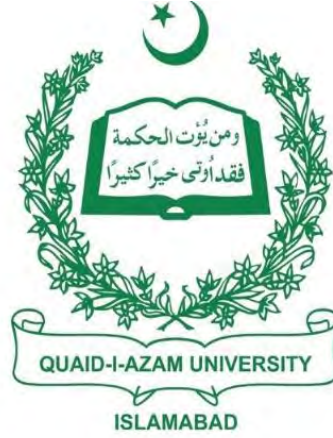


**UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON
BILINGUAL TEACHING**



BY

SIDRA KHALID CHUGHTAI

Department of Sociology

Quaid-I-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan

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**“Thesis submitted to the Department of Sociology, Quaid-I-Azam University
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degree of Masters of Science in Sociology.”**

By

SIDRA KHALID CHUGHTAI

Department of Sociology

Quaid-I-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan

2021

Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad
(Department of Sociology)

FINAL APPROVAL OF THESIS


This is to certify that we have read the thesis submitted by Ms. Sidra Khalid Chughatai, it is our judgment that this thesis is of sufficient standard to warrant its acceptance by the Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad for the award of the Degree of "MSC in Sociology".

Committee

1. Dr. Hazir Ullah
Supervisor



2. Dr. Muhammad Babar Akram
External Examiner



3. Dr. Muhammad Zaman
Chairman Dept. of Sociology



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Abstract

This study explored the perception of BS level students regarding Bilingual teaching in classroom. It highlighted the need of efficient teaching strategies to aid students academically. The main objective was to find most effective medium of instruction in educational system, especially in bilingual countries for students. The study universe was one of a public sector university of Islamabad, Pakistan. Quantitative approach was adopted to conduct this research. Quantitative tools and techniques were used to data on bilingual teaching. The sample size consisted of 297 respondents of BS level students belonging to social sciences discipline. All of them were from different socio-economic background and academic discipline. It was found out that students had positive perception on the use of bilingual teaching and they find the use of bilingual teaching in the classroom is helpful in comprehension of content and boosting confidence.

Table of Contents

Chapter No.1	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Definition of Bilingual teaching.....	2
1.2. Typology of Bilingual Teaching	3
1.3 Problem Statement	4
1.4 Objectives.....	4
1.5 Hypothesis.....	4
1.6 Significance of the Study	5
1.7 Organization of the Study	5
Chapter No. 2	6
LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1.Empirical Review	7
2.2 Theoretical Review	11
2.3.The Threshold Theory.....	16
2.4 Socio-Cultural Theory.....	16
2.5 Iceberg Analogy-CUP Model.....	17
2.6 The Natural Approach Theory	18
2.7. Theoretical Framework	18
Chapter No. 3	48
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	48
3.1. Research Design.....	49

3.2. Locale of the Study	49
3.3. Sampling and Sample Size.....	49
3.4. Tool of Data Collection.....	50
3.5. Method of Data Collection.....	50
3.6. Analysis of the Data	50
3.7. Ethical Consideration	51
Chapter No. 4.....	52
FINDINGS AND DATA PRESENTATION	52
Chapter No. 5.....	69
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	69
5.1. Discussion	70
5.2 Conclusion.....	73
5.3 Limitations and Suggestions	73
References.....	75

List of Tables

Table 1	53
Table 2.	54
Table 3	55
Table 4.	56
Table 5.	57
Table 6.	58
Table 7.	59
Table 8.	60
Table 9.	61
Table 10.	62
Table 11.	63
Table 12.	64
Table 13.	65
Table 14.	66
Table 15.	67
Table 16.	68

List of Annexures

Annexure- A	Inform Consent.....	78
Annexure- B	Demographic Sheet	79
Annexure- C	Scale ‘Perception on Bilingual Learning’	80

Chapter No.1
INTRODUCTION

Present study explored the university students' perception of bilingual teaching at the university level. Nowadays, efficient teaching techniques are now becoming an important aspect in the field of linguistics. There are number of factors like good command of the language, appropriate use of tools, motivation factors, and translation of home language in classroom setting impact the teaching efficiency and also make students comprehend the content, etc. The major concern of the present study is to focus on the use of native language rather than use of only English language.

1.1 Definition of Bilingual teaching

Boyer and Anderson (1970), defines the bilingual teaching is 'such educational system that include the use of two languages to deliver the instructions. According to Fishman (1976), there are three different categories of bilingual teaching programs related to bilingual language.

The first one is maintenance of language, second one is compensatory group (Transitional), and, and the last one is enrichment, each type has its own objectives and goals. The purpose of the Transitional programs is to increase the achievement of the students.

These achievements can be measured through different tests related to different languages. After achieving proficiency in the institutional language, different programs of maintenance that teach through their home language. Various teaching programs for the Enrichment purpose give best quality education for students.

The Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA) gives the definition of bilingual teaching that include the two languages, one of them is English, as main source of instruction and the other one is mother tongue.

Both of the instructions are given to the same group of students in the same environment. A well-organized program enhances and maintain the self-esteem of students

1.2. Typology of Bilingual Teaching

Mackey's (1970) gave the typology of bilingual teaching programs considered numerous sociolinguistic variables that were also presented Fishman in 1960) He also scheduled the models and categorize the curricular forms resulting in 90 diverse disparities. Valencia (1969), Spolsky (1974), Paulston (1975), Saville and Troike (1971), and Stern (1963) conceptualized the various kinds of teaching programs (bilingual).

Bilingual teaching is such type of teaching that include two type of languages to make them better understand and learn (the main language is always English language and the other language can be the native language of the students) In teaching English as a second language, it has always been a debate over the methods and mediums of instruction.

Different methods and practices have been adopted around the globe and added to the school curriculum. One of them is the “paired bilingual” model which allows learners to learn using mother language and English on alternative days or at different periods of the day.

Though the translation in the native language can be discontinued after some time, as children fully develop the skills in and can learn in English only. It was named "alternative immersion" by Willig (1985) because learners are immersed in the native language translation and English alternatively.

Another program used usually in Spain, namely “dual language” or "dual immersion" gives the English language learners instructions in English and Spanish (Sugarman, Howard, and Christian, 2003, Minaya-Rowe and Calderon, 2003).

Several studies have been conducted on this matter (Forman, 2008) (Xiao, 2006) (Lightbown and Spada, 2013) (Purkarthofer and Mossakowski, 2011) (Willans, n.d.), and the debate support that bilingual teaching is more effective than the use of only English language and students are always satisfied with translation in native language (Cheung and Slavin, 2005).

Whilst most people support the monolingual teaching in the classroom to increase the use of the language, others believe translation increases comprehension and understanding. Learning directly in English without having any background in speaking a language creates hurdles for students and rise an immense need for an appropriate teaching method for learners.

This research work examines the most beneficial method. It also observes the method with which English language learners are satisfied.

1.3 Problem Statement

Classroom teaching has been the subject of inquiry and research in sociology since 1960 (Ullah, 2018). One key area of classroom research is bilingual teaching from students' perspectives. In different socio-cultural contexts, researches and studies were done on the issue. (Forman, 2008) (Xiao, 2006) (Lightbown, 2013) (Purkarthofer, 2011) (Willans, n.d.). In Pakistan, there is a dearth of research on the perception of students on classroom learning methods. The present study purposes to find out the perception of students regarding Urdu translation and bilingual teaching methods.

1.4 Objectives

- To study students' opinions on the effectiveness of bilingual teaching
- To examine which teaching method students, find more helpful in comprehension and confidence

1.5 Hypothesis

H: Bilingual teaching increase student's comprehension and confidence.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The present study has both practical and theoretical significance. Theoretically, it will add to the knowledge, literature, and broad people's opinion on bilingual teaching. The findings of the study will benefit the society as the English plays a vital role internationally.

Practically, if it is implemented it will help students improve academic competence, comprehend the English language more easily, and participate in a career pathway on higher grounds. The greater the demand for English medium graduates justifies the need for more effective bilingual teaching and instilling the English language with the aid of using students' native language.

1.7 Organization of the Study

First chapter began with the introduction of the study. It highlighted the problem statement, study objectives, hypothesis, and significance of the study. Chapter two covers the literature review of the study. It allows us to expand our knowledge about the issue by reviewing and understanding previous studies. Literature review consist of two parts that states the empirical studies and theories presented on bilingualism. Chapter three is of research methodology inclusive of research design, locale of the study, sampling, sampling size, tools of data collection, analysis of the data and ethical consideration. Chapter four presents the findings and data collected from questionnaire. The last chapter comprises of discussion about the study and conclusion. The fifth chapter ends with the limitations and suggestions for any related study that can be proceeded in future.

Chapter No. 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Empirical Review

This chapter reviews the literature on bilingual teaching and studies done on the topic around the world. Keeping the significance of English in diverse settings in view, researchers have attached terms with the English language. It was called “General English” (Ahulu, 1977, pp. 13-17), “World Standard (Spoken) English” (McArthur, 1987, pp. 9-11), “English as a global language” (Crystal, 1997, pp. 12-15) and “English as a Lingua Franca” (House, 1999, pp. 21-24), (Gnutzmann, 2000, pp. 356-359), (Seidlhofer, 2001, pp. 111-113), (Jennifer, 2007, pp. 66-69). Furthermore, a new phrase “English as an International Language” was coined by Widdowson (1997) Modiano (1999), and Jenkins (2000). To face global challenges, students need to understand and comprehend this language through and through.

Historically, there has been a debate over the teaching methods, considering the achievements of students concerning their cultural and language background. In my opinion, the types of spoken language used during the process of learning initiate, deduce and strengthen the association and relationships with the environment (Bernstein, 2003).

In the past, many studies were done to explore the impact of bilingual teaching methods on the achievement of non-English native speaker students. It is believed that bilingual teaching helps to sustain the fluency of the students in their mother language and developing their understanding of the second language learned.

Communication only using English with the students who did not have a background of speaking English, made them uninterested in studies (Valdés, 1998) and an increase in achievement rate is visible when Bilingual teaching techniques are used (Mossakowski and Purkarthofer, 2011).

A quotation from an English author and journalist mentions that “You can’t learn one language until you comprehend at least two.” (*Willans,*

n.d.). Focusing only on English and not valuing mother language can be disadvantageous to student's self-identity (Cummins, 2001)

While in another opinion, bilingual teaching is useful in some social settings and disadvantageous in others as it restricts language learning by making the students deprived of thorough participation (Sanguinetti and Al-jadidi, 2010).

Though the misconception is there that it confuses the students to learn and get instructions in two languages at the same time and hinders the speed to learn content. In reality, while the brain is arranging an derecognizing the two languages only short-term delays occur (Spada and Lightbown, 2013).

Memorizing a text without understanding the context does not add knowledge. As it is believed by the internationally renowned specialist in second and foreign language teaching that, "reading comprehension happens when we perceive a written text with a purpose to understand the content" (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 443). When the native language is exercised by the English teachers equilibriate the incapacity of students to communicate in English (Forman, 2008).

It is argued that bilingual teachers can develop new connotations between two cultures by presenting meanings in two languages. Learners learn new connotations as well as language they want to learn and its functions.

Teachers must be aware of the culture in which they are teaching so they can better refine the skills of teaching (Xiao, 2006). This is because culture affected profoundly the opinions of teaching and learning (Forman, 2008).

Teachers, experts, and policymakers have wrangled up for many years around the question of selecting the appropriate language of giving instruction to students whose mother tongue is not English language. Supporters of bilingual instruction states that while children are taught to talk in English language, instructions on native language must be given side by side.

To begin with, to maintain a strategic distance from the failure encounter that's likely on the off chance that children are asked to learn both verbal

English and English perusing at the same time. Curriculum which follows this notion, make children to transfer to learn in only English language, when they are sure about the success of students, usually in third or fourth session.

Contrary to instruction in only English language in classroom, bilingual teaching educate students to learn native language and in English, at distinctive times of the day or on substituting days.

Researchers have viewed how culture effects thought and behavior (e.g., Gudykunst, 1994). They have provided us with a range of view points to conceptualize the effects of varied societies on considering.

Three of the point of views stand out for its potential, number one is relation between collectivism and individualism, number two is various types of achievement motivation, and the third view point is regarding distinct control and specialist distinction (cf. Littlewood, 2001).

An individualist approach motivates individuals to accept themselves as unique and valuable. It allows them to make choices individually, to be their selves, and seek self-actualization. On the other hand, collectivist approach introduces people to see themselves inseparable part of group they live in. The people have to live their life and make objectives and needs according to the group objectives and needs.

The supporters of bilingual teaching argue that if the medium of instruction is only in English language, students can lose their proficiency and skills in their native language. They believe that students slowly forget to read and learn in their native language resulting in loss of social and economic values.

On the contrary, the opponents of bilingual teaching, believe that the instruction using two languages in classroom teaching slows down the English learning pace of learning English, puts the students way behind the pace of other learners and society.

They advocate that rather than spending time of translation into native language, teachers should focus more on English language reading (Baker and

Rossell, 1996). Ann Willig (1985) also concluded teaching in two language bilingually more effective and beneficial for learners than English-only instructions. WongFillmore and Valadez (1986) were also advocates of bilingual teaching and believed in the thoughts of Willig.

However, methodologically adequate studies were reviewed by Baker and Rossell (1996) which reported that monolingual teaching programs provide more advantages and bilingual teaching is no more effective. **In 1997**, Greene reviewed all the previous studies and researches carried by Baker and Rossell and stated that the majority of the researches did not have any control group and the treatments were mischaracterized having major methodological flaws.

Concerning classroom behaviors, it isn't exceptional to discover writing audits that report that Asian learners are slow learners. On a place where Asian students are expected to show complete assistance to the teachers and participate, acts to be non dynamic in participating in classes and group discussion, submissive recipients of information, and as a result they offer minute contribution in classroom discussion (Liu, 1998; Tune, 1995; Maley, 1984; cf. Bradley and Bradley, 1984;).

"Practicality of learning relies upon brightness of teacher in the course " (Hofstede, 1986). The investigations that do take a gander at four- or five-year support in bilingual or submersion programs are normally review (i.e., examiners look records the experience of students during the program).

In addition, they tend to start with students who have already finished a certain program of study. Students who are expelled from a given treatment for certain reasons, such as dominant of Spanish students because of their poor performance there were ejected from English learning, review study might momentarily influence.

If you attend a school with a high percentage of English dialect learners, you're more likely to have a bilingual curriculum. By way of explanation, Ramirez

et al. (1991) reported that the proportion in English immersion schools was the lowest and a considerably greater proportion of ELLs in late-exit bilingual schools.

According to assessed and perceived competence, a student may be assigned to local language or English programs. This can be quite a hectic task. Many ELLs who are failing to read in their first language are placed in English-only courses, even though they are proficient readers in their native tongue. Thus, most students in bilingual teaching programs are forced to beat least successful youngsters academically.

A comparison of bilingual teaching programs and immersion programs for third or fourth graders may be skewed by the fact that the highest-achieving bilingual learners may already have been transitioned, resulting in the lowest-achieving bilingual learners.

Conclusively, bilingual teaching methods provide learners/students a sense of empowerment by making them believe that they can achieve anything and find instruction unique. Because the linguistic medium learners make use of and comprehend greatly influences their individuality, and students who have individuality validated feel powerful. Cummins (2001) demonstrates that bilingual education empowers kids and aids in their development of identity.

2.2 Theoretical Review

This chapter will discuss theories and concepts related to bilingualism. Several well-known theorists and researchers specializing in second language acquisition and bilingual education have had addressed bilingualism concepts and theories.

The evolution began in the 1970s and still continues. Bilingual teaching and techniques are complicated, in the past, there have been various interpretations concerning the consequences of bilingualism on academic success and brain processes, as well as the advantages possible.

A brief foundation on bilingualism and bilingual learners will be provided before focusing on more particular ideas and notions. Theory and concepts are based on the Swedish bilingual system, which will be studied in the next chapters, and practical studies of two bilingual schools.

Language preservation and enrichment are stated goals of Swedish society, which includes bilingual schools. A country's educational policy should be founded on a theoretical basis that is relevant and updated in order to defend its stance on languages and bilingual education.

Let's start by defining the majority language and minority language. Languages spoken by or less strong groups non-dominant are known as minority languages. The majority language is the language spoken by the largest and/or most powerful group in a society; it is often the official language of that society. According to McCarty and Skuttnab-Kangas power relations influence whether a language is classed as a minority language (2008).

After that, we'll take a closer look at how society's power relationships work. Mother tongue is the language or languages an individual learns first, identifies himself with, and is acknowledged as a native speaker of.

It can be said that the native language the one in which individual speaks on daily basis and is most proficient in. When children are unfamiliar with the mother languages, minority mother tongues are also known as heritage languages, when they are/should not be used for official purposes are known as home.

Moreover, small-group bilingual activities like immigrants employing their native language, a minority language in a culture, may affect the attitudes and behaviors about a whole community across time. As a conclusion,

bilingualism on an individual level may be broadened to include the entire society.

We should also distinguish between diglossia and bilingualism. Diglossia is the use of more than one language for various reasons, such as official events such as informal settings as well as politics such as interpersonal contact in culture (De Mejia, 2002).

Definition of bilingualism in absolute terms is challenging due to the wide range factors which can impact the degree of bilingualism. Bilingualism may be classified as either consecutive based and concurrent when someone begins to learn a second language at an early age.

It is possible for a kid to be born with simultaneous bilingualism. Genesee (2003) and De Houwer (2009) have found that a kid is physiologically primed to learn and discriminate across languages for both input and output (Baker, 2011).

In situations of simultaneous bilingualism, the "single parent-single language" method is commonly utilized, which implies that one parent talks only one language to the kid, while the other parent speaks only the other language to him or her. Most societies have a dominant language, and it's usually one of the two languages.

Because the child's primary source of hearing is his or her parents' voices, it's simpler for him or her to discriminate between the two languages, especially during the newborn period. It is also possible for both parents to speak two languages at the same time, which is called simultaneous bilingualism. Many people practise code switching, which is the employment of two languages in one sentence.

Many individuals believe that this phenomena is a result of bilingualism, and that linguistic confusion is at the foundation of this phenomenon's

manifestation. "Intra-sentential code flipping is not a random merger of two faulty systems," Toribio (2004), as quoted by Baker (2011), argues. "Instead, it is rule-governed and methodical, indicating the functioning of underlying grammatical restrictions."

A common knowledge of what constitutes proper intra-sentential code flipping may be proven among proficient bilingual individuals (Baker, 2011) (Toribio, 2004). If you want to emphasize anything, convey something that doesn't have an equivalent in the other language or change your attitude then code switching or code-mixing is the way to go.

Both sequential and simultaneous bilingualism can result in a kid speaking one language at home and another one at school. The age at which a child begins to learn a second language is a key factor in determining which form of bilingualism is occurring.

A child is exposed to another language outside the home at an early age when the first has not yet been fully mastered, and the two languages develop simultaneously, as opposed to sequential bilingualism, in which the second language is acquired after years of exposure to the first. This is the case with simultaneous bilingualism.

If a student is learning two languages sequentially, SLA (second language acquisition) occurs after some or many years of learning L1. Bilingualism resulting from immigration is the most prevalent kind of bilingualism. Commonly known as folk or situational bilingualism, it describes "the circumstances in which ethnic communities within one state are compelled to become bilingual without their consent in order to live" (De Mejia, 2002) (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981).

Integrationist or cumulative SLA may be used on children who are linguistic minorities. Multilingualism can be either subtractive or additive. Subtractive

bilateralism happens when there is a desire to replace a minority language with a dominant language.

Among other factors, a small number of speakers of the same language in a society, a lack of contact with the homeland, the exclusive promotion of the majority language in any context (such as education and employment), a lack of mother-tongue education, and illiteracy in the home language can all contribute to the loss of a first language in a society.

While language maintenance may be affected by continuous communication with the homeland and speakers of the same language in society, use of mother tongue in employment and education, low rates of ethnic marginalization and racism, the existence of 15 mother-tongue institutions, the international status of the home language, and mother-tongue literacy (Baker, 2011).

There is also a sort of additive bilingualism, which results from personal choice and is tied to the growth of individuals. This kind of bilingualism is called in L1 as electing bilingualism or elite bilingualism. De Mejia (2002) says that bilingualism provides essentially an opportunity to learn superlative languages and become to global citizens in an increasingly interconnected.

The institutions that deliver this kind of education, however, continue to point out that the Elite designation is not representative because it does not just target rich and social people but includes pupils from all backgrounds. Schools that provide this type of education, continuously stress the fact that the term elite which is not representative, as it not only addresses people of social and economic status but also school children of all backgrounds, and benefits include a greater sense of enculturation and appreciation of different people as well as financial and social status.

In the next portions of this chapter, certain concepts and theories are given that are linked to the cognitive functioning of a bilingual brain as well as the role of bilingualism within society and education..

2.3.The Threshold Theory

Jim Cummins proposed this theory in 1976. It is dependent on the levels of language competence required to avoid negative cognitive effects and/or achieve cognitive advantages. The importance of age-appropriate language learning is emphasized here.

Students learning a second language must have a strong foundation in their first language to develop cognitively. According to Pananaki (2015), the analysis of Cummins' threshold theory demonstrates different cognitive effects of bilingualism on a learner in three (3) levels: lower threshold level, middle threshold level, and higher threshold level.

The threshold theory promotes the acquisition of both minor and major languages, i.e., L1 and L2. To improve cognitive development, it is believed that learners should first develop in their first language before learning a second.

Transitional bilingual theory is quite similar to this one. It also believe that students should be taught in their native language until the point comes that they are fluent in speaking and using the majority language.

2.4 Socio-Cultural Theory

Pananaki (2015) mentions Lev Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory, which focuses on learner interaction during language learning processes. It is regarded as a theory that improves language learners' cognitive skills and fluency. Sociocultural theory has its focus on of proximal development zone, from where a language learner requires assistance from a more competent person who guides the learner through the scaffolding process until the learner

is exposed to independent learning capabilities. McLeod's (2018). In the context of bilingual education, instructing a language learner who has limited proficiency but requires assistance and collaborative efforts from an expert, instructor, or more competent person will improve the learner's cognitive abilities and facilitate language learning. Second, bilingual education promotes cultural development through social interactions and activities, and bilingual students have more opportunities to interact with the world around them.

2.5 Iceberg Analogy-CUP Model

The Separate Underlying Proficiency theory is a theory related to bilingual proficiency. The founders of this theory believe that proficiency in one language is not related to proficiency in another language. So , L1's proficiency does not effect L2's proficiency.

This is although opposed by the CUP model (Common Underlying Proficiency) presented by Baker (2011). The latter facilitates that the capacity can be transfered across linguistic lines and stresses the interdependence of the common features of two languages.

Baker (2011) presented two images to illustrate this theory. The first one portrays a common language balloon inside of the head connected to both the L1 and L2. While the second image portrays two separated icebergs above the surface, the first iceberg is with the linguistic features of L1 and the other with the L2 linguistic features.

He states his idea that the potential of learning more languages can be achieved by means of one, two or more languages in the same way. Although it can affect the academic performance highly might be affected, when school and family are motivated to develop both languages insufficiently or when there is pressure to replace the first language with the second language.

We can conclude that the model can be summarized by the LIP (linguistic interdependence principle) presented by Cummins (1994). The linguistic interdependence principle believes that when the instruction given in Lx language is effective enough to maintain proficiency in Lx language. To have proficiency in another Ly language more exposure of students to Ly language is needed in educational institute or by the environment.

2.6 The Natural Approach Theory

The founders of the Natural Approach theory were Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen, who presented the theory in the year 1997. They wanted to form such a teaching approach that can practically work and is based on naturalistic characteristics. The aim was to draw a distinction between the natural method and conventional language instruction.

Rodgers and Richards (2001) wanted to make the use of speech without resorting to the original language. Terrell and Krashen argue that communication is the main purpose of language and that it takes the learner to grasp its meaning in the target language. The approach is natural in that it includes communicative techniques. The idea that fluency arises once a student is exposed to a suitable number of inputs, such as simpler phrases or simplified speech (repeating and speeding up speech) for the L-2 student, is supported. Krashen (1982) describes it as acquisition rather than learning.

2.7. Theoretical Framework

Drawing on the understanding of bilingual teaching outline and discussed from different standpoints, this study employs Socio-Cultural Theory by Lev Vygotsky's which was presented in 1978. The main focus of The Socio-Cultural Theory is on the learner interaction and medium of instruction during learning processes. It is regarded as a theory that improves language learners' cognitive skills and fluency. Sociocultural theory has its focus on of proximal development zone, from where a language learner requires assistance from a

more competent person who guides the learner through the scaffolding process until the learner is exposed to independent learning capabilities. In the context of bilingual education, instructing a student who has limited proficiency in English but requires assistance and collaborative efforts from the teacher in classroom teaching in native language will improve the learner's cognitive abilities and facilitate language learning.

Bilingual education has been a contentious issue in the United States virtually since the country's formation, and debates have always been laced with political hyperbole (Nieto 2009). The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 acknowledged the plight of minority children with limited English proficiency and provided funds for initiatives that would help these children succeed in American schools while also developing their fluency in both English and their native tongue. The ordinance was primarily aimed at Spanish speakers, but later groups, such as Chinese speakers, pushed for revisions to broaden its scope (Lau vs. Nichols, 1974). Other countries have had a varied experience with bilingual education, as well as a diverse set of political and social implications.

Canada is an excellent example, as its social, demographic, and political circumstances differed significantly from those in the United States.

Although Canada is officially a bilingual country, unlike the United States, there is no single language that identifies most bilinguals because the majority of bilinguals in Canada speak one of the official languages (English or French) as well as a heritage language. Surprisingly, only a tiny fraction of residents are conversant among both official languages. In the 2011 census, roughly 17% of respondents said they could have a conversation in both English and French, up from 12% in 1961 (Lepage and Corbeil 2013), but still below what would be expected in a bilingual society.

One factor that may be responsible for the growth in French-English bilingualism over the 50-year period is the impact in the past generation of popular French immersion programmes in which children who would otherwise have had little exposure to French became very proficient and in many cases, fully bilingual.

To name a few factors, views toward languages, educational systems, and bilingualism in general varied greatly across Europe and North America. Garcia (2011) provides a compelling case for bilingual education's widespread applicability around the world, but the environment in which it is delivered is critical; there is no uniform prescription for bilingual education and no universal outcomes. As Baker (2011) points out, one's viewpoint on bilingual education is heavily influenced by one's point of view, and studies undertaken in one context may be irrelevant to bilingual education in another.

As a result, this analysis will concentrate on North American contexts and address some of the most pressing concerns about the efficacy of bilingual education in that region, particularly in the United States.

Finally, because early school years constitute the foundation for academic success, the review will concentrate on them. Education is a long-term process, and the outcomes are influenced throughout one's life. However, because the early years are critical for establishing basic skills and attitudes toward education, the current review will concentrate on the first three years of schooling. To summarise, the review is limited in that it only looks at studies whose empirical properties are deemed reliable enough to draw conclusions, with a focus on primary education in the United States and specific questions like language outcomes, cognitive outcomes, and generalised appropriateness of the programmes. Bilingual education is a broad phrase that refers to a variety of educational programmes developed for a diverse group of children and a variety of particular circumstances. Bilingual

education refers to any school programme in which more than one language is used in the curriculum to teach non-language academic subject matter or the language of schooling does not match the language of the home or community, but the reasons for incorporating the languages, the specific languages chosen, the structure of the programme, and the relationship between the school languages and the community vary widely and have an impact on educational outcomes. All of this is overshadowed by the distinction between 'bilingual education' and 'education of bilingual children,' two ideas that are fundamentally different.

Bilingual education is defined as "education that strives to build bilingual (or multilingual) competence by employing both (or all) languages as media of teaching for large portions of the academic curriculum," according to Genesee (2004, 548).

Bilingual education, on the other hand, is characterised as "training non-English-speaking pupils to read and write in their native tongue, teaching them material in their native tongue, and gradually transitioning them to English over a period of several years," according to Rossell and Baker (1996, 7).

These descriptions clearly describe various circumstances and have multiple aims. The historical difference between the development of bilingual education in the United States and abroad is reflected in this divide between bilingual education and bilingual child education. The motivation for bilingual education of minority language students in the United States was to develop an educational programme for children who were at risk of academic failure due to a lack of proficiency in English, the school language, by involving them in the educational process through the use of their native language (e.g. including Spanish in the education of Hispanic children).

The success of these initiatives was mostly determined by skill in English (the majority language), with English language literacy being the most important criterion.

In Canada, on the other hand, the motivation was to provide an educational alternative aimed at making majority language children (i.e. English speakers) bilingual. As a result, the success of these programmes was measured by the extent to which children mastered the minority language while remaining proficient in the majority language. Similar immersion programmes for children were developed to help them learn both national (e.g., children of Finnish immigrants in Sweden, Troike 1978) and heritage languages (e.g. Hawaiian programmes in the US, McCarty and Watahomigie 1998; Navajo programmes in the US, Rosier and Holm 1980; Maori programmes in New Zealand; Durie 1998; May and Hill 2005).

All of these programmes fall under the umbrella of bilingual education, but they are noticeably different from one another. The motivation in Canada, on the other hand, was to provide an educational alternative aimed at making majority language children (i.e. English speakers) bilingual. As a result, the success of these programmes was determined by how well children mastered the minority language while remaining proficient in the majority language.

Similar immersion programmes for children have been developed to help them learn both national and heritage languages (e.g., children of Finnish immigrants in Sweden, Troike 1978). (e.g. Hawaiian programmes in the US, McCarty and Watahomigie 1998; Navajo programmes in the US, Rosier and Holm 1980; Maori programmes in New Zealand; Durie 1998; May and Hill 2005). All of these programmes are classified as bilingual education, but they differ significantly from one another.

Development of language and literacy in bilingual education. The effectiveness of bilingual education on language and literacy outcomes necessitates controlled research. Randomized control trials would provide the clearest evidence for bilingual education programmes' unique contribution to these outcomes, but such a design is nearly impossible to achieve (but see Genesee and Lindholm-Leary 2012, for discussion). The studies that investigate bilingual education programmes for which spaces are allocated by lottery due to over-demand are the most similar to this methodological ideal, allowing comparisons to be made between children who were admitted to the programme and those who were not.

Children in this latter group typically attend regular classrooms and may be placed on a waiting list. Even in this case, however, there is the possibility of bias in who enters the lottery.

The findings of the few studies that have had the opportunity to compare these populations (e.g., Barnett et al. 2007) are largely consistent with the majority of the literature that compares children in bilingual or single language programmes on critical outcome measures. The ultimate focus of early childhood education is to set the stage for children's future educational endeavours. Language and literacy skills are the most important of these abilities. As a result, the majority of research evaluating bilingual education programmes has focused on children's development of these critical linguistic abilities. Because the type of curricula is only one of many processes that influenced these emerging abilities, impact on organizational success evidence for the role of the education programme as distinct from other sources of variance in the child's background necessitates carefully controlled designs.

Children who are Hispanic but are native English speakers, for example, have similar educational outcomes in terms of dropout rates and academic failure as Hispanic children who are Spanish-speaking, ruling out English proficiency as

an explanation (Forum for Education and Democracy 2008). The educational programme, like English proficiency, cannot explain school outcomes on its own. Because of this, conclusions about the development of language and literacy through bilingual education in the United States are complicated by the mixing of ethnicity and social class with Spanish aptitude and bilingualism (for discussion see Francis, Lesaux, and August 2006).

Nonetheless, two studies conducted by Lindholm-Leary and colleagues yielded reasonably clear results on these issues. Lindholm-Leary and Block (2010) assessed the English and mathematics achievement of 659 Hispanic students in California who were enrolled in either mainstream English or various types of blended learning environments in one study. From kindergarten to fourth grade, the proportion of instruction in bilingual schools shifted from predominantly Spanish to predominantly English.

Prior to the study, students were classified as EP or English Language Learner (ELL). The main finding was that standard English proficiency test scores for both ELL and EP students in bilingual programmes were higher than for children in mainstream English programmes. Scores on the mathematics test yielded similar results. Overall, students from this low socioeconomic status (SES) community performed at least as well, if not better, in both English and mathematics than comparable students in a programme where all instruction was given in English.

Students in bilingual programmes also made faster progress across grades in these tests than students in English programmes, putting them on track to close the achievement gap with statewide norms for these tests. Lindholm-Leary (2014) evaluated 283 low-income Hispanic children in either English or bilingual programmes in a similar study that included children in kindergarten through second grade. Children entering English kindergarten programmes had higher language scores than those entering bilingual programmes, but

these differences vanished after one or two years and then reversed, with bilingual programme children outperforming the English-only instruction group in both English and Spanish test scores by the end of second grade. Not surprisingly, children in the English programme demonstrated significant loss of Spanish proficiency, making them less bilingual, as will be discussed further below.

Barnett et al. (2007) compared the performance of low-income preschool children (3 and 4 years old) in bilingual or English-only programmes; however, children were assigned to these programmes through a lottery system, which controlled to some extent for pre-existing differences among the children or their families. The programmes were located in a school district where 76% of the students qualified for free or reduced-price lunch. The outcome measures were mostly experimental tasks that assessed phonological awareness and language knowledge (mostly vocabulary), but the results were consistent with previous research. Children in both programmes made comparable progress in English skill development, but children in the bilingual programme also developed these skills in Spanish, indicating that dual language instruction did not impede English, the L2 development.

Bilingual instruction had long-term benefits for children's language and literacy proficiency in both languages in these examples.

Francis, Lesaux, and August (2006) concluded from a review and meta-analysis of the literature that "bilingual education has a positive effect on English reading outcomes that are small to moderate in size" (392). Overall, bilingual education for Hispanic children in the United States results in English outcomes comparable to those found in mainstream English programmes, with better Spanish outcomes. These findings are broadly consistent with those obtained for bilingual education programmes serving other communities, with other languages, in other countries, where students

are more likely to belong to majority language groups than minority language groups, as is the case in the United States.

As a result, the outcomes obtained with children at risk of educational failure produce patterns of results that are similar to those found with children from completely different linguistic and demographic backgrounds. The most researched of these programmes is Canadian French immersion, which educates Anglophone children in Canada in French. Studies conducted over the last 50 years have found that English outcomes are equivalent to or better than those found for children in English programmes (despite the fact that most instruction in the primary grades is in French), and French outcomes are moderate to high, though lower than levels found for native-speaking French children (Genesee 1983, 2004; Hermanto, Moreno, and Bialystok 2012; Swain and Lapkin 1982).

Bilingual programmes in Italian and English, Mandarin and English, and Hebrew and Russian provide three more examples with comparable results. The assessment of the Italian-English programme was a small-scale study in which 60 children from the first to third grades in this programme in California were evaluated for language and literacy ability in English and Italian (Montanari 2013). Despite receiving only Italian instruction, these children developed strong literacy skills in both Italian and English by first grade.

The second programme, also implemented in California, began kindergarten instruction in Mandarin for children who had either had Mandarin exposure at home or were only English speakers (Padilla et al. 2013). This was a small-scale study, similar to the Italian-English programme.

Despite being educated in Mandarin, all children gained proficiency in both English and Mandarin and, more importantly, achieved at least equivalent and, in some cases, higher than state levels on standardised tests of English,

math, and science. Finally, two studies looked at language and literacy development in Russian-Hebrew bilingual 4-year-olds attending bilingual Hebrew-Russian or Hebrew schools in Israel, where Hebrew is the majority language. Again, the findings revealed that children in bilingual programmes developed language proficiency (Schwartz 2013) and narrative skills (Schwartz and Shaul 2013) in Hebrew, the majority language, at least as well as children in Hebrew-only programmes, while maintaining higher levels of Russian.

Across all of these studies, the majority language of the community was mastered regardless of whether it was the primary language of instruction, but the minority language required environmental support to achieve high proficiency levels.

The studies comparing English-only and bilingual education in Hispanic children were generally conducted with low SES populations; however, this was not the case for the non-Spanish programmes: children in the Italian-English programme were described as 'middle class,' children in the Mandarin-English programme were described as 'upper middle class,' and children in the Hebrew-Russian programme were described as 'mid-level socioeconomic.'

Thus, despite the fact that none of the students were at-risk in the way that is commonly assumed for Hispanic children in Spanish-English bilingual programmes, the patterns of language and literacy outcomes were similar, even if the absolute levels of achievement were different. As a result, there is no evidence that dual-language education impedes progress in the development of language and literacy skills in the majority language while also developing and sustaining these skills in the minority language.

A study comparing the English language and literacy performance of at-risk low performing children attending bilingual education or majority language

English-only programmes confirmed this generalisation about positive outcomes (Lopez and Tashakkori 2004). There was no evidence of an unnecessary load mostly on history of Language skills for bilingual children.

Language and literacy are important for children's development, but they are not the only outcomes to consider when evaluating educational options for children.

The impact of education in a second or third language on children's academic success has long been a source of concern. In his evaluation of children attending an Irish immersion programme in Ireland, Macnamara (1967) issued dire warnings about the harmful effects of these programmes. He reported that children in the Irish programme performed worse in mathematics than children in regular English programmes, but he failed to mention that the differences were only found in mathematics 'word' problems, not mathematical operations.

Unsurprisingly, the children's knowledge of Irish at the time was limited, interfering with their comprehension of the test questions; there were no differences between groups in arithmetic calculations tests. These difficulties have been recognised for some time (e.g., Cummins and Macnamara 1977), but the research has remained influential. Recent research shows that even simple arithmetic calculations are faster and easier in the language in which they were taught (Spelke and Tsivkin 2001) and engage different parts of the brain than when the same calculations are performed in the non-school language (Mondt et al. 2011), but the Irish proficiency of the children in Macnamara's (1967) study may have been too weak to show this effect. Other studies have found that children enrolled in a bilingual programme incur no academic costs. For example, in the Mandarin-English bilingual education programme described above (Padilla et al. 2013), children in the dual language immersion and English programmes performed similarly on

standardised math tests until third grade, but immersion children began outperforming non-immersion children in fourth grade. As a result, these programme effects can take some time to manifest. There were no differences in science achievement tests between children in the two programmes.

Aside from bilingual education, there is evidence that bilingualism alone may be beneficial for aspects of academic achievement. Han (2012) conducted a longitudinal study of a national cohort of over 16,000 kindergarten children in the United States, following their academic progress until fifth grade. Large data bases are available for such investigations as a result of national education policies requiring standardised testing on English literacy and math scores. Han (2012) conducted a study in which the children included in the analyses were Hispanic, Asian, or non-Hispanic native-born White, and the outcome variables were standardised reading and math achievement scores.

Although the analyses did not explicitly control for the effect of the education programme, the quality of education was defined and included in the analyses in terms of the resources and interventions for English support available in the school programme, the quality of the teachers, and other such factors. The findings were based on a complicated classification of children based on their language abilities. The term "mixed bilingual" refers to children who speak a non-English language at home with a high level of fluency.

Nonetheless, by fifth grade, English scores were still behind. The analyses focused on the quality of school programmes, the availability of resources, and the quality of school personnel, all of which contributed significantly to the success of children.

The study was not intended to assess the efficacy of bilingual education, but the findings support the conclusion that children's bilingualism can be a positive factor in school achievement. Much of this research has focused on children from low-income families, but Marian, Shook, and Schroeder (2013)

extended the question to see if the results would be similar for Spanish-speaking low-income children and monolingual English-speaking middle-class children who were in Spanish-English bilingual programmes and were instructed in Spanish beginning in kindergarten. Because the number of children in each of the relevant groups defined by language and social background, grade, and education programme ranged from 6 to 624, non-parametric analyses were used, and the results should be interpreted with caution. Analyses of children's performance on standardised reading and mathematics tests revealed that children in bilingual programmes outperformed children in monolingual programmes for both minority Spanish and majority English-speaking children, though the size and timing of these effects differed for children from the two language backgrounds. Thus, all children benefited from the bilingual education programme, though, predictably, their progress was also influenced by other factors known to influence educational outcomes.

Marian and colleagues propose that the bilingualism achieved in these programmes resulted in higher levels of executive function, and that better executive function was the mechanism for the improvement in math performance. Several studies of young children in the early grades have found a direct link between children's executive functioning and mathematics achievement (Blair and Razza 2007; Bull, Espy, and Wiebe 2008), and a large body of research has found that bilingualism promotes the development of executive function in young children (see Barac et al. 2014 for review; Adesope et al. 2010 for meta-analysis). Tellingly, executive functioning predicts academic success in children (Best, Miller, and Naglieri 2011; McClelland, Morrison, and Holmes 2000), and academic success predicts long-term health and well-being (Duncan, Ziol-Guest, and Kalil 2010).

Bilingual education may thus have a coincidental effect in that it not only promotes bilingualism but also improves a critical aspect of cognitive performance.

Before getting into the research, it is a good idea to discuss how educating children in their native language might help them acquire a second. Some people think it unusual that we should teach children English if we want them to learn English. Using and enhancing one's first language, on the other hand, may considerably promote the development of the second. There are two ways to accomplish this. We are transferring information to the children when we use the original language to teach subject matter, and this knowledge assists in their comprehension of the English they hear and read. A kid with limited English skills who knows mathematics, for example, because math is taught in her primary language, will grasp .The second method that first language development supports is literacy development in a child's original language. The first language's literacy abilities are transferred to the second. Literacy spreads because we learn to read by reading and interpreting what is written on the page (Smith, 1994).

It is simpler to learn to read in a language that we are familiar with. We can read in any language after we have mastered one. Subject matter knowledge and literacy, which are obtained in the native language and provide indirect but considerable aid for English language development, are two of the three components of high-quality bilingual programs. The third component is direct assistance for English language development through ESL classes and sheltered subject matter teaching, in which intermediate level ESL students acquire intelligible English-taught subject matter (Escamilla, 1994).

On the effects of bilingual education. It is important to note that the majority of these studies have been conducted in the USA context and therefore may

refer to a particular ‘type’ of bilingual education program. In terms of language and literacy, Bialystok (2018).

Reviewed research evaluating the outcomes of bilingual education for language and literacy levels and academic achievement and found ‘no evidence for harmful effects of bilingual education and much evidence for net benefits in many domains’ (p.666). A meta-analysis conducted in USA-based studies by Rolstad (Mahoney and Glass (2005).

Found that ‘bilingual education is consistently superior to all-English approaches’ and ‘effective in promoting academic achievement’ (p.572). Though the focus here seems to be on English language learners (or English as an additional language students) receiving bilingual education in English plus their home language. Lindholm-Leary and Block (2010)

Examined how 659 Hispanic students from low socioeconomic backgrounds in dual language programs performed on standardized tests compared to students in mainstream English programs. They found that students in the dual language programs achieved at similar or higher levels to their mainstream peers in English, and above grade level in Spanish. Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders and Donna (2006).

Conducted an analysis of over 200 studies on bilingual education in the USA and found that the maintenance and development of students’ home languages did not detract from their English literacy development. While many of the studies in the USA context have been conducted with Spanish-speaking students, similar results have been found in other bilingual programmes such as English-Italian (Montanari 2013).

There is also a growing body of evidence from dual language programs in the USA which shows that learning a second language not only helps students to

develop problem-solving skills, but also helps them to tackle the ‘nuances and complexities’ of their first language (American Academy of Arts and Sciences 2017: 15). Steele, Slater, Zamarro, Miller, Li, Burkhauser and Bacon (2017), similarly acknowledge such benefits.

Who found that students randomly assigned to dual language programs outperformed their peers in English reading by around 7 months in Grade 5 and 9 months in Grade 8. European-based research often looks specifically at CLIL programs; this is a widely adopted approach to dual-language-focused education where a target language and a subject are integrated in the teaching and learning process. The language and the content in CLIL are placed on a continuum ‘without an implied preference for either’ (Coyle 2007: 97).

CLIL is generally based on using a foreign language (rather than a second language of the students) as the medium of instruction and it is usually implemented once learners have already acquired literacy skills in their first language. In CLIL programs, typically less than 50% of the curriculum is taught in the target language (Dalton-Puffer 2011).

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 recognized the issue of minority children with limited English skills and offered funding for programs that would assist these children succeed in American schools while simultaneously improving their fluency in both English and their home tongue. The legislation was originally intended just for Spanish speakers, but other organizations, such as Chinese speakers, lobbied for changes to widen its scope. Even still, this is lower than one might anticipate in a bilingual society. The influence of popular French immersion programs, which allowed children who would otherwise have had limited exposure to the language to become extremely skilled and, in many cases, fully bilingual, may have contributed to the growth in French-English bilingualism during the previous 50 years (Bialystok, 2018).

Many children attend schools where they are taught in a language they do not understand, and this trend is growing as global migration grows. Due to linguistic barriers to studying in traditional schools, these children are at risk of poor educational outcomes. Varieties of instructional strategies have been suggested to improve performance. Evidence of their effectiveness can aid in the decision-making of parents, educators, and legislators. The United States has a big number of students with poor English proficiency, and there are several extensive studies of bilingual education programs for US programs, which is why this article focuses on the United States. Bilingual education students have less English exposure at school than children in English-only schools since some instruction is given in the original language. This may cause them to delay or weaken their acquisition of English language abilities, which may have an impact on the academic paths they might take in the future. In certain cases, the necessary inputs for bilingual education programs are unavailable. For starters, certain districts, languages, and grades have a difficult time finding enough qualified bilingual education instructors (Chin, 2015).

In the last 20 years or so, there's been a veritable explosion of research on bilingualism," says Judith Kroll, a professor at the University of California, Riverside, for NPR Ed. The essay investigates the benefits of dual language education on the brain. The brain uses "inhibition" and "task switching" abilities to transition from one language to another, and "these capabilities are subgroups of a cognitive ability called executive function," according to the study. The brain architecture of bilinguals have been shown to change because of brain imaging (Marian, 2020).

Bilingual education's complicated history is intertwined with social, political, and cultural elements. The majority of the interviewees in this study grew up with or experienced bilingual education in schools because of past practices

that they believed did not suit their educational requirements as students. Given that the participants' views on bilingualism and bilingual education are likely to have shifted over time, it is vital to quickly summaries how these sociohistorical and political influences have influenced our lives.

These influencing factors Bilingualism and bilingual education were quite widespread in the United States in the nineteenth century.tates. Immigrants who wanted their children to be educated in their original language and culture. Founded schools to keep their homeland's customs alive. This "permissive" time Bilingualism did not receive widespread popularity until after worldwide (Correa, 2015).

There seems to be a large and growing body of research on the relationship among bilingualism and executive functioning in young children, but three articles stand out.

The first study is intriguing because its findings were unexpected. Mezzacappa (2004) assessed executive functioning in 6-year-old children with varying socioeconomic status (middle-class or low) and ethnicity using the children's Attention Network Task (Fan et al. 2002). (White, African-American, or Hispanic). In addition to the expected effects of socioeconomic status, he discovered that Hispanic children outperformed the other groups, especially on the most difficult condition. Although he did not collect data on children's language proficiency or level of bilingualism, he did note that 69 percent of Hispanic children spoke Spanish at home, indicating that they were at least somewhat bilingual. Mezzacappa proposed that this bilingualism was responsible for the children in that group's superior executive function performance.

The second study was a small-scale study that looked at children from low-income communities, with approximately 90% of the children receiving free

or reduced-price lunch. Esposito and Baker-Ward (2013) assigned two executive function tasks to children in kindergarten, second grade, and fourth grade who were enrolled in a bilingual or English-only programme. Their findings revealed that bilingual children in the second and fourth grades outperformed English children on the trail-making task, an executive function task previously shown to be performed better by bilingual than monolingual 8-year-olds (Bialystok 2010). There were no differences in the two kindergarten programmes, but all of the children found the task difficult. Because of the small sample size, the findings should be interpreted as suggestive rather than definitive, but they do suggest that even limited exposure to bilingual education improves children's executive function.

Another small-scale study, this time with middle-class children in kindergarten through second grade, yielded somewhat different results. Kaushanskaya, Gross, and Buac (2014) investigated the effects of classroom bilingualism on executive functioning as measured by task shifting, as well as verbal memory and word learning measures. They used the Dimensional Change Card Sorting Task (Frye, Zelazo, and Palfai 1995) for task switching, a task previously found to be performed better by bilingual than monolingual preschool children (Bialystok 1999). On the executive function shifting task, there were no differences in performance between children in the two programmes, but the task was arguably too easy for the children because it is typically used with younger children or on a test of verbal short-term memory.

Children in the bilingual education programme, on the other hand, performed better on tests of verbal working memory and word learning. In these three examples, children were assigned to groups based on ethnicity (Mezzacappa 2004) or education programme (Esposito and Baker-Ward 2013; Kaushanskaya, Gross, and Buac 2014) and their performance on executive function tasks was compared to controls.

A different approach would be to use bilingual education as a scaled variable to see if it is related to executive function performance, avoiding between-group comparisons.

Bialystok and Barac (2012) conducted two studies to investigate the relationship between the amount of time young children spent in an immersion programme and their performance on executive function tasks. Children from monolingual English-speaking homes who attended schools where instruction was either in Hebrew (Study 1) or French (Study 2) were given executive function and metalinguistic tests.

In both studies, the tasks were different, but the results were the same: performance on the metalinguistic task was related to children's verbal ability and intelligence, whereas performance on the executive function task was related to the length of time children had spent in the bilingual programme and their degree of bilingualism.

Similar findings were reported in two studies by Nicolay and Poncelet (2013, 2015), which found that children in French immersion programmes performed better on executive function tasks. Children were followed longitudinally in these studies, which ruled out any differences in ability at the start. As a result, the findings indicate that children's executive function performance is related to their level of bilingualism and experience with bilingual education.

There have always been questions about whether bilingual education programmes were appropriate for all children or if they were only for high-achieving students with strong family support (see review and discussion in Cummins and Swain 1986). Similarly, some have argued that bilingualism is difficult and should be reserved as a "privilege" for children who do not face additional burdens from linguistic or other cognitive challenges, a position strongly contested by Kohnert (2007). Unsurprisingly, the answer is not straightforward, but the evidence available supports Kohnert's contention that

bilingualism adds no additional cost to children's achievement regardless of their initial levels of language and cognitive ability. Take into account first the role of intellectual capacity, a variable that varies across children.

Genesee (1976) conducted one of the first studies on this topic, looking at the role of IQ as measured by a standardised test in the development of French second-language abilities in children learning French through immersion or foreign language instruction in school. The main finding was that IQ was related to reading ability and language use in all children, but there was no relationship between IQ and overall communication ability; children of all intelligence levels communicated effectively.

Notably, there were hardly any interactions with the type of programme in which children learned French: low IQ children in the immersion and foreign language programmes performed similarly on all language and cognitive measures, performing worse in both cases than children with higher IQ scores in both programmes. Thus, there was no evidence that participation in an immersion programme had a negative effect on children whose measured intelligence was below average. A learning disability, such as specific language impairment (SLI), may play a more serious role in children's response to bilingual education than low IQ. The limited evidence for this question is similar to that for IQ, namely that bilingual education does not exacerbate the deficit associated with SLI and has the additional benefit of imparting at least some measure of proficiency in another language.

Few studies have analyzed this question in the context of bilingual education, possibly because children with language impairment are widely discouraged from enrolling in bilingual education programmes, but Bruck (1982) conducted an early study that assessed language and cognitive outcomes for children in kindergarten and first grade in French immersion programmes, some of whom had been diagnosed with language impairment. These were

Anglophone children being educated in French, and both French and English linguistic measures were included. The key comparison was between the progress made by language-impaired children in the French immersion programme and similar children in a mainstream English instruction programme. There were no statistically significant differences between these two groups. Even though these children struggled, they did not struggle any more than they would have if they had been enrolled in the bilingual programme.

The choice of appropriate comparison is central to the debate. Trites (1978), for example, argued against placing children with learning disabilities in French immersion programmes, but his comparison was based on children in those programmes who did not have learning disabilities rather than children with learning disabilities in monolingual English programmes. However apart again from role of bilingual education in children's language development, comparing skills in the second language for children with SLI is difficult because the areas of linguistic difficulty associated with this disorder differ across languages (Kohnert, Windsor, and Ebert 2009).

With this caveat in mind, a few studies have looked at the impact of SLI on language development in bilingual children. Korkman et al. (2012) compared monolingual Swedish speakers and Swedish-Finnish bilingual children aged 5–7 years on a variety of Swedish language assessments. Approximately half of the children in each language group were typically developing, while the other half had SLI. Children with SLI performed worse than typically developing children on these linguistic measures, as expected, but there was no additional burden from bilingualism and no interaction of bilingualism and language impairment. Bilingual children also scored lower on some vocabulary measures, but this was true for bilingual children in both the typically developing and SLI groups, and it is consistent with large-scale

studies comparing monolingual and bilingual children's vocabulary (Bialystok et al. 2010).

Paradis et al. (2003) investigated syntactic proficiency in youth with SLI in an unique manner. Rather than comparing children with SLI to typically developing children, the authors assessed three groups of 7-year-old children with SLI: nonnative English speakers, monolingual French speakers, and English-French bilinguals. Because the sample was small (only 8 bilingual children, 21 English monolingual children, and 10 French monolingual children), data were collected using non-parametric tests, and the results must be interpreted with caution. The results revealed no significant differences in morphosyntax mastery between the three groups of children; in other words, bilingualism did not cause any additional delay in learning language for children with SLI.

The most prominent risk factor generally considered in this literature is not individual differences in children's ability to become bilingual, but rather low socioeconomic status, a situation that affects many bilingual Hispanic children in the United States. Although it was previously discussed in the context of bilingual education testing outcomes, the issue is significant enough to warrant further consideration.

The main concern for Hispanic children from Spanish-speaking homes in the United States is whether they will develop sufficient levels of English language proficiency and literacy to function in school and beyond. Although there is some debate on this topic, the majority of studies have shown that bilingual education improves outcomes (Genesee and Lindholm-Leary 2012). This conclusion is supported by two major reviews and meta-analyses, the first conducted by Willig (1985) for papers published after the Willig review, and the second by Rolstad, Mahoney, and Glass (2005) for papers published after the Willig review. Later, in a review and meta-analysis, Francis, Lesaux,

and August (2006) reached a broader and more emphatic conclusion: 'there is no evidence that bilingual instruction impedes academic achievement in either the native language or English, whether for language-minority students, students receiving heritage language instruction, or those enrolled in French immersion programmes' (397). One of most convincing evidence on just this point comes from a humongous cohort study and ability of the organisation by Collier and Thomas (2004), which would include every type of bilingual education; the researchers state unequivocally that bilingual education is superior in developing the expertise and training of Latino and other self - development and self children.

Rossell and Baker (1996), on the other hand, argued that the effectiveness of bilingual education is inconclusive. As previously stated, Rossell and Baker defined bilingual education narrowly and considered only programmes that provided instruction in the first language for limited EP children, i.e., Spanish-speaking children in the United States (although curiously they included some studies of Canadian French immersion in their analyses). However, because this is only one of many incarnations of bilingual education, an evaluation of its effectiveness does not necessarily generalise to the broader concept, as Rossell and Baker acknowledge. Their efforts have been done with a list of 300 experiments and then precluded 228 of them just for a variety of variables contained, and therefore comparison group of 72 analyses that initiated the conceptual might not have been significant of this publications. Greene (1997), but at the other hand, performed a follow-up study utilising separate admission requirements from the same database and reported that a meta-analysis found positive outcomes for bilingual education.

The decision about when to include or exclude specific studies is obviously critical to the outcome; Rossell and Baker acknowledge that Willig's (1985) positive conclusion can be traced all the way back to her choices on this difficult choice. Notwithstanding, because the assumptions are based on

different evidence, it is hard to ascertain whether multilingualism is the most effective way to promote English language skills in children with limited English proficiency (Willig 1985) or not (Rossell and Baker 1996). Regardless of whether there are advantages, the evidence shows that there is no cost to developing English language skills in bilingual programmes. What is completely uncontroversial is that bilingual education also maintains and develops these children's Spanish skills, that Rossell and Baker acknowledge and though dismiss as irrelevant. A different way of considering the impact of bilingual education on school outcomes for low SES Hispanic children in the US is to use data on the reclassification of children from ELL to EP, a decision made on the basis of English language and literacy test scores. In that sense, reclassification is an indication that adequate levels of English proficiency have been achieved. Lindholm-Leary and Block (2010) note that the probability of these children being designated as EP after 10 years of essentially mainstream English classrooms is only 40%, so the standard is low. Umansky and Reardon (2014), on the other hand, compared this reclassification rate for Hispanic students enrolled in bilingual or English-only classrooms and discovered that rates were lower in elementary school for children in bilingual programmes than in Language classes, but that the pattern reversed by the end of high school, when children in bilingual programmes had an overall higher rate of reclassification and better academic outcomes. Language skills takes many years to develop, as some studies based on test scores show, but according to the reclassification data, it evolved sooner in bilingual programmes.

Genesee and Fortune (2014) discovered no cases in which the bilingual education programme contributed to lower academic outcomes for these children than for similar children in monolingual programmes in a review of studies that examined the effect of various risk factors on children's response to bilingual education.

Students with learning impairments, for instance, would always find linguistic tasks difficult; the significant observation is that they do not find such tasks any more difficult in two languages than in one. Evaluation of bilingual education for young children

Most assessment for educational programmes adapts on a binary answer in which the programme is either helpful, or somewhat effective than an ownership or alternative programme. Such binary conclusions are insufficient in light of the complexities of language instruction.

One reason is that, regardless of client satisfaction, bilingual education often will ensure that learners become or establish bilingualism, an outcome that is helpful in itself but the is rarely considered in strict evaluation. Some studies have found that cognitive benefits of bilingualism can be intercepted even in the initial days of bilingual education. Beyond the cognitive benefits of bilingualism described above, there are intangible benefits of bilingual education such as the ability to connect with extended family, increased job prospects in a global economy, ease of travel and broadening of social spheres, and economic gain from widened horizons in language, arts, and culture.

Bilingual education, when successful, would provide even one opportunity to impart the resources necessary to sustain a valuable lifestyle asset. Modern data, for instance, it has been shown that longstanding bilingualism contributes to cognition and delays the onset of alzheimer's disease (reviews in Bak and Alladi 2014; Bialystok et al. 2016). However, the consequences of bilingualism can not be used to bias the interpretation of evidence based on the educational adequacy of multilingualism. To conduct that evaluation, it is essential to bring to the dichotomy for both bilingualism and bilingual schooling. The first is a general comment about the economic viability of educating children in a dialect in which they may not be skillful; the second is

a specific question about whether this option is appropriate for children whose situations and competences may mitigate those learning achievement. Both questions can be answered by assessing two factors that infests some of these studies: the form of eventual result estimated and the demographic information of the pupils in the scheme. The key differentiator from first is whether the studies evaluated language proficiency or some other cognitive or academic outcome.

The number of studies included assessments of linguistic competence in the dominant language (English for Hispanic children in the United States, French immersion for children in Canada, community language for local language programmes in the United States and elsewhere), and some might include assessments of proficiency in the minority language, which is quite often the medium of education (e.g. Spanish in the US, French in Canada, Maori in New Zealand).

As there are less research looking at other academic achievement like arithmetic, subject curriculum content, learning function, customer retention, behaviours, or involvement in higher learning. The second key consideration here is that the children assessed in these studies were at risk of academic failure for a variety of reasons, such as low socioeconomic status, poor language proficiency, or individual difficulty due to learning, language, or social challenges. This combination of factors results in four categories, each with three possible outcomes: (a) no measurable difference between bilingual and standard programmes, (b) some advantage for participation in a bilingual programme, or (c) hardship for bilingual students, resulting in poorer outcomes than would be obtained in traditional programmes. When we consider that all bilingual programmes also provide some level of bilingualism, then the only negative outcome would be (c).

When it comes to language evaluations, that many research suggests that competence in the dominant language is exactly equivalent for kids in bilingual and mainstream classes, as long as an appropriate comparison group is used and enough time is allowed. Kids in Canadian French immersion programmes establish English language skills that are at least comparable to those of other middle-class children in English programmes (and sometimes higher, but because of the selectivity of French immersion, see Hutchins 2015), and Hispanic children in US bilingual education programmes eventually develop English language skills that are comparable to those of similar Hispanic children in English programmes.

Even when it is the language of instruction, proficiency in the minority language is invariably lower than that of a native speaker, but it is invariably higher than that of children in English programmes who seem to have little awareness to that language.

In terms of language proficiency, there is no substantiation of an expense to improving either language, even if it might take numerous years to achieve optimum value. In the case of some of the other subject matter, the outcome is partly determined by the language of testing.

Long ago, Macnamara (1967) demonstrated that the extent to which a weak language is used to conduct achievement tests can turn the test into a test of language proficiency, impeding children's demonstration of proficiency in the tested content. In many cases, studies assessing academic achievement provide insufficient information about the potential involvement of language proficiency, resulting in test results that are sometimes indeterminate. Simultaneously, Mondt and colleagues (2011) evidenced that merely teaching a topic in a precise terms increases proficiency in that subject when tested in the language of schooling.

Thus, there are reciprocal relationships between academic achievement and the language of school instruction, and these relationships are flexible.

The second factor is the characteristics of the children themselves. Children entering school with any learning or language disability or social disadvantage will struggle to succeed, so an evaluation of bilingual education needs to hold constant these abilities and select the appropriate comparison group. Thus, the relevant question is whether children struggle disproportionately more if they are in a bilingual education program. Here, too, the evidence seems clear: there is no additional burden for children with specific challenges in bilingual programs than in single language programs if the appropriate comparison is made. But even if there were additional effort required by bilingual education, it needs to be evaluated in terms of the potential benefits for that child – the possibility of acquiring a heritage language, the opportunity to develop at least some proficiency in another language, and the potential for attaining the cognitive benefits of bilingualism.

Bilingual education is not perfect and it is not one thing. At the same time, the quality of the research is uneven and it is difficult to determine how much weight should be assigned to contradictory outcomes. The research generally pays inadequate attention to the social context in which these complex processes play out, such as home literacy, parental education, children's levels of language proficiency, ability of parents to support children's education in that language, and numerous other factors.

Rossell and Baker (1996) claim that the research is inconclusive, and although there is still much to be learned, the weight of evidence is firmly on the side of bilingual education. In this brief review of a small portion of bilingual education programs in different countries and aimed at educating different kinds of children, there is no evidence that it creates measurable obstacles to children's school achievement. Some studies show no advantage of bilingual

education over other programs, but those need to be interpreted in terms of the benefits of learning another language and gaining access to the cognitive advantages of bilingualism. Ultimately, a proper evaluation of bilingual education requires detailed description of the structure of the program, the quality of the teaching, and the match between children's needs and abilities and the specific educational program being offered.

There is no single factor that can override the deep complexity of children's development and prescribe a solution for an individual child, let alone a solution for all children. For both gifted children who are certain to excel and children who face challenges, the education program they follow, including participation in a bilingual program, may not fundamentally change their school experience. There is no credible evidence that bilingual education adds or creates burden for children, yet it is incontrovertible that it provides the advantage of learning another language and possibly the cognitive benefits of bilingualism. The over-riding conclusion from the available evidence is that bilingual education is a net benefit for all children in the early school years.

Chapter No. 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodological steps adopted in conducting this study. It encompasses the study design, locale of the study, sampling and sample size, tools and methods of data collection.

3.1. Research Design

Quantitative approach was adopted to conduct this research. Quantitative tools and techniques were used to gather maximum perceptions and opinions of students on bilingual teaching.

3.2. Locale of the Study

This research has been conducted on the BS level students in public sector university of Islamabad. Students from across the country gets enrolled in that university and belong to different socio-economic background, lifestyle and different native languages. So, this university was selected to conduct the research to get variety of opinions of students regarding classroom learning and use of bilingual teaching method.

3.3. Sampling and Sample Size

Sample size was analyzed using Taro Yamani formula which is $n = N / 1 + N (e)^2$. It was calculated as follows:

$$n = N / 1 + N (e)^2$$

$$n = 1150 / 1 + 1150 (0.05)^2$$

$$n = 296.7 \sim 297 \text{ students}$$

The 'n' denoted sample size we are calculating. 'N' represents total population of the area, which in our case is students of Social Science discipline of a public sector university. 1 is known as constant and 'e' is called the margin of error or error limit. It is taken 5% or 0.05 usually. After calculation 297 was the sample size calculated.

To divide the respondents, stratified sampling technique was used. The University had 14 departments under social sciences discipline. The sample size was divided into 14 parts, and 21 respondents were taken from each social science department. All of them belonged to different socio-economic background, parents' education and different dominant languages in their home.

3.4. Tool of Data Collection

A questionnaire consisting of 9 statements was constructed. It was a 5-point Likert scale. It had its range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The scale was scored as: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, undecided = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5. Two of the statements were supporting teaching in English and positive attitude towards classroom discussion in English language. Those statements were "*Teaching in English is more productive than Urdu at the university level*" "*It is easy to participate in the classroom discussion in English*". Rest of the statements supported the use of Urdu translation and bilingual teaching in classroom.

3.5. Method of Data Collection

Permission was taken from the authority of the institute before collecting the data. Students were informed about the research purpose and inform consent. The questionnaires were mailed to the students online and were asked to mark their opinion. The statements were close ended and students were only allowed to choose between options provided which were strongly agree, agree, undecided, strongly disagree and disagree.

3.6. Analysis of the Data

After the data collection, it was entered in SPSS software. Firstly, descriptive statistics were calculated. Frequencies and percentages of the demographic sheet was analyzed and were put in tables. Later, the tables of central

tendencies of the statements were constructed in order to investigate the perception of the students regarding bilingual teaching.

3.7. Ethical Consideration

All ethical protocols were followed during research. Respondents' names and confidentiality has been maintained. They were ensured that all the collected data will be used for academic purpose only.

Chapter No. 4

FINDINGS AND DATA PRESENTATION

This chapter presents data analysis and discussion. The field data has been analyzed and presented in tabular form with description

Table 1 Age of the Respondent

Age	Frequency	Percent
16-18	80	26.9
19-21	75	25.3
22-24	78	26.3
25 and above	64	21.5
Total	297	100.0

Table 1 depicts the age of the respondents. The data reveals that 26.9 percent of respondents belonged to age group 16-18. The data further shows that 25.3 percent of respondents belonged to age group 19-21, 26.3 percent were from age group 22-24, and 21.5 9 percent of respondents were 25 and above the age.

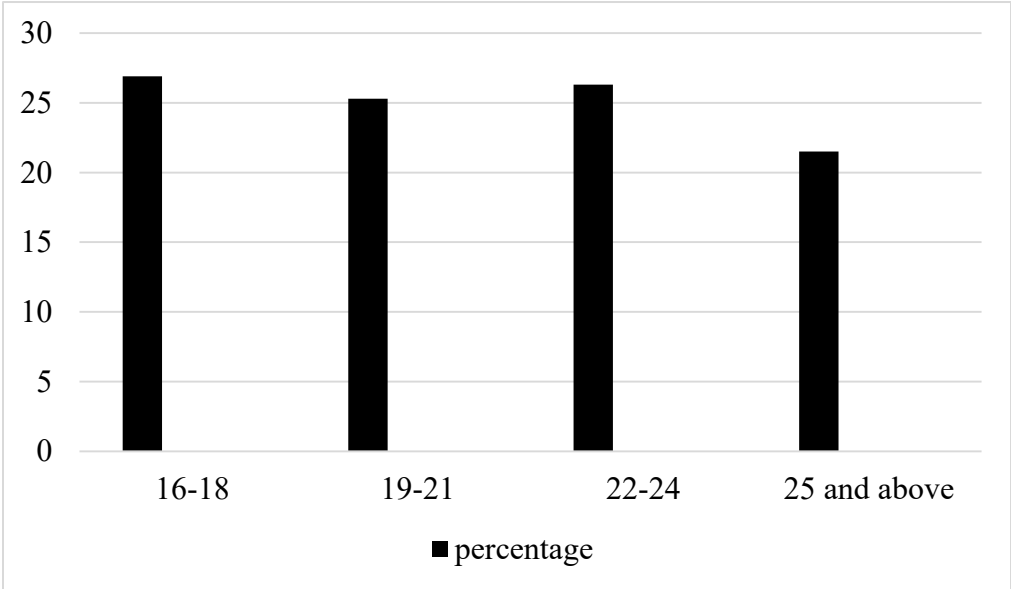


Table 2. Semester of the Respondent

Semester	Frequency	Percent
1-2	80	26.9
3-4	75	25.3
5-6	85	28.6
7-8	57	19.2
Total	297	100.0

Table 2 shows the semester of the respondents. The data reveals that 26.9 percent of respondents belonged to semesters 1-2. The data further shows that 25.3 percent of respondents belonged to semesters 3-4, 28.6 percent were from semesters 5 -6, and 19.2 percent of respondents were of semesters 7-8.

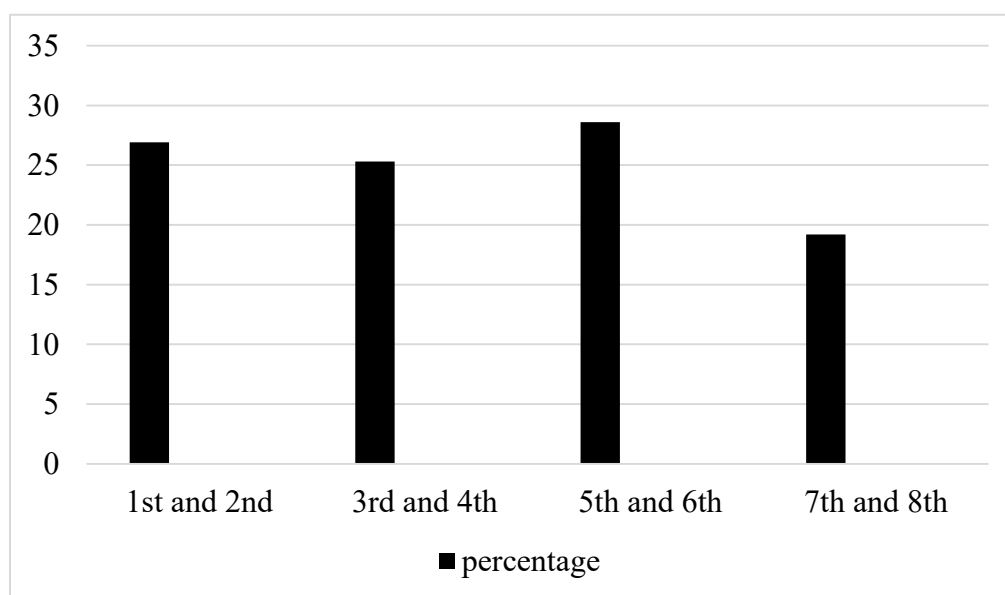


Table 3 Education Level of Respondent's Mother

Mother's Education	Frequency	Percent
Illiterate	99	33.3
Primary	53	17.8
Secondary	42	14.1
Matriculation	53	17.8
Intermediate	27	9.1
Bachelors	14	4.7
Masters	4	1.3
MPhil	3	1.0
PhD	2	.7
Total	297	100.0

Table 3 depicts the education level of the respondents' mother. The data reveals that 33.3 percent of respondents' mothers were illiterate. While the education level of 17.8 percent were primary, 14.1 percent were Secondary pass, 17.8 percent did matriculation, and 9.1 percent were of intermediate education level. The data shows that the percentage decreased as the education level increased. Only 4.7 percent of respondents' mother did Bachelors, 1.3 percent of respondents' mothers did Masters, 1.0 percent of respondents' mothers qualified MPhil and barely 0.7 percent of respondents' mothers reached PhD level.

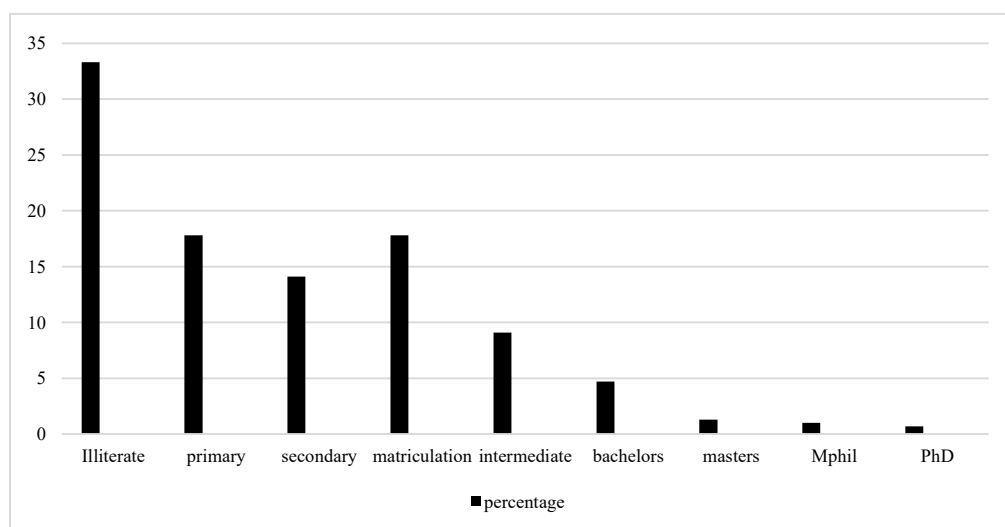


Table 4. Occupation of Respondent's Mother

Mother's Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Housewife	245	82.5
working woman	52	17.5
Total	297	100.0

Table 4 reveals the frequencies and percentages of the occupation of respondents' mothers. The data shows 82.5 percent of respondents' mothers were housewives and 17.5 percent of respondents' mothers were working women.

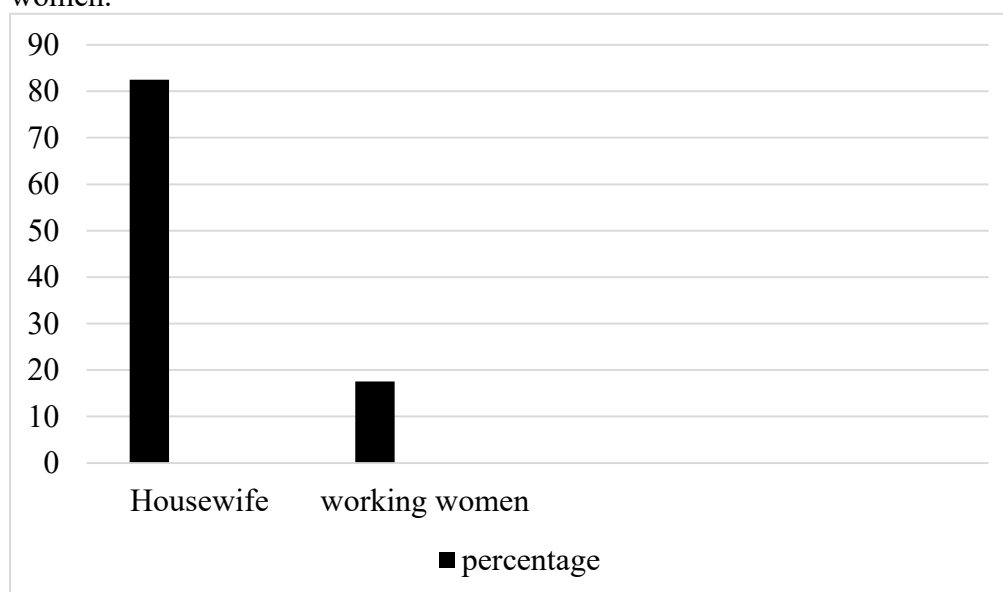


Table 5. Education Level of Respondent's Father

Father's Education	Frequency	Percent
Illiterate	6	2.0
Primary	24	8.1
Secondary	12	4.0
Matriculation	54	18.2
Intermediate	65	21.9
Bachelors	41	13.8
Masters	17	5.7
Mphil	48	16.2
PhD	30	10.1
Total	297	100.0

Table 5 depicts the education level of the respondents' fathers. The data reveals that 2.0 percent of respondents' fathers were illiterate. While the education level of 8.1 percent were primary, 4.0 percent were Secondary pass, 18.2 percent did matriculation, and 21.9 percent were of intermediate education level. 13.8 percent of respondents' fathers did Bachelors, 5.7 percent of respondents' fathers did Masters, 16.2 percent of respondents' fathers qualified MPhil and 10.1 percent of respondents' fathers reached PhD level.

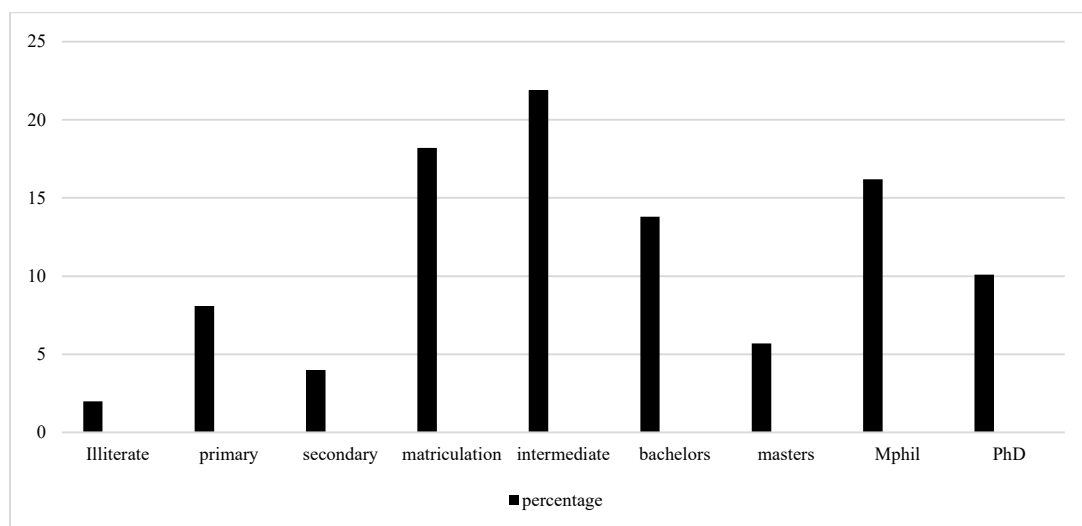


Table 6. Occupation of Respondent's Father

Father's Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Private Job	125	42.1
Government Job	76	25.6
Business	96	32.3
Total	297	100.0

Table 6 reveals the frequencies and percentages of the occupation of respondents' fathers. The data shows 42.1 percent of respondents' fathers belonged to private jobs, 25.6 percent of respondents' fathers were government employees and 32.3 percent owned their business.

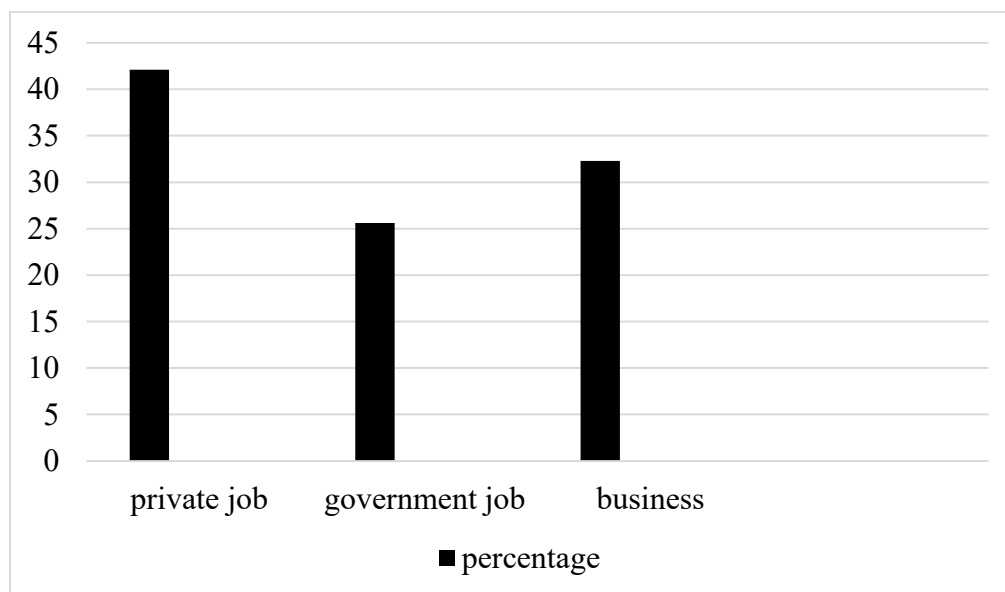


Table 7. Dominant Language at Respondent's Home

Languages	Frequency	Percent
Urdu	159	53.5
Pushto	54	18.2
Sindhi	36	12.1
Punjabi	36	12.1
Hindko	12	4.0
Total	297	100.0

Table 7 reveals the frequencies and percentages of the dominant language in respondents' homes. The data shows 53.5 percent of respondents speak Urdu in their homes. Moreover, 18.2 percent of the respondents have Pushto, 12.1 have Sindhi, 12.1 percent have Punjabi, and 4 percent have Hindko as dominant language in their homes.

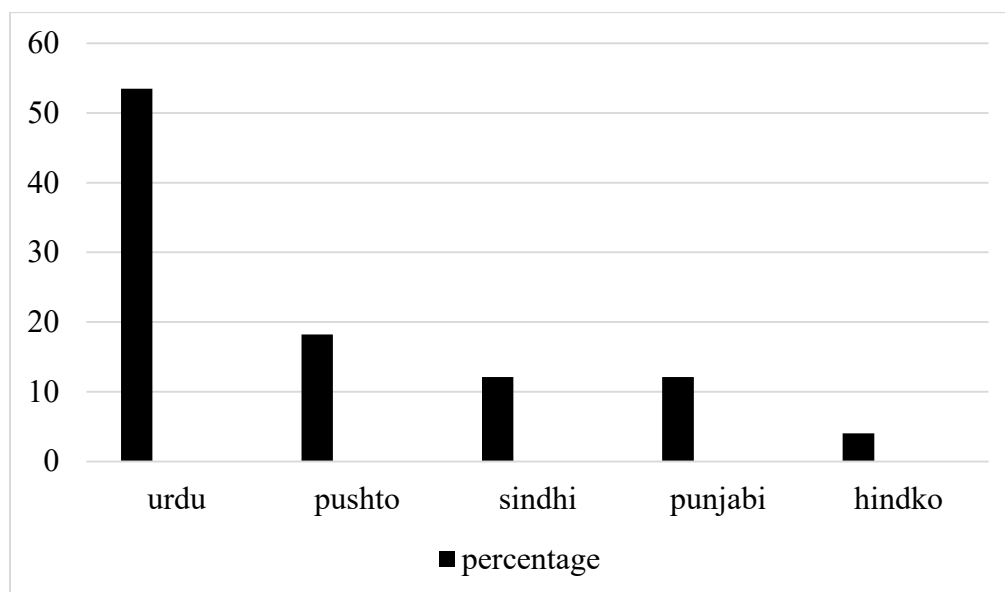


Table 8. Productivity of use of the English language at the university level

Valid	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	137	46.1
disagree	135	45.5
Agree	25	8.4
Total	297	100.0

Table 8 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that teaching in English is more productive than Urdu at the university level. The data shows 46.1 percent of respondents strongly disagreed with the notion. While 45.5 percent marked disagree. None of the respondents felt undecided with the notion. 8.4 percent of the respondents agreed with the statements and none of the respondents strongly agreed.

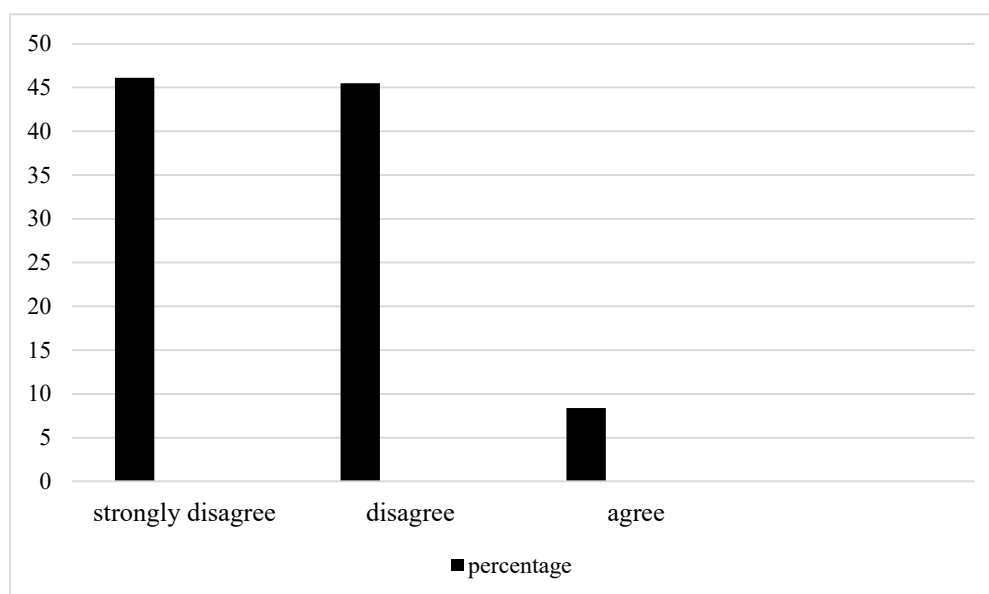


Table 9. Productivity of use of the Urdu language at the university level

valid	frequency	percent
agree	148	49.8
strongly agree	149	50.2
Total	297	100.0

Table 9 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that teaching in national language is more productive than English at the university level. The data shows 50.2 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 49.8 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

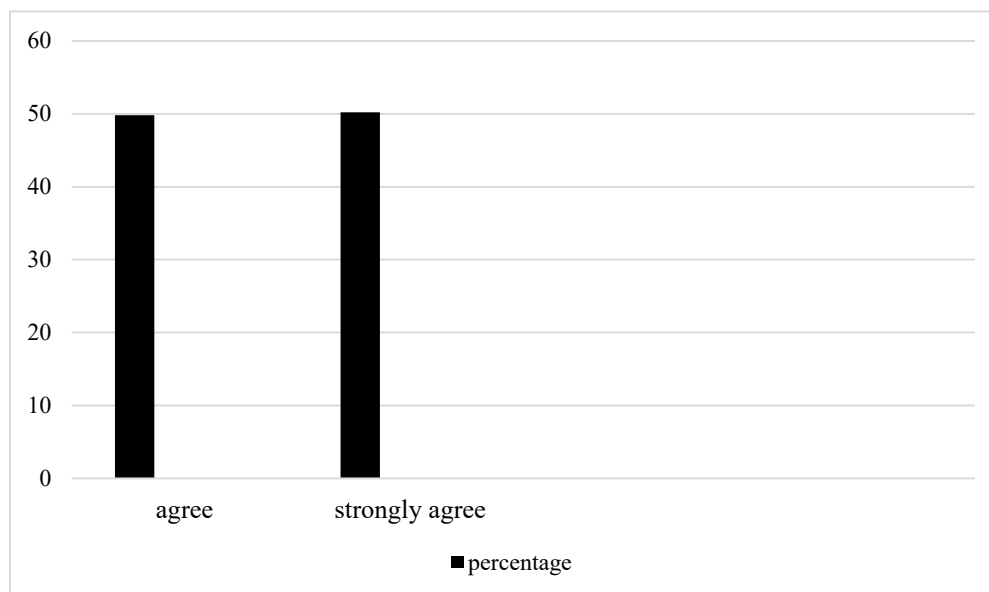


Table 10. Usage of Urdu translation during class lectures by teachers

valid	Frequency	Percent
agree	99	33.3
strongly agree	198	66.7
Total	297	100.0

Table 10 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that their teachers use Urdu translation during class lectures. The data shows 66.7 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 33.3 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

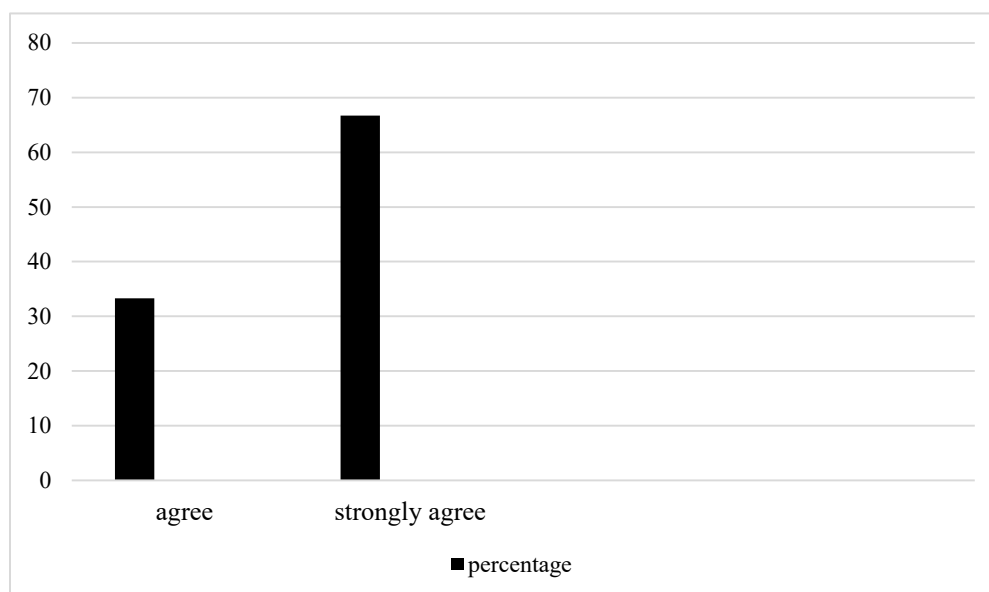


Table 11. Usage of both languages i.e English and Urdu during class lectures by teachers

Valid	Frequency	Percent
agree	164	55.2
strongly agree	133	44.8
Total	297	100.0

Table 11 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that their teachers teach in both languages i.e English and Urdu. The data shows 44.8 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 55.2 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

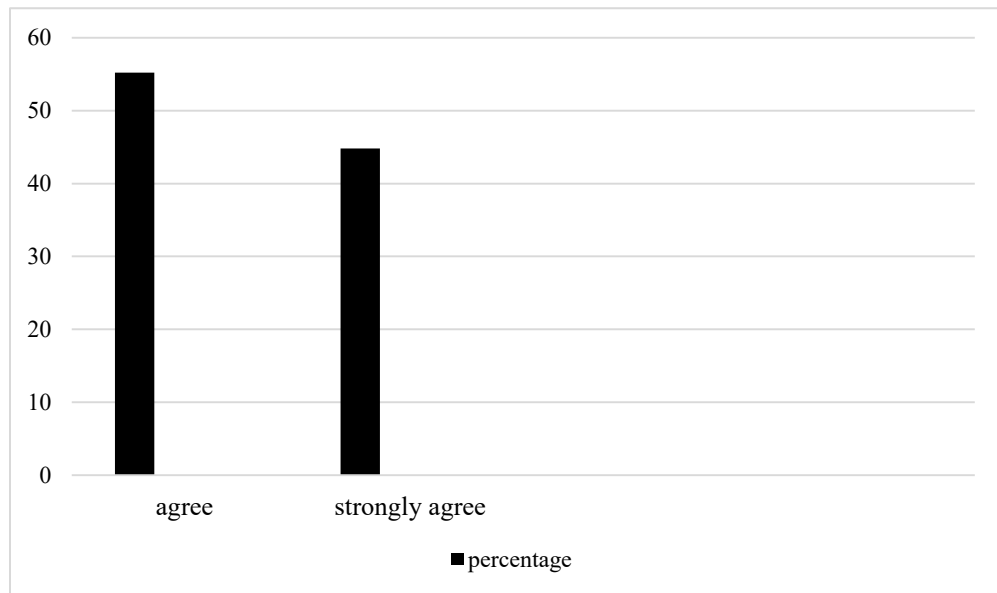


Table 12. Students in comfortable state with the use of Urdu translation during classroom teaching

Valid	Frequency	Percent
agree	150	50.5
strongly agree	147	49.5
Total	297	100.0

Table 12 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that Urdu translation during classroom teaching makes you more comfortable. The data shows 49.5 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 50.5 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

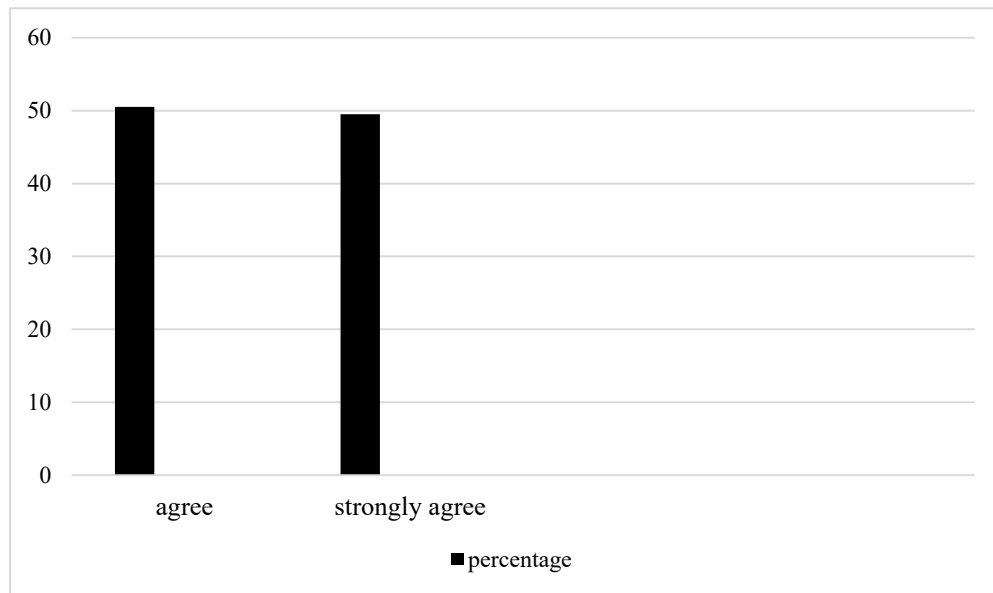


Table 13. Understanding lecture faster and better with Urdu translation during classroom teaching

Valid	Frequency	Percent
agree	164	55.2
strongly agree	133	44.8
Total	297	100.0

Table 13 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that Urdu translation during classroom teaching makes you understand lecture faster and better. The data shows 44.8 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 55.2 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

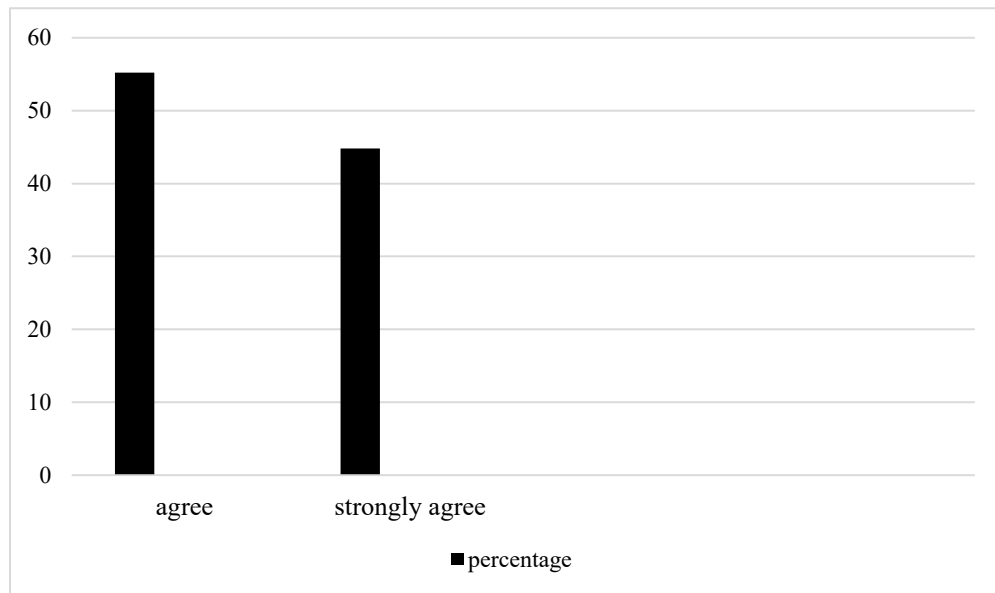


Table 14. Increase in comprehension of the content with Urdu translation

Valid	Frequency	Percent
agree	14	4.7
strongly agree	283	95.3
Total	297	100.0

Table 14 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that Urdu translation increases comprehension of the content. The data shows 95.3 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. While 4.7 percent marked agreed. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.

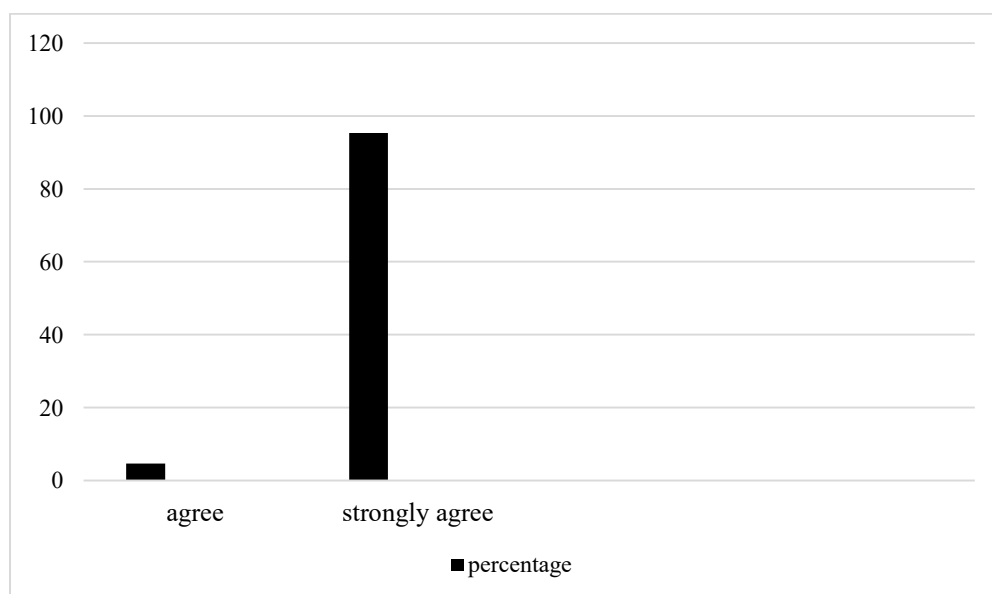


Table 15. Participation in the classroom discussion becomes easier using English language

Valid	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	211	71.0
disagree	86	29.0
Total	297	100.0

Table 15 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that It is easy to participate in the classroom discussion in English. The data shows 71 percent of respondents strongly disagreed with the notion. While 29 percent marked disagree. None of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor agreed and strongly agreed.

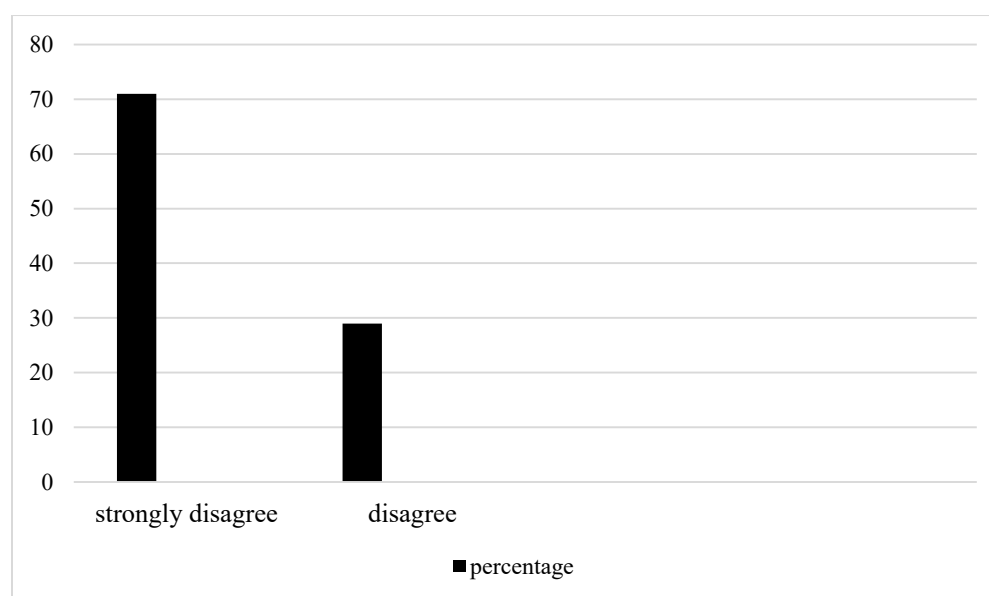
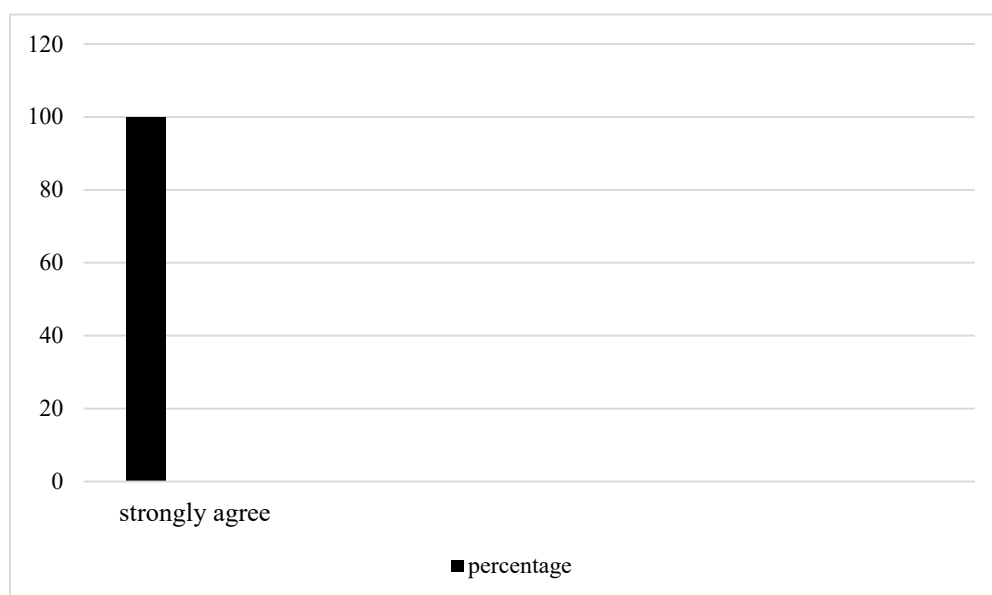


Table 16. Participation in the classroom discussion becomes easier using Urdu language

Valid	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	297	100.0
Total	297	100.0

Table 16 reveals the responses of respondents on statement that It is easy to participate in the classroom discussion in Urdu. The data shows 100 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the notion. No percent of the respondents marked agreed. Also, none of the respondents neither felt undecided with the notion nor disagreed and strongly disagreed.



Chapter No. 5
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Discussion

This chapter provides the summary of the research. The methods and mediums of instruction for teaching English has always been a question. Various methods and practices have been adopted and incorporated into school curricula around the world. It is argued that in bilingual countries using the native language for the purpose of instruction rather than using only English language for instruction in the classroom teaching is ineffective.

Efficient teaching techniques are becoming a more important area of study in applied linguistics. There are number of factors like good command of the language, appropriate use of tools, motivation factors, and translation of home language in classroom setting impact the teaching efficiency and also make students comprehend the content, etc. The major concern of the present study was to focus on the use of native language rather than use of only English language.

In a country like Pakistan, where English is neither the national nor the native language of many people. There is a high demand for effective teaching methods. There must be a way to make students understand the new language for them to learn courses offered in English. Translation of content into students' native language can help them academically in the classroom. Following key findings are skimmed from the data analysis:

- Most students have acknowledged that the national language of Pakistan which is Urdu is more productive than English language as medium of instruction at university level (49.9 percent). The findings are similar to those of Yusi Nursanti's (2016) study on students' perceptions of teachers' bilingual language use in an English classroom. According to Nursanti's research, students have positive perceptions of the teacher's use of bilingual language for

instruction in classroom teaching (83 percent). Another study conducted by Sucitra (2020) revealed that students in their classrooms had strong positive perceptions of bilingual education. A strong perception of the utilisation of bilingual instruction by lecturers was indicated by the central tendency of this statement which reached 78 percent. Amira Muflich Darain and Nur Arifah Drajadi's (2020) research also found a favorable attitude toward bilingual education in the classroom. According to a study conducted by Steven K. Lee (2010), an overwhelming majority (90 percent) of the students polled believed that bilingual education was beneficial to their educational experience, and 86 percent supported the availability of bilingual education programs in public schools.

- Data show that students are more comfortable with Urdu translation during classroom instruction (72.3 percent). Much like findings of an earlier research by Yusi Nursanti (2016), students see the advantages of bilingual language usage for teaching in English, making it simpler to comprehend and comfortable to experience what the teacher conveyed in English lessons.
- Students find Urdu useful for understanding lectures more quickly during classroom learning (68.9 percent). This argument is supported by a similar finding of research by Nursanti (2016), who states that students believe that the use of national language, which is Indonesian language in Indonesia, the instructor in English helps teachers to convey things more quickly and enables students to comprehend it more quickly (71 percent).
- Majority of the respondents finds Urdu language aiding to increase their comprehension of the contents (92.3 %). Nursanti's research (2016) also indicates students' perception on the use of their

national language i.e., Eight percent of the students believe that in the English classroom, the use of Indonesian language by the teacher enables students comprehend each sentence that the teacher explains. Lutfi Bahrul Fawaid (2020) in his research, discussing students opinion toward bilingualism technique used by the teacher in classroom teaching, mostly learners believed that bilingualism help them to make a better understanding the subject.

- Moreover, the findings clarify that students find it easier to participate in classroom discussion in the Urdu language as compared to the discussion in the English language (96.2 %).

All the above-mentioned results revealed that students feel more comfortable with the bilingual teaching method. Moreover, students find Urdu translation and bilingual teaching helpful in comprehension. It boosts their confidence and they can easily participate in classroom discussion. The results of the study approve the working hypothesis H1 which stated “The use of bilingual teaching method increase comprehension and enhances confidence”. The alternative hypothesis HA, “The use of bilingual teaching method hinders comprehension and decrease confidence” and Null hypothesis H0, “The use of bilingual teaching method doesn’t affect the comprehension and confidence” are rejected as they are contrary to the findings of the study.

The first research objective of the presented study was aimed to explore and investigate the perceptions of students regarding the effectiveness of bilingual teaching techniques used in classroom teaching. The findings of the result showed that majority of learners were positive about the bilingual teaching technique in classroom teaching. The findings match with the findings of the study done Kelilo and Krashen (1987).

The second research objective was concerned to examine which teaching method students, find more helpful in comprehension and increasing

confidence. From the results of statements number 5,6,7, and 9, it can be presumed that the bilingual teaching technique in classroom teaching in the classroom is helpful in comprehension of content and boosting confidence. Therefore, it is concluded that the students had positive perception toward bilingual teaching technique in classroom teaching.

5.2 Conclusion

The overall conclusion of this study is that teaching in national language which is Urdu in Pakistan or in both English and Urdu was suggested by majority of respondents. As the findings of study shows that the majority of students strongly supported the notion of teaching in Urdu language at university level, irrespective of their different dominant languages at their homes, distinct socio economic and geographical background. The findings of this study, although limited in number, stress to revisit the medium of instruction during classroom teaching in higher education in Pakistan

Practically, if the findings are implemented, it will help students improve academic competence, comprehend the English language more easily, and participate in a career pathway on higher grounds. The greater the demand for English medium graduates justifies the need for more effective bilingual teaching and instilling the English language with the aid of using national language.

Overall, more analyses are required to verify the existing findings and results. More innovative future discoveries on bilingual learning are needed. This study still serves as preliminary evidence.

5.3 Limitations and Suggestions

No research is final and absolute and so is this one. Here are some limitations and suggestions for the further studies.

1. The study was limited to one public sector university with small sample size of 297 students. A study should encompass more

universities and students to get a clear and better picture of the issue in hand.

2. The respondents were all from social sciences background which makes the findings limited. Studies should be conducted on participants with distinct disciplines, as more diverse sample always provides stronger and more generalizable conclusions.
3. In the present study, only BS-level students were included. Another study may include different levels such as MPhil, Ph.D., etc.
4. There is a need to adapting different bilingual teaching strategies to cope with the issue of teaching English to nonnative English speakers. There is a demand for teachers to learn methods for delivering lectures using bilingual techniques.
5. Due to the need for the English language to be an international language, teachers should consider the factors that increase student performance in the classroom and academics.
6. To identify in detail which factors are involved in increasing student confidence, comprehension, memorization, and satisfaction, students can be asked about what makes them engaged and satisfied and finding ways to make the course material relevant and adding techniques as part of the curriculum.

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Appendix A

INFORM CONSENT

I am a student at Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad pursuing my degree in MSc Sociology. The nature of my thesis is to analyze student's perceptions regarding the language used during classroom teaching. The study is being done to examine whether students feel comfortable when the lecture and classroom discussion is only in the English language or when the lecture is translated into Urdu. You are required to fill the following form to support the research purpose. Your decision to participate in this study will be based voluntarily. You can also withdraw from participation at any time without giving any reason. The information gathered in this study is only for academic purposes and will be kept confidential. Your contribution will help me in finding the effectiveness of teaching methods. I will be very thankful for your participation and corporation.

Sidra Khalid Chughtai

Student of QAU

Appendix B

DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET

Age: _____

Discipline _____

Degree Program _____

Semester _____

Mother Education Level _____

Mother Occupation/ profession _____

Father Education Level _____

Father Occupation/ profession _____

Dominant language in your home _____

Appendix C

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please mark one of the options that you deem appropriate against each statement

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
Teaching in English is more productive than Urdu at the university level					
Teaching in national language is more productive than English at the university level					
Teachers use Urdu translation during class lectures					
Teachers teach in both languages i.e., English and Urdu					
Urdu translation during classroom teaching makes you more comfortable					
Urdu translation makes you understand lecture faster and better					
Urdu translation increases comprehension of the contents					
It is easy to participate in the classroom discussion in English					
It is easy to participate in the classroom discussion in Urdu					

