4.1.1 U.S. immigration in the 1700's**

The author was informed that governmental records for immigration into the United States started in 1820. This was validated by the sources sent to her by Steve Fienberg per a request from Bonnie Youngs, a member of the dissertation committee, and by John Simanski of the Office of Immigration Statistics. Based on secondary sources, Kloss (1998, p. 9) wrote that in the 1700's the Germans composed the largest immigrant group of the U.S., and Crawford & Schmid wrote that the number of German immigrants entering the United States during the 1750's was about 7,000 per year (Crawford, 2000, p. 11; Schmid, 2001, p. 15).



#### 4.1.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1700's

In the 1750's foreign language knowledge seemed to be taken for granted, for it appeared to be commonplace within society. In some instances being multilingual<sup>34</sup> was not just a trademark of the elite members. Such an example could be read in a newspaper advertisement as was written by Crawford (1992a):

Run away . . . from John Orr, near Skuylkill, Philadelphia, a Servant Man named James Mitchell. . . . He was being a Traveller, and can talk Dutch [German], Spanish and Irish, [Pennsylvania Gazette, November 5-12, 1749] (p. 36).

At the time American schools were providing education in various foreign languages; private schools in Philadelphia offered instruction in German, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic (Crawford, 1992a, p. 36). During this time period, American students had the choice of the languages they wished to learn in addition to the languages chosen by their parents. Education in the German language was offered when parents requested (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31). Many American settlers during the time ran non-English schools; Crawford (2000, p. 20), stated that settlers rarely were subjected to language restrictions.

Perhaps because foreign languages were ingrained in American lives in the early years of the nation, there are no explicit rules that refer to foreign language in the two foundation U.S.

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<sup>34</sup> Bilingualism is the ability to use two languages; trilingualism is the ability to use three languages, in both cases, especially with equal or nearly equal fluency. See <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>

documents, the Declaration of Independence (1776) and the United States Constitution (1789).<sup>35</sup> Thomas Jefferson, who headed a committee of five in preparing the Declaration of Independence, considered foreign language education to be a valuable cause. In 1787, he argued that American students up to sixteen years of age should learn Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish (Simon, 1980, p. 77). He encouraged his son-in-law, T. M. Randolph Jr.<sup>36</sup> to learn French and Spanish because “our [the United States] connection with Spanish is [was] already important, and will [would] become daily more so. Besides this, the ancient part of American history is written chiefly in Spanish” (Schmid, 2001, p. 16).

Jefferson was not the only political leader involved in the United States foundational documents who displayed an attitude toward foreign language. Benjamin Franklin also displayed one. His attitude, however, was different from Jefferson’s. Franklin feared that the English language would be overtaken by the German language; he wrote, “In My opinion be able to preserve our language, and even our Government will become precarious” (Crawford, 1992, p. 17). Franklin was referring to the English language when he mentioned “our language.” As a result of his attitude, Franklin proposed to force English education upon the German immigrants. He helped to establish a network of English-language schools (Crawford, 2000, p. 11).

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<sup>35</sup> For more information on the Declaration of Independence (1776) or the United States Constitution (1789) regarding foreign languages see <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/resource/foreign.htm#SEC2>

<sup>36</sup> Thomas Mann Randolph, Jr. (1768-1828), son-in-law of Thomas Jefferson, Governor of Virginia and U.S. Congressman. See *The Papers of Thomas Jefferson* Volume 29: 1 March 1796 to 31 December 1797 (Princeton University Press, 2002), 81-3

### **4.1.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1700's**

During the 1700's many settlers were educated in their own language (Crawford, 2000, p. 20); they not only had the freedom to choose their language of instruction but they were afforded with funding to satisfy their interests. Such an example happened in 1785, when Benjamin Rush<sup>37</sup> with help from Benjamin Franklin advocated a publicly funded experiment in bilingual higher education. The school was "dedicated in 1787 at Lancaster, the hub of Pennsylvania Dutch country; it is known today as Franklin and Marshal College" (Crawford, 1992a, p. 39; Crawford, 2000, p. 12; Schmid, 2001, p. 16).

### **4.1.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1700's**

The author was informed by Eugene Owen of the National Center for Education Statistics that foreign language enrollment data is "a new phenomenon." Data on foreign language enrollment only appeared in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

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<sup>37</sup> Benjamin Rush (1745-1813) was an American statesman and one of the most influential physicians in the early history of the United States. See <http://encarta.msn.com>

#### **4.1.5 Summary of the 1700's**

The author learned that immigration records and foreign language enrollment records were not available for this early time period. However, she learned that American citizens were not bound by their languages. They were afforded the opportunity to obtain an education in their own languages. She also learned that the knowledge of foreign languages was not restricted to the elite class. Finally, she learned that while immigrant parents favored educating their children in their own languages, some political leaders were not against this approach. Such leaders were Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, and Benjamin Franklin. Franklin, however, seemed to have fluctuated in his attitude toward foreign language education; sometimes he favored it, at other times, he opposed it.

## **4.2 American Attitude Toward Foreign Language Education in the 1800's**

In this section, the author explored factors that relate to the education of foreign languages during the 1800's. One of the factors that could have impacted foreign language education during this time period was the purchase of the Louisiana Territory from France by President Thomas Jefferson in 1803. The impact that this purchase could have had in foreign language education could be a result of the size of the purchased land, from the Canadian border to the mouth of the Mississippi River. The purchased territory possessed a French heritage prior to the purchase.

### **4.2.1 U.S. immigration in the 1800's**

To study this period the author used data recommended by John Simansky of the Office of Immigration Statistics.<sup>38</sup> This data covered the period from 1820 to 1899. The following tables and graphs show immigration patterns during this time frame. The first table and graph reference immigration patterns from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The second table and graph illustrate specific immigration patterns from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico, the

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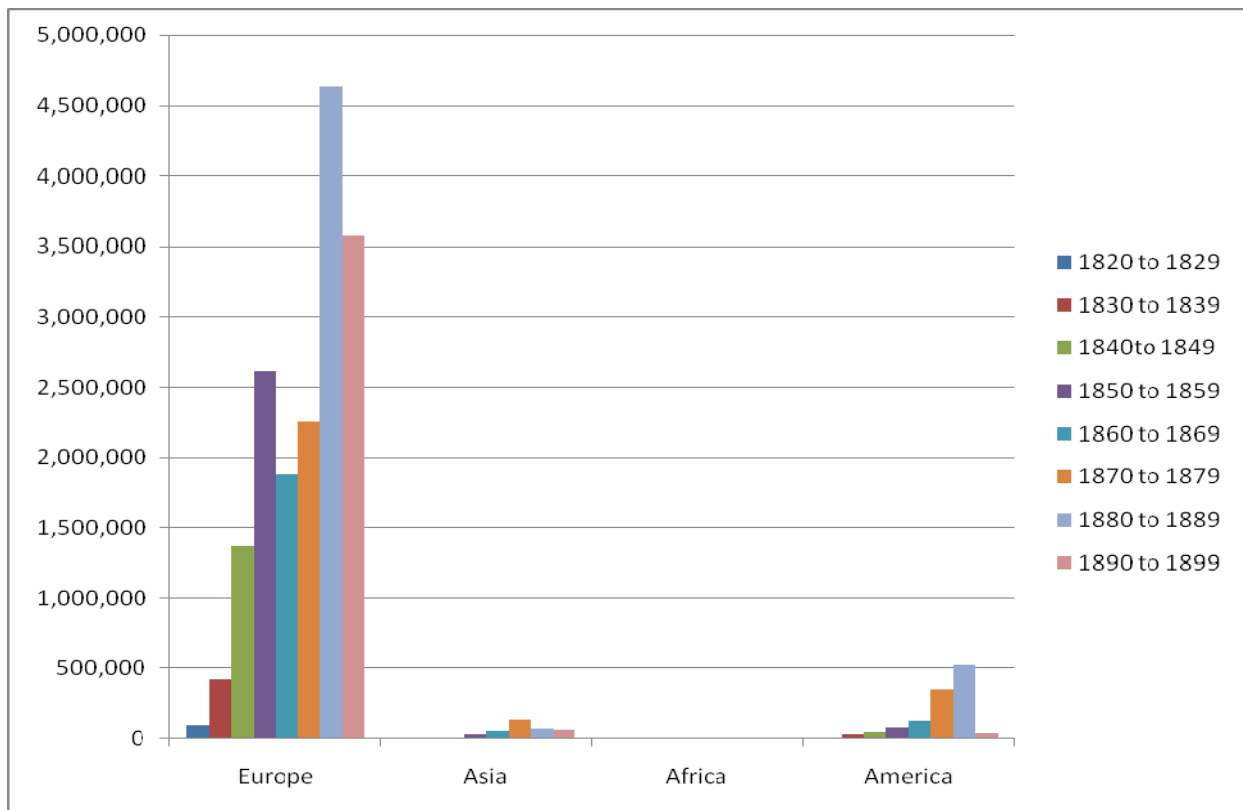
<sup>38</sup> For more information about the data on immigration between 1820 and 2006, see the 2006 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS\\_2006\\_Yearbook.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS_2006_Yearbook.pdf) and for additional information on immigration, see Appendix B.

countries where the languages mostly taught in the U.S., German, French, and Spanish, are spoken.

**Table 7. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1820 to 1899**

	1820 to 1829	1830 to 1839	1840 to 1849	1850 to 1859	1860 to 1869	1870 to 1879	1880 to 1889	1890 to 1899
Europe	99,772	422,771	1,369,259	2,619,680	1,877,726	2,251,878	4,638,677	3,576,411
Asia	34	55	121	36,080	54,408	134,128	71,151	61,285
Africa	15	50	61	84	407	371	763	432
America	9,655	31,905	50,516	84,145	130,292	345,010	524,826	37,350

The author learned that immigration from Europe was the largest when compared to Asia, Africa, and the Americas between 1820 and 1899. Between 1820 and 1829, immigration from Europe was about 10 times immigration from the Americas. Between 1890 and 1899, Europe immigration was about 96 times immigration from the Americas.



**Figure 8. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1820 to 1899**

The above graph shows clearly that immigration from Europe greatly superseded the other regions between 1820 and 1899 with the peak being between 1880 and 1889. The next table and graph refer to immigration from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico.

**Table 8. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1820 to 1899**

	1820 to 1829	1830 to 1839	1840to 1849	1850 to 1859	1860 to 1869	1870 to 1879	1880 to 1889	1890 to 1899
Germany	5,753	124,726	385,434	976,072	723,734	751,769	1,445,181	579,072
France	7,694	39,330	75,300	81,778	35,938	71,901	48,193	35,616
Cuba	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mexico	3,835	7,187	3,069	3,446	1,957	5,133	2,405	734

The author learned that immigration from Cuba between 1820 and 1899 was not recorded. Immigration from Mexico was low throughout the time period with 3,835 in the decade of the 1820's and 734 in the decade of the 1890's, a reduction of approximately 5 times. Immigration from France was also small having its peak in the decade of the 1850's. Immigration from Germany was the greatest of the countries that were studied here, with its peak in the decade of the 1880's. Immigration from France was about 20 times greater than immigration from Mexico while immigration from Germany was about 30 times greater than the immigration from France during this time period.

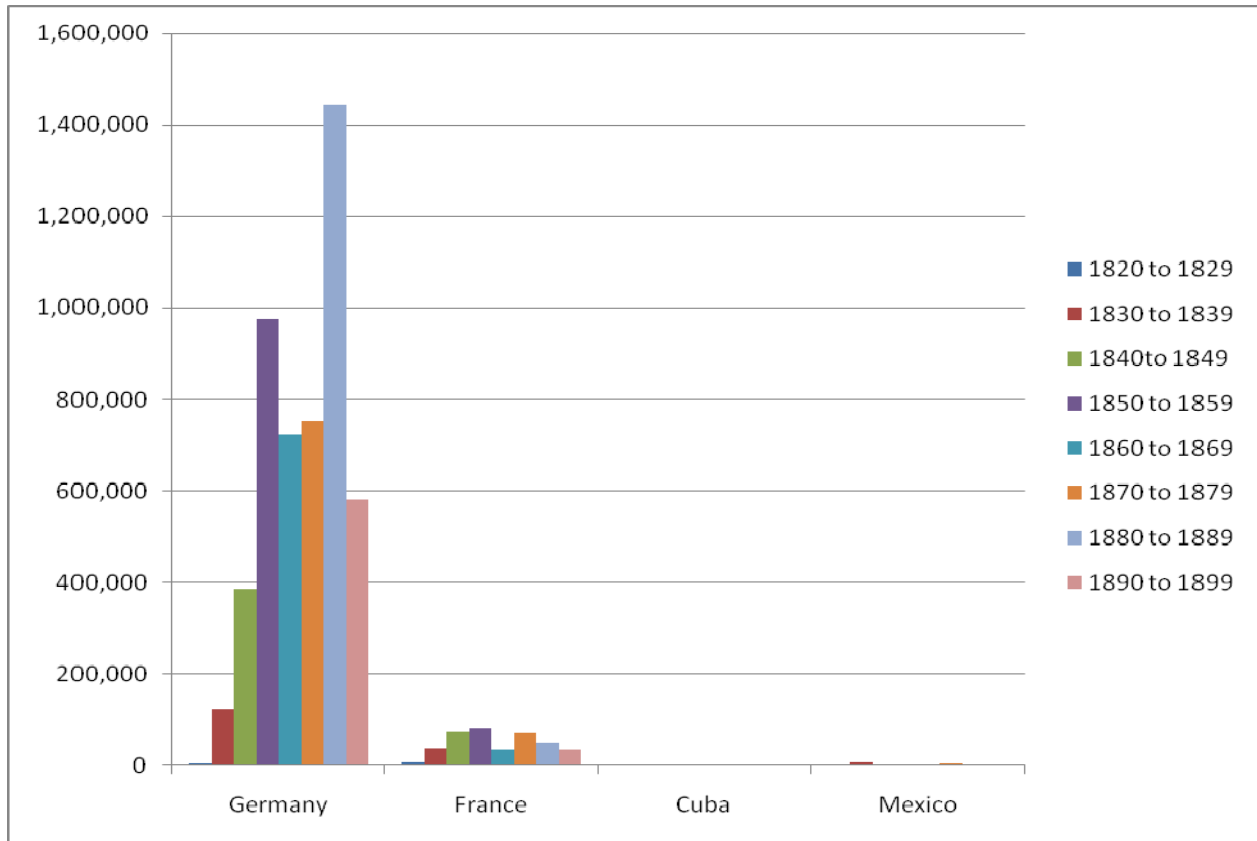


Figure 9. **Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1820 to 1899**

Although two of the above regions were from Europe, between the two, Germany was the leading source of U.S. immigration during the time frame, having its peak between 1880 and 1889, being approximately 480 times greater than the immigration from Mexico at that time.

Between 1850 and 1880, there was an increase in immigration to the U.S. from 15 to 60 percent of foreign-born Germans whose mother tongue was German (Kloss, 1998, p. 9; Schmid, 2001, p. 35; Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 126). In 1880, most immigrants to the United States came primarily from Ireland, Germany, and the United Kingdom (Schmid, 2001, p. 5; Kloss, 1998, p. 9; Tse, 2001, p.10; Finegan & Rickford, 2004, p. 15); “Until 1896 the old influx from northern and western Europe surpassed the southern and eastern European current” (Higham, 1963, p. 88).



By this time, at the end of the 1800's, some Americans were attempting to halt immigration. An outcome from this effort can be seen in 1887, when an English-speaking requirement was imposed on coal miners in the state of Pennsylvania (Crawford, 2000, p. 20); and when only three years later, in 1890, William A. Stone, a Congressman from Pennsylvania, lobbied for a \$20 tax on all immigrants (Higham, 1963, p. 101). Finally, at the end of the century, in 1897 Henry Cabot Lodge attempted to cut down immigration by reintroducing the Immigration Restriction League's literacy bill (Higham, 1963, p. 106), which required immigrants to be able to read and write in their own native language.

#### **4.2.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1800's**

Education in the German language was supported by some U.S. politicians in 1839. President Van Buren and the governors of Ohio and Pennsylvania made financial contributions to the establishment of a teacher's seminary. This contribution was a response to a request made by the general school commissioner of the Germans in the United States (Kloss, 1998, p. 31). At the same time Ohio became the first state to pass laws authorizing education in German and English, when parents requested it (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31).

In the 1840's the German language was gaining momentum. Article 132 of the 1845 U.S. Constitution read that the constitution of Louisiana was to be promulgated in English and French (Kloss, 1998, p. 140). Nonetheless, in 1847, a new Louisiana law to educate in German

instead of French was put into place; the “law that simply substituted ‘French’ for ‘German’” (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 140).

Between 1850 and 1880, some Americans organized to halt education in the German language. Such an organization was the American Protective Association, APA. This organization was born in 1887, in Clinton, Iowa, as a result of efforts by Henry F. Bowers, the director of the largest manufacturing center in the state of Iowa. The APA helped end the teaching of German throughout the country (Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 133; Schmid, 2001, p. 36).

In 1896, the Commissioner of the Common Schools of New York expressed his irritation toward foreigners (Simon, 1980):

I consider it the paramount duty of public schools, apart from the educational knowledge to be instilled into our pupils, to form American citizens of them . . . obliterating from the very earliest moment of all distinguishing foreign characteristics and traits, which the beginners may bring with them, as obstructive, warring, and irritating elements. (p. 11)

One may not ignore that the languages spoken by the immigrant population is inherently one of their traits. The attitude expressed by the Commissioner of the Common Schools of New York toward foreign language education was also shared by immigrant families, as noted by Simon (1980):

. . . Italian, German, Armenian, Japanese, Nigerian, and other immigrants to be “American” in their attitude, culture, and citizenship. A heavily accented English, or

strange clothing, or habits that did not fit completely into this new world were “deficiencies” they wanted their children to avoid. Their children went to school to become Americans. To promote this transition, the parents sometimes refused to speak their native tongue around their children; and the children were sometimes embarrassed if they did, and demanded that they speak in English. The last thing most of these parents wanted their children to learn in school was a foreign language. If someone asks the son of Italian immigrants if he speaks Italian, he will often deny it. (p. 12)

The literature points out that whereas in the beginning of the 1800’s foreign language education was well accepted by American citizens, this acceptance changed at the end of the century.

#### **4.2.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1800’s**

In 1839, President Van Buren and the governors of Ohio and Pennsylvania contributed to the funding of a German’s teacher’s seminary (Kloss, 1998, p. 31).

Although the author could not find any government records related to funding appropriation for foreign language education during the 1800’s, she took the liberty to state that foreign language education was being funded, since education in the German language was offered when parents requested it (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31).

#### 4.2.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1800's

The author learned from Eugene Owen and two of his colleagues from the National Center for Education Statistics, NCES, Tom Snyder and Stephen Provasnik, that during the last decade of the 1800's, there were no students enrolled in Spanish courses; there were, however, students enrolled in French and German courses.<sup>39</sup>

**Table 8. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1889 and 1900**

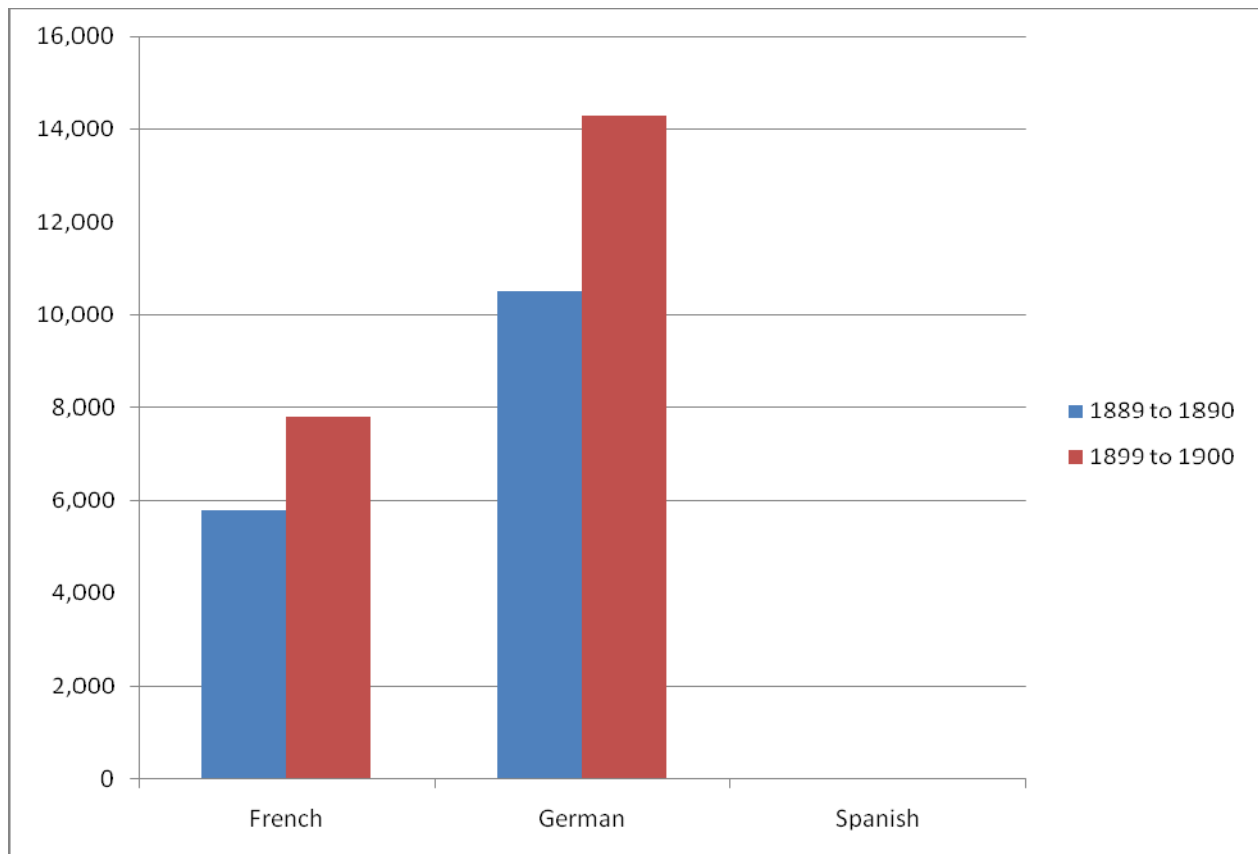
	1889 to 1890	1899 to 1900
French	5,800	7,800
German	10,500	14,300
Spanish	0	0

Note : No data were recorded by the NCES for enrollment in Spanish from 1889 to 1900.

Through the data shown in the above table, the author learned that enrollment in French and German followed the same pattern as the immigrant population, where immigration from Germany was the highest as compared to immigration from France, Germany, and Mexico. As the author observed, immigration from Mexico was low, and there is no data record in the NCES for enrollment in Spanish from 1889 to 1900.

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<sup>39</sup> For more information about the data on foreign language enrollment between 1889 and 1900, see U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, Table 16 - Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, by subject: 1889-90 to fall 1981.



**Figure 10. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1889 and 1900**

The above graph illustrates the relationship between enrollment in French, German, and Spanish courses in U.S. secondary schools from 1889 to 1900. German was the leading language of choice, followed by French; no record has been supplied for enrollment in Spanish.

Secondary sources noted that in the earlier parts of the 1800's students were enrolled in foreign language courses when parents requested (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31). In Louisiana, until 1847, students were enrolled in French classes.

Simon (1980, p. 14), wrote that at the end of the century, there were students enrolled in foreign language classes. In 1895, three thousand students enrolled in French courses and twenty-three thousand students enrolled in German courses at the elementary level.

#### **4.2.5 Summary of the 1800's**

The author learned that immigration records existed in 1820 but foreign language enrollment records were not available until 1889, according to the NCES. Concerning immigration distribution, the author learned that among Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas, the greatest number of immigrants during the 1800's were from Europe. The author also learned that among Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico, German was as the highest source of immigrants into the U.S., with approximately 480 times the number of immigration from Mexico between 1880 and 1889.

The author learned that education in the language of the immigrant community was not uncommon. She also learned that by the end of the century, the Commissioner of the Common Schools of New York was irritated by the traits exhibited by the foreign population (Simon, 1980, p. 11). This view was frequently shared by parents who guided their children to abandon their language of origin.

### **4.3 American Attitude Toward Foreign Language Education in the 1900's**

In this section, the author explored factors that related to foreign language education during the 1900's. The 20<sup>th</sup> century experienced many global conflicts, such as WWI (1914) and WWII (1941). To counter these wars, two organizations were created, the League of Nations (1918-1940) and the United Nations, UN (1945). Another conflict that impacted the United States during this time period was the launch of Sputnik by the Soviet Union, which resulted in the U.S. Congress implementing the National Defense Education Act, NDEA, in 1958.<sup>40</sup>

#### **4.3.1 U.S. immigration in the 1900's**

The author chose to use data from the Office of Immigration Statistics<sup>41</sup> in this section, to give continuity to the previous section, which discussed immigration data in the 1800's.

The first table and graph refer to U.S. immigration data from four world regions, Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. The time frame is from 1900 to 1999, divided into 10 decades.

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<sup>40</sup> For more information about the National Defense Education Act passed in 1958 see <http://www.nsf.gov/pubs/stis1994/nsf8816/nsf8816.txt>

<sup>41</sup> For more information about the data on immigration between 1820 and 2006, see the 2006 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS\\_2006\\_Yearbook.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS_2006_Yearbook.pdf) and for additional information on immigration, see Appendix B.

The second table and graph refer to immigration from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico, within the same time frame.

**Table 9. Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1900 to 1999**

	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929	1930 to 1939	1940 to 1949	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999
Europe	7,572,569	4,985,411	2,560,340	44,399	472,524	1,404,973	1,133,443	825,590	668,866	1,348,612
Asia	299,836	269,736	126,740	19,231	34,532	135,844	358,605	1,406,544	2,391,356	2,859,899
Africa	6,326	8,867	6,362	2,120	6,720	13,016	23,780	71,408	141,990	346,416
America	277,809	1,070,539	1,591,278	230,319	328,435	921,610	1,674,172	1,904,355	2,695,329	5,137,743

Through this table, the author learned that immigration from Europe declined after the first decade of the 1900's, with its lowest point being between 1930 and 1939. Immigration from the Americas, on the other hand, although at its low point, increased during this century; its peak occurred in the last decade, from 1990 to 1999. Immigration from Asia showed a positive slope; although not significant due to its low starting number. Immigration from Africa had the smallest value among the four regions.



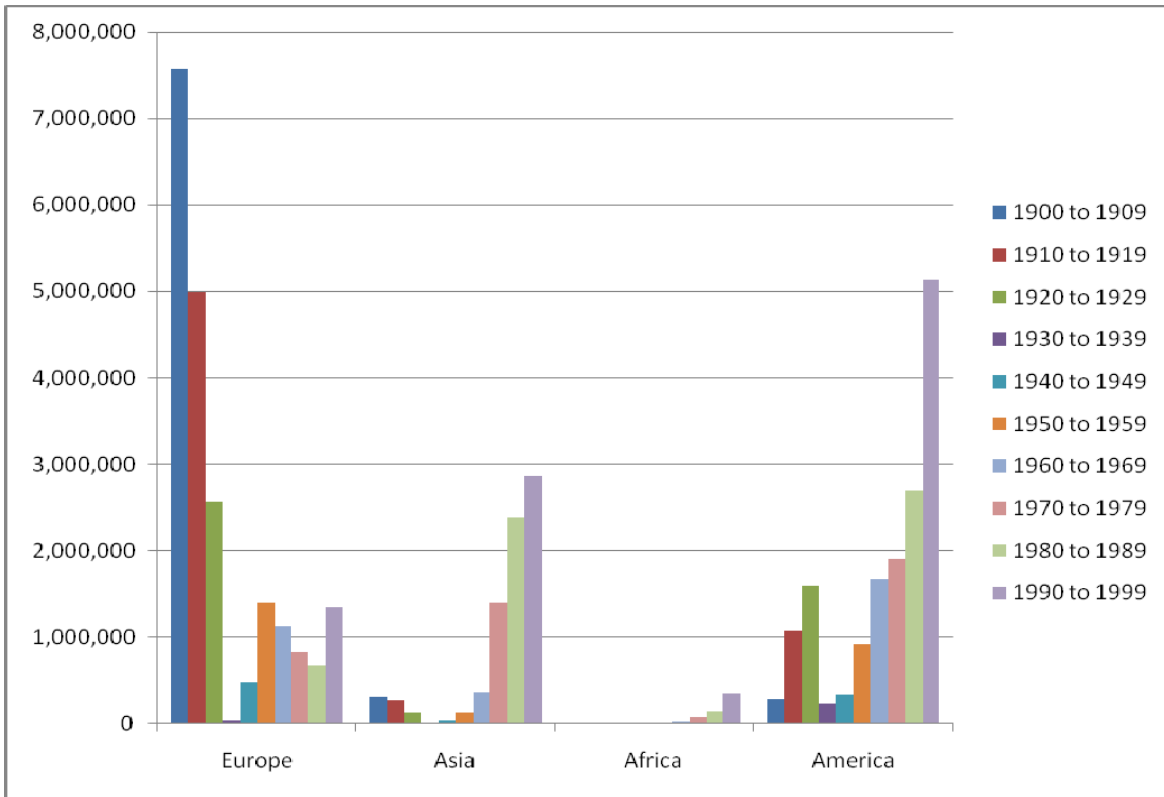


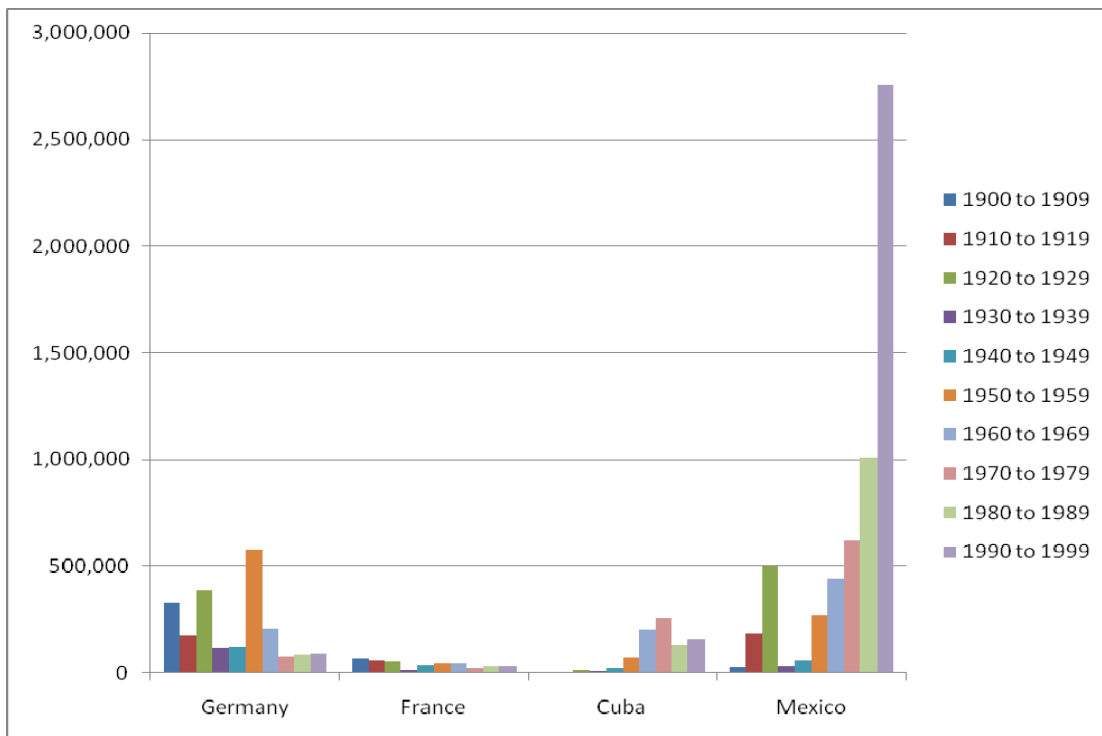
Figure 11. **Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 1900 to 1999**

The above graph shows clearly that immigration patterns shifted during the 1900's, with respect to Europe and the Americas. About the time when immigration from Europe started to decrease, immigration from the Americas started to increase. Although immigration from Asia shows a positive slope, during the last decade it was superseded by the Americas. The next table and graph show immigration from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico.

**Table 10. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1900 to 1999**

	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929	1930 to 1939	1940 to 1949	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999
Germany	328,722	174,227	386,634	119,107	119,506	576,905	209,616	77,142	85,752	92,207
France	67,735	60,335	54,842	13,761	36,954	50,113	46,975	26,281	32,066	35,945
Cuba	0	0	12,769	10,641	25,976	73,221	202,030	256,497	132,552	159,037
Mexico	31,188	185,334	498,945	32,709	56,158	273,847	441,824	621,218	1,009,586	2,757,418

The author learned that immigration from Cuba in the first two decades of the 1900's lacked data. The number of Cuban immigrants increased slightly from 1920 to 1950; immigration from Cuba peaked during the decades of 1960 and 1970, with a decrease in the last two decades. Immigration from France did not show any meaningful increase; its highest number occurred during the first decade. Immigration from Germany peaked in the decade of 1950 at 576,905; however, this figure is still much smaller than in the 1800's, when it peaked in the decade of 1880 at 1,445,181. Immigration from Mexico had a positive slope with its lowest number shown in the first decade.



**Figure 12. Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 1900 to 1999**

Immigration from Germany in the 1900's was reduced drastically compared to immigration in the 1800's. Immigration from France also declined. Immigration from Cuba rose slightly in the decades of 1960 and 1970, after the Cuban crisis. Immigration from Mexico peaked dramatically in the last decade, 1990 to 1999. It grew about 88 times from 1900 to 1999.

Based on secondary sources, the author learned that during the 1900's there was a movement to reduce immigration into the United States. This movement continued from the late 1800's. Such an example happened in 1905, when Edward W. Bemis recommended to the U.S. Commission on Naturalization that all immigrants had to be able to sign their names and to speak English to the satisfaction of a naturalization examiner. Bemis recommendation was included in the Naturalization Act of 1906 (Crawford, 1992b, p. 106).

During the second decade of the 1900's, immigration reduction was being organized by means of taxation and language imposition. In 1918, an economic imposition was forced on nonresident aliens, who had their income tax rates doubled under the Revenue Act (Schmid, 2001, p. 35; Higham, 1963, p. 249). In 1919, the city council of Findlay, Ohio imposed a tax of \$25 for speaking German in the streets (Schmid, 2001, p. 36; Kloss, 1998, p. 61), while in 1920, California law mandated that all foreigners pay a special poll tax of \$10.20 (Higham, 1963, p. 260; Schmid, 2001, p. 35).

In 1924 the Johnson-Laird Immigration Act, following a period of large-scale immigration, prompted an interest in the then developed I.Q. testing. The objective of this Act was to establish national origin quotas, which "was to restrict the number and racial distribution of immigrants" until 1965 when the quota system was abandoned (Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 136).

Immigration into the U.S. from Cuba rose in the late 1950's when Cuban went through a political crisis; it may be assumed that the choice to migrate to the U.S. was based on its proximity to Cuba. The crisis induced an influx of Cuban refugees, who intended to return to their country of origin when the crisis passed (Finegan & Rickford, 2004, p. 342). This Cuban political crisis was felt in the United States in the early 1960's when thousands of refugees fled Cuba after Fidel Castro's revolution in 1959. These refugees ended up in Florida.

#### **4.3.2 Foreign language instruction in the 1900's**

The author learned that in the 1900's, many U.S. states were dealing with the issue of language. Inequities existed among states when it came to choosing English-only or English plus another language. For instance, in 1912, New Mexico had two official languages, English and Spanish; in 1919, English was the official language of Nebraska; in 1978, English and Native Hawaiian were the official languages of Hawaii; in 1988, English was the official language of Colorado and Florida. In 1919, Ohio governor, James Cox, proposed a law to abolish all instruction in German in the state (Schmid, 2001). Ohio was not the only state where instruction in foreign language was prohibited at the time.

In 1915, most immigrants urged their children to master both English and to retain their home language as well (Schmidt, Sr., 2000, p.1); 36 percent of American high school students

were studying a modern foreign language (Simon, 1980, p. 2). In the same year, 85 percent of the nation's colleges required that students pass a competency test in a foreign language before they were accepted into the institution (Simon, 1980, p. 3).

In 1919, Nebraska was declared to be an English-only state. Due to its status, education in other languages was forbidden, based on the Nebraska statute that claimed that no person, individually or as a teacher, shall, in any private denominational, parochial, or public school teach any subject to any person in any language other than the English language (Higham, 1963, p. 260; Crawford, 1992b, p. 89; Kloss, 1998, p. 62). This position taken in the state of Nebraska, in which education in a foreign language was forbidden, resulted in a lawsuit that went all the way to the United States Supreme Court in 1923. *Meyer v. Nebraska*<sup>42</sup> overturned the 1919 Nebraska statute that forbade education in a language other than English, "The Court might have ruled differently had German not been singled out as a restricted language" (Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 134). Two Supreme Court Justices, Holmes and Sutherland concluded (Leibowitz, 1971):

We all agree, I take it, that it is desirable that all the citizens of the United States should speak a common tongue, and therefore, that the end aimed at by the statute is a lawful and proper one . . . I cannot bring my mind to believe that in some circumstances . . . the

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<sup>42</sup> MEYER v. STATE OF NEBRASKA, 262 U.S. 390, No. 325, was argued Feb. 23, 1923, and was decided June 4, 1923. for more information see <http://caselaw.lp.findlaw.com/scripts/getcase.pl?court=US=262&invol=390>

statute might not be regarded as a reasonable or even necessary method of reaching the desired result. (p. 10)

Through *Meyer v. Nebraska*, the Supreme Court ruled that the state's ability to prohibit education in a foreign language was in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution and overstepped the state's authority (Schmidt Sr., 2000, p. 147; Schmid, 2001, p. 59; Crawford, 2000, p. 98; Kloss, 1998, p. 89).

While Conant (1959, p. 42) was recommending that foreign language education be moved to the lower grades, Florida was facing a major problem with educating students in a foreign language. In the early 1960's, Dade County faced the problem of educating Spanish-monolingual children of Cuban refugees. Texas was faced with the same problem during the next decade. In the 1970's, the Spanish-speaking student population was greatest of the non-English-speaking student groups. Simon (1980, p. 156) reported that in Texas, there were 247,000 high school students, who spoke fifty-one dialects and languages. Of that total, 240,000 spoke Spanish, while only 7,000 did not.

In 1978, American students, that is, English-speaking students, were afforded the opportunity to learn a foreign language by means of bilingual education, through which students would learn content in two languages, English and a foreign language<sup>43</sup> (San Miguel, Jr., 2004, p. 30).

By the end of the 1900's, Brecht & Walton (Mar., 1994), suggested, "A rapidly changing world order has prompted renewed interest in providing a national capacity for dealing with

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<sup>43</sup> For more information about the two-way bilingual education program see <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/-pubs/ncrcdssl/epr12/index.htm>

languages and cultures beyond those of Western Europe” (p. 190). In particular, much recent attention has been directed toward strengthening instruction in the less commonly taught languages. Some of these languages, according to the National Security Language Initiative, as reported by ACTFL, are Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi.<sup>44</sup>

### **4.3.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 1900’s**

The author learned from Ashley Lenker, program associate of the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS, that there were no governmental records of funding for foreign language in the 1900’s. Therefore, the author relied on some secondary sources to address this topic.

One major fund for foreign language education during the 1900’s has been addressed by Friel (2001); the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which declared foreign language as one of the critical subjects. Funding for education tripled in the fiscal year 1959.

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<sup>44</sup> For more information about the Less Commonly Taught Languages see the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages <http://www.actfl.org>

Another source of funding was proposed by Representative Rush Holt (D-NJ), with an amendment to the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA).<sup>45</sup> This bill included grants for foreign language education at all levels of education, elementary to college.

In 1991, the Senate Intelligence Committee established a \$150 million National Security Educational Fund to improve college programs in foreign languages and international studies (Crawford, 192a, p. 253). In 1993, President Clinton's administration provided funding to four national language organizations to develop national standards in foreign language. These standards were issued in 1996. At the end of President Clinton's term, about \$69.7 million was appropriated to fund International Education and Foreign Language Studies.

#### **4.3.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 1900's**

The author chose to use data from the Office of Immigration Statistics<sup>46</sup> in this section, to give continuity to the previous section, which discussed immigration data in the 1800's. The table and graph below show that enrollment in U.S. public secondary school foreign language

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<sup>45</sup> H. R. 3676 – National Security Language Act (Dec. 8, 2003). Referred to the House Subcommittee on Select Education.

<sup>46</sup> For more information about the data on immigration between 1820 and 2006, see the 2006 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS\\_2006\\_Yearbook.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS_2006_Yearbook.pdf) and for additional information on immigration, see Appendix B.



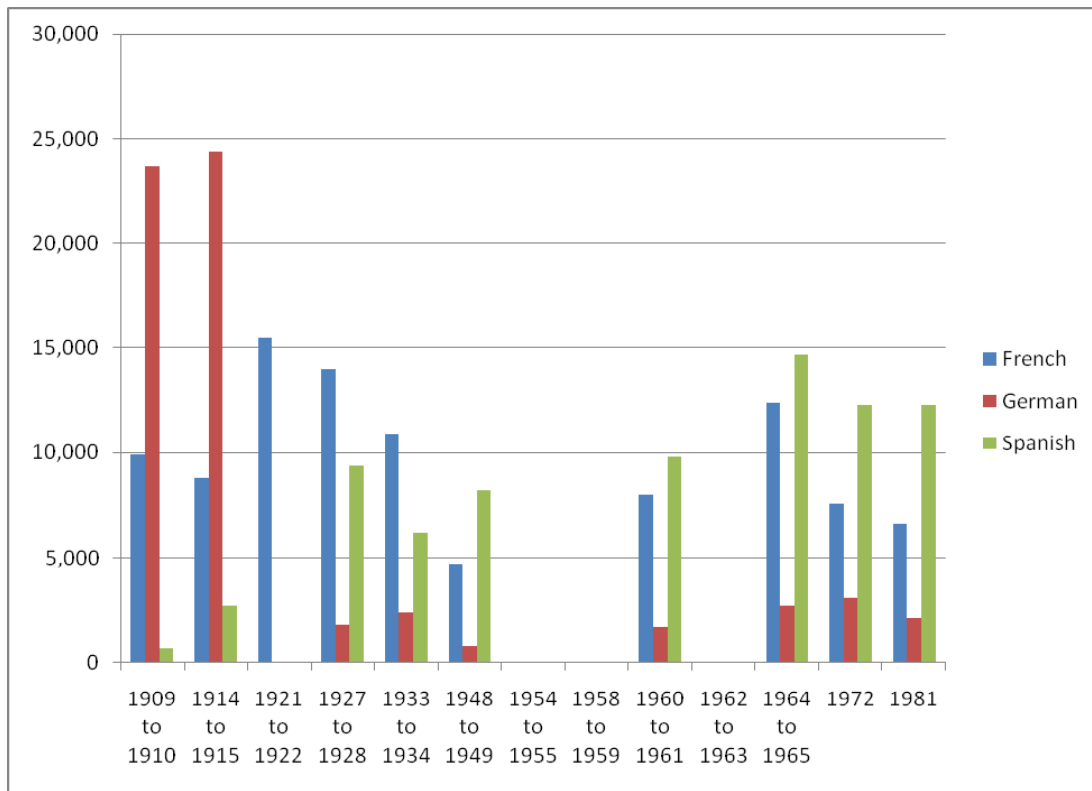
courses was dominated by Spanish, especially from the 1980's to 2000, as represented by a continuous positive slope. The author wishes to note that the language enrollment choice of Spanish is consistent with the increase in immigration from Mexico, as shown in the figures in the immigration section.

**Table 11. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1909 and 1981**

	1909 to 1910	1914 to 1915	1921 to 1922	1927 to 1928	1933 to 1934	1948 to 1949	1954 to 1955	1958 to 1959	1960 to 1961	1962 to 1963	1964 to 1965	1972	1981
French	9,900	8,800	15,500	14,000	10,900	4,700	0	0	8,000	0	12,400	7,600	6,600
German	23,700	24,400	600	1,800	2,400	800	0	0	1,700	0	2,700	3,100	2,100
Spanish	700	2,700	700	9,400	6,200	8,200	0	0	9,800	0	14,700	12,300	12,300

Note: No data were recorded in Table 16 - Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, by subject: 1889-90 to fall 1981, by the NCES for enrollment in French, German, or Spanish in the years 1954-55, 1958-59 or 1962-63.

Through the data shown in the above table, the author learned that in the first decade of the 1900's, German language was the language of choice, followed by the French language and the least chosen language of the three was Spanish. In 1927, enrollment in French was the leading choice, followed by Spanish, while German had declined greatly. The choice for German went from 24,400 in 1914 to 600 in 1921; one may assume that this decline resulted from WWI. By 1948, enrollment Spanish surpassed enrollment in French and German.



**Figure 13. Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, in French, German, and Spanish between 1909 and 1981**

The above graph shows that enrollment in German led at the beginning of the 1900's; however, it dropped drastically after 1914, during WWI; it then continued on a sporadic basis. Enrollment in French peaked in 1921, the time when enrollment in German was almost eliminated. Enrollment in Spanish was on the rise during the 1900's, with its peak in 1964. According to the graph, Spanish has been the leading language of choice between French, German, and Spanish, since 1948.

#### 4.3.5 Summary of the 1900's

The author learned that immigration records show a drastic reduction in the number of immigrants from Europe, especially from Germany. Immigration from Cuba rose slightly in the decades of 1960 and 1970, after the period of the Cuban crisis. Immigration from Mexico peaked dramatically in the last decade, 1990 to 1999.

The author learned that foreign language course enrollment seemed to have followed immigration patterns in the 1900's. The choice for the German language was the highest until 1914, almost disappearing after WWI, when French became the leading choice. In 1948, however, Spanish gained and maintained the lead until 1981, based on the data shown by the NCES Table 16 - Public school enrollment in grades 9 to 12, by subject: 1889-90 to fall 1981.

Based on the data shown in the NCES Table 55, 2005 and on the data provided by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL (see Appendix D), Spanish has been the leading foreign language of choice in grades 9 through 12 from 1948 to 2000, French being the second and German the last choice among the three. According to the NCES Table 11 and Welles (2004) (see Appendix D), the same trend is shown at the college level, with Spanish not only being the leading choice, but with an increasing gap between the second and third choices, French and German.

The author also learned that during the 1900's, while foreigners were being oppressed by means of taxation based on immigrant status, there was a movement to push for English-only instruction, which ended-up reaching the United States Supreme Court in 1923, *Meyer v. Nebraska*, with a resolution in favor of the immigrants, based on usage of the German language for instruction.

The author also learned that by the end of the 1900's a movement in education in the less commonly taught languages started to emerge. Some of these languages are Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi.

#### **4.4 American Attitude Toward Foreign Language Education in the 2000's**

In this section, the author explored factors that relate to foreign language education during the 2000's. Although the time period for this study is less than one full decade, it is the decade within which the United States suffered one of the most horrific events of its existence, the 9/11 attack. As a result of this attack inside U.S. borders in 2001, some lobbyists for foreign language education are suggesting that the nation's educational institutions need to address education in the languages that are critical to U.S. national security (Friel, 2001), such as Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi, according to ACTFL <sup>47</sup>

##### **4.4.1 U.S. immigration in the 2000's**

The author chose to use data from the Office of Immigration Statistics<sup>48</sup> in this section, to give continuity to the previous section, which discussed immigration data in the 1900's. The next table and graph refer to immigration from Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas from 2000 to 2006.

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<sup>47</sup> For more information about the Less Commonly Taught Languages see the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages <http://www.actfl.org>

<sup>48</sup> For more information about the data on immigration between 1820 and 2006, see the 2006 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS\\_2006\\_Yearbook.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/OIS_2006_Yearbook.pdf) and for additional information on immigration, see Appendix B.

Table 12. **Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 2000 to 2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Europe	131,920	176,892	177,059	102,546	135,663	180,449	169,197
Asia	254,932	336,112	325,749	235,339	319,025	382,744	411,795
Africa	6,326	8,867	6,362	2,120	6,720	13,016	23,780
America	392,461	470,794	477,363	305,936	408,972	432,748	548,848

Through this table, the author learned that immigration from Europe from 2000 through 2006 was in third place when compared to the three other regions, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. Immigration from the Americas continues to be first, followed by Asia; immigration from Africa continues to lag behind the other continents in reference.

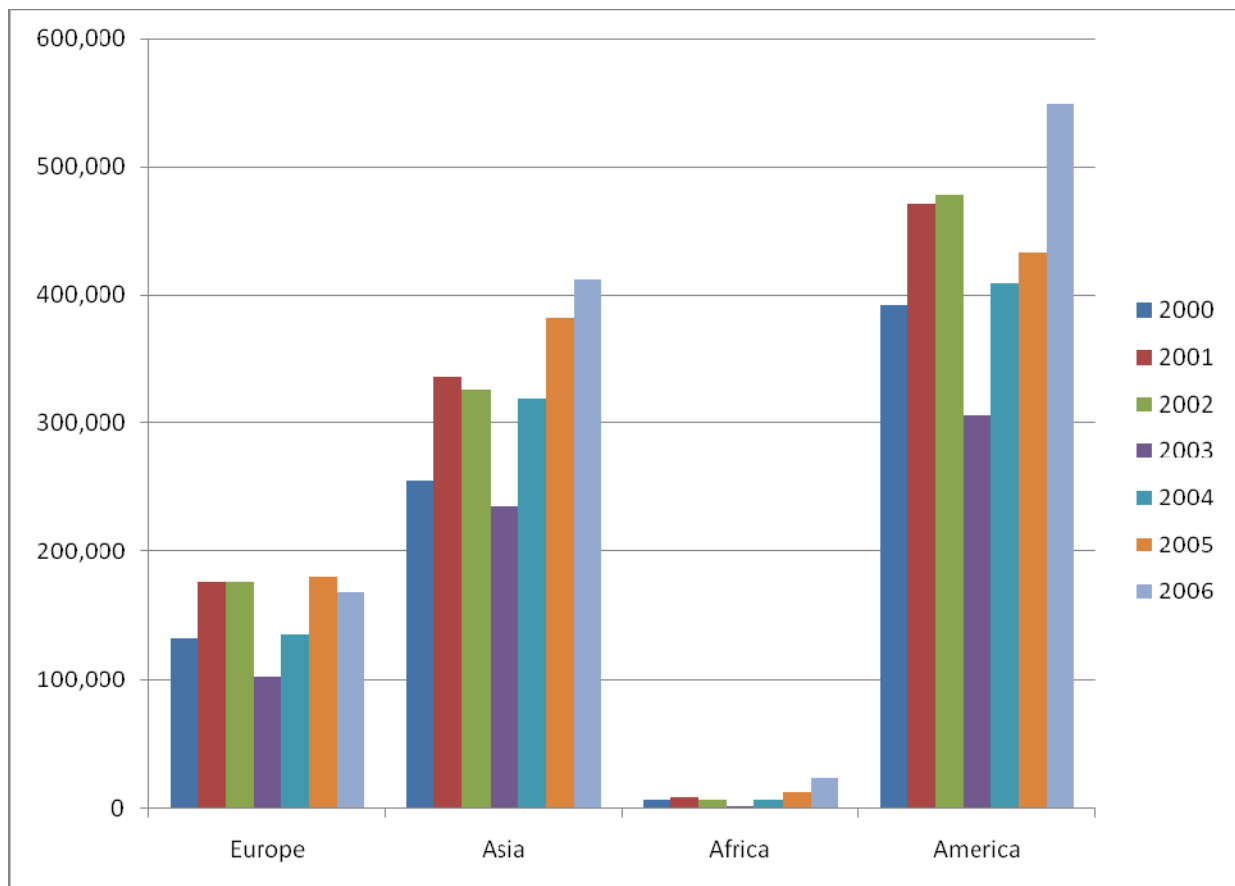


Figure 14. **Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 2000 to 2006**

The above graph shows that immigration patterns continued along a similar path as the late 1900's; immigration from Africa is almost non-existent, immigration from Europe is relatively small, immigration from Asia continues to rise, and peaked in 2006. Immigration from the Americas is still leading when compared to the other three regions, and, like Asia, shows a peak in 2006. The next table and graph show immigration from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico.

Table 13. **Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 2000 to 2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Germany	12,230	21,992	20,977	8,061	10,270	12,864	10,271
France	4,063	5,379	4,567	2,926	4,209	5,035	4,945
Cuba	17,897	25,832	27,435	8,685	15,385	20,651	44,248
Mexico	171,445	204,032	216,924	114,758	173,711	157,992	170,046

The author learned that the number of Cuban immigrants between 2000 and 2006 was lowest in 2003 with 8,685, and highest in 2006 with 44,248, and was the second largest group among the four, regarding immigrations in 2006. Immigration from France did not show any meaningful increase, having its lowest number also in 2003. Immigration from Germany peaked in 2001 at 21,992; and was lowest also in 2003, with 8,061. Immigration from Mexico keeps leading among the four countries, peaking in 2002, with 216, 924 and lowest also in 2003, with 114,758.

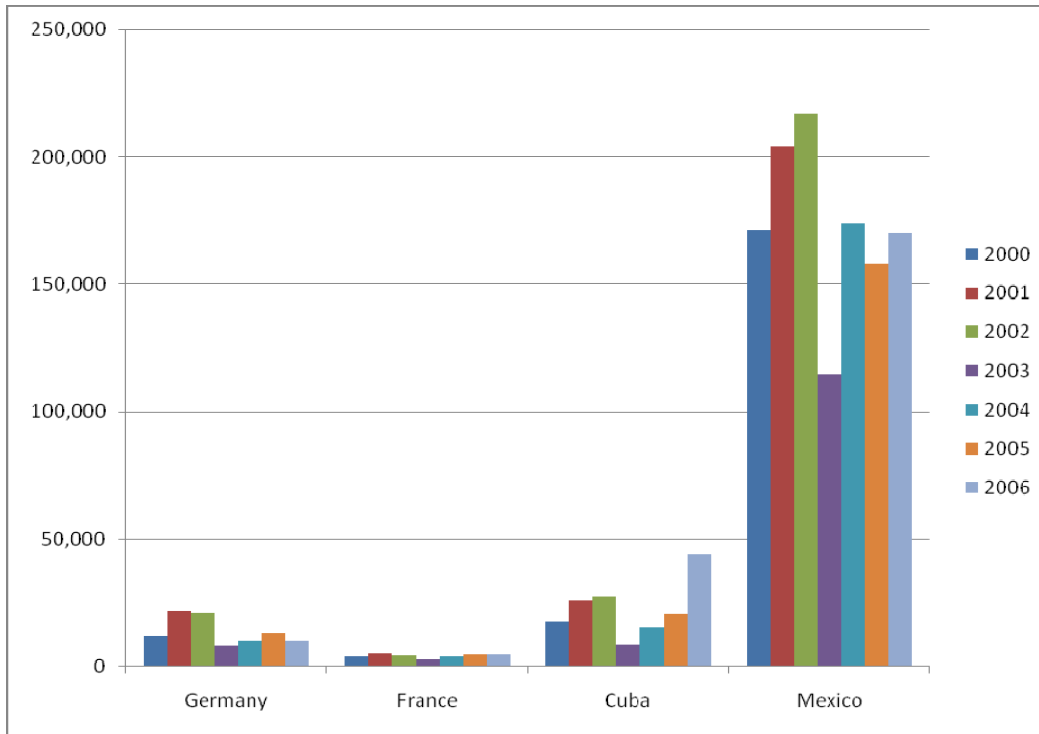


Figure 15. **Immigration data from Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico from 2000 to 2006**

Immigration from Mexico continues to lead in immigration levels, as it did in the 1900's, when compared with the three other countries between 2000 and 2006. The two leading immigrant countries in 2006 are countries that represent the Spanish language. Immigration in the 2000's from Germany and France are almost unnoticeable when compared to immigration from Mexico.

Based on secondary sources, the author learned that in addition to the figures noted in governmental data discussed in this work, there are also undocumented immigrants in the United States, mostly from Spanish-speaking countries. *Fox News Associated Press* (March 27, 2007) reported that the number of undocumented immigrants has been estimated at between 11.5



million and 12 million.<sup>49</sup> Chris Casacchia stated in an article in *The Business Journal* (October 8, 2007) that there is a great inconsistency between federal reporting agencies and policy groups on the number of undocumented immigrants:<sup>50</sup>

Immigration counts differ greatly from federal reporting agencies and policy groups. Bear Stearns' research indicates that the illegal immigrant population is underreported by the U.S. Census by as much as one-half. The Census Bureau estimates 8.7 million illegals; the Urban Institute, 9.3 million; and a Center for Immigration Studies report suggests an illegal population of 10 million. The Pew Hispanic Center estimates 12 million undocumented immigrants live in the U.S.

Based on the author's research framework, she believes that population distribution impacts the choice of foreign language instruction.

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<sup>49</sup> The *Fox News* report on illegal immigration was entitled 600,000 illegal immigrants still in U.S. despite orders to leave see <http://www.foxnews.com/story/0,2933,261541,00.html> for more information.

<sup>50</sup> For more information about *The Business Journal* report on the discrepancy in the report of the number of illegal immigration see <http://www.bizjournals.com/phoenix/stories/2007/10/08/daily9.html>.

#### 4.4.2 Foreign language instruction in the 2000's

The author learned that in the 2000's the recommendation advocating foreign language education continues. Some recommendation sources are language educators, such as Brecht & Rivers (2001) who suggested that the "security, stability, and economic vitality in the United States" require experts in foreign languages (p. 1); others are political leaders, such as President Bush, who suggested that "learning a language -- somebody else's language is a kind gesture. It's a gesture of interest" (2006, Jan.6).<sup>51</sup> Condoleezza Rice, U.S. Secretary of State, said at the summit of the Association of American Universities in January, 2006 that there is a need to prepare young Americans to converse in other people's language in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (p.16).

Although there appears to be an understanding about the broader scope of foreign language needs, some stress that the nation's schools, colleges, and universities continue to focus primarily on three foreign languages, French, German, and Spanish (Welles, winter, spring, 2004). This lack of foreign language options has been recognized by some as the fact that the nation [America] does not sufficiently value and embrace foreign languages. This comment, reported by Tare (2006), was made by Representative Anna Eshoo (D-CA). The lack of valuing foreign language education is also demonstrated by another comment made by Representative Eshoo, who reports that only one out of 8,200 translators is qualified to translate Pashto (Friel, 2001).

Foreign language education is also provided by some American companies. The Intel Corporation is training its workforce in Mandarin, Japanese, and Spanish (Workforce

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<sup>51</sup> For more information about President Bush's comment see U.S. University Presidents Summit on International Education <http://exchanges.state.gov/universitysummit/>

Management, 2004, Oct.). Some governmental agencies continue to provide foreign language education, such an example is the U.S. Department of Defense (Crawford, 1992b, p. 386).

*The Washington Post* wrote that there is a need to offer instruction in the Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi languages; however, there are only 15 public schools in the nation where Arabic is being taught at the moment (2006, Jan.8). Some of the current funding for foreign language education is specifically for critical languages, including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean.<sup>52</sup>

The author also learned that in 2005 the requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units<sup>53</sup> ranges from 0 to 2, zero being required by the majority of the U.S. states. Data shown below:<sup>54</sup> The following table and graph shows the requirement distribution among reported states.

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<sup>52</sup> For more information on appropriation funds for Fiscal Year 2008 see

<http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/budget/fy2008/> ,

[http://languagepolicy.org/legislation/appropriations\\_fy\\_2007\\_fy\\_2008.html](http://languagepolicy.org/legislation/appropriations_fy_2007_fy_2008.html),

<http://languagepolicy.org/documents/appropriations/Approp%20report%20lang%20House%2008.doc>, and

[http://exchanges.state.gov/NSLI/fact\\_sheet.htm](http://exchanges.state.gov/NSLI/fact_sheet.htm)

<sup>53</sup> Carnegie units or Carnegie hours are the number of hours per unit in which a course is taught. They are always calculated on an 18-week semester format, regardless of the length of course term. For more information see <http://www.lavc.edu/vccc/documents/carnegieunits.html>

<sup>54</sup> For more information high school graduation requirement in 2005 see NCES Table 1 [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/2007/analysis/sa\\_table.asp?tableID=851](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/2007/analysis/sa_table.asp?tableID=851)

Table 14. Foreign language requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units in

2005

State	Foreign Language Requirement	State	Foreign Language Requirement
Alabama	0	New Hampshire	0
Alaska	0	New Jersey	0
Arizona	0	New Mexico	0
Arkansas	0	New York	1
Connecticut	0	North Carolina	2
Delaware	0	Ohio	0
District of Columbia	2	Oklahoma	0
Florida	0	Oregon	1
Georgia	2	Rhode Island	2
Hawaii	0	South Carolina	1
Indiana	0	South Dakota	0
Kansas	0	Tennessee	2
Kentucky	0	Texas	2
Louisiana	0	Utah	0
Maine	0	Vermont	0
Maryland	2	Virginia	0
Minnesota	0	Washington	0
Mississippi	0	West Virginia	0
Missouri	0	Wisconsin	0
Montana	0	Wyoming	0
Nevada	0		

NOTES:

- 1) Data were not applicable for Colorado, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, and North Dakota.
- 2) Pennsylvania [Each school district (including charter schools) shall specify requirements for graduation in a strategic plan requiring state approval].
- 3) California, Idaho, Illinois (1.0 credit required in foreign language or arts, not both).

From the above table, the author learned that in 2005, 7 out of 50, that is 14 percent, of the U.S. states required 2 years of foreign language for high school graduation. Three states, that is 6 percent, required 1 year, and 31 states, that is 62 percent, required no foreign language credit. The graph below shows a state requirement distribution.

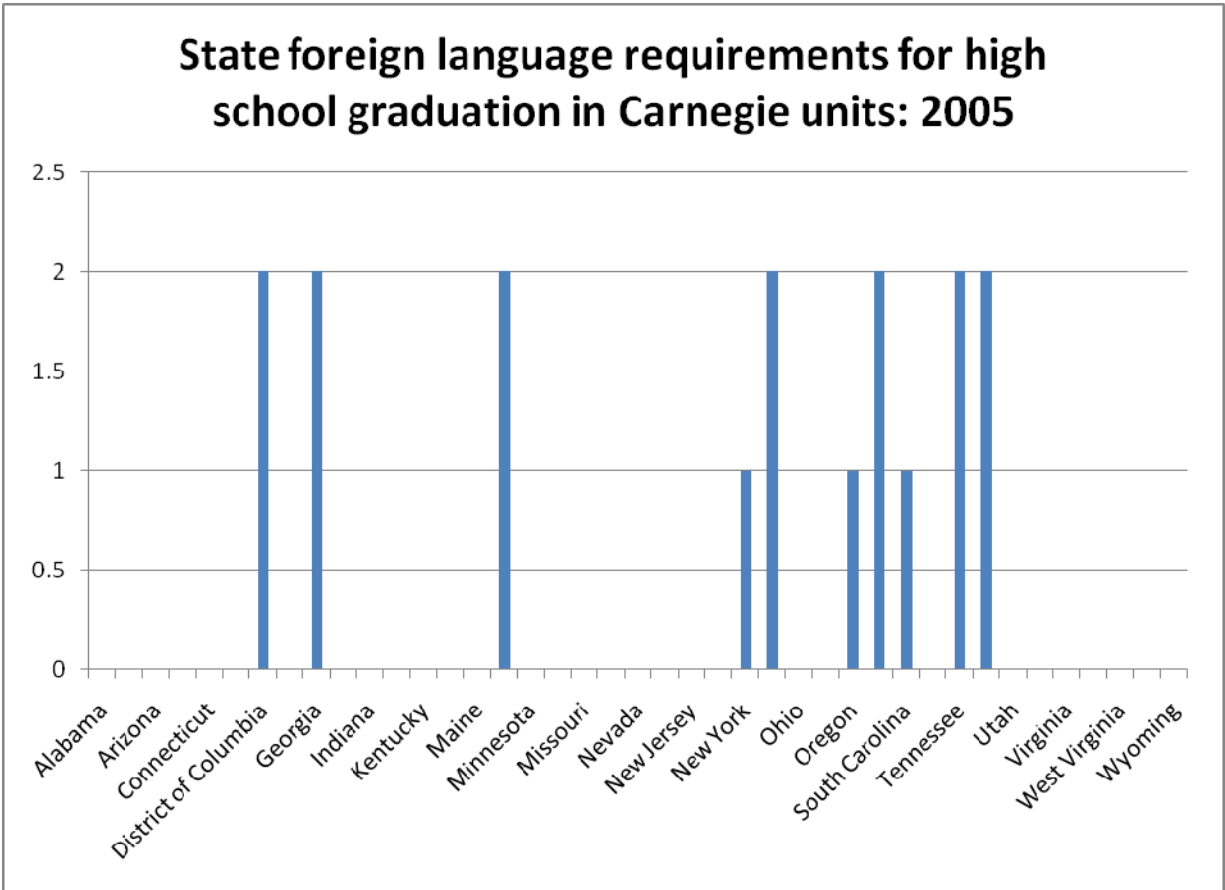


Figure 16. Foreign language requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units in 2005

From the above graph, the author learned that most of the states required no foreign language credits for graduation in 2005.

#### **4.4.3 Federal funding for foreign language instruction in the 2000's**

Through this study the author learned that funding for international education and foreign language studies has been on the rise from 2000 to 2003 and then leveled off in the following years through 2007.<sup>55</sup> The following table and graph depict this pattern.

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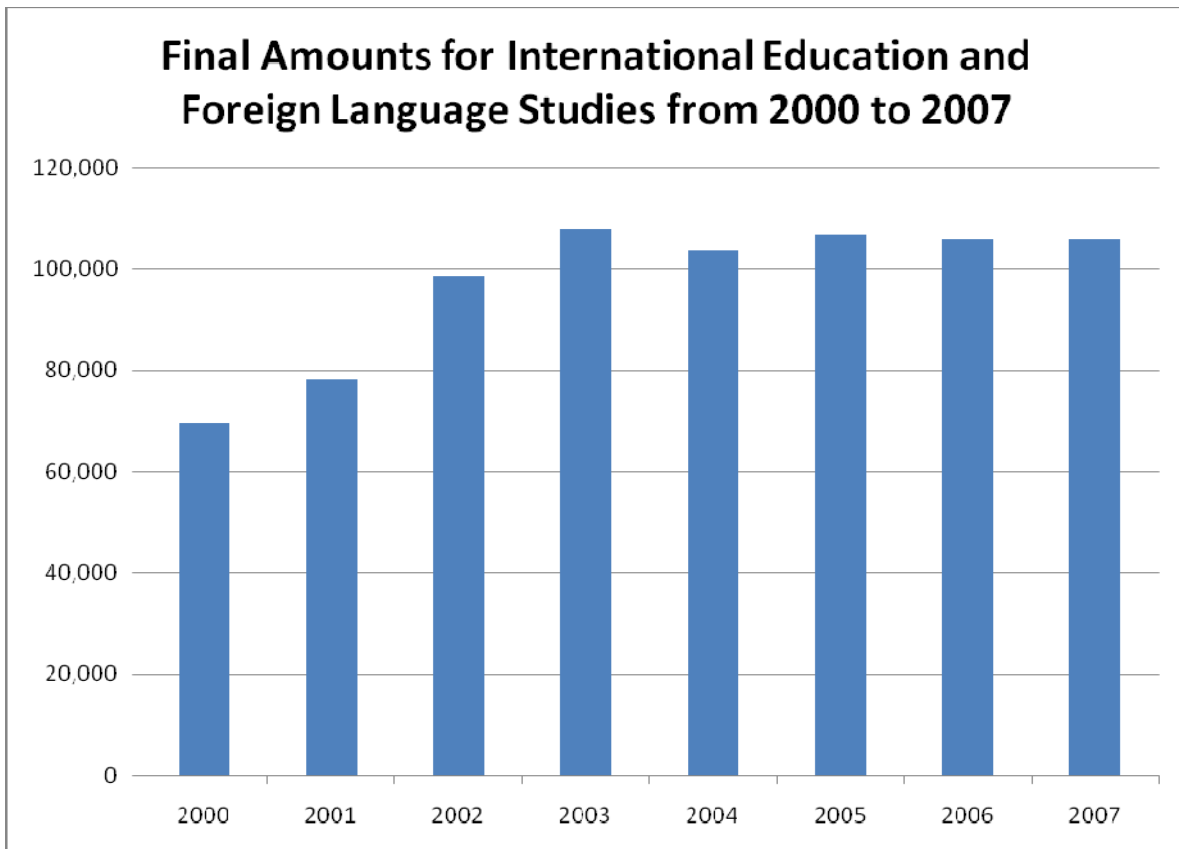
<sup>55</sup> Figures on International Education and Foreign Language Studies were acquired from the Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies, JNCL-NCLIS. For more information see <http://www.languagepolicy.org>

**Table 15. Final Amounts for International Education and Foreign Language Studies  
from 2000 to 2007**

**All dollar amounts are in thousands**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Final Amounts	69,702	78,022	98,500	107,700	103,600	106,800	105,700	105,700

From this table, the author learned that funding for international education and foreign language studies has grown since 2000, with its highest value in 2003, about 55% increase. Between 2000 and 2007, there was an overall increase of about 52%.



**Figure 17. Final Amounts for International Education and Foreign Language Studies  
from 2000 to 2007**

The above graph shows that funding for international education and foreign language studies has increased since 2000. In 2001, Foreign Language Assistance Act, FLAP,<sup>56</sup> which received \$21.7 million in 2006, was issued. In 2007, the president's request increased the funding by \$2 million to \$23.7 million.

In 2007 another source of funding was Advancing America through Foreign Language Partnerships, through which twenty-four institutions of higher level education were awarded \$1 million for partnerships with school districts for language learning from kindergarten through high school and into advanced language learning at the postsecondary level. The goal of this grant is to produce graduates with advanced levels of proficiency in languages critical to national security. Another such program is the Language Teacher Corps, which proposed a request for \$5 million with a goal to provide training to college graduates who wish to become teachers of critical languages. Yet another similar program is the Teacher-to-Teacher Initiative, which funds intensive summer sessions, especially in those of critical languages.

Some of the funding recommendations for the FY2008 are: FLAP with an increase of \$3 million and International Education and Foreign Language Studies with an increase of \$9.9 million.

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<sup>56</sup> For more information about the Foreign Language Assistance Program see <http://www.ed.gov/-programs/flapsea/index.html> and the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, NCELA [http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/oela/OELAprograms/4\\_FLAP.htm](http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/oela/OELAprograms/4_FLAP.htm)



#### 4.4.4 Foreign language course enrollment in the 2000's

In this section, the author chose to show enrollment from 1982 to 2004 in order to provide a change perspective. The following table and graph refer to the percentage distribution of high school graduates, by highest level of foreign language course completed.<sup>57</sup>

**Table 16. Percentage Distribution of High School Graduates, by Highest Level of Foreign Language Course Completed from 1982 to 2004**

	None	Year 2 or less	Year 3 or higher	Year 3	Year 4	Advanced Placement (AP)
1982	45.6	39.8	14.6	8.9	4.5	1.2
1987	33.3	47.5	19.2	11.9	5.4	1.9
1990	26.9	51.4	21.7	12.9	5.6	3.2
1992	22.5	51.8	25.7	14.8	7.7	3.2
1994	22.3	51.8	25.9	15	7.8	3.1
1998	19.4	50.7	30	17.4	8.6	4.1
2000	17.4	52.8	29.8	16.5	7.8	5.4
2004	17.3	49.2	33.5	18.4	9.8	5.3

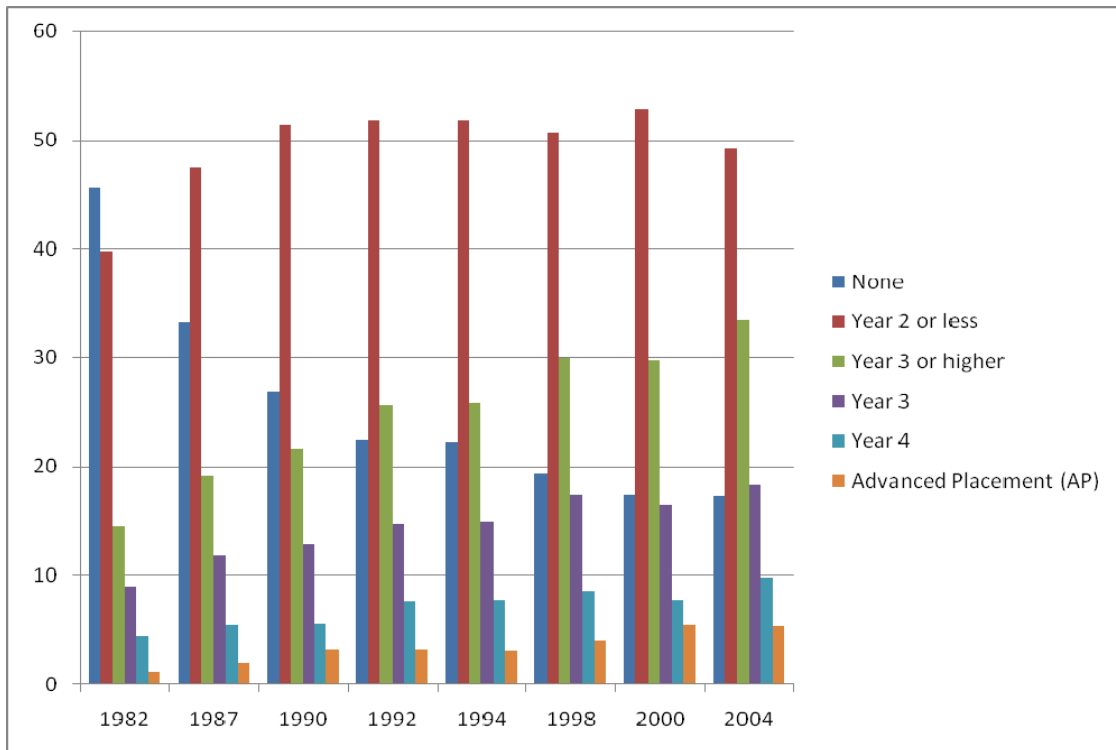
NOTE: Foreign language course taking based upon classes in Spanish, French, Latin, or German.

From 1982 to 2000, less than 1 percent of students studied a foreign language other than Spanish, French, Latin, or German.

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<sup>57</sup> For more information about Percentage distribution of high school graduates, by highest level of foreign language course completed: Selected years, 1982–2004 see NCES Table SA-10 [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/-2007/analysis/sa\\_table.asp?tableID=831](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/-2007/analysis/sa_table.asp?tableID=831)

From the above table, the author learned that the percentage of students enrolled in foreign language courses has shown a consistent increase between 1982 and 2004. The number of students who did not enroll in any foreign language courses dropped between 1982 (45.6% of students) and 2004 (17.3%); this difference is 28.3, which indicates that there are 28.3 percent more students enrolled in foreign language courses in high school in 2004. The figures indicate that there was an increase of 9.4% of students enrolled in 2 or less years of foreign language; an increase of 18.9% of students enrolled in 3 or more years; an increase of 9.5% of students enrolled in 3 years, an increase of 5.3% of students enrolled in 4 years, and an increase of 4.1% of students enrolled in advanced placement. The author noticed that the percentage increase decreased as the number of years increased. Consequently, there are fewer students who pursue higher level of foreign language courses.



**Figure 18. Percentage Distribution of High School Graduates, by Highest Level of Foreign Language Course Completed from 1982 to 2004**

Through the above graph, the author learned that the percentage of students who were not enrolled in foreign language courses was the highest in 1982. The graph also shows that the highest percent overall relates to students enrolled in 2 or less years of foreign language. The percentage of students enrolled in 3 years or higher shows a slight positive slope, with its peak in 2004. On the converse, enrollment in 4 years and AP courses are the lowest then.

The next table and graph show enrollment in French, German, and Spanish in grades 9 through 12, in U.S. public schools in 2000.<sup>58</sup>

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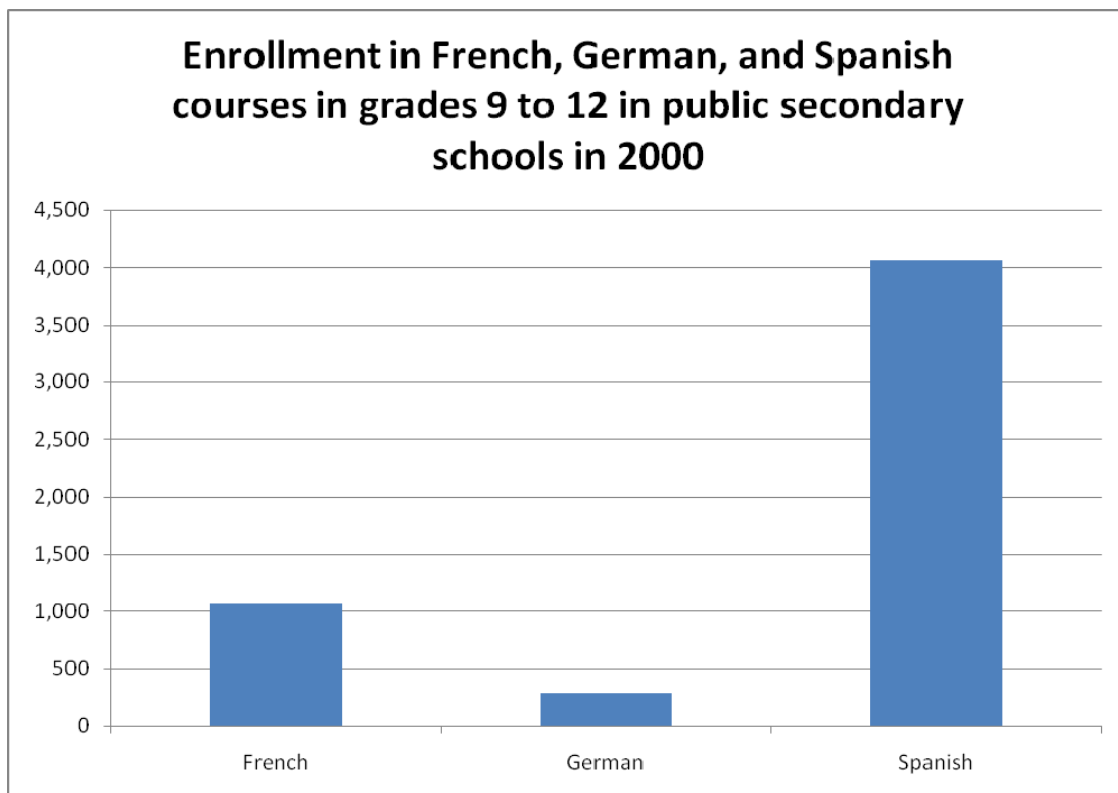
<sup>58</sup> For more information about public high school enrollment in French, German, and Spanish in 2000 see NCES Table 55, 2005 <http://nces.ed.gov/>

**Table 17. Enrollment in French, German, and Spanish courses in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools in 2000**

**Numbers are in thousands**

	2000
French	1,075
German	283
Spanish	4,058

The author learned from the above table that enrollment in the three most-taught languages in the U.S. followed the same pattern from 1948, with Spanish leading, French being the second, and German being the least studied of the three languages. For more detail on these data, see Appendix D.



**Figure 19. Enrollment in French, German, and Spanish courses in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools in 2000**

The above table and graph show that Spanish was the leading foreign language course in the U.S. public secondary schools in 2000.

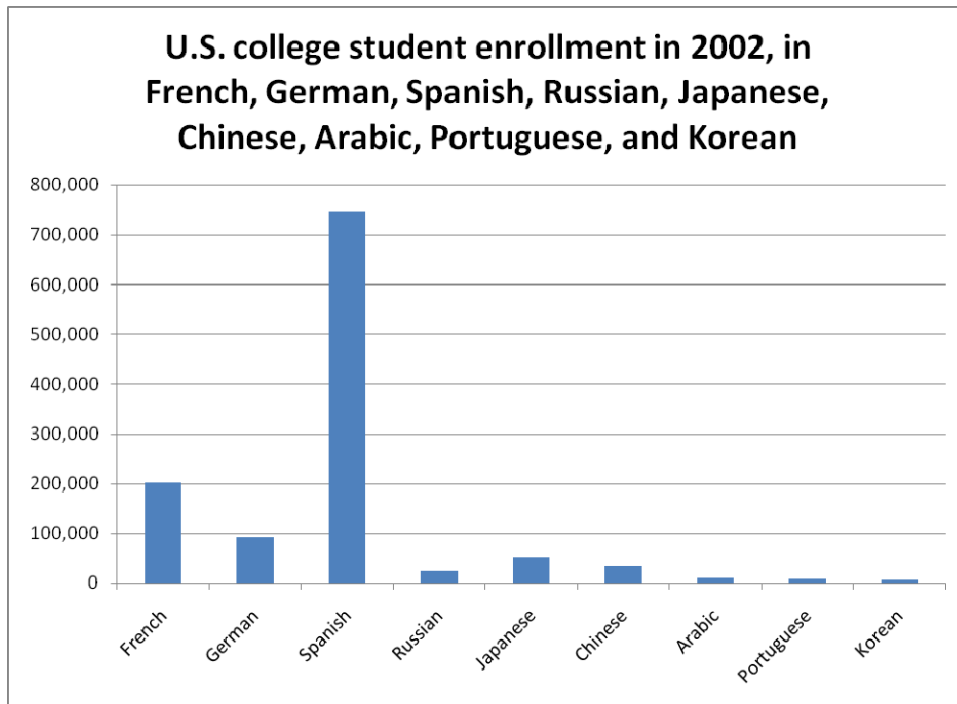
Another NCES data record, disclosed in Table 11, entitled “Projection of Education Statistics to 2015,” has been reported by Welles (2004), shows that in 2002, 1,347,036 out of 15,608,000 college students were enrolled in modern foreign language courses. Therefore, only about 8.6 percent of college students were enrolled in modern foreign language courses in 2002. For more detail on these data, see Appendix D.

The next table and graph show figures for 2002 of U.S. college student enrollment in specific foreign language courses, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean.

**Table 18. U.S. college student enrollment in specific foreign language courses, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean in 2002**

	2002
French	201,979
German	91,100
Spanish	746,267
Russian	23,921
Japanese	52,238
Chinese	34,153
Arabic	10,584
Portuguese	8,385
Korean	5,211

The above table indicates that in 2002, Spanish was the most chosen language among American college students, about 369 percent higher than the second most chosen, French; German maintained third place as in previous years.



**Figure 20. U.S. college student enrollment in specific foreign language courses, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Korean in 2002**

The above graph shows that Spanish was overwhelmingly the language of choice among U.S. college students in 2002. It maintained its leading position among the three most studied languages, including French and German. In fact, it superseded enrollment in the other referenced languages combined.

#### **4.4.5 Summary of the 2000's**

The author learned that immigration records show that in the 2000's, Europe continues to be low compared with immigration from the Americas. Immigration from Africa continues to be almost non-existent. Immigration from Asia rose slightly. Of the four countries chosen for this study, Germany, France, Cuba, and Mexico, the country leading in immigration to the U.S. continues to be Mexico.

The author also learned that foreign language enrollment records show that Spanish continues to be overwhelmingly the language of choice at the secondary and tertiary levels.

Concerning funding and foreign language education recommendations, there seems to be an increase in interest in languages other than French, German, and Spanish. Some language educators and political leaders are recommending foreign language education in languages that are viewed as critical for the nation's economy and national security. These languages,

according to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, are Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi.

The author also noted that as of 2005, there were minimal or no requirements to learn a foreign language in high school.



## **5.0 DISCUSSION – INTRODUCTION**

In this section, the author discusses the overall findings about the attitude Americans have toward foreign language education from the 1700's to 2006. Through the literature search, the author was able to build a general understanding of the path of education in and of languages other than English.

Although the author believes that all topics that have been addressed in this work are related at some level, before discussing the overall work, she chose to review each topic separately to develop a more organized means for a final discussion. Therefore, in section 5.1, the author discusses immigration, in section 5.2, foreign language instruction, in section 5.3, federal funding for foreign language instruction, in section 5.4, foreign language course enrollment, and lastly, an overall discussion is provided in section 5.5.

## **5.1 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT U.S. IMMIGRATION FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006**

The author looked at immigration starting in the 1700's because the United States of America was born as an independent nation during that century. The author believes that the attitude of a people is influenced by the composition of that population. Perhaps because the U.S. was not established as an independent nation until 1776, there are no available immigration data prior to 1820 (Steve Fienberg, from the Carnegie Mellon University). However it has been reported by secondary sources that German immigrants composed the greatest number of immigrants during the 1700's (Kloss, 1998, p. 9).

During the 1800's, with the exception of 1820 when immigration from France was greater than immigration from Germany, immigration from Germany was the largest throughout the century, with its peak in the decade of the 1880's. There was no record of immigration from Cuba during this time period, and immigration from Mexico was very low. Some attempts were made to halt immigration by the end of the 1800's, by means of taxation (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Higham, 1963, p. 101) or by language restriction (Higham, 1963, p. 106).

The 1990's saw a shift in immigration patterns, in which immigration from Europe was reduced greatly after the first decade, while immigration from the Americas started to increase, especially immigration from Mexico after 1948. Just as during the 1800's, actions were taken against immigrants in the form of taxation (Schmid, 2001, p. 35; Higham, 1963, pp. 249 & 260) and language discrimination against speaking German in the streets and teaching in the German language (Schmid, 2001, p. 36; Kloss, 1998, p. 61). Another form of language discrimination was by the implementation of the I.Q. test under the Johnson-Laird Immigration Act, which was

used with the intention to restrict the racial distribution of immigrants (Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 136).

Immigration from Cuba increased in the beginning of the 1960's due to the Cuban crisis when Fidel Castro acquired control of the country; however, immigration from Cuba in general did not compare with immigration from Mexico, the leading source of immigration since 1948.

In the 2000's immigration from the Americas continued to be the largest among Europe, Asia, and Africa, with Asia being the second largest. Among the four countries being studied, Mexico is overwhelmingly the leading immigration source. In addition the record of documented immigrants is incomplete; some sources estimate that there are about 12 million undocumented immigrants in the United States (*The Business Journal*, October 8, 2007).

## **5.2 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THE U.S. FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006**

During the 1750's foreign language knowledge was a skill possessed by people from various social strata, including slaves (Crawford, 1992a, p. 36). It was a common practice for U.S. educational institutions to offer instruction in many languages, such as German, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic (Crawford, 1992a, p. 36). Education in non-English languages was offered when parents requested (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31). Thomas Jefferson recommended that American students up to sixteen years

of age should learn Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish (Simon, 1980, p. 77). Benjamin Franklin, on the other hand, recommended that education in the English language should be imposed on the immigrants from Germany.

During the 1800's some political leaders supported education in languages other than English, such as President Van Buren and the governors of Ohio and Pennsylvania (Kloss, 1998, p. 31). In 1839, Ohio became the first state to legalize education in the German language. Perhaps due to the French roots of Louisiana, education in that state until 1803 was given in both English and French (Kloss, 1998, p. 140); however, in 1847 a state law declared that German would be the language of instruction (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 140).

By the 1880's education in the German language was being terminated throughout the nation with the help of the APA (Herriman & Burnaby, 1996, p. 133; Schmid, 2001, p. 36). The same attitude against education in the German language was conveyed by the Commissioner of the Common Schools of New York, who labeled foreign traits as irritating elements (Simon, 1980, p. 11), and by immigrant parents, who viewed their own foreign traits as deficiencies (Simon, 1980, p. 12).

By the 1900's some states were urging education in English-only or English plus another language instead of education in a foreign language, such as German (Higham, 1963, p. 209; Schmid, 2001, p. 36). In 1915, immigrant parents were encouraging their children to learn other languages while retaining their own (Schmidt, Sr., 2000, p.1); 36 percent of American high school students were studying a modern foreign language (Simon, 1980, p. 2) and 85 percent of these students were required to pass a competency test in a foreign language before they were accepted into a college (Simon, 1980, p. 3).

In 1919, Nebraska was declared an English-only state and prohibited education in any language other than English (Higham, 1963, p. 260; Crawford, 1992b, p. 89; Kloss, 1998, p. 62). The stand taken by the state of Nebraska led to the Supreme Court case, *Meyer v. Nebraska*, in 1923, which favored the language minority party (Leibowitz, 1971, p. 10).

Right after Fidel Castro took control of Cuba in 1959, Dade County, Florida, faced a language crisis regarding the education of children of refugees (Finegan & Rickford, 2004, p. 342). Just a decade later, in the 1970's, Texas faced the same dilemma in educating 240,000 Mexican immigrants (Schmidt, Sr., 2000, p. 131; Simon, 1980, p. 156). At the end of the 1970's, English-speaking students were allowed by law to learn foreign language by entering bilingual programs (San Miguel, Jr., 2004, p. 30).

By the end of the 1900's some language advocates urged education in languages other than the three most commonly taught in the U.S., described by ACTFL as Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi. This same trend has continued during the 2000's. Some of these languages are being taught by American corporations such as Intel (Workforce Management, 2004, Oct.).

The need for foreign language education was recognized by two current political leaders, George Bush and Condoleezza Rice, in addition to Representative Anna Eshoo (D-CA) (Welles, winter, spring, 2004; Tare, 2006; Friel, 2001). However, despite the recognition of need, there are only 15 public schools in the nation where Arabic is being taught at the moment (2006, Jan.8), and in 2005 the requirement for high school graduation in Carnegie units ranged from 0 to 2, zero being the requirement at the majority of the states (NCES Table 1).

### **5.3 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT U.S. FUNDING FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006**

In the 1700's funding for foreign language was available based on the fact that many settlers were educated in their own language (Crawford, 2000, p. 20). Another source for foreign language education during this time period came through the funding of a bilingual college in Pennsylvania by Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin (Crawford, 1992a, p. 39; Crawford, 2000, p. 12; Schmid, 2001, p. 16).

The funding of foreign language education was also sponsored by another politician in 1839, when President Van Buren and the governors of Ohio and Pennsylvania contributed to the funding of a German's teacher's seminary (Kloss, 1998, p. 31). At the K-12 levels, funding for foreign language education still took place, for education in German was offered when parents requested (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31).

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 was a source of federal funding for foreign language education as a result of the Sputnik crisis; funding for education tripled in 1959 (Friel, 2001). The Higher Education Act of 1965 provided grants for foreign language from elementary to college level. During the 1990's funding for foreign language education was provided through the Senate Intelligence Committee (Crawford, 192a, p. 253) as well as through International Education and Foreign Language Studies during President Clinton's terms. According to the JNCL-NCLIS, the funding for International Education and Foreign Language Studies continues to grow in the 2000's; from 2000 to 2007, it increased about 34 percent. Other funding for foreign language education in the 2000's has been especially categorized for education in critical languages as described by ACTFL. Such funds are Advancing America

through Foreign Language Partnerships and Foreign Language Assistance Program, according to the JNCL-NCLIS.

#### **5.4 DISCUSSION POINTS ABOUT FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSE ENROLLMENT FROM THE 1700'S TO 2006**

There are no governmental records that show enrollment data during the 1700's; however, since it is known that children of immigrant parents were being educated in their native languages whenever their parents requested (Crawford, 2000, p. 20; Kloss, 1998, p. 31), one can assume that students were enrolled in courses in languages other than English during that time. In addition it is known that U.S. educational institutions offered education in German, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic (Crawford, 1992a, p. 36).

According to the NCES, German was the leading language of choice in grades 9 to 12 between 1889 and 1900, French was second, and there was no record for enrollment in Spanish for this time period. In 1895, foreign language courses were offered in the elementary level, with twenty-three thousand students enrolled in German courses, and three thousand students enrolled in French courses (Simon, 1980, p. 14). These figures show once again that the language of choice at that time was German.

The choice of German as a foreign language course continued until 1915, during WWI, after which, enrollment in German courses at the secondary level was reduced by about 98

percent, according to the NCES. In 1921, French became the leading foreign language of choice, with an increase of about 43 percent. French maintained its enrollment leadership until 1948, when Spanish took the leading position.

The year 1982, according to the NCES, was the year when the fewest high school students enrolled in foreign language courses, between 1982 and 2004. After 1982, the number of students enrolled in foreign language courses for two years increased; however the number of students enrolled in more than two years of instruction decreased as the number of years of language courses increased. This enrollment follows the trends of graduation requirements; more than 60 percent of the U.S. high schools had no requirement in the year 2005.

Enrollment trends continued from the mid 1900's to 2002. Spanish language enrollment continues to maintain its leading position over French, German, and other languages that are viewed as critical to the United States.



## 5.5 OVERALL STUDY DISCUSSION

This work is based on the concept that the attitudes of American citizens impact the development of foreign language education in the United States. The author notes that American citizenship has been composed of different ethnic groups from the time of the nation's birth in the 1700's. During that time up to the 1800's, German citizens composed the largest immigrant group entering the United States. Education in the German language was a common practice in those days. Funding to English-German colleges by American political leaders was reported. No explicit language for instruction had been prescribed in the U.S. Constitution. Being multilingual was a common trait in the nation from the educated elite, as recommended by Thomas Jefferson, to the common slave population. Many public schools in the nation offered courses in several languages. As the 1800's approached its end, the attitude of some Americans, including political leaders, changed due to the fact that the number of German immigrants was increasing. Immigrants were taxed at times based on immigration status and at other times based on language issues. A movement toward English-only started to take place.

After World War I, German immigration as well as German language education almost disappeared; French became the language of choice. Shortly thereafter, overall immigration from Europe was reduced greatly while immigration from the Americas increased, especially from Mexico. In 1948, Spanish became the language of choice. This choice continues among all other languages, including the ones that are viewed as critical.

The author learned through this research that there is a relationship between the attitudes of a people, its population composition, and the language of choice.

## 6.0 EPILOGUE

The author believes that foreign language education in the United States is impacted by the attitudes of American citizens. This belief has not changed at the conclusion of this work. This conclusion rests on the fact that foreign language enrollment data have followed along-side with immigration trends. In the 1700 and 1800's, German was the leading immigrant group and it was the leading language of education. As immigration trends switched from Europe, most specifically, Germany, to the Americas, most specifically, Mexico, from 1948 to today, the leading foreign language of choice has been Spanish.


The author wishes to emphasize that, personally, she is not against the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language; however, she sees a problem that can occur with this narrow choice; while the leading immigrant group is being catered to, funding and requirements for foreign language are being put aside. As a result the United States education system is restricting American citizens, and consequently the nation, from fully engaging in today's world.

Through this study, the author confirmed that foreign language instruction is directly related to immigration trends. Conversely, the need to expand the spectrum of foreign language instruction has been pointed out by language professionals during crisis situations; however, foreign language course enrollment and requirements show that the outcome of such calls tend to vanish as time passes; this confirmation can be validated based on the available enrollment data.

As a conclusion, it seems that the only question remaining is:

What is the next historical crisis that will serve as a basis for recommendation from the nation's language professionals while education in the leading immigrant group's language continues to grow?

**APPENDIX A: University of Pittsburgh's Institutional Review Board Completion of  
Module and Approval Form**



**University of Pittsburgh**  
*Center for Continuing Education in the Health Sciences*

**This is to acknowledge that**

**Nancy V Sterniak**

Participated in the Enduring Material Continuing Medical Education  
activity

**Human Subjects Research in Social and  
Behavioral Sciences (Formerly RPF  
Module 2B)**

Date of Completion: 2006-12-27

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For your credit transcript, please access our website 1 day post-completion at:  
<http://ccehs.upmc.edu> and follow the link to the Credit Transcript page

**\*\*NOTE\*\*** If you did not provide the last 5 digits of your SSN you will not be  
able to access a CME credit transcript.

The University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine, is accredited by the  
Accreditation Council for Continuing Medical Education to sponsor continuing  
medical education for physicians.

The University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine designates this educational  
activity for a maximum of **2.0 AMA PRA Category 1 Credits (TM)**. Each  
physician should claim only those credits that he/she actually spent in the  
educational activity.

Other healthcare professionals are awarded **0.2** continuing education units  
(CEU's) which are equal to **2.0** contact hours.

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CertificateID:36429  
CourseID:1070

**Figure 21. University of Pittsburgh's Institutional Review Board Completion of Module  
and Approval Form**



**University of Pittsburgh**  
*Institutional Review Board*

3500 Fifth Avenue  
Suite 100  
Pittsburgh, PA 15213  
Phone: 412.383.1480  
Fax: 412.383.1508

Exempt and Expedited Reviews

University of Pittsburgh FWA: 00006790  
University of Pittsburgh Medical Center FWA 00006735  
Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh: FWA 00006600

TO: Nancy Sterniak  
FROM: Christopher M. Ryan, Ph.D., Vice Chair *Chris*  
DATE: January 17, 2007  
PROJECT: Strengthening Language and Culture Capacity Skills in the United States  
IRB Number: 0612105

The above-referenced protocol has been reviewed by the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board. Based on the information provided to the IRB, this project includes no involvement of human subjects, according to the federal regulations [§46.102(f)]. That is, the investigator conducting research will not obtain data through intervention or interaction with the individual, or will not obtain identifiable private information. Should that situation change, the investigator must notify the IRB immediately.

Given this determination, you may now begin your project.

CR:dj

**Figure 22. Memorandum from the University Pittsburgh's Institutional Review Board informing that the approval was based on no involvement of human subjects**

## APPENDIX B: Immigration record between 1900 and 1929<sup>59</sup>

The first table, set of notes, and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Europe between 1900 and 1929.

**Table 19. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929
Total	8,202,388	6,347,380	4,295,510
Europe	7,572,569	4,985,411	2,560,340
Austria-Hungary <sup>2, 3, 4</sup>	2,001,376	1,154,727	60,891
Austria <sup>2, 4</sup>	532,416	589,174	31,392
Hungary <sup>2</sup>	685,567	565,553	29,499
Belgium	37,429	32,574	21,511
Bulgaria <sup>5</sup>	34,651	27,180	2,824
Czechoslovakia <sup>6</sup>	-	-	101,182
Denmark	61,227	45,830	34,406
Finland	-	-	16,922
France <sup>7</sup>	67,735	60,335	54,842
Germany <sup>3, 4</sup>	328,722	174,227	386,634
Greece	145,402	198,108	60,774
Ireland <sup>8</sup>	344,940	166,445	202,854
Italy	1,930,475	1,229,916	528,133
Netherlands	42,463	46,065	29,397
Norway-Sweden <sup>9</sup>	426,981	192,445	170,329
Norway <sup>9</sup>	182,542	79,488	70,327
Sweden <sup>9</sup>	244,439	112,957	100,002
Poland <sup>3</sup>	-	-	223,316
Portugal <sup>10</sup>	65,154	82,489	44,829
Romania	57,322	13,566	67,810
Russia <sup>3, 11</sup>	1,501,301	1,106,998	61,604
Spain <sup>12</sup>	24,818	53,262	47,109
Switzerland	32,541	22,839	31,772
United Kingdom <sup>8, 13</sup>	469,518	371,878	341,552
Yugoslavia <sup>14</sup>	-	-	49,215
Other Europe	514	6,527	22,434

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<sup>59</sup> Source for the data used in the following tables and graphs is the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, 2006, table 2.

**Note** that the government record that follows only reports legal immigrants.

- Represents zero or not available.						
<sup>1</sup> Data for years prior to 1906 refer to country of origin; data from 1906 to 2006 refer to country of last residence.						
<sup>2</sup> Data for Austria and Hungary not reported separately for all years during 1860 to 1869, 1890 to 1899, 1900 to 1909.						
<sup>3</sup> From 1899 to 1919, data for Poland included in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Soviet Union.						
<sup>4</sup> From 1938 to 1945, data for Austria included in Germany.						
<sup>5</sup> From 1899 to 1910, included Serbia and Montenegro.						
<sup>6</sup> Currently includes Czech Republic and Slovak Republic.						
<sup>7</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included Corsica.						
<sup>8</sup> Prior to 1926, data for Northern Ireland included in Ireland.						
<sup>9</sup> Data for Norway and Sweden not reported separately until 1869.						
<sup>10</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included Cape Verde and Azores Islands.						
<sup>11</sup> From 1820 to 1920, data refer to the Russian Empire. Between 1920 and 1990 data refer to the Soviet Union. From 1991 to present, the data refer to the Russian federation, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan,						
<sup>12</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included the Canary Islands and Balearic Islands.						
<sup>13</sup> Since 1925, data for United Kingdom refer to England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.						
<sup>14</sup> Currently includes Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Slovenia, Serbia, and Montenegro.						

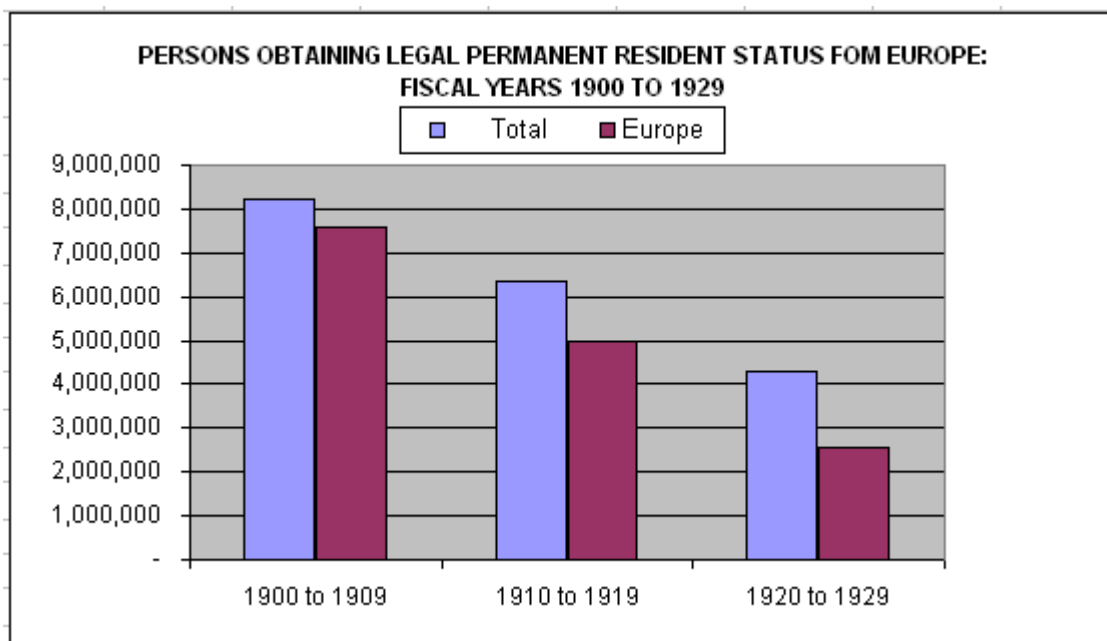


Figure 23. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929

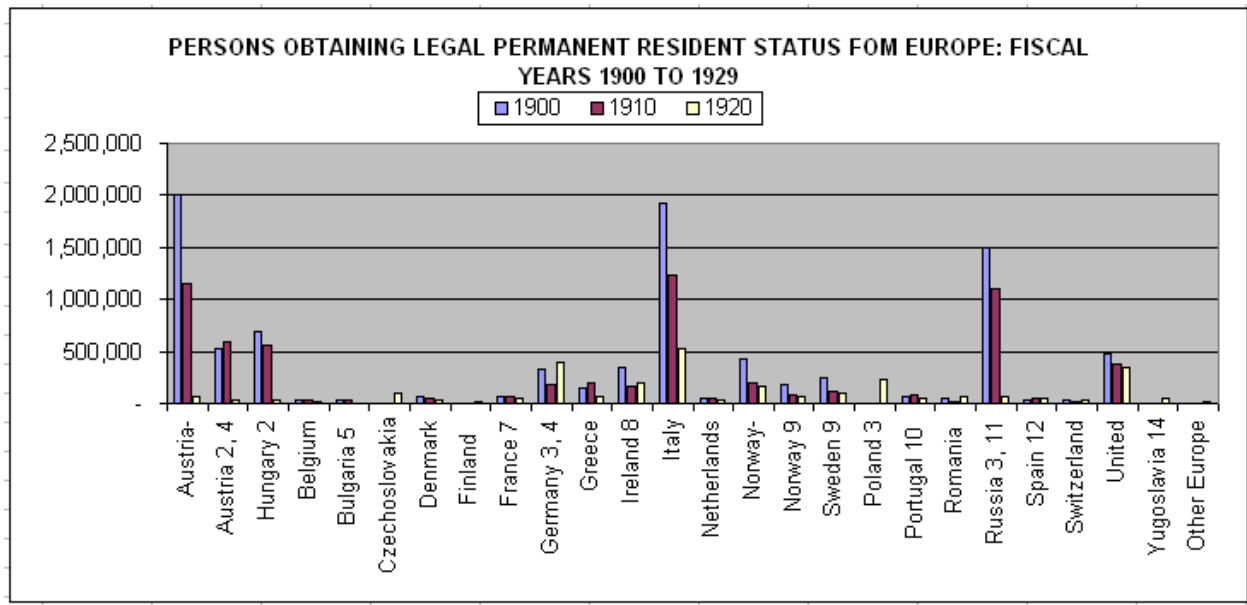


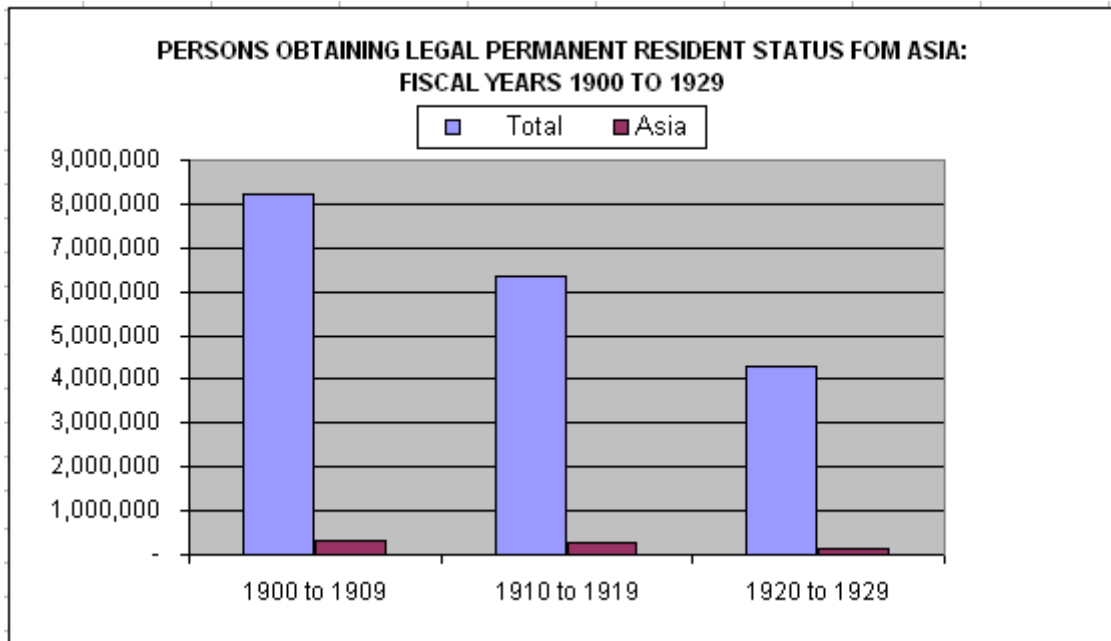
Figure 24. Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929

The next table and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Asia between 1900 and 1929.

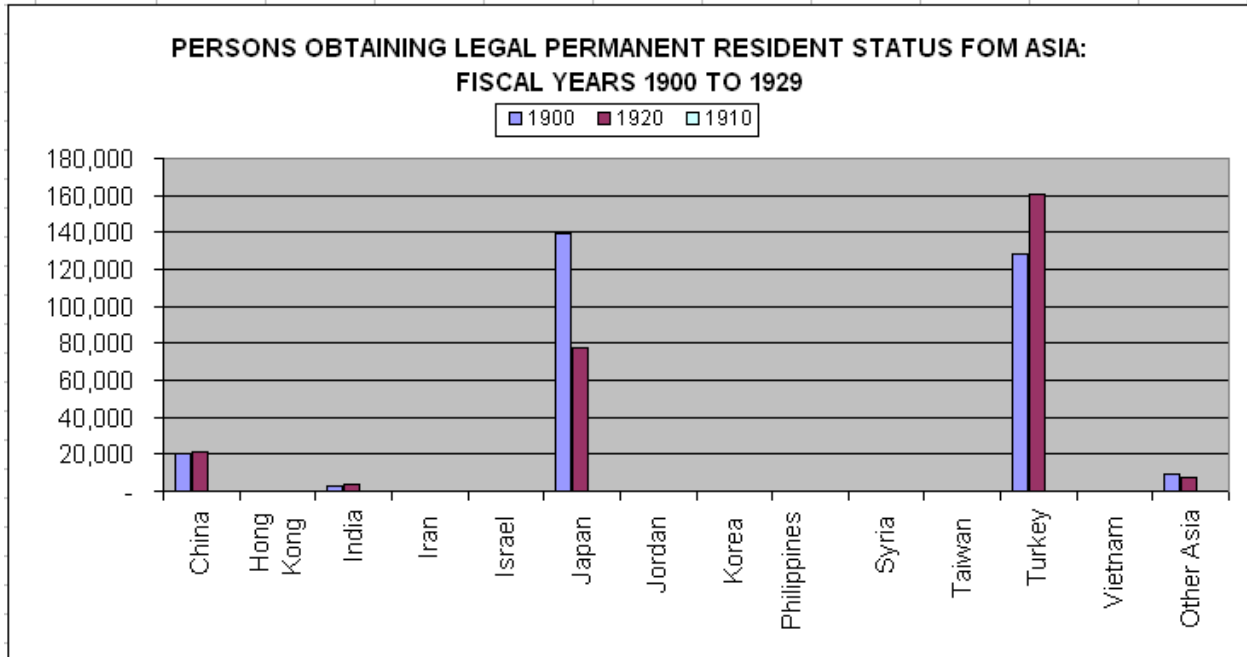


**Table 20. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929
Total	8,202,388	6,347,380	4,295,510
Asia	299,836	269,736	126,740
China	19,884	20,916	30,648
Hong Kong	-	-	-
India	3,026	3,478	2,076
Iran	-	-	208
Israel	-	-	-
Japan	139,712	77,125	42,057
Jordan	-	-	-
Korea	-	-	-
Philippines	-	-	-
Syria	-	-	5,307
Taiwan	-	-	-
Turkey	127,999	160,717	40,450
Vietnam	-	-	-
Other Asia	9,215	7,500	5,994



**Figure 25. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**



**Figure 26. Total Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**

The next table, set of notes, and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from the America between 1900 and 1929.

Table 21. **Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929
Total	8,202,388	6,347,380	4,295,510
America	277,809	1,070,539	1,591,278
Canada and Newfoundland <sup>15, 16</sup>	123,067	708,715	949,286
Mexico <sup>16,17</sup>	31,188	185,334	498,945
Caribbean	100,960	120,860	83,482
Cuba	-	-	12,769
Dominican Republic	-	-	-
Haiti	-	-	-
Jamaica <sup>18</sup>	-	-	-
Other Caribbean <sup>18</sup>	100,960	120,860	70,713
Central America	7,341	15,692	16,511
Belize	77	40	285
Costa Rica	-	-	-
El Salvador	-	-	-
Guatemala	-	-	-
Honduras	-	-	-
Nicaragua	-	-	-
Panama <sup>19</sup>	-	-	-
Other Central America	7,264	15,652	16,226
South America	15,253	39,938	43,025
Argentina	-	-	-
Bolivia	-	-	-
Brazil	-	-	4,627
Chile	-	-	-
Colombia	-	-	-
Ecuador	-	-	-
Guyana	-	-	-
Paraguay	-	-	-
Peru	-	-	-
Suriname	-	-	-
Uruguay	-	-	-
Venezuela	-	-	-
Other South America	15,253	39,938	38,398
Other America <sup>20</sup>	-	-	29

- Represents zero or not available.

<sup>15</sup>Prior to 1911, data refer to British North America. From 1911, data includes Newfoundland.

<sup>16</sup>Land arrivals not completely enumerated until 1908.

<sup>17</sup>No data available for Mexico from 1886 to 1893.

<sup>18</sup>Data for Jamaica not reported separately until 1953. Prior to 1953, Jamaica was included in British West Indies

<sup>19</sup>From 1932 to 1972, data for the Panama Canal Zone included in Panama.

<sup>20</sup>Included in 'Not Specified' until 1925.

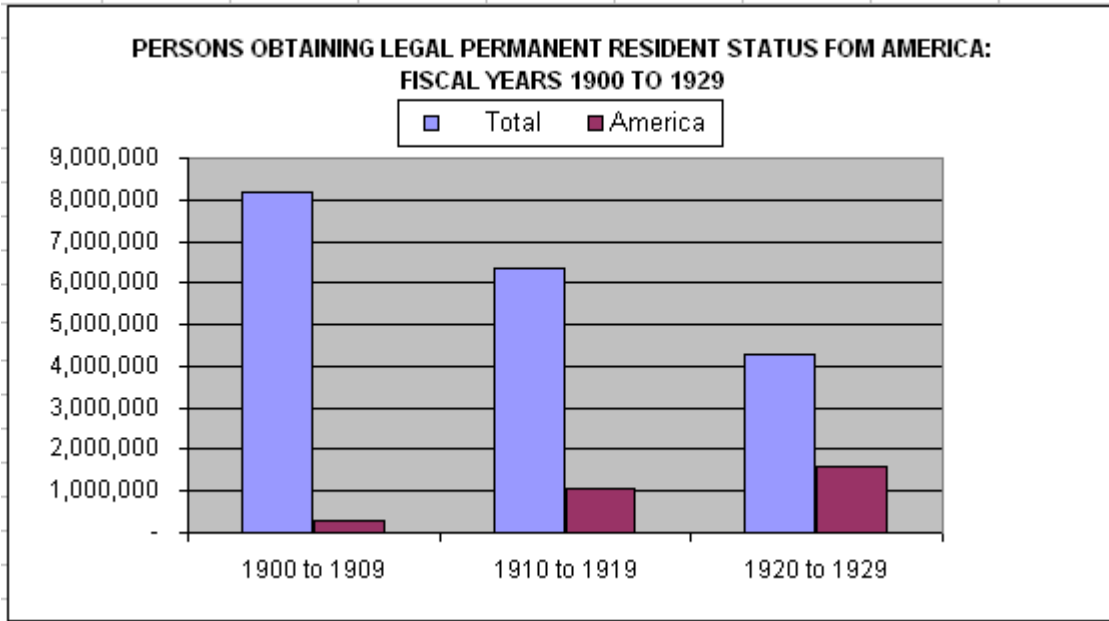


Figure 27. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929

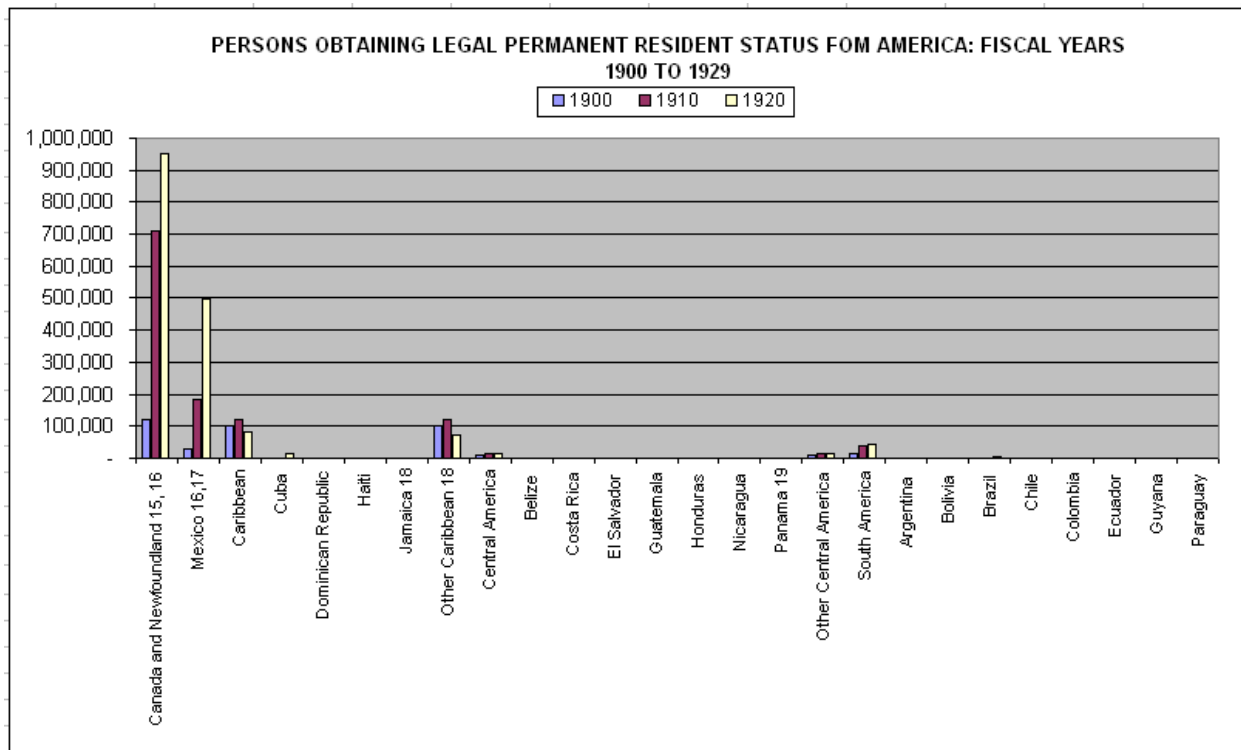
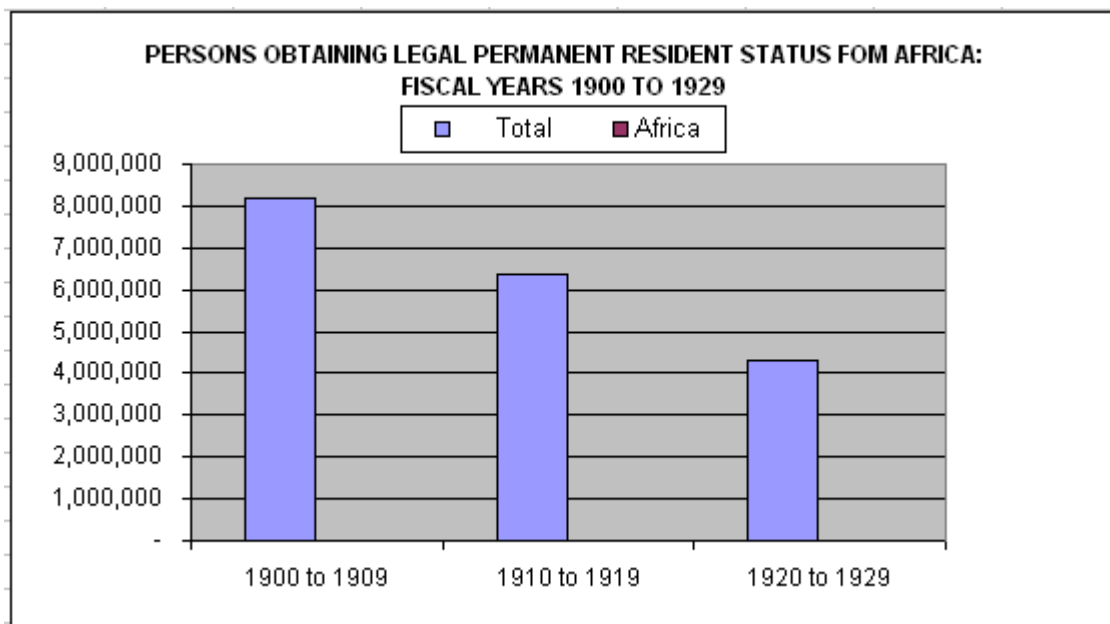


Figure 28. Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929

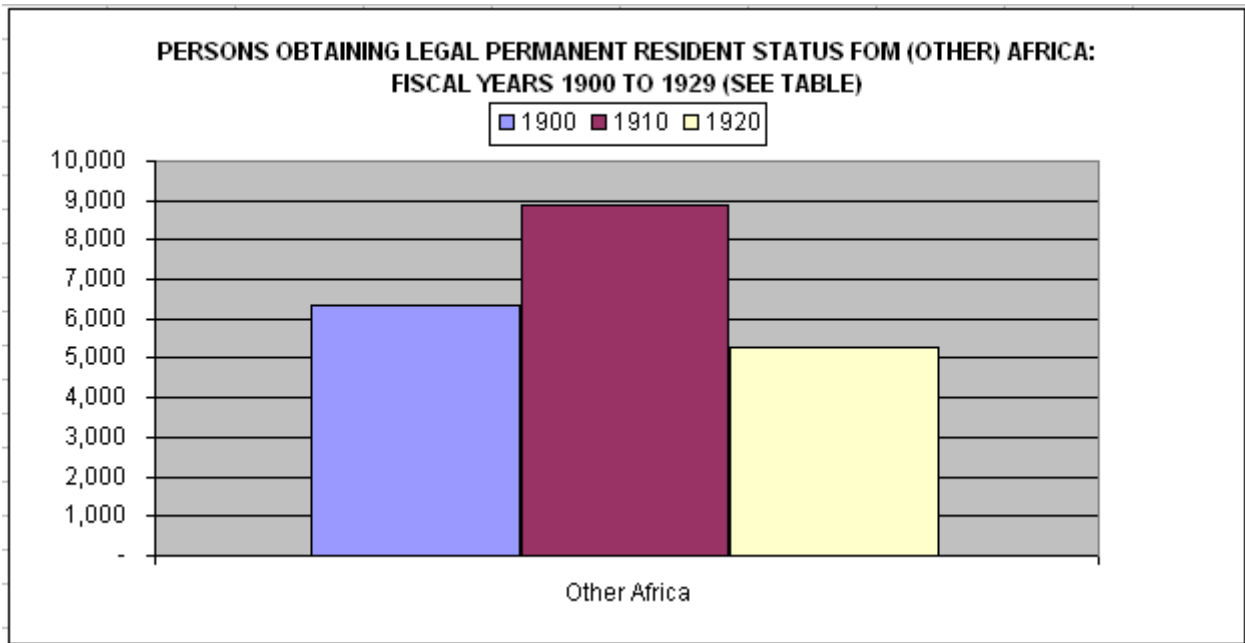
The next table and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Africa between 1900 and 1929.

**Table 22. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1929
Total	8,202,388	6,347,380	4,295,510
Africa	6,326	8,867	6,362
Egypt	-	-	1,063
Ethiopia	-	-	-
Liberia	-	-	-
Morocco	-	-	-
South Africa	-	-	-
Other Africa	6,326	8,867	5,299



**Figure 29. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929 (Note that the numbers of immigrants from Africa compared to the total number of immigrants to the U.S. were too small to appear in the graph)**



**Figure 30. Total African immigrants from (other Africa) to the U.S. between 1900 and 1929**  
(see table for other Africa)

## APPENDIX C: Immigration record between 1950 and 2006<sup>60</sup>

The first table, set of notes, and three graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Europe between 1950 and 2006.

**Table 23. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	2,499,268	3,213,749	4,248,203	6,244,379	9,775,398	841,002	1,058,902	1,059,356	703,542	957,883	1,122,373	1,266,264
Europe	1,404,973	1,133,443	825,590	668,866	1,348,612	131,920	176,892	177,059	102,546	135,663	180,449	169,197
Austria-Hungary <sup>2, 3, 4</sup>	113,015	27,590	20,387	20,437	27,529	2,009	2,303	4,004	2,176	3,689	4,569	2,991
Austria <sup>2, 4</sup>	81,354	17,571	14,239	15,374	18,234	986	996	2,650	1,160	2,442	3,002	1,301
Hungary <sup>2</sup>	31,661	10,019	6,148	5,063	9,295	1,023	1,307	1,354	1,016	1,247	1,567	1,690
Belgium	18,885	9,647	5,413	7,028	7,077	817	997	834	515	746	1,031	891
Bulgaria <sup>5</sup>	97	598	1,011	1,124	16,948	4,779	4,273	3,476	3,706	4,042	5,451	4,690
Czechoslovakia <sup>6</sup>	1,624	2,758	5,654	5,678	8,970	1,407	1,911	1,854	1,472	1,871	2,182	2,844
Denmark	10,918	9,797	4,405	4,847	6,189	549	732	651	435	568	714	738
Finland	4,923	4,310	2,829	2,569	3,970	377	497	365	230	346	549	513
France <sup>7</sup>	50,113	46,975	26,281	32,066	35,945	4,063	5,379	4,567	2,926	4,209	5,035	4,945
Germany <sup>3, 4</sup>	576,905	209,616	77,142	85,752	92,207	12,230	21,992	20,977	8,061	10,270	12,864	10,271
Greece	45,153	74,173	102,370	37,729	25,403	5,113	1,941	1,486	900	1,213	1,473	1,544
Ireland <sup>8</sup>	47,189	37,788	11,461	22,210	65,384	1,264	1,531	1,400	1,002	1,518	2,083	2,038
Italy	184,576	200,111	150,031	55,562	75,992	2,652	3,332	2,812	1,890	2,495	3,179	3,406
Netherlands	46,703	37,918	10,373	11,234	13,345	1,455	1,888	2,296	1,321	1,713	2,150	1,928
Norway-Sweden <sup>9</sup>	44,224	36,150	10,298	13,941	17,825	1,967	2,544	2,082	1,516	2,011	2,264	2,111
Norway <sup>9</sup>	22,806	17,371	3,927	3,835	5,211	508	582	460	385	457	472	532
Sweden <sup>9</sup>	21,418	18,779	6,371	10,106	12,614	1,459	1,962	1,622	1,131	1,554	1,792	1,579
Poland <sup>3</sup>	6,465	55,742	33,696	63,483	172,249	9,750	12,308	13,274	11,004	14,048	14,837	16,705
Portugal <sup>10</sup>	13,928	70,568	104,754	42,685	25,497	1,373	1,611	1,301	808	1,062	1,084	1,439
Romania	914	2,339	10,774	24,753	48,136	6,506	6,206	4,515	3,305	4,078	6,431	6,753
Russia <sup>3, 11</sup>	453	2,329	28,132	33,311	433,427	43,156	54,838	55,370	33,513	41,959	60,395	59,760
Spain <sup>12</sup>	6,880	40,793	41,718	22,783	18,443	1,390	1,875	1,588	1,102	1,453	2,002	2,387
Switzerland	17,577	19,193	8,536	8,316	11,768	1,339	1,786	1,493	862	1,193	1,465	1,199
United Kingdom <sup>8, 13</sup>	195,709	220,213	133,218	153,644	156,182	14,427	20,118	17,940	11,155	16,680	21,956	19,984
Yugoslavia <sup>14</sup>	6,966	17,990	31,862	16,267	57,039	11,960	21,854	28,051	8,270	13,213	19,249	11,066
Other Europe	11,756	6,845	5,245	3,447	29,087	3,337	6,976	6,723	6,377	7,286	9,486	10,994

<sup>60</sup> Source for the data used in the following tables and graphs is the U. S. Department of Homeland Security Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook, 2006, table 2.

**Note** that the government record that follows only reports legal immigrants.

- Represents zero or not available.						
<sup>1</sup> Data for years prior to 1906 refer to country of origin; data from 1906 to 2006 refer to country of last residence.						
<sup>2</sup> Data for Austria and Hungary not reported separately for all years during 1860 to 1869, 1890 to 1899, 1900 to 1909.						
<sup>3</sup> From 1899 to 1919, data for Poland included in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Soviet Union.						
<sup>4</sup> From 1938 to 1945, data for Austria included in Germany.						
<sup>5</sup> From 1899 to 1910, included Serbia and Montenegro.						
<sup>6</sup> Currently includes Czech Republic and Slovak Republic.						
<sup>7</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included Corsica.						
<sup>8</sup> Prior to 1926, data for Northern Ireland included in Ireland.						
<sup>9</sup> Data for Norway and Sweden not reported separately until 1869.						
<sup>10</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included Cape Verde and Azores Islands.						
<sup>11</sup> From 1820 to 1920, data refer to the Russian Empire. Between 1920 and 1990 data refer to the Soviet Union. From 1991 to present, the data refer to the Russian federation, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan,						
<sup>12</sup> From 1820 to 1910, included the Canary Islands and Balearic Islands.						
<sup>13</sup> Since 1925, data for United Kingdom refer to England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.						
<sup>14</sup> Currently includes Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Slovenia, Serbia, and Montenegro.						

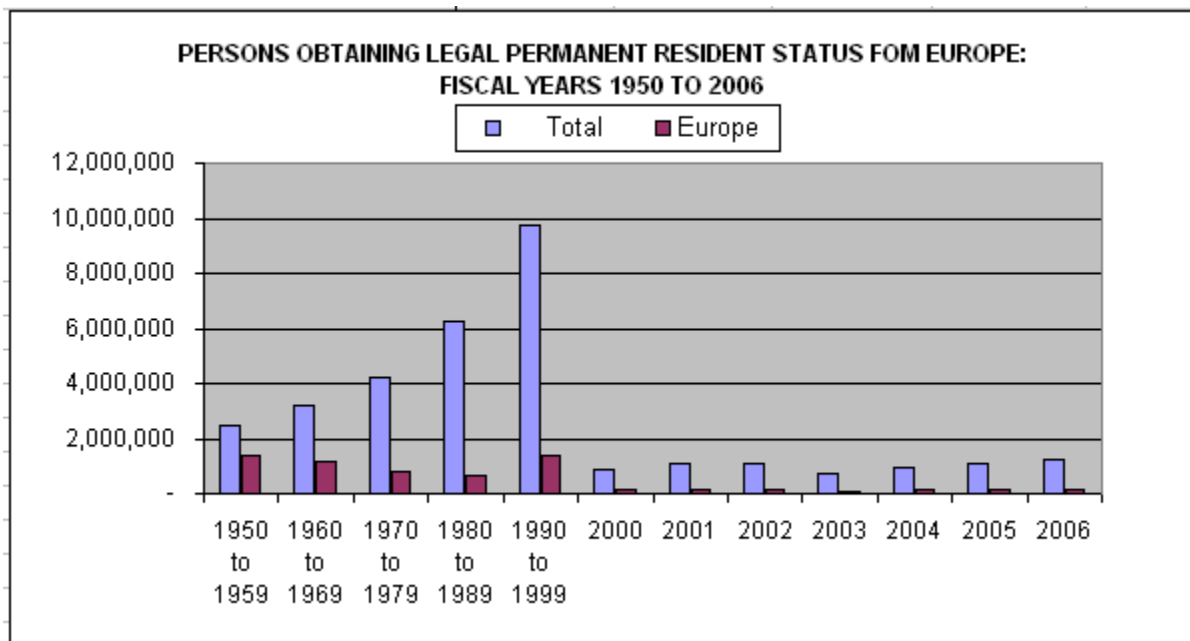


Figure 31. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006



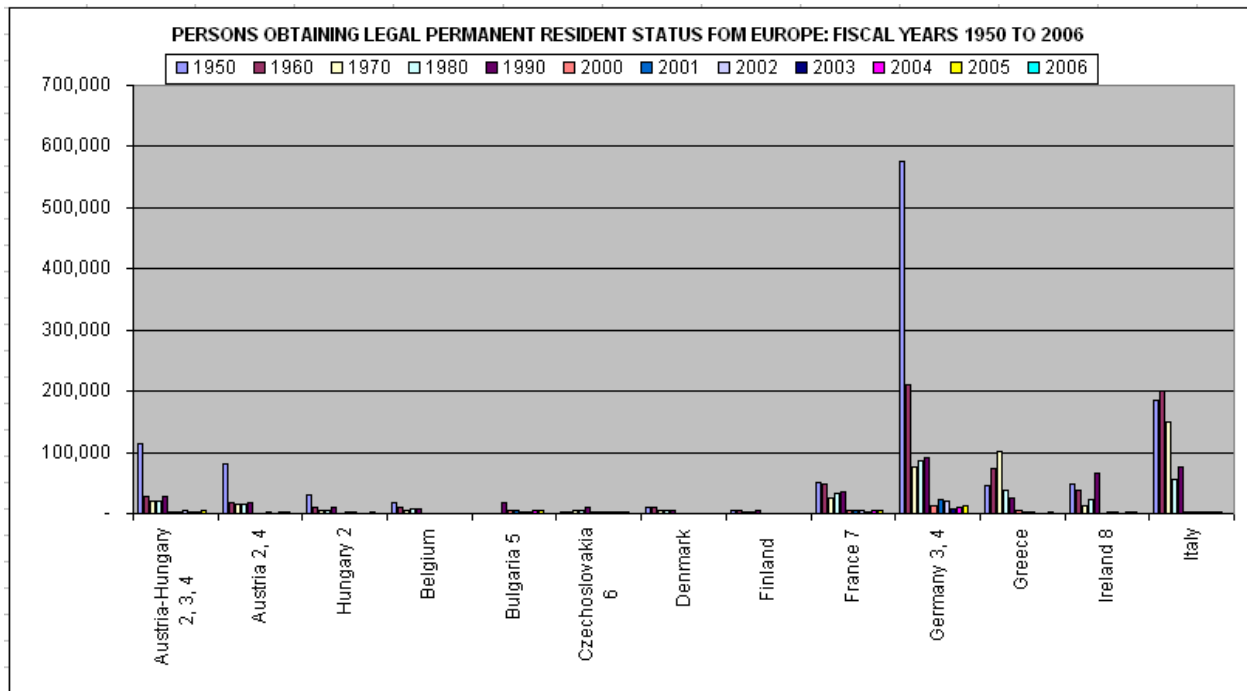


Figure 32. Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

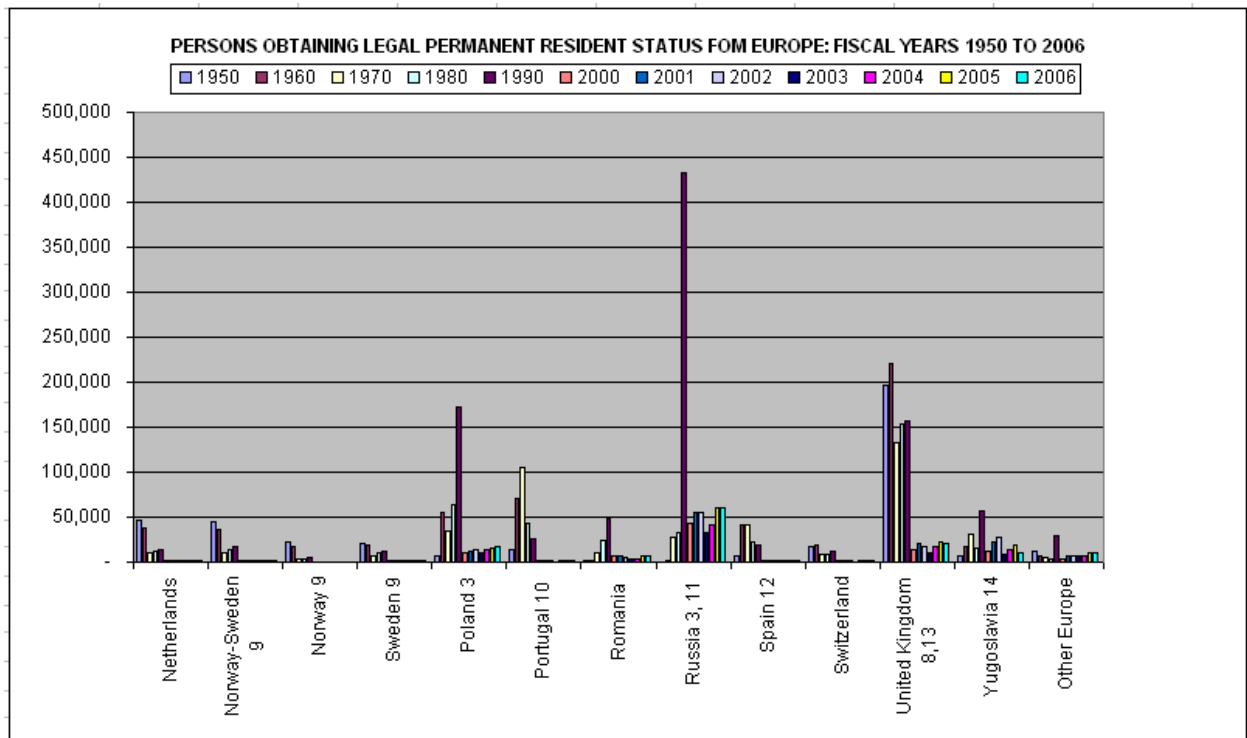
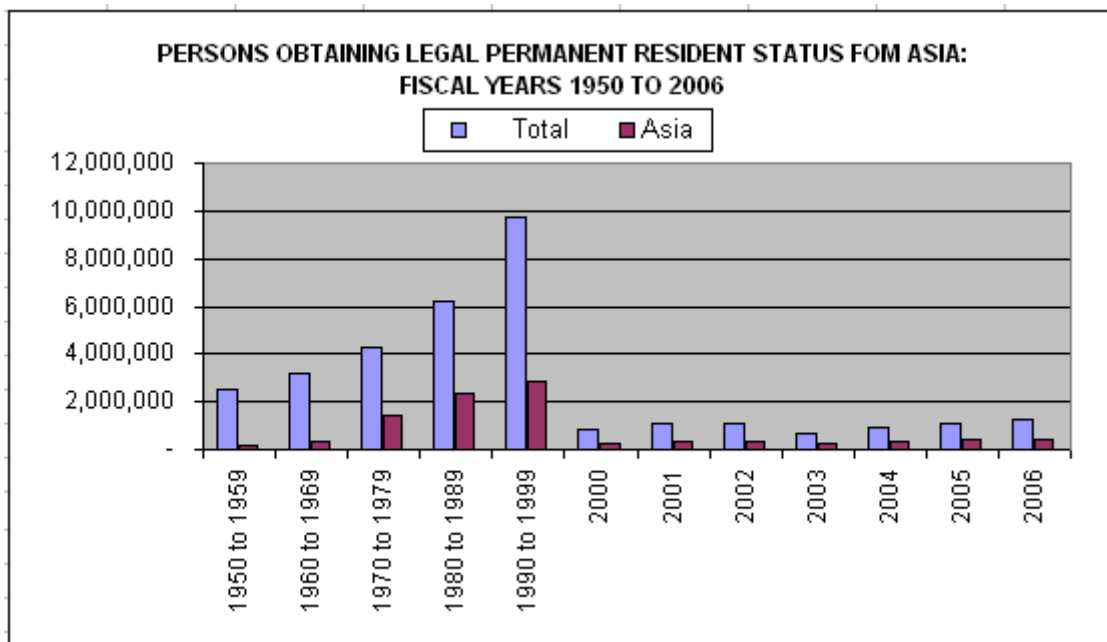


Figure 33. Total European immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

The next table and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Asia between 1950 and 2006.

**Table 24. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	2,499,268	3,213,749	4,248,203	6,244,379	9,775,398	841,002	1,058,902	1,059,356	703,542	957,883	1,122,373	1,266,264
Asia	135,844	358,605	1,406,544	2,391,356	2,859,899	254,932	336,112	325,749	235,339	319,025	382,744	411,795
China	8,836	14,060	17,627	170,897	342,058	41,804	50,677	55,901	37,342	50,260	64,921	83,628
Hong Kong	13,781	67,047	117,350	112,132	116,894	7,181	10,282	7,938	5,015	5,421	5,004	4,514
India	1,850	18,638	147,997	231,649	352,528	38,938	65,673	66,644	47,032	65,507	79,140	58,072
Iran	3,195	9,059	33,763	98,141	76,899	6,481	8,003	7,684	4,696	5,898	7,306	9,829
Israel	21,376	30,911	36,306	43,669	41,340	3,871	4,892	4,907	3,686	5,206	6,963	6,667
Japan	40,651	40,956	49,392	44,150	66,582	7,688	10,424	9,106	6,702	8,655	9,929	9,107
Jordan	4,899	9,230	25,541	28,928	42,755	4,476	5,106	4,774	4,008	5,186	5,430	5,512
Korea	4,845	27,048	241,192	322,708	179,770	15,107	19,728	19,917	12,076	19,441	26,002	24,472
Philippines	17,245	70,660	337,726	502,056	534,338	40,465	50,644	48,493	43,133	54,651	57,656	71,134
Syria	1,091	2,432	8,086	14,534	22,906	2,255	3,542	3,350	2,046	2,549	3,350	3,080
Taiwan	721	15,657	83,155	119,051	132,647	9,457	12,457	9,932	7,168	9,314	9,389	8,546
Turkey	2,980	9,464	12,209	19,208	38,687	2,702	3,463	3,914	3,318	4,491	6,449	6,433
Vietnam	290	2,949	121,716	200,632	275,379	25,159	34,537	32,372	21,227	30,074	30,832	29,705
Other Asia	14,084	40,494	174,484	483,601	637,116	49,348	56,684	50,817	37,890	52,352	70,373	91,096



**Figure 34. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006**

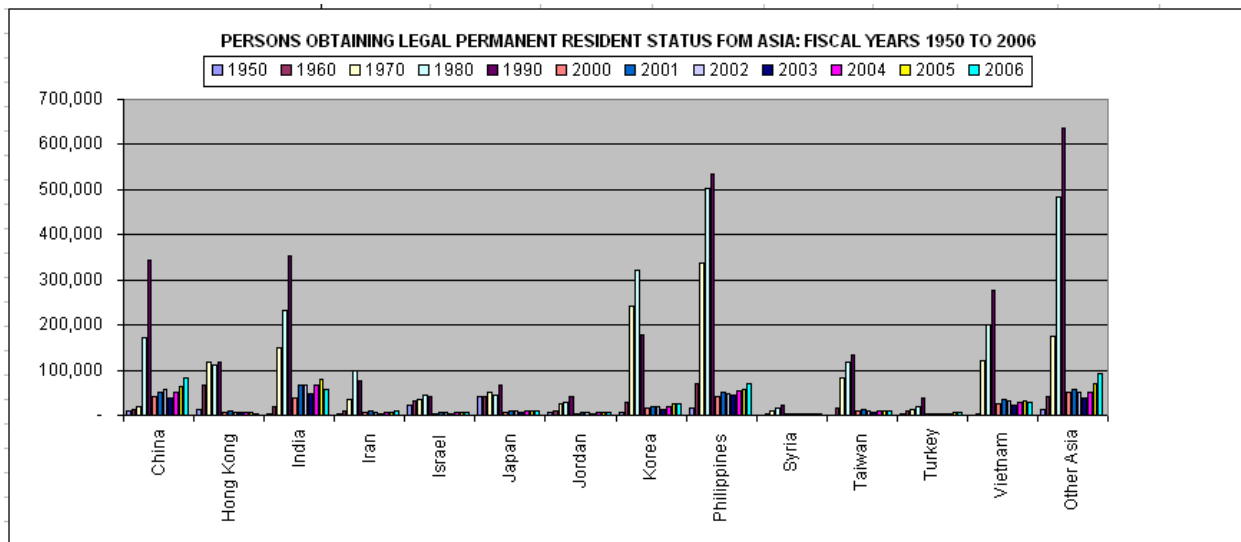


Figure 35. Total Asian immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

The next table, set of notes, and three graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from the Americas between 1950 and 2006.

**Table 25. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S.  
between 1950 and 2006**

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	2,499,268	3,213,749	4,248,203	6,244,379	9,775,398	841,002	1,058,902	1,059,356	703,542	957,883	1,122,373	1,266,264
America	921,610	1,674,172	1,904,355	2,695,329	5,137,743	392,461	470,794	477,363	305,936	408,972	432,748	548,848
Canada and Newfoundland <sup>15, 16</sup>	353,169	433,128	179,267	156,313	194,788	21,289	29,991	27,142	16,447	22,439	29,930	23,913
Mexico <sup>16,17</sup>	273,847	441,824	621,218	1,009,586	2,757,418	171,445	204,032	216,924	114,758	173,711	157,992	170,046
Caribbean	115,661	427,235	708,850	790,109	1,004,687	84,250	96,384	93,914	67,498	82,116	91,378	144,480
Cuba	73,221	202,030	256,497	132,552	159,037	17,897	25,832	27,435	8,685	15,385	20,651	44,248
Dominican Republic	10,219	83,552	139,249	221,552	359,818	17,373	21,139	22,386	26,112	30,063	27,366	37,997
Haiti	3,787	28,992	55,166	121,406	177,446	21,977	22,470	19,151	11,924	13,695	13,496	21,628
Jamaica <sup>18</sup>	7,397	62,218	130,226	193,874	177,143	15,603	15,031	14,507	13,045	13,581	17,775	24,538
Other Caribbean <sup>18</sup>	21,037	50,443	127,712	120,725	131,243	11,400	11,912	10,435	7,732	9,392	12,090	16,069
Central America	40,201	98,560	120,374	339,376	610,189	60,331	72,504	66,298	53,283	61,253	52,636	74,258
Belize	1,133	4,185	6,747	14,964	12,600	774	982	983	616	888	901	1,263
Costa Rica	4,044	17,975	12,405	25,017	17,054	1,390	1,863	1,686	1,322	1,811	2,479	3,459
El Salvador	5,094	14,405	29,428	137,418	273,017	22,301	30,876	30,472	27,854	29,297	20,891	31,259
Guatemala	4,197	14,357	23,837	58,847	126,043	9,861	13,399	15,870	14,195	18,655	16,475	23,687
Honduras	5,320	15,078	15,651	39,071	72,880	5,851	6,546	6,355	4,582	5,339	6,825	8,036
Nicaragua	7,812	10,383	10,911	31,102	80,446	18,258	16,908	9,171	3,503	3,842	3,196	4,035
Panama <sup>19</sup>	12,601	22,177	21,395	32,957	28,149	1,896	1,930	1,761	1,211	1,421	1,869	2,519
Other Central America	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South America	78,418	250,754	273,608	399,862	570,624	55,143	67,880	73,082	53,946	69,452	100,811	136,149
Argentina	16,346	49,384	30,303	23,442	30,065	2,472	3,426	3,791	3,193	4,672	6,945	7,239
Bolivia	2,759	6,205	5,635	9,798	18,111	1,744	1,804	1,660	1,365	1,719	2,164	4,000
Brazil	11,547	29,238	18,600	22,944	50,744	6,767	9,391	9,034	6,108	10,247	16,331	17,748
Chile	4,689	12,384	15,032	19,749	18,200	1,660	1,881	1,766	1,255	1,719	2,354	2,727
Colombia	15,567	68,371	71,265	105,494	137,985	14,125	16,234	18,409	14,400	18,055	24,710	42,024
Ecuador	8,574	34,107	47,464	48,015	81,358	7,624	9,654	10,524	7,022	8,366	11,528	17,625
Guyana	1,131	4,546	38,278	85,886	74,407	5,255	7,835	9,492	6,373	5,721	8,772	9,010
Paraguay	576	1,249	1,486	3,518	6,082	394	464	413	222	324	523	725
Peru	5,980	19,783	25,311	49,958	110,117	9,361	10,838	11,737	9,169	11,369	15,205	21,300
Suriname	299	612	714	1,357	2,285	281	254	223	175	170	287	341
Uruguay	1,026	4,089	8,416	7,235	6,062	396	516	499	470	750	1,110	1,639
Venezuela	9,927	20,758	11,007	22,405	35,180	5,052	5,576	5,529	4,190	6,335	10,870	11,758
Other South America	17	28	97	61	28	12	7	5	4	5	12	13
Other America <sup>20</sup>	60,314	22,671	1,038	83	37	3	3	3	4	1	1	2

- Represents zero or not available.

<sup>15</sup> Prior to 1911, data refer to British North America. From 1911, data includes Newfoundland.

<sup>16</sup> Land arrivals not completely enumerated until 1908.

<sup>17</sup> No data available for Mexico from 1886 to 1893.

<sup>18</sup> Data for Jamaica not reported separately until 1953. Prior to 1953, Jamaica was included in British West Indies

<sup>19</sup> From 1932 to 1972, data for the Panama Canal Zone included in Panama.

<sup>20</sup> Included in 'Not Specified' until 1925.

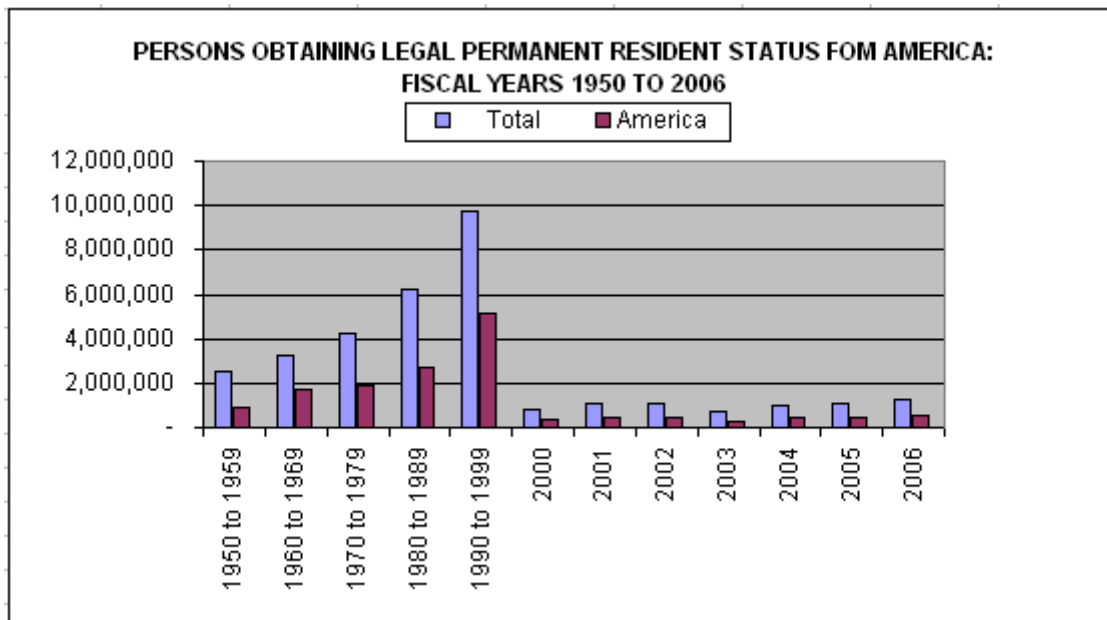


Figure 36. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

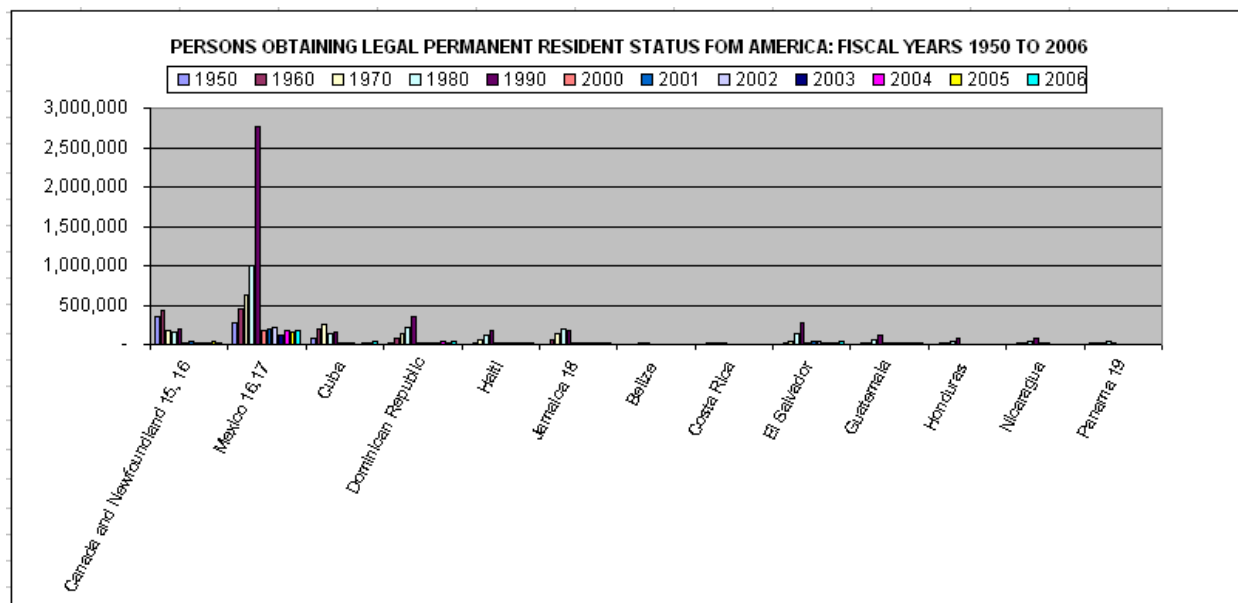


Figure 37. Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

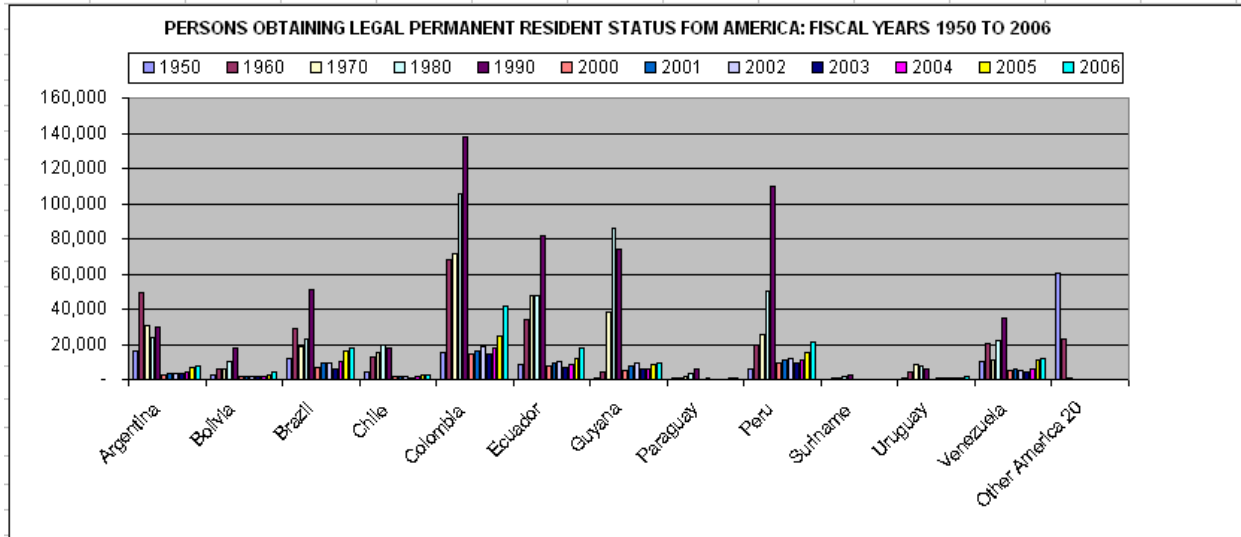


Figure 38. Total immigrants from the Americas to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

The next table and two graphs are related to immigration to the U.S. from Africa between 1950 and 2006.

Table 26. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

Region and country of last residence <sup>1</sup>	1950 to 1959	1960 to 1969	1970 to 1979	1980 to 1989	1990 to 1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	2,499,268	3,213,749	4,248,203	6,244,379	9,775,398	841,002	1,058,902	1,059,356	703,542	957,883	1,122,373	1,266,264
Africa	13,016	23,780	71,408	141,990	346,416	40,790	50,009	56,002	45,559	62,623	79,701	112,108
Egypt	1,996	5,581	23,543	26,744	44,604	4,323	5,333	6,215	3,928	6,590	10,296	13,163
Ethiopia	302	804	2,588	12,927	40,097	3,645	4,620	6,308	5,969	7,180	8,380	13,395
Liberia	289	841	2,391	6,420	13,587	1,225	1,477	1,467	1,081	1,540	1,846	3,736
Morocco	2,703	2,880	1,967	3,471	15,768	3,423	4,752	3,188	2,969	3,910	4,165	4,704
South Africa	2,278	4,360	10,002	15,505	21,964	2,814	4,046	3,685	2,088	3,335	4,425	3,173
Other Africa	5,448	9,314	30,917	76,923	210,396	25,360	29,781	35,139	29,524	40,068	50,589	73,937

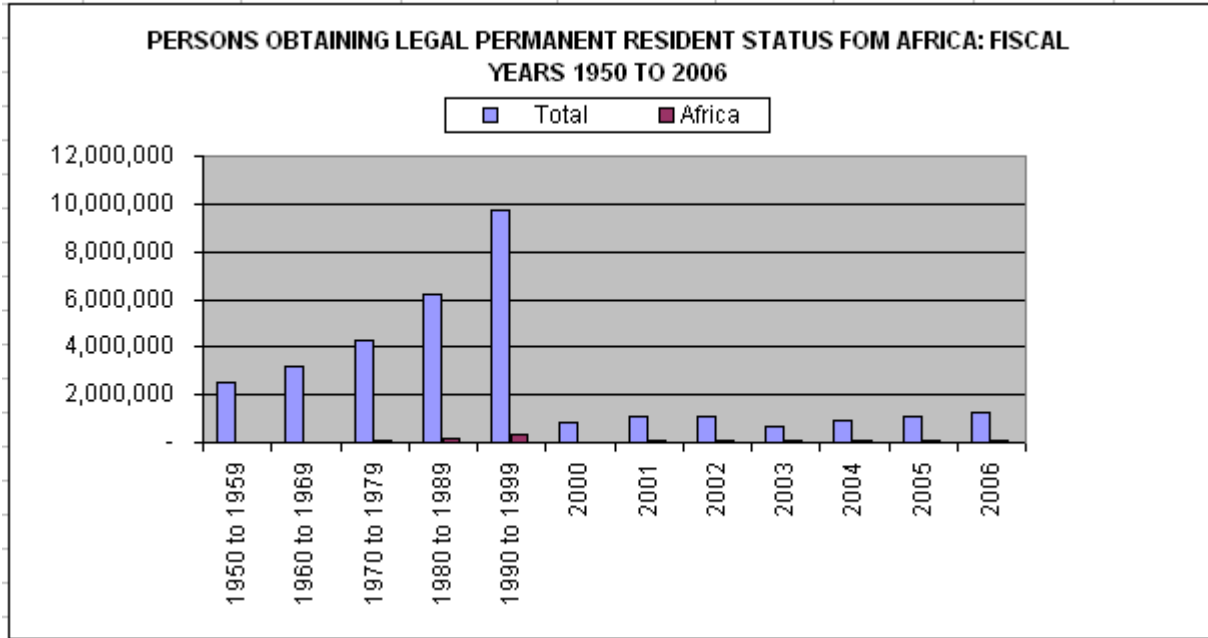


Figure 39. Total immigrants to the U.S. versus African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

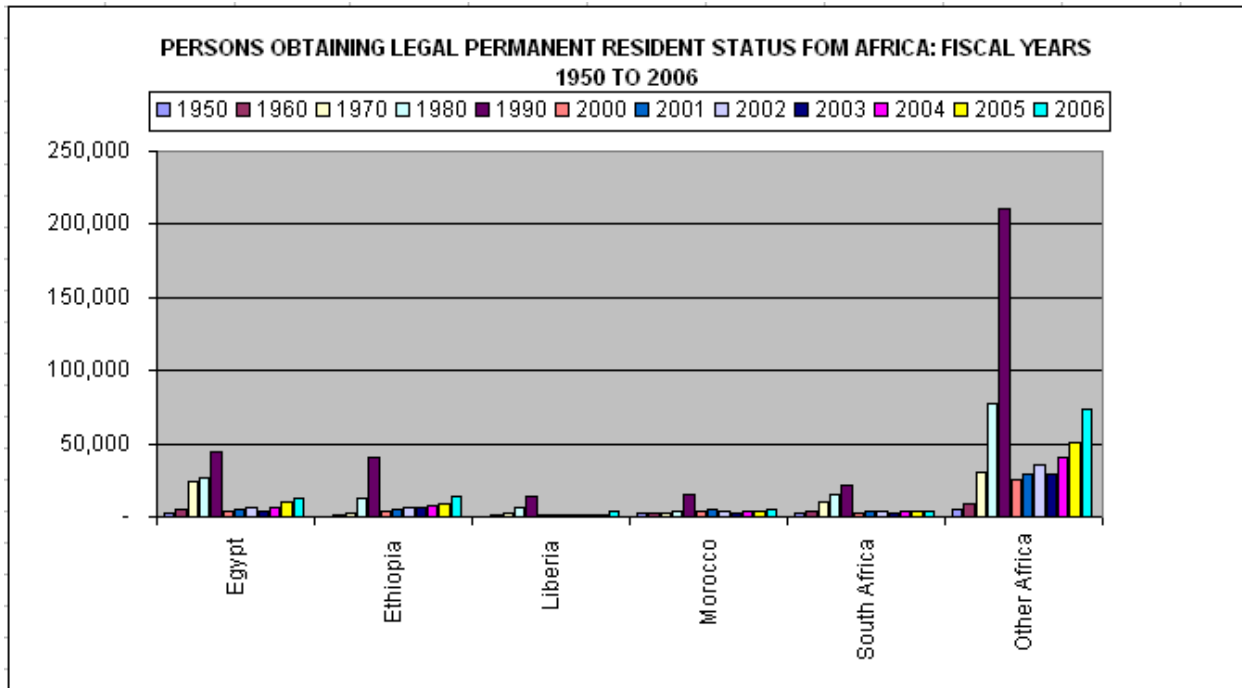


Figure 40. Total African immigrants to the U.S. between 1950 and 2006

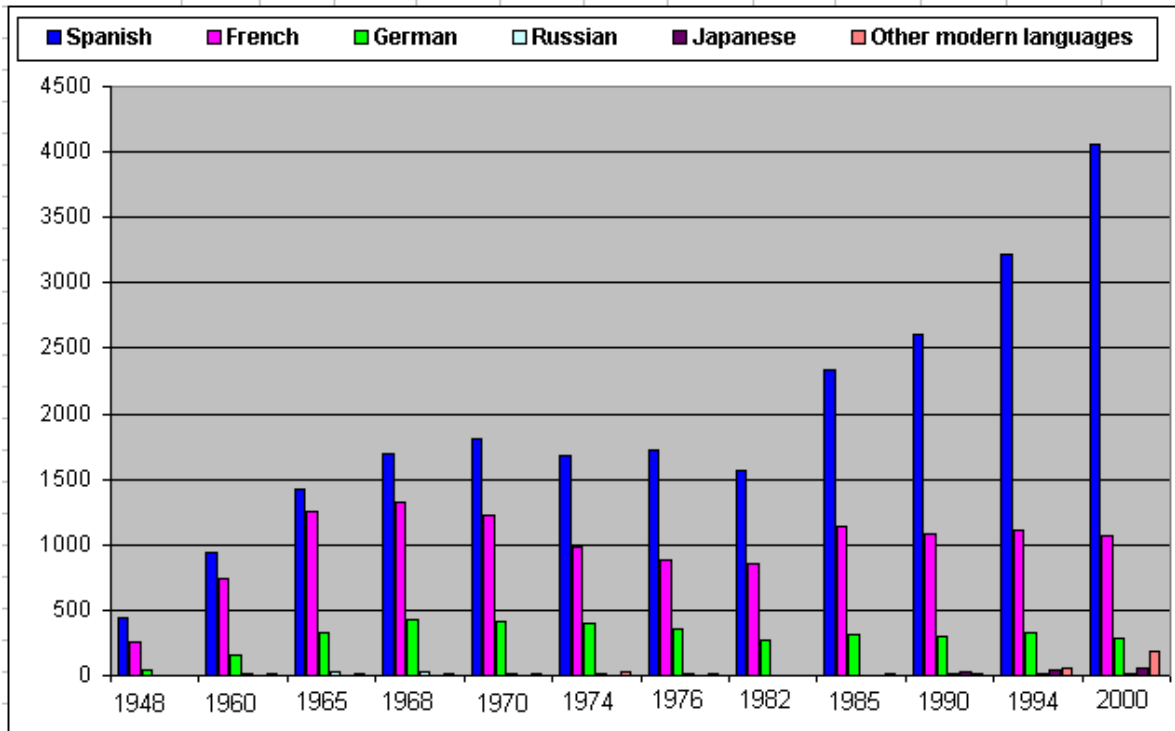
**APPENDIX D: Pattern of foreign language course enrollment in United States' public secondary schools and institutions of higher education between 1948 and 2002**

The first table and graph shows the enrollment of students in grades 9 through 12 from 1948 to 2000. The data report has been collected from the National Center for Education Statistics, Table 55, 2005 and The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL.



**Table 25. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000**

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Languages	1948	1960	1965	1968	1970	1974	1976	1982	1985	1990	1994	2000
total enrollment grades 9-12	5,602	8,589	11,610	12,718	13,336	14,103	14,314	12,405	12,388	11,338	12, 213	13,514
Spanish	443	933	1,427	1,698	1,811	1,678	1,717	1,563	2,334	2,611	3,220	4,058
French	254	744	1,251	1,328	1,231	978	888	858	1,134	1,089	1,106	1,075
German	43	151	328	423	411	393	353	267	312	295	326	283
Russian	0	10	27	24	20	15	11	6	6	16	16	11
Japanese	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	42	51
Other modern languages	1	9	9	18	15	23	9	3	18	15	59	179

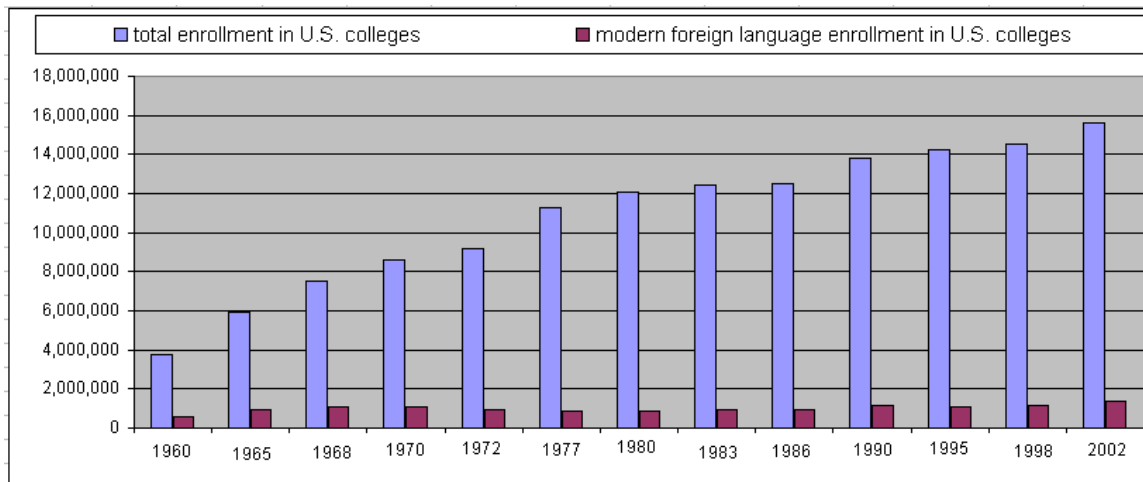


**Figure 41. Total enrollment in grades 9 to 12 in public secondary schools compared with enrollment in foreign language courses from 1948 to 2000**

The next section refers to enrollment in foreign language in United States' institutions of higher education. The sources that have been used for enrollment in institutions of higher education are Welles (2004) and the projection table 11 that is shown on the National Center for Education Statistics Web site [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table\\_11.asp](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/projections/tables/table_11.asp), entitled projection of education statistics to 2015.

**Table 28. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002**

	1960	1965	1968	1970	1972	1977	1980	1983	1986	1990	1995	1998	2002
total enrollment in U.S. colleges	3,789,000	5,920,864	7,513,091	8,580,887	9,214,820	11,285,787	12,096,895	12,464,661	12,503,511	13,818,637	14,261,781	14,507,000	15,608,000
modern foreign language enrollment in U.S. colleges	608,749	975,777	1,073,097	1,067,217	963,930	883,222	877,691	922,439	960,588	1,138,880	1,096,603	1,151,283	1,347,036



**Figure 42. Total enrollment in U.S. colleges compared with enrollment in modern foreign language courses in 1960 and 2002**

Table 29. Total enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002

Languages	1960	1970	1980	1990	1995	1998	2002
Spanish	178,689	389,150	379,379	533,944	606,286	656,590	746,267
French	228,813	359,313	248,361	272,472	205,351	199,064	201,979
German	146,116	202,569	126,910	133,348	96,263	89,020	91,100
Russian	30,570	36,189	23,987	44,626	24,729	23,791	23,921
Japanese	1,746	6,620	11,506	45,717	44,723	43,141	52,238
Chinese	1,844	6,238	11,366	19,490	26,471	28,456	34,153
Arabic	541	1,333	3,466	3,475	4,444	5,505	10,584
Portuguese	1,033	5,065	4,894	6,211	6,531	6,926	8,385
Korean	168	101	374	2,286	3,343	4,479	5,211

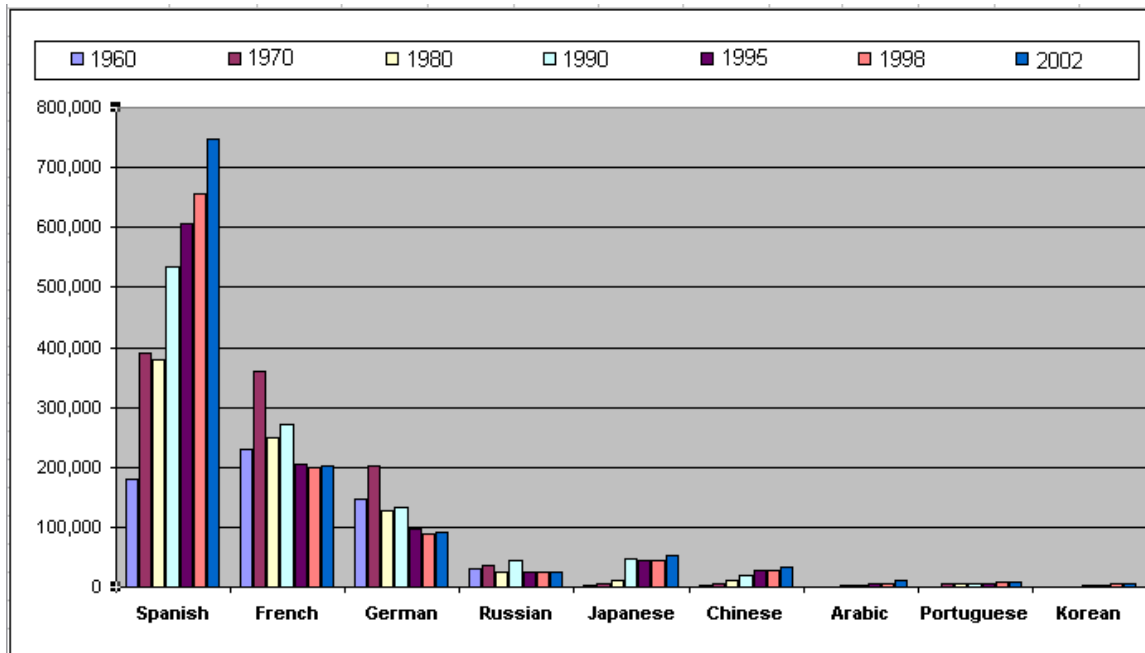


Figure 43. Enrollment of college students in language courses from 1960 to 2002

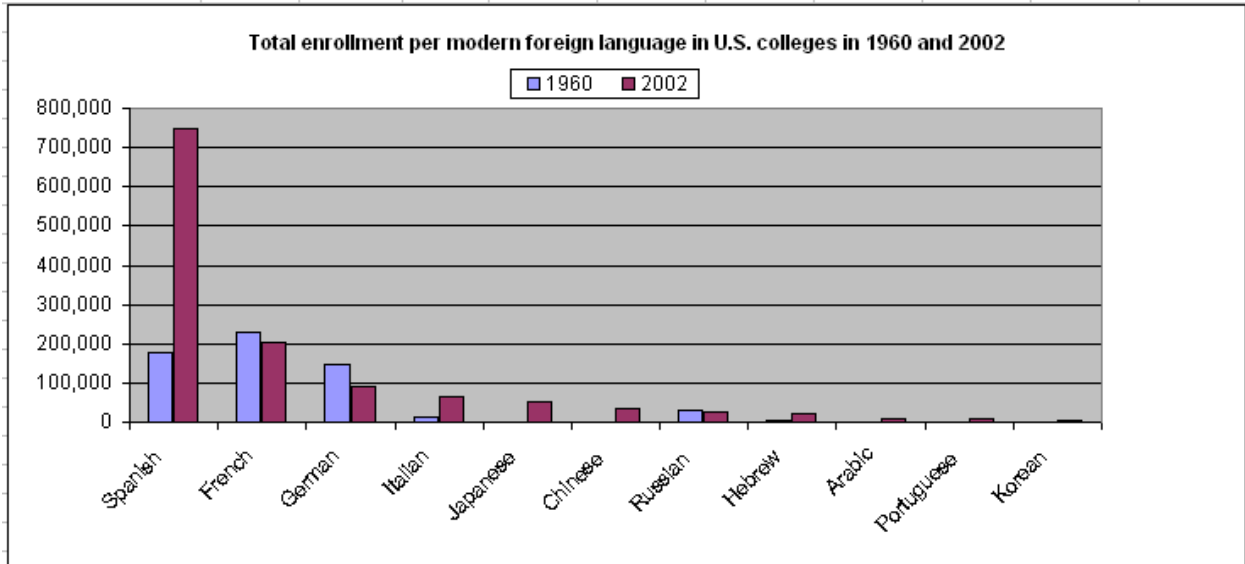


Figure 44. Total enrollment per modern foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002

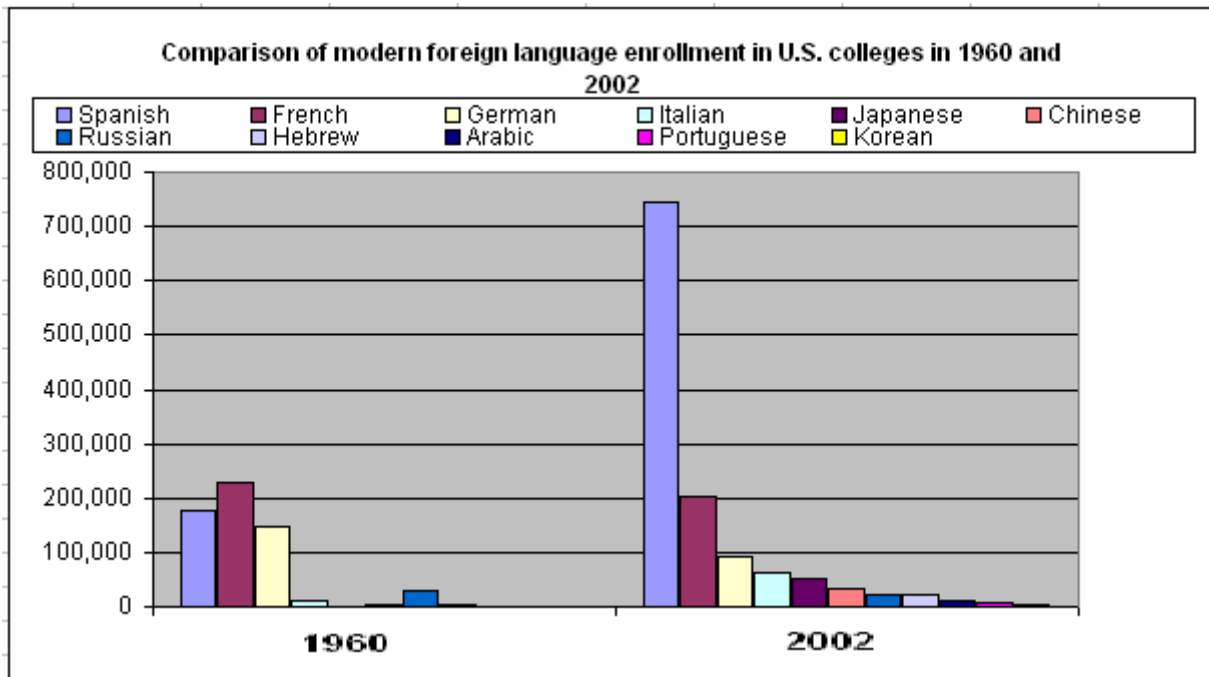


Figure 45. Total enrollment per year of foreign language in U.S. colleges in 1960 and 2002

Table 30. Total enrollment in U.S. two-year colleges in 2002

Year	2002
Spanish	220,629
French	34,669
Japanese	12,763
German	12,310
Italian	11,102
Chinese	6,305
Russian	2,943
Arabic	1,859
Vietnamese	1,185
Korean	1,055
Portuguese	953
Hawaiian	667
Hebrew	600
Ancient Greek	299
Other languages	2,810

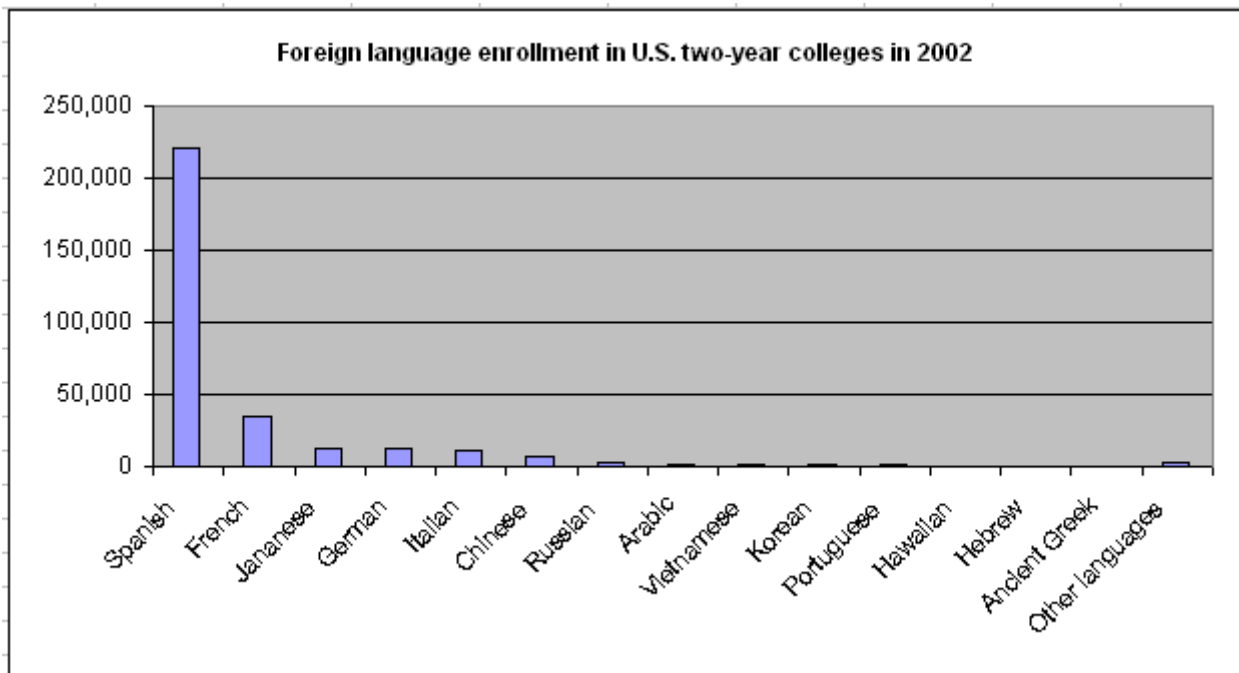


Figure 46. Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. two-year colleges in 2002

Table 31. Total enrollment in U.S. four-year colleges in 2002 by undergraduate students

Year	2002
Spanish	515,688
French	162,705
German	75,987
Italian	51,750
Japanese	38,545
Chinese	26,914
Russian	20,208
Hebrew	16,651
Ancient Greek	14,044
Arabic	8,194
Portuguese	6,945
Korean	4,045
Other languages	19,257

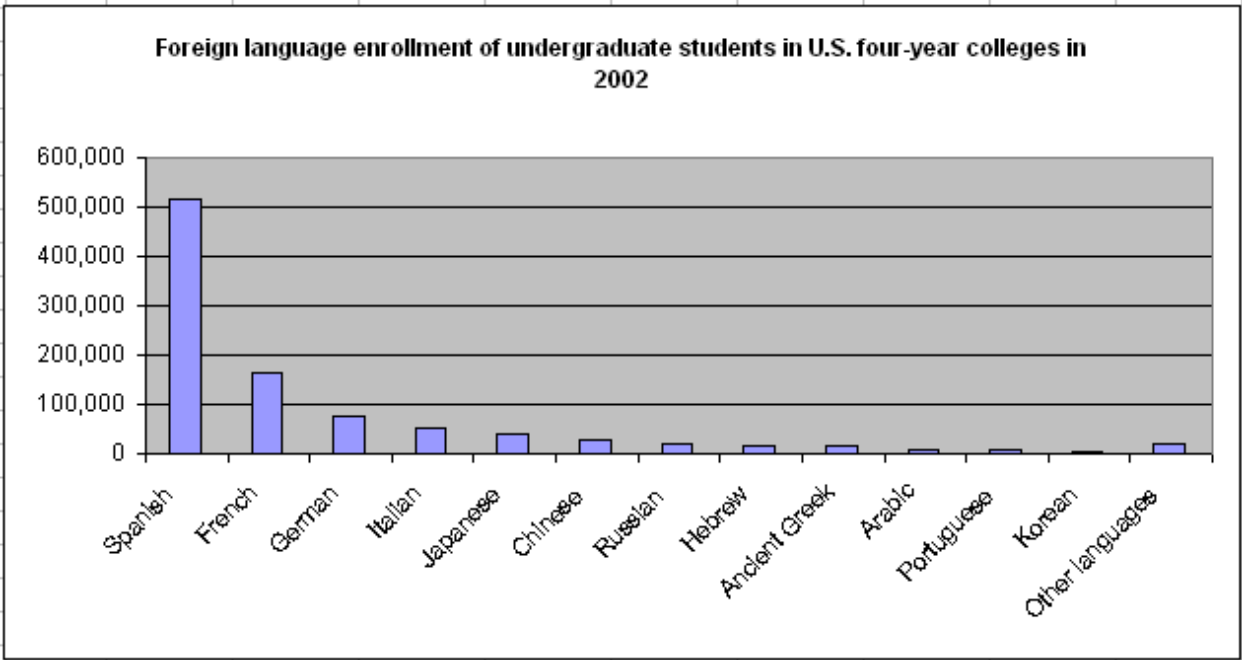


Figure 47. Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. four-year colleges in 2002 by undergraduate students

Table 32. Total enrollment in U.S. four-year colleges by graduate students in 2002

Year	2002
Spanish	9,950
French	4,605
German	2,803
Italian	1,047
Japanese	930
Chinese	934
Russian	770
Hebrew	5,551
Ancient Greek	6,033
Arabic	531
Portuguese	487
Korean	111
Other languages	1,797

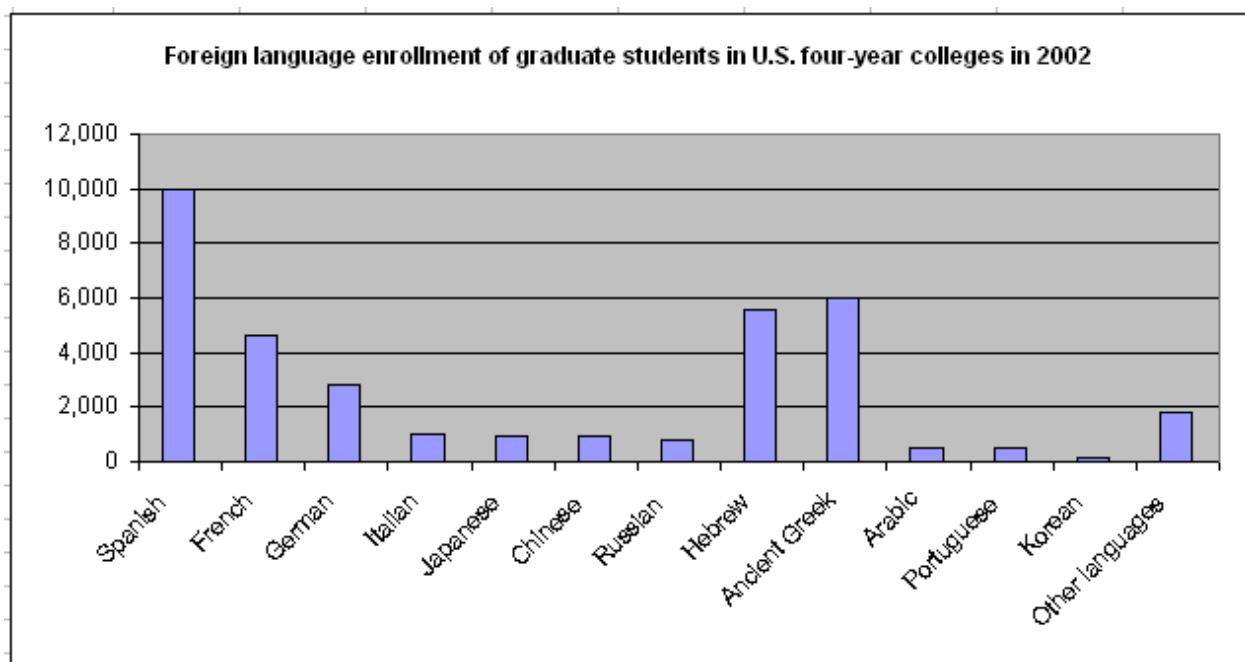


Figure 48. Total enrollment per foreign language in U.S. four-year colleges by graduate students in 2002

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