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## Overview of U.S. Foreign Language Education Policy

Karin P. Hartmaier  
kheartmai@emich.edu

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# OVERVIEW OF U.S. FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION POLICY

Karin P. Hartmaier  
Dr. T. Daniel Seely, Mentor

## ABSTRACT

Foreign language education policy has been a topic of concern in the USA since the time of the founding fathers. A paradox of American society is that it is a nation formed from a “melting pot” of immigrants, while the pressure to assimilate to a uniform American culture has resulted in a dominantly monolingual population. With changes in immigration rates and shifts in the national origins of immigrants, the attitudes and perspectives of the general public toward foreigners and foreign languages have also adjusted over time. This literature review will give an overview of how current events and public opinion have shaped foreign language education policy by mapping how languages have been taught over the past century.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Knowledge of multiple languages is expected and is often the norm in most countries worldwide. While English is the language in which most commercial negotiations are conducted, “the ability to speak more than one language is critical to succeed in business in Europe, Asia/Pacific and Latin America” (Sterniak, 2008, as cited in Marshall & Heffes, 2005, p. 10).

On the one hand, knowledge of a second or foreign language is considered an asset for native English speakers in the United States. Knowledge of a foreign language, particularly one of the world languages, has always been considered a sign of being “cultured.” Foreign language study has always been an essential component of the education of society’s elite. (Zelasko, 1991, p. 1)

Despite most people agreeing on the benefits and competitive advantage of bilingualism both educationally and professionally, only one in four Americans can hold a conversation in a foreign language (Sterniak,

2008), which is comparably fewer than the 65% of working-age adults in Europe who can speak at least one foreign language (Eurostat, 2019). Excluding recently-arrived immigrants, this number shrinks to one in ten Americans (Stein-Smith, 2016). This has led the United States to develop the “well-established reputation as a graveyard for immigrant languages” (Rumbaut & Massey, 2013, p. 147). The loss of multilingualism in a “nation of immigrants” is reinforced by foreign language education policy in schools. In order to understand the social and cultural effect language education has on the rest of American society, we must first attempt to map some of the trends that have occurred in public education over the past few decades. Language education policies reflect the political climate of the period. Social attitudes have historically driven many of these policies, which in turn affect policy decisions.

### **Pre-Compulsory Education**

#### *Early immigration and the colonial period*

Throughout the early colonial period, ethnic enclaves of European settlers established themselves in different regions of what is now the United States (Brown, 1991). These communities had independent schools that offered “a full range of academic subjects” taught in the community’s predominant native language (Brown, 1991, p. 2). From the 16th century through the 18th century, at least six other language groups, including Dutch, French, Swedish, German, Spanish, and Russian, were represented along with English, which was slowly becoming the dominant tongue of the colonies (Brisk, 1981):

From pre-colonial days into the mid-1800s, bilingualism was not only widespread, it was respected and appreciated. Before the first Europeans arrived on the continent, between 200 and just over 500 languages in about 15 language families were spoken in the land (Casanova & Arias, 1993; Castellanos, 1992; Heath, 1981). (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 37)

This was the only known period in the history of the United States that language programs strived for non-native English speakers to become bilingual (Zelasko, 1991).

The early Puritans were the first of the settlers to advocate for compulsory public education, but it was not until after the Revolutionary War that any kind of public policy could be set in place. Thomas Jefferson suggested using tax dollars to help fund a public education program,

but this was considered too radical at the time and was quickly rejected by Congress (Carpenter, 2013). Additionally, neither the Declaration of Independence (1776) nor the Constitution (1789) make any reference to language (Dutcher, 1996). There have been numerous unsuccessful efforts throughout the years to determine an official federal language, driven by “English-only” or “Official English” movements (Brown, 1991). Today, while there is still no official, federally-recognized language in the United States, 32 states have designated English as an official language, while Alaska, Hawaii, and South Dakota also recognize indigenous languages as official (Canfield, 2014; “U.S. English,” 2016; Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL], n.d.). The Constitution allows individual states to determine their education practices, thus there is no national language education policy in the United States (Dutcher, 1996).

Throughout the rest of the 18th century, there was never enough support from the public and government officials to change compulsory education policies, and it was not until 1852 that Massachusetts became the first state to offer some semblance of compulsory public education. The goal of this legislation was to “civilize” the children of poor immigrants (“Race Forward,” 2015); many other state governments followed, and by 1918, all American children were required to attend elementary school (Katz, 1976; The American Board, 2015).

### ***Introduction of anti-immigrant legislation***

As the United States grew as a nation, anti-immigration laws were introduced. English nativism became synonymous with patriotism, and the increasingly popular “Americanization” movement took root in the country. Bilingualism lost its support and English fluency was not only encouraged, but enforced (Fitzgerald, 1993). In 1882, the Chinese Exclusion Act was signed into law by President Chester A. Arthur after being passed by Congress (“Chinese Exclusion Act (1882),” 1989). This was the first significant legislation restricting immigration to the U.S. Strictly enforced for the following decade, it was then renewed under the Geary Act and revisited so often since that its effects can still be felt today (“Chinese Exclusion Act (1882),” 1989). The Spanish-American War of 1898 reinforced American patriotism by instilling English as the *de facto* national language used in the states and western territories, as well (Fitzgerald, 1993). In the Philippines and Puerto Rico, which became American territories in the early twentieth century, English was imposed as the dominant language of instruction, even though Puerto Rico was entirely Spanish-speaking (Resnick, 1993).

By 1906, The Naturalization Act determined that every immigrant seeking American citizenship was required to speak English to the satisfaction of a naturalization examiner (Leibowitz, 1969). Immigrants were also required to demonstrate their literacy and ability to sign their names (Sterniak, 2008). Before this time, “any ‘court of record’ (municipal, county, state, or federal) could grant U.S. citizenship” (National Archives, 2020, para. 2). This new legislation conflicted with the growing immigration of the period. According to the U.S. census of 1910, the population of the country was 92 million, of which 10 million were immigrants whose mother tongue was a language “other than English or Celtic (Irish, Scotch, Welsh)” (Rumbaut & Massey, 2013, p. 142). Figure 1 provides data on language usage in the United States, according to the U.S. Census of 1910.

**Figure 1.** U.S. Census data of the number of immigrants whose mother tongue was a language other than English in 1910 (Rumbaut & Massey, 2013).

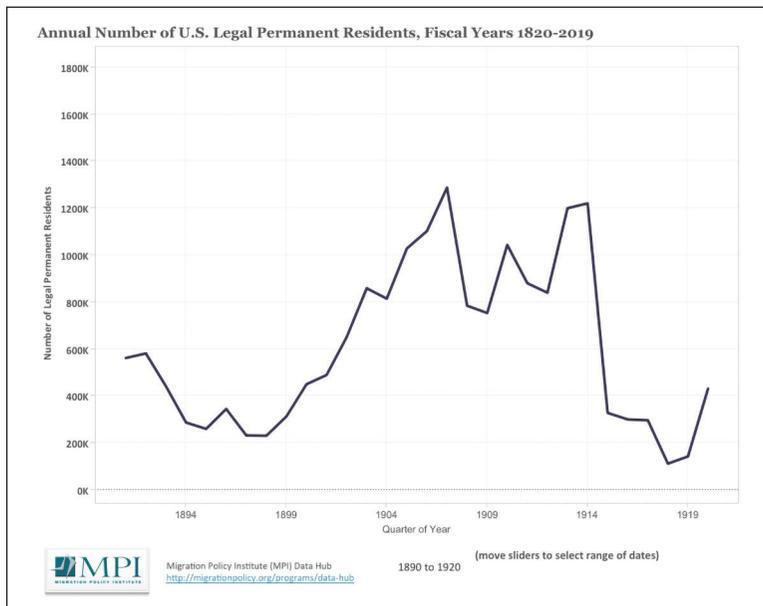
Language	Number of Speakers
German	2,800,000
Italian	1,400,000
Yiddish	1,100,000
Polish	944,000
Swedish	683,000
French	529,000
Norwegian	403,000
Spanish	258,000

The industrial revolution drastically changed the American economy. As people moved from agricultural, low-skilled employment to urban industrial employment, the focus on literacy increased (Fitzgerald, 1993). World War I (1914-1918) signaled looming threats to national security and greater emphasis on consolidating the American identity in a nation still welcoming large numbers of immigrants (Fitzgerald, 1993). Figure 2 shows immigration figures during the two decades before the first World War and the dramatic decline in the number of legal permanent residents in the United States during the war years.

The National Americanization Committee, established in 1915, assisted the Council of National Defense and the United States Bureau of Education in managing immigration during the first World War. Nation-

al security became a top priority, with nearly a third of undocumented immigrants coming from Germany or another ally of the Central Powers who opposed the Allies, including the United States. Winning over their loyalty through conformity to an American identity was seen as important to strengthening loyalty to the United States (The Ohio State University, n.d.). The common belief at the time was that workers who were unable to understand English were a threat to vital war efforts, and in 1917, when the United States entered the Great War, it was found that one-fourth of foreign-born draftees were functionally illiterate (The Ohio State University, n.d.). The United States Bureau of Education educated immigrants throughout the war, discontinuing the program in 1919 due to budgetary restraints. That year, some places in the country, such as Findlay, Ohio, imposed a \$25 tax on German speakers who used their native language in public (Sterniak, 2008). Subsequently, the National Education Association (NEA) created the Department of Immigrant Education to continue the Americanization process into the post-war decade.

**Figure 2.** Annual number of legal permanent residents in the United States with the selected range of data between 1890 and 1920 (Migration Policy Institute, 2020).



## 1920s-1930s

### *Post-War isolationism*

The period after World War I was marked by strong isolationist policies on a global scale, especially within the United States. Americans wanted to return to “normalcy,” which, in turn, created “an inward-turning xenophobia” in the country (Brown, 1991, p. 8). The “Americanization” assimilationist movement was becoming increasingly popular and effective among groups that were not racially different from other European Americans. Non-European groups were also targeted; aimed at its large Asian population, a 1920 California law charged foreigners a special poll tax of \$10.20 (Sterniak, 2008). “An institutionalized intolerance to language diversity” defined the next two decades both socially and politically (Brown, 1991, p. 8).

### *Education policy*

Multilingualism drastically declined in the United States between the 1920s and 1960s. By 1923, laws prohibiting foreign language instruction in public settings had been passed in 34 states (Fitzgerald, 1993). The state of Nebraska passed a 1919 law prohibiting German teachers from offering instruction in their native language (Hakuta, 1986). The state claimed that the law was a proper means to “promote civic development by inhibiting training and education of the immature in foreign tongues and ideals before they could learn English and acquire American ideals” (Bernstein, 2009, para. 2). Robert Meyer, a teacher at Zion Parochial School, read “a Bible story in German to a ten-year-old” and was charged with a violation of the law (Crawford, 1989, p. 24). In the landmark *Meyer v. Nebraska* case that same year, the Supreme Court ruled in favor of Meyer and stated that it was unconstitutional to restrict the teaching of foreign languages in schools (Brisk, 1981) based on the Due Process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

According to the Court, the liberty protected by the due process clause includes the right “to acquire useful knowledge, to marry, establish a home and bring up children, to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, and generally to enjoy those privileges long recognized at common law as essential to the orderly pursuit of happiness by free men.” (Bernstein, 2009, para. 3)

Although teaching in foreign languages was permitted by the court ruling, national sentiment about the non-English language classroom generally did not change.

“English only” boarding schools for Native Americans continued until the 1970s. Students were punished for speaking their native languages, which led to the rapid extinction of many native languages during the 19th and 20th centuries (Dutcher, 1996). Before the arrival of European colonizers, there were an estimated 300 native languages spoken in North America, of which only 155 still survive (Dutcher, 1996). According to High Country News, 99% of all indigenous languages are in danger due to federal anti-Native “English only” policies that facilitated the erasure of Indigenous cultures (Nagle, 2019). At least 79 of these 155 languages are likely to become extinct within a generation without serious intervention (Nagle, 2019).

### **1940s-1950s**

#### ***World War II and Japanese internment camps***

After the December 7, 1941, attack on Pearl Harbor, President Franklin Roosevelt signed an executive order resulting in the internment of 120,000 people of Japanese descent in isolated camps from 1942 until March 1946 (Dusselier, 2012). Japanese language schools were forced to close; in 1988 Congress issued a formal apology, and reparations in the amount of \$20,000 were awarded to 80,000 survivors under the Civil Liberties Act (Crawford, 1989).

#### ***The rise of English around the world***

After World War II, foreign language instruction in public schools enjoyed a brief resurgence, reflecting the overseas experiences of veterans (Zelasko, 1991), but the close of the war established the United States as a world power, and English grew beyond its previous dominance, once primarily due to British colonization.

After World War II we [the United States] were the ostensible scientific leader of the world. The countries that had competed with us, France and Britain, were exhausted; a good part of their youth had been killed. The Russians, Germans, and Japanese had lost tens of millions of people and many of their factories and laboratories were destroyed. The United States dominated science, which incidentally led to English becoming the monopoly world language because everybody wanted to plug into our science. (Burn & Perkins, 1980, p. 19)

English usage was widespread after World War II, and one of the consequences was a growing belief among Americans that the rest of the

world spoke English, so learning a foreign language was considered unnecessary (Baron, 1990).

### *The Cold War*

With World War II over, the Cold War arose from perceived threats from the world's other superpower, the Soviet Union (USSR). Russian immigrants were targeted by the House Un-American Activities Committee, led by Senator Joseph McCarthy during the Second Red Scare of the late 1940s and early 1950s. At least 20,000 Russian refugees successfully fled to the United States during this time period, leaving, quite literally, everything behind.

For two decades, any Soviet citizen who dared to move to the U.S. became a nonperson—the Soviet Union stripped defectors of their citizenship, cut them off from contact with their families, and sometimes made it illegal to even mention their names. (Library of Congress, n.d.)

Despite the risks of becoming a “nonperson,” many educated Russians fled Soviet control and came to the United States in search of a better life. Artists, educators, and scientists in particular were some of the most welcome defectors from the USSR. Thousands of immigrants were arrested and many were deported without a formal hearing, which led to a large population of Russians denying their heritage, changing their names and religion, and keeping low profiles, which included not speaking Russian (Library of Congress, n.d.).

The United States was desperate to compete with the technological advancements of the Soviet Union. The Sputnik launch of 1957 started the “Space Age” and signalled the Soviet Union's superiority in the sciences. For the first time in decades, Americans perceived multilingualism as a valuable skill. Title VI of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 authorized support of “the study of foreign languages and area studies, through national resource centers, fellowships to study foreign languages, and research and materials development” (Dutcher, 1996, p. 4). The Act allocated funding for foreign language training to keep up with the USSR, which valued many of these principles (Fitzgerald, 1993).

### **1960s-1970s**

#### *Progressive language legislation*

The 1960s and 1970s were arguably the most progressive eras in terms of American language education policies. Immigration laws be-

came more liberal; bilingual education pilot programs were introduced at the beginning of the 1960s (Brown, 1991). It was in these “two decades that linguistic minorities asserted their right to cultural and linguistic maintenance” (Brisk, 1981, p. 3).

The Civil Rights Act of 1964, while not specifically targeting languages, outlawed “discrimination on the basis of race, color, and national origin,” which protected many immigrants whose native language was other than English (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10). More protections were given to immigrants under the 1965 Voting Rights Act, which banned “English literacy requirements for voters who had been schooled in languages other than English on U.S. soil” (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10). This law protected Puerto Ricans who were native Spanish speakers and whose island had been a territory of the United States since 1917. The Immigration Act of 1965 that same year removed the discriminatory immigration laws that excluded Asian immigrants while giving preference to Europeans (Dutcher, 1996).

The first official federal legislation on foreign language education for bilingual students was implemented in 1968 with the Bilingual Education Act (Thomas, 2017). It was released under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 and allocated federal funding “to rectify language deficiency” in students (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10). This act “is noted as the first official federal recognition of the needs of students with limited English speaking ability (LESA),” and it was revolutionary in helping students learn English (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988, p. 1).

ESEA and the BEA are significant in a consideration of policies related to the education of emergent bilingual students because they are often poor (Haneda, 2014), at high risk of dropping out of school (Callahan, 2013), and experience linguistic isolation in schools (Arias & Morillo-Campbell, 2008), including in art classrooms. (Thomas, 2017, p. 229)

“Poverty and linguistic isolation” of the past decades created rifts between “language minoritized students” and native English speakers, leaving behind “social and educational inequities” that the Bilingual Education Act attempted to address (Thomas, 2017, pp. 228-229). This act paved the way for a new focus on education policy, immigration policy, and linguistic research in America. Additionally, there was a spike that year in the number of permanent residents, nearly doubling from 253,265 permanent residents in 1958 to 454,448 permanent residents in 1968 (Migration Policy Institute, 2020). This data does not include the number of non-permanent residents and undocumented immigrants.

The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) required reauthorization every three to five years, and in a 1974 amendment the poverty criterion was dropped, which allowed the legislation to reach more students (Crawford, 1989).

The push to improve the fluency of non-native English speakers led to the 1966 creation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), a program still in wide international use (Fitzgerald, 1993). La Raza Unida, a political party centered on Chicano (Mexican-American) nationalism was founded in 1970. Concerned by the threat of cultural erasure, the party “boycotted schools to protest unequal treatment of Spanish-speaking students. They also won a majority of school board seats and immediately instituted a bilingual education program in their schools” (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 46). Although the party was dissolved 1978, it was successful in drawing attention to the needs of Mexican-Americans on many issues, including the need for bilingual language studies.

### *Lau v. Nichols (1974)*

During the same period the San Francisco, California, school system was forced to put measures in place to better integrate students of Chinese ancestry into the general public education system. Less than half of the students who lacked proficiency in English were provided with supplemental English instruction, and classes were routinely taught in English (“Lau v. Nichols,” n.d.). The students filed a lawsuit claiming that the lack of supplemental English instruction violated the Fourteenth Amendment and Civil Rights Act of 1964. *Lau v. Nichols*, arguably known as “the most important case in bilingual education,” made its way to the Supreme Court in 1974 (Brisk, 1981, p. 9). The Supreme Court ruled 9-0 for Lau, saying that the failure of supplemental English instruction “deprived those students of an opportunity to participate in the public education program” (“Lau v. Nichols,” n.d., para. 5). It “established the right of limited-English proficient students to special help in overcoming language barriers” (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10).

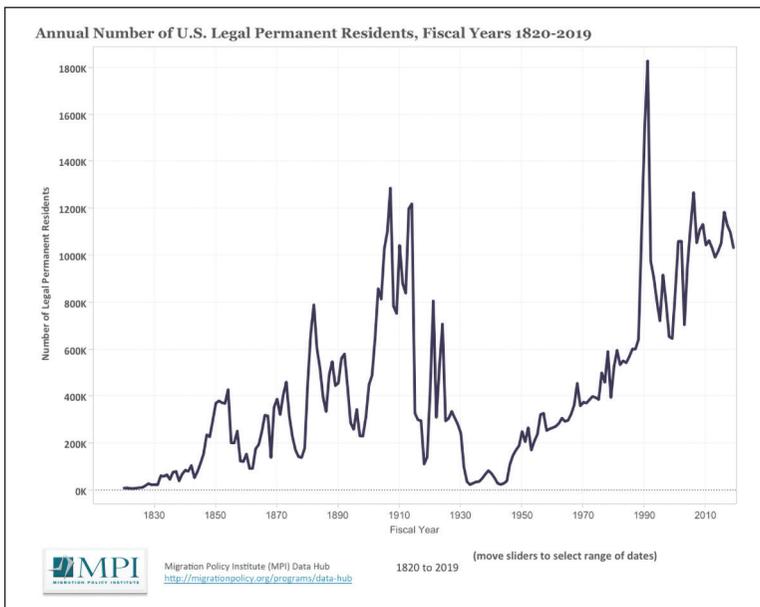
However, these so-called “Lau Remedies” became fiercely debated, partly because many regarded them as levying undue federal influence over what should have been state and local policies. In 1981, OCR [the Office for Civil Rights] withdrew the Lau Remedies and replaced them with a series of nonprescriptive measures. (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 41)

That same year, the 1974 Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) was enacted, which mandated that schools should address language barriers that hindered language-minority students from learning (Crawford, 1989). The focus on bilingual education continued when The National Association for Bilingual Education was formed in 1975. The Voting Rights Act was also amended in 1975 to authorize the use of bilingual ballots “in jurisdictions where language minorities exceeded 5% of the population and where illiteracy rates exceeded national norms” (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 43). By 1978, any non-English speaking person charged with a crime had “the right to a state-supplied interpreter through the criminal proceeding” (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10). These legislative acts fostered great change in the protection and support of minorities and non-native English speakers.

### 1980s-1990s

The education referendum movement of the 1980s and 1990s led to a great deal of research in all areas of education (Zelasko, 1991). This movement focused on language research, particularly bilingualism, as new waves of immigrants arrived in the United States.

**Figure 3.** Annual number of legal permanent residents in the United States from 1820 to 2019 (Migration Policy Institute, 2020).



Legal permanent residency rates hit an all-time historic high in 1991, when officially 1,826,595 immigrants received their Green Cards.

In the 1980s the largest group of immigrants arrived in the United States since the beginning of the century. There is no question that many citizens feel that the numbers of immigrants, refugees, and illegal entrants have generally increased. Many currently feel threatened by the societal burden placed on U.S. citizens by these individuals. (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 51)

This statement captures popular opinion toward efforts to assimilate immigrants during this period, which, despite the strides in protective legislation, still faced opposition. The nation began to be “dismissive” of bilingualism, and English monolingualism once again took precedence over “the use of other languages” (Thomas, 2017, p. 229). Despite revisions to the Bilingual Education Act in 1974, 1978, 1984, and 1988 (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988), the U.S. moved toward education monolingualism:

The next three reauthorizations of Title VII (in 1978, 1984, and 1988), however, had the net effect of dramatically weakening support for native-language instruction and boosting monies for English-only programs. The 1978 reauthorization amended language stated that native language would be used strictly to transition into English. (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 8)

These attitudes were very mixed; on the one hand, scientific research supported the benefit of knowing multiple languages, while at the same time, much of the American population was still uncomfortable with immigration. Studies found distinctions in the attitudes of mainstream Americans toward the multi-language proficiency and coined different terms to categorize these discrepancies: popular vs. elite bilingualism, natural vs. learned bilingualism, and group vs. individual bilingualism (Zelasko, 1991).

Aware that negative attitudes to the cultures of some minority peoples contributed to their erasure, The Native American Languages Act (1990) declared that “it is the policy of the United States to preserve, protect, and promote the rights and freedom of Native Americans to use, practice, and develop Native American languages” (Dutcher, 1996, p. 10). This slowed the rate of Native American language extinction and also brought a new focus to the unjust treatment of indigenous communities.

With increasing numbers of students aspiring for a post-secondary degree, by the mid-1990s all public education systems offered some type of non-English instruction. Japanese was a popular subject because Americans believed Japan to be one of the United States' greatest economic competitors, much like China today (Mitchell, 2017). The Goal 2000: Educate America Act of 1994 created a national recommended set of goals and standards in core subjects, which included foreign language education (Dutcher, 1996). Forty states required schools to offer at least two years of foreign language to students, and the remaining 10 states required college-bound students to study an additional language (Dutcher, 1996). Additionally, foreign language study was an admissions requirement at 26% of all colleges and universities by 1995 (Dutcher, 1996).

## Present Day

### *Social attitudes and the post-9/11 world*

With the rise of technology and globalized multimedia, people are free to express their personal views and learn about the views of others more accessibly and transparently than ever before, and more often than not, conversations are conducted in English.

English has come of age as a global language. It is spoken by a quarter of the world's population, enabling a true single market in knowledge and ideas. It now belongs to the world and increasingly to non-native speakers – who today far outnumber native speakers. (British Council, 2013, p. 3)

Much of today's immigration trends and major world events have molded the perspectives of people on either side of the political spectrum. Inarguably the most notable and world-changing of these events was the destruction of the World Trade Center's twin towers on 9/11/2001.

As a result of this attack inside U.S. borders in 2001, some lobbyists for foreign language education... suggest[ed] that the nation's educational institutions need to address education in the languages that are critical to U.S. national security, such as Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Hindi, and Farsi, according to ACTFL. (Sterniak, 2008, p. 97)

In the two years following the attack, overall immigration rates sharply declined, subsequently rising once again as shown in the chart below.

**Figure 4.** Immigration data from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America from 2000 to 2006 (Sterniak, 2008).

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

Despite the immigration numbers, statistics from 2017 show that only one in five American students are learning a foreign language in school (American Councils, 2017).

A total of 11 states have foreign language graduation requirements; 16 states do not have foreign language graduation requirements; and 24 states have graduation requirements that may be fulfilled by a number of subjects—one of which is foreign languages. (American Councils, 2017, p. 6)

In 2017 the most popular foreign language taught in schools was Spanish, with over 7 million students enrolled in a program (American Councils, 2017). Following Spanish in order of popularity came French, with over 1 million students, German, with over 330,000 students, and Chinese, with over 220,000 students. Arabic is currently the fastest-growing language taught in schools in the United States, but fewer than 0.25% of students studying a foreign language choose to learn it.

Arabic language teachers trained with post-9/11 government funding are finding jobs in schools around the country, but their lessons aren't always embraced or welcome. President Donald Trump's anti-Muslim rhetoric has re-ignited and perpetuated fears about the language and culture, and some of that angst has played out on school grounds. (Mitchell, 2017, para. 16-17)

More students are learning Latin, a dead language, than Arabic, which is the fifth-most spoken language in the world after Mandarin Chinese, English, Spanish, and Hindi.

At the collegiate level, foreign language learning in general is in decline. Across the United States, researchers from the Modern Language Association found that 651 foreign language programs were cut from American universities between 2013 to 2016 (Johnson, 2019). While 20%

of K-12 students study a foreign language, in 2016, only 7.5% of college students could say the same (Stein-Smith, 2019; Jaschik, 2018). “That was down from 8.1 [percent] three years prior, 9.1 [percent] in 2006 and figures over 10 [percent] in the 1960s and 1970s” (Jaschik, 2018, para. 8). Some of the “reasons given for the trend include the lingering effects of the Great Recession, declining enrollment and more colleges dropping language requirements” at the application stage (Stein-Smith, 2019, para. 4).

### *The COVID-19 pandemic and beyond*

Today, one of the most pressing questions many people have is how the COVID-19 pandemic will affect globalization in the coming years, which has historically driven much of the legislation in regard to foreign language education. Many students were not in an in-person school setting for over a year; in the transition to virtual learning, classes were conducted through computer screens, which might have hindered second-language instruction. A new wave of isolationism hit the United States as countries across the world closed their borders to slow the spread of the virus. While Rumbaut and Massey stated that “it is better to consider immigrant languages as a multidimensional resource to be preserved and cultivated rather than a threat to national cohesion and identity” (2013, p. 153), COVID-19 has changed the world’s perspective on their neighbors. It will be interesting to examine the enduring effects on the pandemic on American society, foreign language usage, and immigration.

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