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ABSTRACT

This is the final report of one of three studies in an overall project entitled "Evaluation of Bilingual Education Programs." This study was sponsored in response to a need for more information regarding bilingual-bicultural education for other than Spanish language groups. The study's objectives were to: (1) identify the major issues involved in bilingual-bicultural education for Native American, Indo-European Asian and Pacific language groups; (2) document the goals, approaches, resources or costs that have been affected by these issues; (3) assess the impact bilingual-bicultural education has had in their communities; and (4) recommend possible federal program changes. An in-depth study was conducted of 10 selected projects in Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Louisiana, Maine, Montana, New York, Rhode Island and Washington. The language groups included were Chinese, French, Inupiat Eskimo, Italian, Navajo, Northern Cheyenne, Passamaquoddy, Pilipino, Portuguese, Ute and Yupik Eskimo. The following are among the major conclusions and recommendations: (1) Some evidence exists that Title VII is having long-range benefits to the bilingual groups being served. (2) There is a general lack of materials, teaching skills, expertise in planning materials development, and evaluation at the local project level. One suggested improvement is to provide continuous technical assistance and training throughout the life of projects. (Author/RM)

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STUDY OF BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL PROJECTS INVOLVING NATIVE AMERICAN, INDO-EUROPEAN, ASIAN AND PACIFIC LANGUAGE GROUPS

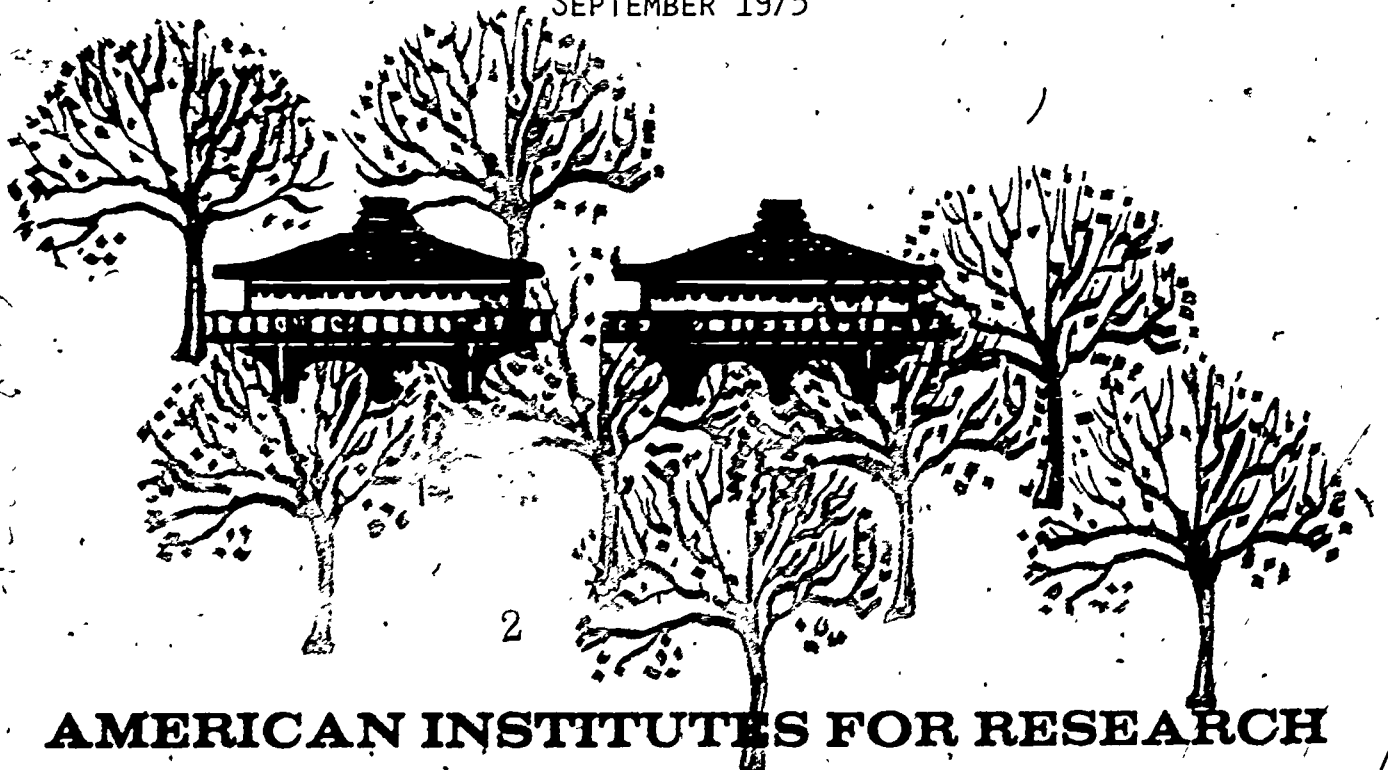
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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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STUDY OF BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL PROJECTS INVOLVING
NATIVE AMERICAN, INDO-EUROPEAN, ASIAN AND PACIFIC LANGUAGE GROUPS

A Study Completed Under
Contract No. OEO-D-74-9331
Evaluation of Bilingual Education Programs

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American Institutes for Research
in the Behavioral Sciences
Palo Alto, California

September 1975

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education

Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation

PREFACE

This document is the final report of one of three studies of an overall project titled "Evaluation of Bilingual Education Programs." The three studies are:

- Evaluation of the Title VII Spanish/English Bilingual Programs: Impact Study.
- The Identification and Description of Exemplary Bilingual Education Programs.
- Study of Bilingual-Bicultural Programs Involving Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups (the topic of this final report).

The studies form a part of the Office of Education's evaluation of the bilingual education programs under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (as amended). They were conducted by the American Institutes for Research for the Office of Program Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation under Contract No. OEC-0-74-9331. The OE project officer is Edward B. Glasman, and the AIR director of the overall project is Malcolm N. Danoff. The director of the present study is Richard A. Bond.

This study has explored a variety of issues in bilingual-bicultural education for non-Spanish language groups, documented how projects have developed in relation to these issues, investigated some of the costs associated with different approaches, and assessed the impact of various programs on the communities they serve. The purpose of this exploratory study has been to provide the Office of Education with new information about non-Spanish programs as a basis for their improvement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to express our appreciation to the project directors, school administrators, and staff at each of the 10 projects that were site visited during the course of this study. Their cooperation, assistance, and personal kindness made the site visits especially productive and enjoyable for us. We also wish to thank the local experts who conducted the community interviews for the 10 projects.

Acknowledgement is gratefully extended to the members of our Bilingual Advisory Panel for their guidance, suggestions, contributions, and encouragement.

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The following consultants deserve a special word of thanks for their assistance and contributions to the study.

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While we wish to acknowledge the important contributions that have been made by the Bilingual Advisory Panel and consultants to this project, the views expressed in this report must remain the responsibility of the authors and of the American Institutes for Research (AIR).

At AIR, we are grateful to Sharon McVicker for typing this report and assisting us throughout the study, to the members of the staff from the other two studies under this contract for their support and suggestions, and to Daryl Nichols and Eleanor Norris for their ideas and help in the preparation of this report.

SUMMARY

In response to a need for more information regarding bilingual-bicultural education for other than Spanish language groups, the American Institutes for Research (AIR), under contract to the U.S. Office of Education, conducted an exploratory study of bilingual-bicultural education involving Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups. The study's objectives were to identify the major issues involved in bilingual-bicultural education for these target groups, to document the goals, approaches, resources, or costs which have been affected by these issues, to assess the impact bilingual-bicultural education has had in their communities, and to recommend possible federal program changes.

An initial literature review of bilingual-bicultural education resulted in the identification of probable issues affecting the operation of bilingual projects. This review was followed by an in-depth study of 10 selected projects which included visits to each project site. Projects visited were in Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Louisiana, Maine, Montana, New York, Rhode Island, and Washington. The language groups included in the 10-site sample were Chinese, French, Inupiat Eskimo, Italian, Navajo, Northern Cheyenne, Passamaquoddy, Pilipino, Portuguese, Ute, and Yupik Eskimo.

The major conclusions and recommendations:

- Projects have generally been able to meet a variety of needs of diverse language and culture groups because of the flexibility provided them in the administration of Title VII.
- There is some evidence that Title VII is having long range benefits to the bilingual groups being served under this legislation. Examples: More persons with bilingual backgrounds are becoming involved with the education of their children as teachers and as advisors to projects; children and their communities seem to have improved their self-concepts and are valuing their languages and cultures to a greater degree; educational materials are being developed which represent the perspective of these language groups, whereas before such materials were not available.

- At the initial stages of project development, resources and skills are in short supply. Increased utilization of planning grants is suggested as one means for facilitating planning and development among new projects.

- There is a general lack of materials, teaching skills, expertise in planning materials development, and evaluation at the local project level. One suggested improvement is to provide continuous technical assistance and training throughout the life of projects.

- Local bilingual projects are often not well integrated into the ongoing educational system, and non-project faculty members may not feel either involved or committed to the projects. Suggested improvements include greater communication within the total educational community about purposes, plans, and status of Title VII projects; increased participation of non-project personnel in planning and instruction (perhaps team teaching); anticipating problems (such as displacement of non-project personnel); and seeking solutions early, thereby avoiding unnecessary hardships for non-project personnel.

- Materials which are adequate for the local language and culture are usually not available at the start of a project, and staff must spend a large amount of their time in developing them. Also, many local staff members who undertake this responsibility need initial training. It is suggested that dissemination centers play a larger and more active role in technical assistance, training, and the dissemination of materials among projects. In order to best achieve this, it is suggested that centers be accountable to the projects they serve.

- Summative evaluations at early stages of project development are often counterproductive. It is suggested that the emphasis during the early years be placed upon formative types of evaluation as a basis for project revision and improvement, and that summative evaluations be emphasized later after project goals and approaches have been set.

• A number of projects have experienced difficulty in planning the next year's activities and in retaining staff for a long period because funding is typically for one year only and notification of funding sometimes comes after the end of the school year. It is suggested that the Office of Education consider increasing the period of funding and that every effort be made to make funding notifications before the close of school.

• The individual needs of eligible children may require different approaches. Some projects have a transitional approach (native language to English), while others feel that they must work initially toward the restoration of the native language. In order to allow Title VII to more clearly encompass these various approaches, a change in the legislation would seem to be indicated.

• • Title VII generally funds projects which are of a demonstration nature, characterized by a limited period of funding. Local agencies are often unable to afford the continuation of projects after Title VII funding is terminated. Two suggestions have been made. The first is to provide federal help in seeking supplementary sources of funds, and the second is to explore amending present legislation to provide supplemental funding in communities that do not have a tax base, such as reservations.

• In schools where both racial and linguistic groups are found, neither full integration nor complete segregation can balance the interests of all. It is suggested that legislation be amended so that children in bilingual-bicultural programs at a given school do not have to be in integrated classes for at least a substantial portion of the day, and that no English-speaking children be excluded from bilingual-bicultural classes if they voluntarily choose to enroll.

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INTRODUCTION

Background

Schools in this country historically have focused on the educational needs of a dominant English-speaking population. The special needs of children from different language groups were not met programatically until 1968, when Congress enacted the Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Little was known at that time about the specific educational needs of non-English-dominant children, except perhaps that the needs were different because the children's language and culture were different. Most early studies focused on the educational problems of Spanish-speaking children, and other language groups were somewhat neglected.

In recent years, however, there has been a marked increase in the number of Title VII projects for non-Spanish groups. In 1973-74, Title VII funded 209 project grants involving 24 different language groups. The number of language groups increased to 42 in 1974-75, when 383 projects were funded. In this expansion, it has become apparent that much more must be known about Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups so that bilingual-bicultural programs can be more directly related to their educational needs.

Purpose

The present study was designed to benefit from the experience of on-going bilingual projects in helping to determine needed improvements. More specifically, the purpose was to identify and describe common and unique features of programs, determine whether differences in culture and language among target groups resulted in different approaches and concerns, examine resources and costs, assess the impact of such programs on the communities they serve, and make recommendations to OE for the improvement of bilingual-bicultural programs.

Procedures

This study was exploratory in the sense that it used several sources to gather information about those issues of most concern in the development, operation, and management of bilingual-bicultural projects. An initial literature review on bilingual-bicultural education resulted in the

identification of probable issues affecting the operation of bilingual projects. A formal report of these results was made in November, 1974. In order that we might be able to gather information in greater depth than that provided by the literature, a representative sample of 10 programs was selected for site visits. Interviews at each site were based in large part on the issues resulting from the earlier review of the literature, although sufficient flexibility was maintained to explore any pertinent avenues of concern to the projects and the communities they serve. Throughout this total exploratory process, a Bilingual Advisory Panel and other consultants provided inputs and valuable expertise.

Results

The present report primarily summarizes the results of the 10 site visits. However, its findings and resulting recommendations have benefited from what was learned from the literature and especially from the expert advice of consultants.

The report is organized in three sections:

Research Procedures (page 5) summarizes the responsibilities of the Bilingual Advisory Panel, methods for literature review, process for selection of the 10 sites, and procedures for collecting information during site visits.

Study Findings (page 17) explore a variety of concerns of bilingual-bicultural projects under eight general headings:

- a. Program planning
- b. Program management and administration
- c. Bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instruction
- d. Materials acquisition and development
- e. Staff recruitment and development
- f. Parent and community involvement
- g. Community impact
- h. Program and student evaluation

Conclusions and Recommendations (page 60) are presented in two parts. The first part is addressed to possible improvements which could be made by the Office of Education in support of individual bilingual-bicultural

projects. The second part concerns the impact of federal legislation under which the bilingual projects are funded. It suggests possible amendments of that legislation which could improve the effectiveness of bilingual education.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

To meet the objectives of this study, the following research procedures were followed:

1. An on-going advisory panel composed of knowledgeable individuals in the field of bilingual education was established to review plans and key documents at appropriate points during the study.
2. A literature review was conducted to identify issues in bilingual education that were particularly relevant to Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups.
3. Ten Title VII projects were selected for site visits so that some of the major issues could be further investigated.
4. Project documentation was requested and reviewed in advance of the site visits. Individual structured interviews were conducted with project staff and members of the community served by the project.
5. Data were organized to permit a comparative analysis.
6. Research findings were reported in terms of the study's established objectives.

Bilingual Advisory Panel

Assisting in the overall "Evaluation of Bilingual Education Programs" were a number of experts in the field of bilingual education. Some of these experts served on the Bilingual Advisory Panel. They are identified in the acknowledgements.

The Panel's functions in regard to the present study were as follows:

1. To advise, review, and make comments and suggestions on the various products submitted as part of this study. These included "The Identification of Issues in Bilingual Education of Particular Relevance to Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups"; "Final Study Design", which included the interview guides; and "Draft of the Final Report."
2. To advise on the criteria for selection of sites to be visited during data collection.

3. To make suggestions of possible Title VII projects to be site visited.
4. To review data collection procedures.
5. To review findings and advise on conclusions and recommendations.

This study also benefited from the advice of other experts in languages and cultures relevant to the study. These experts are also listed in the acknowledgements section.

Literature Review

The purpose of this review was to select the major issues which create different problems and concerns in bilingual education among Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups. Reviewed sources included journals, books, and ERIC documents regarding education, bilingual education, and the cultures of the target groups. Other important sources were Title VII project proposals and evaluation reports. All Title VII proposals for these target groups in fiscal year 1974-75 were reviewed.

The issues identified in this review provided key criteria for selecting the bilingual projects to site visit and served as a framework for developing issues and variables to be explored during data collection. The issues from the literature review were presented in a report submitted to the Office of Education in November, 1974, titled "Identification of Issues and Hypotheses in Bilingual Education of Particular Relevance to Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups" and are summarized in Appendix A.

Selection of Sample

A sample of 10 Title VII bilingual projects was selected for site visits from Title VII projects, other than Spanish, funded and operating in fiscal year 1974. Through examination of Title VII project proposals and evaluation reports, unique and common features of projects were determined so that sites could be selected which met two basic goals:

- Information gathered from the site visits would bear on the stated objectives of this project, and

Data obtained would be generalizable to the larger population of projects for Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups.

Listed below are the criteria used in selecting the programs.

1. Projects selected should be representative of the languages and cultures served by Title VII.

In fiscal year 1974-75, 383 bilingual projects had been established through Title VII, representing 42 different language groups. The "Study of Bilingual-Bicultural Education Involving Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups" surveyed 41 of these language groups, excluding Spanish. There were 23 different Native American language groups, 7 different Indo-European language groups, and 11 Asian and Pacific Island language groups. With the one exception noted in criterion 2 below, the 10 projects selected for site visits are representative of the proportion of projects for each language group: five Native American projects, three Indo-European projects, and two Asian and Pacific projects.

2. Projects selected should be generalizable to other language groups with the same concerns or problems.

Although the purpose of the exploratory study was to identify differences in bilingual projects of the target groups and reasons for those differences, it was also necessary to maintain some generalizability throughout the study. In some cases a project's situation was so unique that another project would not be able to replicate or use information from that site. This was particularly true with bilingual projects in Trust Territory areas, because of their special political, social, and educational climate. Hence, projects with unique features were selected only when they were generalizable to other Title VII bilingual projects.

3. Projects selected should have characteristics or concerns related to a significant number of the issues identified in the literature review.

The earlier literature review provided information regarding the target groups and identified issues and concerns in bilingual-bicultural education important to them. In selecting our sample of 10 projects, all available documents from operating Title VII projects for the target groups

were carefully reviewed, and major issues were identified. This review process and the issues were then used to identify projects which had unique problems or concerns and different approaches to solving these problems.

Because the size of our sample was relatively small, it would not have been possible to investigate all of the many important and unique issues identified in the literature review. To explore as many issues as possible, however, each project selected for site visits had to have a range of different issues in, and resulting approaches to, bilingual education. Thus, the data collected could provide groups that are interested in setting up new projects, or in revising old projects, with information that would be valuable in dealing with the same kind of issues.

Further consideration was given to the following points:

- Geographic dispersion of the projects
- Population served by the project
- Language(s) in the project
- Length of time operating under Title VII
- Future outlook of the project

On the basis of these criteria, 10 projects were selected for site visits and agreed to participate in the study.

Native American Sites

1. Alaska State Operated School System
Bilingual Education Program
Anchorage, Alaska

Bilingual Program in Inupiat Eskimo
Noorvik, Alaska

Bilingual Program in Central Yupik Eskimo
Atmautluak, Alaska
2. Rock Point Bilingual Education Program
(Navajo)
Chinle, Arizona
3. Project SUN
(Spanish, Ute, Navajo)
Cortez, Colorado
4. Wabnaki Bilingual Education Program
(Passamaquoddy)
Calais, Maine

5. Northern Cheyenne Bilingual Education Program
(Northern Cheyenne)
Lame Deer, Montana

Indo-European Sites

6. Lafayette Parish Bilingual Education Program
(French)
Lafayette, Louisiana
7. AVANTI - An Approach to Italian Bilingual Education
(Italian)
Brooklyn, New York
8. Portuguese Bilingual Education Program
Providence, Rhode Island

Asian and Pacific Language Sites

9. Bay Area Bilingual Education League (BABEL)
(Cantonese, Pilipino*, Spanish)
Berkeley, Richmond, Oakland, California
10. Seattle Bilingual Schools
(Cantonese, Pilipino, Spanish)
Seattle, Washington

All 10 bilingual education projects were located in the United States and represented a wide geographical distribution. In addition to their regional location, the projects were chosen for their various environmental aspects. The Alaska projects were in extremely isolated locations; four Native American sites were on reservations; and one Native American site was off reservation. All had varying degrees of isolation. The French project was located in a semi-rural area; and the Cantonese, Italian, Pilipino, and Portuguese projects operated in urban locales.

The characteristics of the population served also varied from project to project. Half of the projects served more than one language group, and all of the projects served students with wide ranges of language-speaking ability. Projects in urban areas served primarily recent immigrants, and Native American projects served indigenous children. Communities served by the bilingual projects were generally in low income areas where unemployment was high and the education level was low.

*Pilipino is used when reference is made to the language, while Filipino is used when reference is made to the people.

The projects varied in the length of time they had been operating under Title VII, which offered the opportunity to view the projects in varying stages of development. For example, two projects were in their first year of program operations (Seattle Bilingual Education Program; Project AVANTI). One project was in its third year under Title VII monies (Northern Cheyenne Bilingual Education Program). Two projects were in their fourth year (Wabnaki Bilingual Education Program; Rock Point Bilingual Education Program). Four projects were in their fifth year (Alaska State Operated School System; Lafayette Parish Bilingual Education Program; Project SUN; Bay Area Bilingual Education League). One project was in its sixth year of Title VII (Portuguese Bilingual Education Program).

In two of the projects, (Alaska State Operated Schools; BABEL) the project length varied. Though these projects had been operating under Title VII monies for five years, instructional programs which served language groups of interest to this study had not been in operation that long. The Pilipino program in BABEL and the Yupik Eskimo program at the village of Atmautluak were in their first year of operation, while the Inupiat Eskimo program at the village of Noorvik was in its second year of operation.

The size of the 10 projects offered a diversity of issues relevant to the study. The largest project was Alaska State Operated School System. This central agency provides bilingual education, under Title VII monies, to 45 villages in 12 native languages and some 28 different dialects. Two projects were a consortium of school districts providing bilingual education in several districts and schools. Project SUN in Cortez, Colorado, operates under the Southwest Board of Cooperative Services, providing bilingual education in five district schools for three language groups. The Bay Area Bilingual Education League in the San Francisco Bay Area is a consortium of four school districts providing bilingual education for three language groups.

All of the projects were providing bilingual education in the elementary grades, and one project, BABEL, also had bilingual classes operating in one high school. Most projects were undergoing vertical expansion each year such that the number of grades was often determined by the number of years under Title VII monies.

Data Collection Instruments

The exploratory nature of the present study necessitated a data collection plan that was structured enough to direct the study toward accomplishing its goals but flexible enough to accommodate the various issues, concerns, and project differences involved. To meet these specifications, a program documentation package (Appendix B) was developed. This package was designed to compile systematic data about each project site. However, it also had to allow for site-specific differences, since the projects were in varying stages of development, served different language groups, had different objectives, faced different problems and concerns, and used a variety of approaches to bilingual education.

Therefore, the package outlined in a general way the kind of data to be collected but without specifying the exact questions to be asked. Each site required alterations to the outline to enable exploration of site-specific issues and to permit different approaches to the collection of the data.

The program documentation package included data collection guides designed to obtain descriptive information about the following: the project's general operating procedures, specific information about the project's components, the unique features and issues in bilingual education that affect the project's operation, the project's impact on the community, and cost factors that affect the project's development or operation. It outlined a comprehensive approach to data collection, whereby information could be sought from a variety of sources, including project documents, project staff, parents, community members, and community groups.

Data collection guides were developed through the cooperative efforts of AIR staff, Bilingual Advisory Panel members, and consultants to the study. During January and February of 1975, draft versions of the data collection plan were submitted to OE, Bilingual Advisory Panel members, and consultants for review, comments, and suggestions. Based on feedback from the reviewers, AIR staff made revisions to guides prior to field use.

Site Visits

Ten bilingual projects operating in 17 schools were site visited

during March, April, and May of 1975. During these site visits, AIR staff observed classrooms and project operations, interviewed project staff and community members, examined available project documents, and verified information obtained prior to the visit. In order to maximize the opportunity to obtain information at each site and to ensure that each site visit was as unobtrusive and nondisruptive as possible, AIR staff obtained project documents before the site visits, established contact through telephone conversations and correspondence, and informed the project director of the kinds of information needed and the lines of inquiry to be pursued during site visits.

Site visit teams. Each of the 10 site visits involved a two-person team. One of the authors of this report served as one member of the team. An expert from the bilingual project's community, working as a consultant to AIR, was the second team member.

These local experts were located through contact with project directors. Experts generally had the following characteristics and qualifications:

1. A cultural and linguistic background similar to the native language group;
2. Familiarity with the project and community being site visited;
- and
3. Some familiarity with research procedures or prior experience with consulting and/or evaluation work.

The purpose of having a local expert was to facilitate interviews in the project and in the community. Specifically, the experts committed three to five days to the study and were responsible for the following site visit tasks:

1. Interview community members, using the interview guides to collect community impact data;
2. Translate and summarize results of the interviews;
3. Assist, when necessary, in other details of data collection such as interviewing project staff.

Prior to data collection, the AIR staff member met with the local expert for a mutual orientation and training session. At that time, the AIR staff member solicited more information regarding the community and prepared the local expert for the community interviews. The goals of the study, the proposed data collection plan, interview ethics and procedures were explained fully to the local expert, with role playing as the primary training technique. In many cases, the AIR staff member accompanied the local experts in the community, providing on-going training as was needed. In other projects, the AIR staff member held informal meetings with the local expert after the interviews to examine the results and to provide additional advice or suggestions as were necessary.

Community Interviews

Various members of the communities served by the bilingual projects were interviewed at each site to explore issues related to the impact the project had had on the community. Those interviewed included parents of students, community leaders, and other persons recommended by project staff. Since the study was exploratory, the sample of parents and other community members was selected by the project staff and the local expert, with guidance from the AIR staff member. An attempt was made to sample parents and community members who would be representative of the population and who also would be willing to voice their opinions and views.

The local expert personally contacted these persons to determine their willingness to participate in the study and to schedule a convenient time for the interview. Interviews took place in the community, often at an individual community member's home. To compensate for his/her time and assistance, a five dollar stipend was given to each interviewee.

Data Recording Procedures

Note taking and/or tape recording were the primary methods used in preserving the information collected during site visits. The tape recorder was used during interviews if the interviewee felt comfortable with it. Most of the interviews with the project staff involved both note taking and recording, while most interviews in the community involved only note taking. However, tape recordings of community interviews were used in communities

when a majority of community members were monolingual in their native language. Careful translations were then possible after the interview.

At the end of data collection, the AIR staff member reviewed project information collected at the site with the project director. This provided an early opportunity for mutual review, comments, additions, or deletions to project data.

Data Analysis and Reporting

Upon completion of data collection, a project summary was written for each of the sites. The project summaries were based on the following outline:

- I. Project Overview
 - A. Identification
 - B. Objectives and Procedures
 - C. Staffing
 - D. Facilities
- II. Program Components
 - A. Program Planning
 - B. Program Management and Administration
 - C. Bilingual-Bicultural Curriculum and Development
 - D. Materials Acquisition and Development
 - E. Staff Recruitment and Development
 - F. Parent and Community Involvement
 - G. Program and Student Evaluation
- III. Community Impact
- IV. Issues to Bilingual-Bicultural Education of Particular Relevance to Site

The summary format provided a basis for examining the data across sites and preparing a comprehensive, comparative analysis.

Following the writing of summaries, findings from all 10 projects were reviewed and compared, one component at a time, to identify problems and issues that seemed most significant. A discussion of the significant issues, supported by relevant findings, is presented in the Study Findings

section of the present report. These findings were then analyzed by the Bilingual Advisory Panel, a number of consultants, and the study staff. The resulting conclusions and recommendations are presented in the final section.

STUDY FINDINGS

The study findings are organized under the following general headings.

1. Program Planning
2. Program Management and Administration
3. Bilingual-Bicultural Curriculum and Instruction
4. Materials Acquisition and Development
5. Staff Recruitment and Development
6. Parent and Community Involvement
7. Community Impact
8. Program and Student Evaluation

Under each of these general headings, a number of topics emerged as important foci for summary and analysis of findings. Some topics are unique to only one or several bilingual programs, while others are of common concern to a number of programs.

Program Planning

As each bilingual project plans its operations, it must complete several steps. Each project must conduct a needs assessment; prepare a proposal which will address these needs; plan a curriculum; obtain, adapt, and develop instructional materials appropriate to the curriculum; recruit, hire, and train staff; and gather widespread support for the project. These planning and proposal development stages are part of an on-going process which occurs each year. The 10 bilingual projects visited encountered a number of problems in undergoing this process. These major issues are discussed under the following topic headings:

- Preparation time for beginning projects;
 - Proposal preparation;
 - Budget preparation;
 - Funding uncertainties;
 - Notification of funding;
 - Title VII and other federal program policy conflicts;
 - Title VII and desegregation policy conflicts; and
 - Project continuation.
- Preparation time for beginning projects. Many projects had

insufficient time to prepare their instructional programs before classroom instruction was to begin. For example, several Native American projects were committed to providing an instructional program in the school in their first year of operation. In the first year, the local language had not been written; there were limited instructional materials; and the instructional staff were not prepared adequately for classroom instruction. These factors contributed to the inadequacy of the bilingual curriculum in the first year and to some criticism from the school administrators and teachers. Project staff felt that much of this could have been avoided if they were allowed to enter the classroom after some initial problems had been resolved.

- Proposal preparation. Project directors considered proposal preparation and its impact on on-going work each year to be a problem. They noted that just when the teachers, curriculum and materials developers, project directors, and other project staff were involved in developing the curriculum for the current year, they had to shift their thinking and prepare for the following year. Based on experience from less than a half of the project year, staff had to consider goals, needs, problems, and projected budgets to be documented for the next proposal. Much time and effort was taken away from the project when staff were not directly applying all manpower to carrying out the tasks at hand.

Another concern among projects was the changes in Title VII regulations which affected proposal preparation. Notice of these changes came late in proposal preparation, sometimes after the proposal had been prepared. These regulations were often not explained adequately to project directors, making it difficult for them to make the necessary adjustments in the proposal.

- Budget preparation. Budget preparation requires careful evaluation of one's needs for the following year and preparation of meticulous cost projections to meet those needs. However, project staff noted there were no equitable criteria for developing budgets. One project was told what they could include, while another project was left uninformed. As a result, budgets were cut in areas where there was a real need, with no explanations from the Office of Education (OE). Several projects felt that OE was too far removed from the people. They indicated a need for guidance from

Title VII, yet their travel to Washington was too expensive, thus impractical.

- Funding uncertainties. After the proposal was prepared and submitted, there was a long waiting period before notification of funding was given. Directors noted that this situation hampered long-range planning. Staff members with families to support were concerned about not having their positions refunded, and despite their commitment to the project, they often accepted more stable jobs elsewhere. Also, personnel felt that training in specialty areas might become obsolete if their positions were not there the following year. This was especially true for projects nearing their fifth year of operation.

The Title VII funding uncertainties were also compounded by local funding uncertainties. In Seattle and New York, for example, regular school operations were dependent upon a tax levy that must be passed each year. If the levy does not pass, state or city support of the bilingual program is in jeopardy. Consequently, a condition for continued Title VII support might not be met.

- Notification of funding. For those projects whose proposal have been approved, the notification of Title VII funding came very late in the school year, typically after June 30. Projects could not hire staff for the following year nor could work continue on the project until funding was secure. For example, one project was notified three weeks before the fall term was to begin that they had been funded. Although the program had been operating for a year, expansion plans required additional teachers, classrooms, materials, coordination, and planning with school principals.

- Title VII and other federal policy conflicts. In Seattle, a principal expressed concern over the implementation of a new bilingual program for Chinese students because of conflicts that he perceived with other federally-financed programs in the school. During the current year, two kindergarten classes at the school were involved in a Follow Through program using the DISTAR approach to reading. For success, the Follow Through program required that students be grouped according to DISTAR specifications. Consequently, any new program that involved different groupings for the students would affect the existing Follow Through program. The principal

was concerned that the new bilingual program would dilute the benefits of what was proving to be a successful Follow Through program. There was a possibility that the new bilingual program would jeopardize the school's eligibility for Follow Through funding by not permitting them to meet all of the mandated requirements.

- Title VII and desegregation policy conflicts. Integration and busing were reported as troublesome issues by two projects. Interpreting and applying desegregation laws might create a situation in direct conflict to the project's goal of meeting the individual needs of project children. If children are grouped by language dominance for bilingual instruction, then they are segregated along ethnic lines. For example, if Italian children who are white are grouped for Italian instruction, they are segregated from black children. When this occurs, the desegregation law appears to be violated. Project AVANTI's approach to this dilemma was to group children in academic subjects by language dominance and ability, thus facilitating meeting students' educational needs. However, these children are not grouped for nonacademic subjects such as art, music, and physical education. Though this project has met this problem successfully, the federal government has not provided guidelines to help federally-aided projects cope with federal policies that seemingly contradict one another.

In Rhode Island, the Portuguese have built a community around their language. Almost all children in the local school are Portuguese and speak Portuguese. Under the desegregation laws, they will now have to be bused outside of the community. They anticipate this situation will result in some Portuguese children being deprived of bilingual education in the integrated schools where bilingual instruction is not offered.

- Project continuation. Title VII legislation has required local educational agencies (LEAs) to indicate their support for the bilingual projects by gradually absorbing each year some costs of the project. This is not feasible in some communities that do not have a tax base from which additional revenue can be sought.

Each Native American project located on reservations indicated that this situation prevented LEAs from continuing the bilingual projects. Through there may be support from local communities, local school administrators,

and school boards for the bilingual projects, the individual states or in some cases, the Bureau of Indian Affairs makes the decisions regarding appropriations to these schools. At Rock Point, the local school board contracts for control of the school from the Bureau of Indian Affairs; however, there is no additional revenue for bilingual education that can be sought from the BIA for the project costs. Likewise in Maine and Montana, the Passamaquoddy and Northern Cheyenne schools are funded from the respective states, since no local tax revenue exists. Different state educational priorities and lack of state revenue prevent the LEAs from absorbing the costs of the project.

Among Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language projects, district and state appropriations determine if bilingual projects would survive. In Louisiana, the local community is economically depressed and cannot absorb the costs of the project. In New York, the city's present financial crisis strongly suggests cutbacks in city programs, including bilingual education.

Program Management and Administration

The major issues involved for projects in program management and administration are discussed under the following topics:

- School support;
 - Acquisition of project office and classroom space;
 - Administrative issues in serving multiple schools and districts;
- and
- Administrative issues in serving multiple language groups.
 - School support. An important issue in administration for bilingual projects is the degree of support the project receives from the school administrators and personnel. The attitudinal response from the school toward the project can have a positive or adverse effect on many aspects of the project. For example, projects that had a supportive school administration and staff were successfully integrated within the total school program. There was a cooperative attitude among both project and school staff such that the project was developing well. New ideas in changing curriculum training or materials development were successfully integrated with a minimum of chaos.

However, where the school administration's attitude was described as "tolerant," more problems prevailed. Native paraprofessionals lacked support and reinforcement from the school staff, and felt unequal to the teachers in the school. Change within the school was also difficult, and the relationship between school and project administrators was strained. Projects reported that the support of the school for the project was a key factor in their successful development.

Other problems encountered in getting support from school teachers for the bilingual project are discussed below.

1. Displacement of non-bilingual teachers. At several projects, the long-range plan called for adding a grade level each year to the bilingual program. Thus, a program which started out serving just kindergarten and first grade students would expand vertically, adding one grade level each year until by the sixth year there was a bilingual class at each grade level. This meant that each year a regular class was replaced by a bilingual class and that a regular teacher was displaced by a bilingual teacher. The vertical expansion of the bilingual program was viewed as a threat to the job security of the regular teachers. Older teachers who had viewed their position at the schools as secure until retirement were particularly threatened. This condition sometimes led to competition and a divisive rather than a cooperative spirit between the bilingual staff and the regular school staff.

2. Instructional assistants for bilingual teachers. When instructional assistants were provided for the bilingual teachers, while regular teachers with the same class load did not have assistants, some tension resulted. Project directors were sensitive to distinctions made between Title VII and non-Title VII teachers.

3. Released time and special workshops for bilingual teachers. Policies which permitted the bilingual teachers to have some released time for visiting bilingual classrooms at other schools or to attend special workshops were sometimes seen as unfair practices by regular classroom teachers. Regular teachers felt that they should have similar benefits since they had equal responsibilities.

• Acquisition of project office and classroom space. While most projects had little difficulty in securing the necessary space for project operations, two Native American projects had a different situation. Because several federal projects were operating in the school and on the reservation, there were no office or work facilities for project staff. Consequently, the project's first most costly acquisition had to be a mobile trailer, where curriculum and materials development and project administration were conducted.

In another Native American project, there was no additional classroom space where bilingual-bicultural classes could take place. Since the tribe wanted only native children, learning the native language, separate facilities were necessary. Under the Johnson O'Malley Act, funds were secured for a mobile classroom located beside the school.

• Administrative issues in serving multiple schools and districts. Extensive travel, its costs, and its impact on individual schools were the major issues among projects serving multiple schools and districts. Project SUN provides bilingual education in five districts for three language groups: Spanish, Ute, and Navajo. The central project office is located in Cortez, Colorado; however, the schools are as far as 75 miles away from the main office. As a result, the project director is limited to traveling to each site only once a month because of the distance of schools from one another and the amount of administrative paperwork involved in operating the large project. Project instructional staff in each school must work autonomously, using the central Title VII project office as a service organization to provide whatever help, advice, training, and materials are needed. However, this creates an additional burden on the local native instructors who lack the necessary training to always work alone.

In Alaska where there are programs in some 72 different rural villages, instructional staff at each school rely on support services provided by the Alaska State Operated School System's (ASOSS) regional office and the central office in Anchorage. Despite this available assistance, the isolation of villages and the difficulty, sometimes impossibility, and expense of travel make it difficult to aid local sites extensively. Out of necessity, an autonomous situation for staff in these programs is created, requiring that the local school and staff develop much of their own

materials and solve their own local problems.

In Project AVANTI, the director was able to visit each of the three schools once a week and maintain frequent telephone contact with an on-site coordinator. This approach was successful in avoiding and solving problems created by an off-site administrator.

• Administrative issues in serving multiple language groups. Projects serving more than two language groups had unique concerns. For example, the Project SUN's director noted the following concerns:

1. Experts in Ute and Navajo culture are needed. The project cannot make decisions which affect these tribes without consulting them, and parents do not always know what is acceptable to the tribe. Among the Ute people, there are many concerns regarding the use of the language and culture in the school. Primarily, they fear the language and culture will be misused by non-Utes.

2. Each language group needs separate coordination of programs since each has its unique needs.

This project and others found it necessary to rely on community committees and individual community liaisons to aid the projects in providing appropriate bilingual-bicultural education programs to meet the communities' unique needs.

3. One set of curriculum objectives has been prepared for all schools in the project, which cross all language groups, but some objectives are not appropriate for all and need further work to be individualized to schools and language groups.

Bilingual-Bicultural Curriculum and Instruction.

Efforts in planning, administration, staff and materials development, community involvement, and evaluation are aimed at providing the most effective bilingual-bicultural education program to meet the educational, linguistic, and cultural needs of the project's target population. The most important focal points of these efforts are the bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instruction. As a result, the major issues found in all the other components ultimately affect this one component, and in many instances, the other problems serve to weaken the bilingual-bicultural

curriculum and instruction,

While issues from all components overlap and intersect one another, for discussion purposes they have been artificially classified. The most pressing issues of the bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instruction are those which deal with the effect of lack of resources, such as materials and staff. The discussion of these issues will be presented in detail within the components of materials acquisition and development and staff recruitment and development.

In this section of the findings, the major issues of the bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instruction are discussed under the following topics:

- Cultural and linguistic considerations of students participating in projects;

- Goals of bilingual-bicultural education;
- Bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instructional approaches;
- Bilingual-bicultural curriculum resources;
- Culture and curriculum; and
- Differences in language learning.

- Cultural and linguistic considerations of students participating in projects. The students participating in the 10 bilingual projects represented a wide range of cultural backgrounds and linguistic ability. In projects situated in urban areas, a majority of the target students were monolingual in their native language, because of the large influx of recent immigrants into the cities. New arrivals generally move to areas where there is a common language, and as a result, there is little use of English in these communities. Children enter school virtually monolingual speakers of their native language.

Likewise, in Native American reservations or villages where native people are isolated from the Anglo towns and influences, the majority of the children who enter school speak only their native language. In the Rock Point Bilingual Education Program, Navajo children live in a total Navajo socio-linguistic environment. There is little motivation or environmental pressure to use English. Since students are exposed to very limited English during the school day, the majority of students remain primarily

Navajo speakers throughout their school years. These situations create an acute need for recognition and use of the native language and culture in the school.

When the Native Americans leave the reservation, they are in a similar position as immigrant families. They move to a community where there are other native speakers, often these are relatives and friends. One of the sites visited was providing bilingual-bicultural education in a community largely populated by off-reservation Navajos. The students within the project had a wide range of English and Navajo-speaking background. Those who were recent arrivals from the nearby Navajo reservation were primarily monolingual speakers of Navajo. Other Navajos who had been residents of the community longer either spoke or understood Navajo. The transition from the Navajo reservation to this off-reservation community was greatly facilitated by the bilingual education project.

In many of the projects, however, a majority of target students had limited English-speaking ability. The dominant language in the home was other than English, though students were exposed to an English-speaking environment in school, in local towns, or through television. Project directors noted that students learn a different form of English in their community, often a combination of English and their native language. This creates limited English usage. These students often function as slow learners principally because of previous limited exposure to the standard English on which the regular program is structured.

Several projects had a majority of students who were primarily English speakers, but who spoke a different English dialect. In these communities, the home or community environment encouraged English speaking, but it was a variant form of English that was encouraged. Project staff reported that students were reluctant to talk to teachers and their English-speaking peers because of their accent or English. Further, self-concept and achievement were adversely affected. Project directors and teachers felt it was necessary to provide bilingual-bicultural instruction for these children as it equipped them with skills necessary to foster standard English and helped them develop a positive self-concept.

- Goals of bilingual-bicultural education. The goals of bilingual-

bicultural education followed two major themes among all projects. 1) The first goal was to provide native children with successful educational experiences relevant to their language and culture. Inherent within this goal was the development of a positive self-concept and an appreciation of and maintenance of ties with their cultural heritage. 2) The second goal was to provide children with the necessary skills to function successfully in an English-speaking environment.

While the first goal was common among projects, the second goal varied among projects in terms of the extent to which it was reached. For example, all projects were asked to describe their projects according to Fishman and Lovas' (1970) categories of bilingual education patterns, which are described as follows:

1. Transitional bilingualism: In programs of this nature, the mother tongue is used only until the children adjust to school and are able to follow the academic subjects in the second language.

2. Monoliterate bilingualism: Programs of this nature have as a goal the development of oral language in the mother tongue and the second language; but reading is taught only in the second language. Programs with this kind of orientation represent an intermediate stage between language shift and language maintenance.

3. Partial bilingualism: Programs of this nature have as an objective fluency and literacy in both languages, but literacy in the mother tongue is limited to some content areas, preferably those that have direct relation to the culture of the linguistic group.

4. Full bilingualism: In programs where full bilingualism is the main goal, students are taught all skills in both languages in all domains.

Table A indicates how the 10 projects characterized their bilingual programs. Some projects characterized themselves in more than one category indicating a broader range of goals.

Although Rock Point Bilingual Education Program indicated it was working toward full bilingualism, not all subject areas can be taught in both English and Navajo. Some subject areas, such as science and social studies, must be taught only in Navajo because students are not proficient

Table A
Range of Project Goals

Project Sites	Current bilingual education patterns			
	Tran- sitional	Mono- literate	Partial	Full
1. Alaska State Operated School System.	X	X	X	X
2. Northern Cheyenne Bilingual Education Program			X	
3. Project SUN		X	X	
4. Rock Point Bilingual Education Program				X
5. Wabnaki Bilingual Education Program		X	X	
6. Lafayette Parish Bilingual Education Program				X
7. Project AVANTI	X			
8. Portuguese Bilingual Education Program	X		X	
9. Bay Area Bilingual Education League			X	
10. Seattle Bilingual Education Program			X	

enough in English to take advantage of science taught in English. Proficiency in English often is not achieved until students are in the eighth or ninth grade. Also, some social studies concepts regarding Navajo culture cannot be discussed in English because there are no English counterparts.

Alaska State Operated School System operates under a state mandate for bilingual education. The regulations and administrative procedures proposed by ASOSS to interpret Alaska Statute 14.08.160(a) concerning bilingual education reflect a philosophy which is consistent with a bilingual-bicultural

approach, but it also places the responsibility for determining the specific project objective for a given school on the regional superintendent, school staff, advisory school board, and local community. The end result is that bilingual education goals and approaches vary widely from school to school.

Two of the projects indicated that their present bilingual education pattern does not reflect their ultimate goals. Northern Cheyenne Bilingual Education Program is attempting to work toward full bilingualism, and Project SUN is working toward language maintenance. Their problems in writing the native languages and in the subsequent related areas of materials development, curriculum development, and training of teachers make it difficult at this time to reach their goals, but they envision a gradual process toward them.

- Bilingual-bicultural curriculum and instructional approaches. The approaches utilized in the 10 projects were developed based on the linguistic patterns of the participating children, their needs, and the instructional philosophy of the project. Though bilingual approaches varied, they can be described in three basic categories: for primarily monolingual speakers, for children limited in English-speaking ability, and for children whose first language is primarily a variant form of English.

1. Bilingual instruction for primarily monolingual speakers. In projects where the majority of children participating in the project were monolingual speakers of the native language, the approaches were similar. Starting in kindergarten, the medium of instruction was the native language. All new concepts were introduced in the native language, while some oral English instruction was provided in English as a Second Language (ESL) class. As students developed more English language comprehension, they were introduced to reading and writing in English, transferring skills learned in their native language. English usage was also increased in other subject areas, although the native language was used to reinforce these subject areas. With this as the basic foundation, teaching strategies were found to be noticeably different among projects. For example, in Project AVANTI, first and second grade students in one school participated in a pilot study in which they received one-half day instruction in English from an English-dominant bilingual teacher and one-half day in Italian from

an Italian-dominant bilingual teacher. Two separate classrooms were used for the two languages. The teachers felt that this spatial determination of language usage decreased the amount of confusion students experienced as a result of using two languages.

In Rock Point Bilingual Education Program, a Navajo language teacher (NLT) taught only in the Navajo and an English language teacher (ELT) taught only in English. This team teaching approach took place simultaneously in one classroom, with teachers working separately but cooperatively at opposite ends of the same classroom. The ELT was essentially a foreign language teacher, providing instruction in English as a foreign language and any mathematical concepts which already have been introduced in Navajo by the NLT. Gradually, the pattern reversed in the upper grades, and students were introduced and required to use more English. However, the Navajo language was maintained and reinforced. This approach placed greater emphasis and importance on the equality of two teachers: the two teachers working together as a two-language team instead of a subordinate relation between an English language teacher and a Navajo language aid.

2. Bilingual instruction for children of limited-English-speaking ability. The majority of the 10 projects had children who were limited in their English-speaking ability. Because children could communicate in both languages, though in limited degrees, there was more flexibility in teaching strategies. Depending on the students' ability and readiness, units of instruction were provided in both English and the native language.

Most projects followed an established curriculum or set of performance objectives, resulting in parallel curriculum content in both languages. The local culture was incorporated into the curriculum, especially in language arts and social studies. In schools that used district-adopted texts, instruction in the cultural history or heritage was limited to locally developed instructional materials which were relevant to the local culture and which served to augment the established curricula.

The medium of instruction used in the classrooms varied with subject matter and with the language ability of the students and teachers. Most projects had in each classroom an English-dominant teacher and a native teacher or paraprofessional. The English-dominant teacher taught language.

arts, social studies, science, and math in English, while the native teacher taught language arts and social studies in the native language, also reinforcing the other subjects in the native language. The native teacher also provided individual instruction or small group instruction as needed.

In some schools, the lack of native teachers for each classroom required a different approach. In these schools, a team of native teachers or instructors either rotated among classrooms or took students by grades out of the regular classroom for bilingual-bicultural instruction. A major disadvantage of this approach was that it did not allow for reinforcement and continuity of subjects taught by either the regular classroom teacher or the native teacher.

3. Bilingual instruction for English-speaking children. Several projects had children who were primarily English speakers though they came from non-English dominant homes or from environments where a variant dialect of English was spoken. These projects sought to retain, sometimes restore, the native language, to provide children with successful experiences in their native language and culture, to develop self-concept, and to encourage the use of standard English.

The approach utilized focused on oral language development. Basic vocabulary concepts were introduced using culturally relevant materials. When students had developed some facility in the various sounds in the native language through vocabulary building, they were introduced to the written form of the language (when the language was written) and to structural patterns of the language. Because the medium of instruction for the most part was English, there was often difficulty in making adequate translations from the native language into English since translations from some native languages are quite difficult. Also, the limits of this approach are that only pieces of the native language are learned. In one community, parents felt children should learn usable phrases and sentences in the native language, instead of merely vocabulary words.

In two projects, an orthography had not been established at the beginning of the project, thus the instructional approach was very limited. Without an orthography, vocabulary enrichment and development of cultural arts and crafts were the sole basis of the curriculum. The native instructors experienced some frustration at the lack of concrete materials or

stimuli to aid students in grasping the language concepts. Further, the curriculum was established on a piecemeal basis since curriculum content depended greatly on the linguist's and materials developer's ability to prepare the appropriate materials.

- Lack of resources. One major issue related to bilingual curriculum and instruction was the lack of instructional materials to augment the bilingual curriculum. Since native teachers lacked training in materials development, additional specialized personnel were necessary to help prepare the curriculum, to acquire and develop materials, and to train teachers in other needed areas.

Lack of resources also presented a major problem in vertical expansion of the bilingual program. Without an adequate base for the bilingual curriculum in the lower grades, projects felt it was futile to try to expand the curriculum. To accommodate the needs of students in the upper grade levels, bicultural activities were usually provided. Though inadequate in terms of meeting student needs, this approach was necessary until the curricula in the lower grades were more fully developed.

- Culture and curriculum. All projects agreed it was necessary to incorporate the culture of the native people into the curriculum, but there were several Native American communities that felt the project and school should not deal with subjects which were considered sacred to the tribe. In these projects, a community-based school board or committee decided which aspects of their culture and heritage could be presented in the school.

In Rock Point Bilingual Education Program, the all-Navajo school board determines what cultural aspects may be included in the curriculum, both for English and Navajo curricula. In the past the distinctions between the secular-sacred subject areas have created problems between Navajo traditionalists and Navajo Christians. The Navajo school board now considers all subject matter to avoid antagonizing either the traditionalists or Christians in the community.

In Project SUN, the Ute Mountain Ute tribe had in the past forbidden Anglo children from being included in the bilingual instruction because the tribe felt that their native language and culture might be further abused. A recent change in attitude among the people will enable non-Ute children

to be included in the language classes next year; however, cultural content within the curriculum will continue to be regulated by the tribe.

• Differences in language learning. Which specific method of bilingual-bicultural instruction to produce the most positive results is unknown. Each project had its own variation. However, projects reported that the native language should be the first language of instruction. The advantages of this approach are best illustrated in the Rock Point Bilingual Education Program.

In this project, all Navajo children enter school as primarily Navajo speakers. Learning English for these children is very difficult due to the many differences in learning Navajo and English. For example, the Navajo written system is based on 13 letters, all of which are very consistent in sounds. However, the English alphabet has 26 letters; most of these sounds are foreign to Navajo. These are the "r," "f," "v," and "q" sounds. Because of the difficulty children have with these sounds, the English alphabet is not introduced until the second grade or when the children have mastered some Navajo word attack skills. Also, the Navajo language has a shape gender but no masculine/feminine gender, has no adjective articles, and no hard "ed" or "t" endings. These areas are of particular difficulty to young children. Furthermore, it was pointed out that children who function in Navajo find the use of English limiting since it does not have as wide a range of flexibility as Navajo. As a result, English reading introduced later seems to facilitate a tendency toward better reading in word attack skills and comprehension. This approach further provides continual concept development in Navajo, which can be later transferred into English.

Materials Acquisition and Development

A key concern of all bilingual education projects regardless of the native language, and one that consumes a great deal of staff time and energy, is the acquisition and development of instructional materials which are relevant and meaningful to the children being taught. For all of the 10 projects the general problem of obtaining appropriate instructional materials was a significant one. When materials could not be obtained, projects developed their instructional materials and/or adapted other materials for native language instruction. The issues involved in these processes

are discussed under the following topic areas:

- Acquisition of commercially-produced instructional materials;
- Acquisition of materials produced by other bilingual projects;
- Orthography development;
- Dialect differences;
- Special service and dissemination centers; and
- Costs for developing materials.

● Acquisition of commercially-produced instructional materials. Most teachers rely on commercially-produced materials as the core of their instructional programs. For teachers who use English as the medium of instruction with English-speaking children, there is an abundance of materials to draw from, so that reviewing and selecting from what is available is itself a major task in planning a curriculum. For teachers who use languages other than English as a medium of instruction, the situation is strikingly different. For most languages, there is very little material available, and for others there is none. Those non-English materials which are available are typically produced outside of the United States, involving considerable time (often months) and expense in obtaining them even before it can be determined how useful they will be. For most projects, materials obtained outside of the United States need extensive modification before they can be used.

The problems in the availability and adequacy of commercially-produced materials are well documented by the following experiences of the 10 projects. While some commercially-produced materials are available in the Navajo language, for most Native American projects, including Inupiat Eskimo, Northern Cheyenne, Passamaquoddy, and Ute, commercially-produced instructional materials in the native languages simply do not exist. In the Inupiat Eskimo project in Noorvik, Alaska, the only materials at hand were Bible translations from English to Inupiat Eskimo that had been prepared by linguists associated with the local Quaker church.

Some Navajo instructional materials are available commercially from several centers such as the Diné Bi'ólta' Association (DBA) Dissemination Center, Blanding Indian Education Center, and Navajo Community College, as well as from other Navajo bilingual projects. The two Navajo projects

visited had different experiences with the use of these materials. In Project SUN, the director felt the materials were adequate for their purposes, primarily because the project did not have the Navajo language experts to develop Navajo materials locally. However, the Rock Point Bilingual project was unable to use most of these materials in helping students learn to read because they did not reflect the project's philosophy, were not sequenced for instruction, and did not have curriculum guides for teachers. Rock Point did make use of those adequately written materials for students who have learned to read. For this reason, most of their efforts have been to develop learning-to-read materials.

An additional concern in the Rock Point project was the inadequacy of commercial materials for English language instruction. English language teachers were dependent on ESL materials which were outdated, highly structured, and reflected cultural experiences foreign to Navajo children. Although better ESL materials were needed, the project felt it was more important and practical to develop Navajo language materials than to try to rewrite the ESL texts.

Projects involving Chinese, French, Italian, Pilipino, and Portuguese languages encountered many similar types of problems in the acquisition of commercial materials. Most materials had to be obtained from the mother country, which involved delays in orders and higher costs. Of greater importance, however, was the extensive adaptation and supplementary development that was required before these materials could be used in this country. General problems included the relevance of the content for students living in the United States, the language structure, and the sophistication of materials. Some of the problems noted by various project staff are discussed below.

1. Materials from France, Hong Kong, Italy, the Philippines, and Portugal often had a religious or political orientation of the mother country.

2. Materials had a sophisticated level of vocabulary beyond the grade level for which they were intended. In Italy and France, the curricula for age/grade levels did not conform in content or objectives to curricula and learning objectives in the bilingual education programs.

3. Most bilingual projects must meet the same curriculum requirement for content that non-bilingual classrooms have. For this reason, the state or local education agencies have established approved textbook lists from which books can be selected. The imported textbooks were not on this approved list, severely limiting the use of imported materials.

4. Math materials from other countries were not comparable to those needed in bilingual programs. The major concern was that modern math was not included.

5. Materials from France did not contain a cultural understanding or cultural heritage appropriate to the French-Americans or Acadians. Some materials from Canada more closely approximated French-American experience, yet their materials were limited as well, since they too have just begun bilingual education efforts.

6. When using materials from the mother country, teachers often were required to ad lib and make on-the-spot translations.

7. French materials were highly structured and taught towards an examination which, in France, determines whether or not a student will continue in school. This approach conflicted with the educational philosophy of the projects.

8. Most foreign materials were not visibly attractive, had few pictures, and were often not accompanied by workbooks or teacher guides.

9. Materials from Brazil had variations in spelling and pronunciations which differed from Portuguese used in Providence. This often confused students.

• Acquisition of materials produced by other bilingual projects. In efforts to match resources to needs, all of the projects indicated they had reviewed at least some materials produced by other bilingual projects. Most projects further indicated that they had benefited in some way from these materials. These benefits included getting ideas for developing their own materials, providing some basic materials that could be modified and made suitable for use in their programs, or providing supplemental materials that could be used in the classroom. How useful materials produced by one project were for another project was very much dependent upon whether or

not the two projects served the same or similar languages.

Several projects did find materials developed in other projects most useful. Project SUN relied heavily on the Navajo materials developed by DBA Dissemination Center, by the other Navajo bilingual projects, and by the Blanding Indian Education Center in Blanding, Utah. The Portuguese Bilingual Education Program was also able to utilize materials from other Portuguese bilingual projects in Massachusetts and Rhode Island.

Teachers in Chinese-language instruction of the BABEL project were able to use materials that were initially developed by the Title VII project in San Francisco, but only after modifications were made to meet their own unique needs. One problem they experienced was that lessons and materials designed for a given grade level in the San Francisco program were too difficult for their children, especially the first grade materials.

At the time that site visits were made to the Seattle program, the curriculum developer and other support staff for the Chinese and Filipino components had just been hired. The Filipino staff were in the process of trying to find sample materials but had an additional problem in that there were no other bilingual education projects to serve as models.

The French, Italian, and Portuguese programs had been highly involved in sharing materials. The Lafayette program shared its materials with other French programs in Louisiana and New England, and these programs seemed to have an effective network of communication. Materials and techniques were disseminated through informal teacher exchange, formal conferences, and through Service de Liaison, a dissemination center located in New Hampshire.

To meet the need for instructional materials, the AVANTI staff has adapted, created, developed, and translated many games, workbooks, tests, tapes, flashcards, and techniques for use in the classrooms. The project director, resource teachers, curriculum specialists, classroom teachers, and paraprofessionals all participated in developing materials. These materials were shared with other Italian programs in New York.

The Portuguese program in Providence shares its curriculum materials with neighboring Portuguese bilingual projects in Fall River, Pawtucket, and Bristol. The director and other staff members are in constant contact with other projects. The neighboring Portuguese programs in Rhode Island

and Massachusetts share teacher training workshops, materials, university courses, and educational approaches.

In Alaska, materials are produced by the Eskimo Language Workshop located in Bethel for the Yupik programs and by the Alaska State Operated School System's central office staff for the Inupiat program. In addition, materials are produced by native language instructors at the various school sites. Although their locally-developed materials are shared at occasional workshops, it is not a regular practice, possibly because of the isolation and autonomy of the villages.

- Orthography development. Formal education in the United States, using English as a medium of instruction, has involved the use of both a spoken and written tradition of the language in a classroom situation, with the teacher as a model and facilitator of learning. Likewise, formal education using Chinese, French, Italian, Filipino, or Portuguese as the medium of instruction has involved the use of both spoken and written forms of the language in a classroom situation. In contrast, traditional education for most Native Americans has involved learning an oral tradition developed over hundreds of years and passed on to children in daily unstructured learning situations, with various members of the tribe or village playing key roles at different times.

The bilingual-bicultural approach to education has been attempting to find ways of making these two educational traditions work together for the benefit of the children. One important step in that direction has been the development of writing systems for the traditional Native American languages, so that what children have learned through the oral traditions before coming to school can be reinforced and continued at school, and so that new concepts and ideas can be presented without first having to learn a new language.

The Navajo and Yupik Eskimo languages were most advanced in terms of having an orthography and having developed materials that could be used in bilingual-bicultural education classrooms. For the other Native American languages, including Northern Cheyenne, Passamaquoddy, and Ute, practical orthographies have only recently been developed, and the development of materials has just begun.

Although the Navajo language has been written for over 40 years, it

was not until the last decade that a concentrated effort to develop Navajo materials was made. Consequently, few community members are familiar with the Navajo written form, making Navajo literacy a rare exception. There are some Navajo-developed materials, but these are mostly storybooks and manipulative materials, which are important supplemental materials but not sufficient to use as the foundation for a bilingual-bicultural curriculum. Since most Navajo teachers have had little experience in teaching or formal education in general, their present need is for sequenced lessons with teacher guides.

Among the 20 major language dialects served by the Alaska State Operated Schools, most orthographies have either recently been developed or are in the process of being developed. This has created numerous problems. For some language dialects, no attempt has been made to develop a written system for their language; for others, orthographies were attempted by early missionaries, primarily as an aid to Christianizing the local native people. These early attempts to write the native languages met with various degrees of success. Often, however, the earlier-developed orthographies misrepresented important aspects of the language or were not based on sound linguistic principles. For these reasons, extensive revision of the orthographies was needed before they could be used as a basis for developing instructional material for bilingual programs. Another problem was that some of the local native people have become familiar with these early orthographies and tend to resist efforts to modify them or to develop new ones, because this would make existing translations inappropriate. In addition, there have been differences of opinion among modern linguists as to the best ways of handling different language peculiarities. Thus, native people have learned that what linguists develop is not always perfect; and this has led to a questioning of the long-range value and authenticity of the linguists' work.

In Alaska, there are many different languages and language dialects that have not been written. This creates the need for types of expertise. First, fluent knowledgeable speakers of these languages are needed to provide a basis for a program. Second, persons trained in linguistic techniques are required to systematize and standardize the language so that it can be taught as a curriculum subject. In the village of Atmautluak, the Central Yupik dialect is spoken by the greatest number of speakers by far of any of

the major dialects spoken by Alaskan natives. Considerable work has already been done in developing a written form of Central Yupik. In addition, the Eskimo Language Workshop, now attached to the Kuskokwim Community College in Bethel, Alaska, has been active in developing materials and training staff for bilingual education programs involving the Yupik dialect. For most other dialects, extensive work needs to be done in the way of developing materials. The project staff reported that orthographies must be developed for other languages before a real effort at creating instructional materials can begin.

The Northern Cheyenne Bilingual Education Program began in 1971 with no acceptable practical orthography, no authoritative materials for teachers and students to work with, and no Cheyennes with the skills necessary to write the language. As a result, it was necessary to bring in a linguist who, with community informants, could develop an orthography. The problem in making the transition from the long oral tradition to a written form has been compounded by a distrust of outsiders and Anglo ways. It has been difficult for Cheyennes to visualize a tradition that has always been oral/aural. Some elders do not wish to have their oral traditions changed, as they feel that much would be lost by having their oral traditions written and distributed.

There were other problems in the development of the Cheyenne orthography. Cheyenne is not easily translated, and Cheyenne-English translations are extremely difficult for those who cannot speak or understand Cheyenne. Furthermore, variations in the Cheyenne language have developed over centuries, so there is no standard Cheyenne. Since there are at least three identified dialects, a major task for the linguist was to develop a writing system which accommodates all the dialects and variations in the language. The project staff noted that two factors have proved most successful: close communication with elders in the community and sound linguistic techniques.

When the Wabnaki Bilingual Program first began four years ago, they encountered many of the same challenges as the Northern Cheyenne project. Some of the major problems encountered in the development of the Passamaquoddy orthography were as follows:

1. The language has changed much with the introduction of Anglo words, and there are many variations of words. Hence, it is difficult to get an accurate reading of the language. Furthermore, among a people who have relied upon the oral traditions as a means of perpetuating the culture, language in its written form was not felt to be natural. Their solution to this dilemma has been to tape-record the persons telling the story, and to transcribe the stories phonetically using the established orthography. Instead of correcting grammar and personal peculiarities in speech, the materials developers are now trying to maintain as much of the oral traditions as possible.

2. Taping and transcribing of the language is a long and difficult process. Since many community elders must be involved in this process, the staff must respect their free time. Because the project can offer no compensation for their time and work, the work is slowed down.

3. Only a few Passamaquoddies can read and write the language. These people are staff members who have been with the project since its beginning. As a result, all research work and materials development is done by a small group, which further slows down the process of materials development.

4. The community is not familiar with the written form of the language, so that often the project director must prepare and teach staff and community about the new language form. This requires much effort by the staff in a crash course to prepare them for instructing children in the language.

The Ute component of Project SUN experienced problems similar to the Passamaquoddy and Northern Cheyenne programs in developing their orthographies. The Ute people have long resisted putting their language into a written form for fear it would be misused and abused by non-Utes. There were other parents who felt their children should not be abused for using their native language, an experience they remembered from their own youth. A gradual attitude change among the Ute people has enabled the project to work with them to develop an orthography. Yet they are in the very beginning stages of developing and refining their written language and total Ute curriculum.

• Dialect differences. All projects visited indicated there were variations in different dialects in their language which affected materials acquisition and development to some degree. In the Rock Point Bilingual

Education project, Navajo dialects were minute, and presented few problems in acquiring materials comprehensible to the local community. In the Wabnaki Bilingual Education Program, there were no dialects per se; however, oral traditions have been passed along for centuries, resulting over the years in many variations in language. In the Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups, there were so many dialects in the community that it was necessary to use only the standard form of that language for developing materials. The important factors in selecting a dialect or language form as the medium of instruction were its familiarity and acceptance by the local community and its use as a practical written form.

For example, while most students served by the Chinese projects in Oakland and Seattle come from homes where the Cantonese dialect is spoken, some come from homes where the Toisan dialect is used, and a few from homes where the Mandarin dialect is spoken. At both projects, however, the Cantonese dialect is the language used and taught in the school. Cantonese has a well-developed written form which is used in printed materials found in the Chinese communities in Oakland and Seattle.

In the three projects serving Indo-European languages (French, Italian, and Portuguese), various dialects were spoken by members of the communities, but a standard form was selected for both oral and written instruction. In the French project in Lafayette, Louisiana, both Acadian and Creole dialects which have developed over the past 200-300 years are spoken in the community. The French teachers, mostly residents of the community, understand and accept these dialects; however, standard Parisian French was taught in the classroom. The bilingual project feels that it is very important for speakers of the local dialect to be given the opportunity to learn standard French.

In the Italian project in New York City, students speak many dialects, with the Sicilian dialect being the most common. Generally, Italian dialects are not written, although the Sicilian dialect does have a written form which is used in folk poetry. For this reason, it is necessary to use the standard written Italian as a medium of instruction.

Though several dialects are spoken by the Portuguese students in Providence, Rhode Island, the project uses Continental Portuguese because

the language is written and is commonly understood by all community members.

There are 97 major dialects spoken by people living in the Philippines. Recently, however, strong efforts have been made to create a national language, Pilipino, which is basically the Tagalog dialect. Pilipino or Tagalog is used by the instructor at the BABEL program in Daly City, California. On the other hand, the approach taken by the Seattle program, which serves students from Filipino communities, has been somewhat different. In contrast to the Daly City program, the Seattle program attempts to be responsive to several dialects. Three staff members were recently hired to form a curriculum development and support team. This team included one person who spoke the Tagalog dialect, one who spoke the Ilocano dialect, and one who spoke the Visayan dialect. At the time of the site visit, however, the staff had only recently been hired, and work on acquiring and developing curriculum materials had just begun. Consequently, the degree to which the program would or could be responsive to the different dialects has not been demonstrated.

The issue of dialect differences had somewhat different parameters for most programs involving Native American languages. The written form used by the Navajo can be applied to other Navajo communities with little difficulty. However, the Eskimo language family has a variety of languages or dialects. The written forms of these dialects are comprehensible to most villagers, but are not acceptable in some villages due to the many variations present in their language. This creates materials-development problems because the Alaska State Operated School System's plan for developing materials calls for products which are responsive to local language structure and which provide content that is relevant to village life.

• Special service and dissemination centers. In recent years, a number of special projects have been funded under Title VII to provide materials centers, service centers, and dissemination centers for bilingual education projects. In general, materials, service, and dissemination centers did not appear to play key roles in the materials acquisition and development efforts for most projects. The unique dialects, language variations, unique cultural considerations, and the unique bilingual-bicultural curriculum needs of the projects required that materials development be an individual-project effort. Projects reported that there were

too many differences in these areas to make dissemination centers a viable tool for materials development. This attitude and approach to curriculum development was not unique to any particular language group but was shared by most Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups.

For example, the Navajo project at Rock Point rejected any future use of Title VII dissemination centers. Despite the fact that Navajo materials would get a primary consideration in the southwest, Rock Point felt that the center would not work for them because Navajo programs have different philosophies, approaches and needs. Furthermore, they feared that Title VII dissemination centers would take funds away from local materials-development efforts.

The Northern Cheyenne project, in their proposal for 1975-76 funding, proposed a consortium for curriculum developers as a means of centralizing materials development. Their main concern regarding the proposed Title VII dissemination center was that the center may be too removed from the community and may have an adverse effect on their materials development.

The French project in Lafayette, Louisiana, uses the Service de Liaison resource center for materials exchange. In a discussion of the proposed development of Title VII material and service centers, the Lafayette staff felt that these centers could be responsive to their curriculum needs only if project staff were closely involved with service center staff. In Lafayette, materials were developed to meet the specific educational needs of students and the curriculum requirements of the school district. Consequently, the staff was hesitant to approve the proposed dissemination centers.

On the other hand, the New York Italian projects felt the need for a resource center because Italian materials are not available from existing special service projects and dissemination centers. Consequently, School District 21 recently created a resource center for use by all the New York Italian projects.

The Navajo component of Project SUN also felt a need for a materials center. They described their materials-acquisition efforts as having been very successful because of the DBA Dissemination Center. DBA Dissemination Center has the necessary language experts and technical people to develop

materials, so Project SPA does not do much materials development for the Navajo component. They order commercially-made Navajo materials appropriate for their needs from a catalog put out by DBA. Navajo materials are also acquired from Blanding, Hatch, Window Rock; Navajo Community College; Rock Point; Rough Rock; and other Navajo projects.

There are many language groups in Alaska that presently do not have dissemination center services to meet their needs. However, a good number of materials was being produced for the Yupik Eskimo program at the Eskimo Language Workshop, now located in Bethel, Alaska, and affiliated with the Kuskokwim Community College. Materials development for the other Alaskan native languages were primarily carried out by the ASOSS central office staff located in Anchorage. Although the services of those centers were fully needed and utilized, other materials were being developed locally at the schools in Atmautluak and Noorvik.

• Costs for developing materials. Another major issue among projects was the cost involved in carrying out materials acquisition and development. All projects indicated that a large proportion of their budget goes into this area. The costs of staff salaries and consultants was the first major cost factor. Materials acquisition and development were the second most expensive activity in a bilingual education project. While material development costs tended to be high for all projects, costs were higher for projects that served Native Americans for the following reasons:

1. The development of an orthography requires expertise in the native languages and in linguistic techniques. Salaries of elders, linguists, or other professionals add greatly to the cost of developing the written system.

2. More local development of materials must be done because there is more local expertise in the native language, and publishing companies will not publish native material on a large scale for relatively few native people.

3. To accurately depict the language and culture, various experts in the community must be paid for their time in providing information needed in the development of the orthography and future classroom materials.

4. Projects are often located in remote villages or on isolated

reservations, making travel costs involved in developing materials considerably higher. For example, in Alaska where travel to remote villages typically requires chartering a bush plane, the costs of developing materials by a team of central office staff located in Anchorage are very high.

Staff Recruitment and Development

Recruiting staff and developing their expertise in bilingual education remains a problem for bilingual projects. Often those persons who speak the native language and understand the native culture best have no professional experience or training in the area of bilingual education, such as materials development, curriculum development, or evaluation. As a result, each project must recruit native teachers and/or community members who demonstrate potential in these areas and then develop their expertise on the job. The issues and problems surrounding these areas for the 10 projects are discussed under the following topics:

- Availability of staff among Native American projects;
 - Availability of staff among Indo-European, Asian and Pacific projects;
 - Teacher characteristics important in bilingual projects;
 - Qualifying native teachers;
 - Staff development among Native American projects;
 - Staff development among Indo-European, Asian and Pacific projects;
- and
- Cultural considerations in staff development.

• Availability of staff among Native American projects. All Native American bilingual projects reported problems in acquiring staff who had the necessary expertise for project positions and who were fluent and knowledgeable in the native language. This was primarily as a result of the low educational level of community members. At present, most adult community members have less than an eighth-grade education. The reservations and villages where most Native American projects operate are isolated from universities, and consequently, there are few, if any, certified bilingual teachers or qualified bilingual support staff. Their approach to staff recruitment was to recruit native community members who express interest in being on staff and who have potential in the given areas.

Projects then conduct extensive training as necessary, as well as provide native staff with the opportunity to get high school diplomas and college credits.

Typically, the projects encouraged new native staff to develop their skill by giving them salaries, job titles, and responsibilities, which were commensurate with their effectiveness as bilingual teachers, rather than making their rewards so dependent upon their level of formal education. For the most part, the Native American projects had been able to recruit, train, and keep native staff by following this approach. One project, however, noted a particularly high turnover among their native staff. In this particular project, the salaries of the native staff were determined by the district school's salary scale. In comparison to other projects visited, native staff with no degree or high school diploma were given lower wages and lower status in the schools. Other federally-funded projects on the reservation offered higher salaries and positions of greater prestige, drawing the project's potential bilingual staff into other fields due to the economics involved. For this reason, staff turnover was high and the staff development component was always in its beginning stages.

Availability of non-native teachers was not a problem at most reservations or village schools. There was generally an abundance of Anglo teachers who were anxious to teach there, though for most of them their commitment was for a short period of time. The problem was that these teachers often came to the reservation or village more motivated by personal interests such as hunting, fishing, and the rural life style than by the project and children's needs. The high turnover of these teachers results from the lack of an active social life on the reservation and from the fact that non-natives cannot buy land on the reservations.

- Availability of staff among Indo-European, Asian and Pacific projects. The Indo-European projects reported fewer staff problems than the other language groups since there were more certificated native language teachers. These projects reported success in locating and hiring qualified teachers. Part of the success was attributed to other organizations. For example, the French project had arranged with CODIFIL, a French cultural exchange institute, to hire teaching assistants from France.

Among the Pilipino language group, there was a good number of recent arrivals from the Philippines who were bilingual in Pilipino and English, who were teaching professionals and who had teaching experience. However, certification by the state or district often required considerable red tape and sometimes special course work. This was especially discouraging to teachers who already had extensive professional credentials and experience. Both the Seattle and Daly City, California, projects experienced this problem. The Chinese projects experienced a problem in finding staff who had a Chinese-American perspective and who were also literate in Chinese. There are many American-born Chinese who can speak Chinese but few who can write it.

• Teacher characteristics important in bilingual projects. The literature review for this study indicated that teachers were key persons in the educational experience of the child. As such, teachers should be sensitive to and aware of cultural differences among children and should use a familiar cultural base in treating subject matter. Bilingual projects reaffirmed this point as they described the characteristics of model teachers for their bilingual program. In addition to the obvious qualities of liking children and being in good health, project staff cited the ability to communicate well with parents, and a strong commitment to bilingual education and to the philosophy of the project. Teachers should be bilingual and knowledgeable of the local dialects and local culture. While all projects felt it would be beneficial for bilingual teachers to be certified, most projects noted that certified teachers were not prepared for bilingual education in most institutions of higher learning and have to be trained specifically in this area when hired in the bilingual project.

Project staff were equally concerned with non-bilingual teachers in the school. For instance, in the Rock Point Bilingual Education Project, the attrition of Anglo teachers presents a need for training Navajo staff to teach the English curriculum. This would provide the needed stability in the project. Among other projects, the major characteristics desired of those Anglo teachers are a sensitivity to self-determination of the community, sensitivity and awareness of problems and realities of the community, and cooperation with the efforts of the other project staff.

• Qualifying native teachers. Most programs experienced some

difficulties in meeting state and local requirements in hiring or qualifying staff for positions. For example, in Seattle, it took the project three months to complete all of the state requirements that had to be met for hiring one member of the curriculum development and support team for the Pilipino component of the program. In addition to knowing the language and culture, the persons being considered had college degrees from the Philippines and some teaching experience. The projects are in such dire need of their expertise, but qualified people cannot often wait for long periods of time for bureaucratic procedures to run their course.

Many projects, particularly among Native Americans, have found state certification of teachers a major problem. State certification was often dependent on a college degree; however, the regular teacher training program in the colleges and universities does not meet the specific immediate needs of the bilingual project. Projects have been providing teacher training that addresses project and staff needs. However, this training, is often not comparable to the regular universities' program of teacher training, and much coursework and training activities in the project were not credited toward a degree. All Native American projects indicated that it will take from three to ten years before their staff will be certified.

This situation has created another problem for projects. Without a teaching degree or teaching experience, bilingual staff are not paid equally for work. The projects reported that these non-certified bilingual staff carry more responsibility than a regular classroom teacher. They do not have a prescribed curriculum nor prepared textbooks with teacher guides. They must develop an instructional curriculum, develop instructional materials, and take college coursework. Despite their enormous workload, their pay is much less than that of the certified teacher.

In contract schools funded by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), the situation is different. After several years of dispute regarding certification, the Navajo Area Office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs has agreed to accept tribal certification as a compromise for the three contract schools only. As such, certification at Rock Point is less of a problem.

- Staff development among Native American projects. Among Native American projects, staff development needs were focused on getting native staff certified and preparing native instructors for the bilingual

curriculum. Since most reservations and villages are isolated from institutions of higher learning, each project had to hire consultants from the universities to provide courses on-site. The costs of providing this service, plus stipend and tuition fees for the individual staff members in summer sessions, was very high. Hence, staff development was often limited by the funds provided.

In many projects, the project director and other support staff were attempting to provide the training necessary to meet their teachers' needs. Though this was an additional strain on staff time, it was often the only solution to getting instructors who understood the project staff's unique needs. For example, in the Wabnaki Bilingual Education Program, the director provided the Passamaquoddy literacy instruction since only a few Passamaquoddies were familiar with the new orthography. In the Rock Point Bilingual Education Program, Navajo Language Specialists on-site provided the training in Navajo language instruction. Localized training was especially necessary for two important reasons. First, projects were geographically isolated from institutions of higher learning. Second, uprooting community members to go to college has been in the past counterproductive. Often these native people lose ties with the community and do not return. Title VII legislation which provides funds for this localized training has been very beneficial to Native American projects.

- Staff development among Indo-European, Asian and Pacific projects.

Among the Indo-European projects, the staff development needs focused on development of an understanding of, and the practices involved in, bilingual education. Most bilingual staff were certificated and many teachers were earning credits toward their master's degree.

Among the Asian and Pacific language projects, there were two groups of teachers with different needs. Certified bilingual teachers were available, but their teaching experiences were primarily in Hong Kong. For these teachers, staff development was focused on providing an awareness of the experiences and needs of Chinese or Filipino children in the United States. These projects also had many community members who were non-certified teaching assistants. These native instructors required training and coursework leading eventually to a teaching degree.

• Cultural considerations in staff development In addition to providing the methodological training in bilingual education for their native staff, the projects also provided regular school teachers with orientation sessions to acquaint them with the philosophy of bilingual education and to sensitize them to the needs of their students. For example, in Project SUN, native staff have classrooms that are relatively less structured and less disciplined. Children move around the room freely and talk more freely than in conventional classrooms. This is similar to the atmosphere in the child's home, and teachers who are unaware of this might restrict the children's movement and speech and perhaps hamper the child's development. While orientation sessions alone provide some insight into the language and culture of the community, it is inadequate. Project staff feel that personal experiences in the community will provide the necessary sensitivity for non-native staff.

Parent and Community Involvement

All projects had established parent and community involvement as a high priority. The approaches varied across projects as did their successes in obtaining involvement. Their common success was a supportive attitude from the majority of the parents and community members who were interviewed. Their common problem was getting parents and community members to actively participate in the bilingual program. These issues are discussed under the following topics:

- Historical and cultural considerations in community involvement;
 - Composition and selection of parent advisory committees; and
 - Limitations to parent and community involvement.
- Historical and cultural considerations in community involvement.

In order to understand the issues involved in this component, it is important to examine the communities and their past experiences in education which have affected their attitudes toward and involvement in the bilingual projects.

The majority of parents and community members who had children in bilingual projects serving Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups were recent immigrants. Their attitudes toward education reflected their own experiences in education in the mother country. A typical experience

among these projects was found in the Portuguese Bilingual Education Program. In Portugal, public schooling is free up to the fourth grade. After the fourth grade, education is very expensive. Among those community members interviewed, fifth grade was often the highest grade they had attained--many indicated they had not gone to school at all. This education experience or socialization has developed an attitude such that community members regard education highly and respect the community school and school personnel. But the school is a professional institution with great authority in the community, second only to the church. Children are encouraged to do well in school; however, parents feel that education is the responsibility of the school and do not feel comfortable intervening or redirecting policies of the school. As a result, parent and community involvement was low in these projects. Likewise, parents of students in the Chinese program in Oakland have traditionally viewed the teacher as a professional to be respected and not questioned. Most parents do not feel qualified to advise school personnel on matters concerning the education of their children.

Among Native American communities, parents' socialization to education is very different. Most people over the age of 35 know the effects of coerced education, i.e., federal boarding schools. As children, they were taken away from their families and communities and sent to schools where they were forbidden to speak their native language. They were punished for practicing their cultural traditions. Federal boarding schools were not the only schools to forbid the use of the language and culture in the school. This was a common experience among those community members who went to local schools. The traumatic experiences Native Americans have had in schools has led to a very low educational level among parents as well as a low self-concept.

Since Native Americans were excluded from making their personal choice in their education, they are reluctant to become involved and make decisions for the education of their children. Many feel, also, that because they were not formally educated, they have little to offer in the schools. Though there were some parents who felt that teaching their native language in the schools may damage their children's chances for success in an English-speaking environment, most parents were positive about the bilingual project.

Although all projects indicate that parent and community involvement had increased significantly since the beginning of the project, the goal of having meaningful and active parent and community involvement is far from being realized. They report that the process of getting involvement will take much time and effort, especially since negative attitudes among parents and community members which have developed over many years will be difficult to change.

• Composition and selection of parent advisory committees. An important issue, especially among Native American communities, is the composition and selection of parent advisory committees under Title VII. Most Native American communities visited showed strong Indian advisory or policy-making school boards and committees who either had direct control of the school or were very influential in the tribal or local schools. These boards or committees were tribally elected and were comprised of the respected leaders and elders in the community. Their responsibility was to oversee the school and projects within the school.

Until recently, when Title VII guidelines changed regarding the composition of the parent advisory committee, these community-based committees and school boards were serving as the parent advisory group for the bilingual project. The Title VII guidelines now stipulate that only parents of children in the project can comprise the parent advisory committee, and further, the election of these persons will be by these parents. In Native American communities where cultural value is placed on age and wisdom, this stipulation of Title VII is very much antithetical to Indian values. Furthermore, the native language and culture and its use in the school were very much the concern of the total community, therefore the projects reported that the total tribal community should be consulted. For example, in one of the projects, an all-Indian school committee was the most influential decision-maker regarding the project activities. The director indicated that often parents were not aware of the tribal policies or desires, and consultation with a community group representative of the tribe was far more beneficial for the project. In another Indian community, an all-Indian school board has contracted for control of the school. The establishment of a separate parent advisory committee appears unnecessary, especially since the tribally-elected school board must answer to the tribe for activities in the school.

It does not appear that the Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups have similar objections to Title VII guidelines regarding parent advisory committees.

• Limitations to parent and community involvement. Each project has taken affirmative steps in providing for parent and community involvement. These approaches vary according to their cultural needs and values; however, several factors have limited parent and community involvement:

1. Parents and community members are not sure of their role in the formal education of their children. The process of changing attitudes, habits, and behaviors will require much time and effort not only by the project staff but by the school and community as a whole.

2. Most community members have limited, if any, formal education. Many cannot read or write either their native language or English, such that written communication from the project, i.e., letters and newsletters, is insufficient in encouraging involvement. Direct personal contact was necessary.

3. Most parent and community members are required under Title VII policies to volunteer their time to the project. However, for most community members who are poor and uneducated in formal schools, survival is a constant struggle. Projects reported that these community members do not have time to volunteer their services. Native American projects, especially, depend a great deal on community elders in reinforcing the oral traditions and in capturing the wealth of literature and history regarding the native people. Further, elders were needed in projects where the native language has not been put into the written form. Their advice and consultation were necessary in order to represent the language correctly. Projects pointed out that adequate compensation should be given for their expertise and time, which at present is not possible.

4. Among many language groups, cultural activities traditionally include food. Projects have found that these cultural activities and events have successfully involved community people. The problem was that Title VII guidelines prohibit federal money from being used to buy food. As a result, the projects must put much of their time and efforts into fund drives and solicitations to continue their cultural activities.

Community Impact

The purpose of collecting data from the community was to assess the impact of the bilingual education project on the community as a whole and to determine the issues in parent and community involvement. The community members selected for these interviews included parents of children in the project and in the school, community leaders, elders, extended-family members, and church leaders. The majority of community members interviewed spoke a language other than English as a first language. Many were monolingual speakers of their native language, especially older community members. Most community members interviewed in metropolitan areas such as New York and Providence, Rhode Island, indicated they had been born outside the Continental United States. In Seattle and Oakland, many indicated they were recent arrivals to the United States. By contrast, most of the community members in Native American projects were indigenous to their area, although in two projects there were several community members who were from other tribes.

The interview guides solicited information in five major areas which are listed and summarized below.

- Community's knowledge of the project, i.e., its purpose, its staff, and its activities;
 - Community's attitude toward education, i.e., their own education and their children's education;
 - Community's attitude toward bilingual education and the bilingual project;
 - Community's involvement in the project; and
 - Overall effect of the bilingual project in the community.
- Community's knowledge of the project. All community members interviewed were aware of the project and its general activities, primarily as a result of the formal and informal communications received from the project staff. However, a primary concern of many community members was the inadequacy of communication between the project and community. Many parents wished to know more about project activities.

The primary source of information regarding the project or school was from friends or relatives; though in several projects the community liaison was an important source. While all community members indicated they received some written communication from the project in the form of letters and newsletters, not all could read. In these situations, parents had their children read project communications to them or relied on friends for information.

- Community's attitude toward education. In regard to their own formal education, those community members who had gone to school rated their primary school education as being fair or good. Only in the Portuguese Bilingual Education Program did the majority of community members rate their primary educational experience as being poor. They felt they had received an inadequate education, primarily as a result of the high cost of education. Education was too expensive in the mother country, or the family needed the income from the older children's employment.

There were many community members in each project who never went to school or went for only a few years. Among Native Americans and second generation immigrants the language barrier was cited as the major problem. Language arts areas, such as reading, spelling, and English presented them with the most problems, causing many to dislike school and to drop out.

While the educational level of adult community members remains low, their educational level is gradually changing with the increase of adult education offered by both the bilingual project and school. Many parent and community members indicated they had attended or were attending the adult education classes offered.

- Community's attitude toward bilingual education. An overwhelming majority of parents and community members felt that bilingual education could have helped when they were in school and that bilingual education was very good for their children. They indicated that the bilingual education program had had a positive effect on their children, which was demonstrated by a greater interest in school, better communication skills with parents and elders, better relationships with teachers and peers, better understanding of the native culture, and a greater potential for success in their community as well as outside their community.

Although the majority of parents were positive about bilingual education, there were a few community members whose different views should be mentioned. These persons rated the bilingual education efforts as being of only moderate value. The primary concern was the effect learning the native language would have on learning of English. One mother felt that the school was teaching too much of the native language and not enough English. Since most jobs required skill in English, several parents felt proficiency in English should be learned first.

In projects that were just beginning or had encountered many problems in their development, there were many parents who were supportive of the project's efforts but were critical of the way the project was progressing. Many felt that the projects had too little communication with the community and did not actively solicit or encourage their involvement. The inadequacy of instructional materials and the lack of bilingual teachers were also recognized as major project constraints in several projects, such that parents indicated low expectations for the project.

- Community's involvement in the project. Although the majority of parents and community members were supportive of the bilingual project, they indicated that they participated relatively little in project activities. Cultural activities in the school such as cultural arts and crafts presentations, plays, and celebrations had the greatest appeal for community members. Involvement in specific activities such as visiting classrooms, volunteering services, and participating in special events varied among projects. The most active community members in the projects indicated that they had been informed of the activities well in advance and/or had been personally asked to help in the project. However, most interviewees indicated they had not been asked personally to participate in the project. This finding was common to projects. However, responses to other questions suggest that interviewees may have misinterpreted some questions, leading to contradictory answers. For example, some community members were very friendly with the bilingual instructors and/or community liaison person and did not consider them as "project staff" who had invited them to participate. Many parents who indicated they did not participate in the project also noted that they had worked in the school as cooks, house parents, instructors, or consultants.

Overall effect of the bilingual project in the community. The impact of the bilingual education project on the community was dependent on the length of time the project had been operating. Projects that had been operating for a few years saw more demonstrable gains than those projects just starting. However, all projects noted the gradual effect bilingual education was having on the community. Both project staff and community indicated what they considered to be the significant gains in the community. These are summarized below.

1. Parents felt their children were receiving a good education through the bilingual project. They indicated that their children had greater interest in school with fewer academic problems than before the bilingual project.

2. Teachers noted an increase in student attendance, self-concept, and achievement.

3. At half of the projects visited, the majority of parents and community members felt the bilingual education project had had a positive effect on their involvement in educational matters. Being involved in bilingual education activities such as the work of the Parent Advisory Committee, the work of house parents, or as participants in various cultural activities were the primary reasons given.

4. In all the projects, parent and community involvement had significantly increased from the beginning of the project.

5. Having bilingual teachers who were from the community working in the school and the open, inviting nature of the project, made community members more comfortable when visiting schools. Since a language barrier was not a problem, parents attended more project meetings.

6. Parents also felt proud that they could now help their children in their school work. In some cases, parents wanted to further their own education or their knowledge of their native language in order to help their children.

7. Among all projects, there appeared to be a new understanding or perception of how their language and culture fits into the educational system. Many expressed happiness and relief that now the schools had recognized their language and culture and were using it to help their

children.

8. In Native American communities, the native language instructors showed determination in getting their college degrees. This was especially significant since few, if any, in these communities had degrees. Furthermore, most native language teachers in these communities showed an increasing degree of self-confidence in the school and in their work.

Program and Student Evaluation

In compliance with Title VII guidelines for programs, all projects carry out formal evaluation activities. Student performance objectives in the instructional component are established and various instruments such as standardized tests, criterion-referenced tests, teacher-made tests, observations, or surveys are used for measurement. These data, together with data regarding program operations, are then summarized in interim and final evaluation reports which are filed with OE. However, within these evaluation procedures, projects experienced many difficulties. These issues are discussed under the following topics:

- Lack of appropriate tests;
 - Difficulties in developing tests;
 - Use of evaluation results; and
 - Formative vs. summative evaluation.
- Lack of appropriate tests. All projects noted the lack of appropriate tests as their first and major problem in evaluation. For most Native American projects, there were no standardized tests written in their languages. One exception was a Navajo-translated test for K-1 grades. For Asian and Indo-European language groups, most commercially-prepared tests written in their languages were from foreign countries. The language and cultural experience in present communities were so different from that of the mother country that these tests were inappropriate. Furthermore, all project directors indicated that the available standardized tests were biased toward the dominant Anglo culture and thus did not fairly document their students' ability or potential. Under these conditions, it was difficult to show student gains achieved by the bilingual program.
- Difficulties in the development of tests. In response to their

evaluation needs, projects set out to develop tests which would adequately measure their students' progress in meeting project objectives. The first problem was lack of trained staff to prepare tests. For some projects, particularly the Native American, staff members had no formal education beyond high school and were unfamiliar with evaluation procedures.

For most projects, it was necessary to secure an outside evaluator who had the required expertise. Research organizations and universities were the likely candidates for this position. However, consultation proved to be expensive for the projects and they could afford only a few days of consultation. In order to provide for on-going evaluation and to cut consultation costs, an on-site evaluator was hired. Since there were no trained persons available for this position, the on-site evaluator's tasks were limited to collecting and filing data for the contracted evaluator who would prepare the interim and final report. Training in evaluation for local personnel was seen as essential in this component. In two projects, this was possible: Southwest Research Associates, the contracted evaluator for Rock Point Bilingual Education Program and for Project SUN, provided evaluation training seminars for the on-site evaluators. These training sessions were found to be most beneficial to the projects, yet still limited in terms of the number of sessions and topics covered. While most projects considered trained evaluators on-site more beneficial, most projects who had contracted out their evaluations were satisfied with this arrangement.

Teacher-made tests were often the primary instruments used to assess student performance, but projects felt this was often inadequate. One project's concern was that there were no standardized criteria for meeting objectives in different schools.

Some tests were developed by the project to determine native language comprehension and ability. Others were developed to test student's mastery and achievement in the native language after language learning. The latter seemed more difficult to develop in that it required teacher or staff mastery of the oral and written native language. Among Native American projects, this mastery had yet to be achieved since the written system had not been fully developed or had only recently been developed,

Several projects used standardized tests as models, translating the various terms and adapting them to meet the cultural environment. However, translating the English terms into the native language required great versatility in the native language, which was sometimes more skill than one person had. The test-development process necessitated frequent consultation with all bilingual staff and sometimes with various community members to capture the most accurate translation, all of which required much time. Furthermore, norms for these tests were no longer applicable.

- Use of evaluation results. Though all projects carried out ongoing informal evaluation activities, it was often not possible for some projects to see the results of the first three months' activities until later in the school year when the formal evaluations were submitted to OE. This was particularly true in projects which had outside evaluators. At these sites, teachers submitted various evaluation documents to the on-site evaluator who then sent them to the contracted evaluator. After the data were synthesized, a report was filed with OE and with the project. Results of the evaluation often did not get to the teachers or to the projects until late in the year and, consequently, could not be constructively used. Furthermore, analyses in the reports were primarily suited to OE's purposes and did not provide needed guidance to teachers, who did not see how their students were doing in relation to other schools or projects. Strengths and weaknesses were not pointed out, nor were the teachers given constructive guidance on how to improve their instructional program.

- Formative vs. summative evaluation. Most projects were generally satisfied with evaluations each year which provided feedback necessary to change and improve their programs. However, project directors typically said that summative evaluations were not helpful during the first several years because their programs at that time were not fully developed. The majority of projects agreed that until reliable instruments were available, and until the projects have had time to resolve some of their major problems such as developing curriculum and materials, training staff, and developing tests, it was pointless and misleading to conduct summative evaluations.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions and recommendations made here must be viewed as being both preliminary and tentative. Our findings have been based upon a very limited sample of 10 projects and upon the reports and observations rather than upon strictly objective evidence. Also, we have not attempted to assess the merit of various project goals relative to other possible goals. Rather we have accepted the goals of the 10 projects as important and worthwhile and have concentrated our efforts on identifying problems in meeting those goals and in suggesting ways of doing it. Thus, we have been limited in drawing broad conclusions about the Title VII program, and the reader should be equally cautious in recognizing these limitations. Nevertheless, this study has allowed us to identify a number of issues which have relevance to the Office of Education in its efforts to improve the implementation of Title VII projects for Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups.

The present study set out to identify and explore some of the important issues in bilingual-bicultural education programs which serve Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups. Somehow the word, "issue," has a way of taking on a negative value in a study of this type and becomes almost synonymous with the word, "problem." Although there are usually conclusions to be drawn which have a positive overtone, those which lead to recommendations usually carry a negative overtone. Thus, a report may unintentionally appear critical, failing to portray the many successes of the bilingual-bicultural program. Since the emphasis of this section is on ways to improve the overall program, more attention is paid to needs than is paid to successes.

This section is in two parts, the first has implications for the planning and operation of Title VII projects. The second part refers to Title VII legislation in relation to the study findings.

Part I: Procedures in Planning and Operating Title VII Projects

Flexible policies toward project needs. The authors of this report visited the 10 projects and were struck by how different each project was. In addition to differences in language and culture were a whole host of differences that can best be characterized as forming the context for the project. The interaction of all these factors resulted in projects with quite different problems and quite different goals and approaches to bilingual-bicultural education. Given that an overall goal of bilingual-bicultural education, regardless of the funding agency, is to provide diverse groups of children with meaningful education, then it is reasonable that projects would be very different. In fact, if they were not so different, one might question whether the programs were really using the languages and cultures to best advantage in being responsive to the students they served. The fact that the 10 Title VII projects were so different indicates that program officers and others in charge of administering projects in the Division of Bilingual Education under the Office of Education have been flexible in permitting projects to develop to best meet their needs. To the authors of the present report, flexible policy guidelines and reasonableness on the part of program officers have been essential ingredients to the development of projects under the Title VII program to date. Without these ingredients, projects which are responsive to so many diverse language groups and cultures and operate in such different contexts, could not have begun.

Long-range benefits of bilingual-bicultural projects. There is some evidence in the study findings that the Title VII program is producing some long-range benefits for people who belong to Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups. More speakers of these languages are involved in the total educational process as teachers, instructional assistants, and as members of parent and community advisory committees. Many are working toward degrees through the assistance of Title VII fellowships and training programs. Materials are being produced for the first time which represent the perspective of these language groups, whereas before, such materials were simply not available. With many members of the communities served by the 10 projects that we visited feeling good about the bilingual-bicultural programs in their schools, it is reasonable to assume that some of this good feeling might generalize, and that

eventually, there will be considerably more community involvement in local educational programs that serve these groups.

Community impact. The great majority of parents and community members interviewed at each of the 10 project sites were overwhelmingly supportive of the bilingual-bicultural programs. This support was evident even though the degree to which the native language was used in the curricula varied so much between the 10 projects. In some projects, the bilingual-bicultural program amounted to a single 30 minute class each day which essentially taught the native language as a second language; while in other projects, the bilingual-bicultural program involved the use of the native language at least 50% of the time and in most subject-matter classes. With few exceptions, the parents and community members who were interviewed liked having the native language and culture taught in the school and wanted it continued. Interviewees gave examples of young children who could converse with their grandparents while older children who had not been in the program could not. It was generally felt that the bilingual-bicultural project had the effect of elevating the native language and culture to a more prestigious position in the community. Some teachers also were positive about the impact of the programs and specifically noted improvements in the self-concepts of the native language-dominant children. It was clear that in terms of an affective response, the Title VII projects were having a positive impact on most of the communities we visited.

Use of planning grants. The study findings suggest that many projects are not ready to start instructional programs the first year. Time is needed to hire staff, develop materials, and to gain the respect and support of non-project staff. This would seem to be particularly true of projects which involve languages, cultures, and situations which are less common. For example, given that programs without orthographies cannot operate in the same way as programs with orthographies, they may need additional planning time before implementing bilingual-bicultural education in the classrooms. Some local people have never been in classrooms as teachers. Others have been reluctant to even enter the school. These potential teachers need time for orientation, training, planning, etc.

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Given that there is a need for more planning time for many projects than has been standard in the past, the following recommendations seem indicated:

- Local educational agencies could be encouraged to apply for planning grants before implementing projects and to request extension of planning grants when necessary.
- The Office of Education could provide technical assistance and support in the development of planning grants.

Technical assistance for Title VII projects. Most projects visited felt that they lacked sufficient time and resources, particularly at the start, and they felt ill-prepared to do the best job of planning and proposal preparation. They also indicated a need for more assistance in obtaining and developing materials. They wanted to be put in contact with other projects that had obtained or developed materials for projects involving the same or similar native languages. They needed to become aware of any sources of materials that they could use. And, they wanted to improve their own skills so they could better develop materials.

Newly hired staff need to develop their skills for teaching bilingual-bicultural classes. Instructional assistants need information about avenues to becoming certified bilingual-bicultural teachers. Although many project directors have been able to get local colleges and universities to offer degree courses, the content seldom is directly relevant to the operation of a bilingual-bicultural project.

Since most project directors are not familiar with evaluation methodology, projects are not always aware of how changes in program activities, non-random assignment of students to experimental and control groups, incidental treatment effects, and other factors may affect evaluation results. Even though an independent on-site consultant may design the evaluation plan for a project, collect the data, and analyze it, their help does not preclude problems which can make results useless.

Greater utilization of planning grants could offset some of the difficulties in the early stages of project development, but the findings suggest a need for greater technical assistance and guidance throughout the life of projects. And it seems clear that such assistance could best

be given if it were coordinated by the Office of Education. The mandate of Title VII could be expanded to include the provision of greater technical assistance to developing projects. It is recommended that assumption of the following responsibilities be considered by the Office of Education:

- Assist new and developing projects during planning stages by identifying useful resources and putting new projects in contact with older projects with similar goals.

- Assist projects in preparing proposals in planning grants and continuation funding by informing them of recent policy changes and insuring that required procedures are followed.

- Assist projects in locating and/or developing appropriate instructional materials by disseminating information about commercially-produced materials and materials produced by other projects, and through training programs, e.g., workshops and seminars. Materials development and dissemination centers could assist projects in this way, and it is suggested that such centers be accountable to the projects they serve.

- Assist projects with staff recruitment and development problems by encouraging (via funds) and coordinating programs at colleges and universities which offer courses, credits and degrees appropriate for bilingual-bicultural education.

- Assist projects in developing appropriate evaluation strategies which provide results which are meaningful to the projects, as well as to the Office of Education.

- Assist projects in solving potential and actual conflicts between Title VII and state or federal policies by working with the agencies involved.

These activities might best be coordinated at the regional level by a program officer who can visit projects periodically and assume responsibility for providing or coordinating whatever technical assistance is needed.

Should the Office of Education decide to expand its role under Title VII, it is probable that no new agencies would have to be created. Many of the added functions might be implemented through existing facilities

such as federal regional offices, resource centers, dissemination centers, material development centers, and teacher training centers.

Continuance of projects beyond the demonstration period. Title VII is designed to support demonstration rather than service projects. Projects, thus, are funded for a set period of time (originally a maximum of five years) to develop and demonstrate bilingual-bicultural education programs with the expectation that successful projects would then be taken over by the state or local educational agencies who would then absorb their costs. It was also the intention that exemplary demonstration projects would be replicated elsewhere without using Title VII funds. In many instances LEAs are not in a position to assume these costs, particularly in settings where there is no local tax base, and the continuance and replication of demonstration projects is jeopardized by lack of funds.

- We suggest, therefore, that the Office of Education could identify those projects which are unlikely to be funded locally at the end of the demonstration period and assist SEAs and LEAs in exploring other avenues for funding.

Gaining support from local non-project personnel. The study findings indicated that projects sometimes were not well integrated into the total school system. Their place in the organizational structure was sometimes not clear to administrators and non-project personnel. They were often viewed as another federal program that may or may not be around the following year and not as a part of the total educational program. When this happened, projects became isolated, communication between project and non-project personnel was reduced, and so was cooperation and mutual sharing of resources.

A number of other practices were identified in the study that may have contributed to the tendency for some projects to alienate non-project staff. Included in these were the displacement of non-bilingual teachers as programs expanded into additional grades, the practice of providing project teaching staff with classroom assistants, and release time to attend special workshops. These practices, however, may not be at the heart of most problems between project and non-project personnel. A more likely cause is a lack of communication with teachers and administrators about the project and a tendency not to involve them in planning and operating the project.

The following suggestions are offered as possible ways for projects to gain support from non-project personnel:

- Involve non-project personnel in planning the project.
- Allow such potential problems as the displacement of non-bilingual teachers as the project grows surface early, so that people can plan for changes. Administrators might be encouraged to develop plans for finding positions in other schools for displaced teachers.
- Seek ways in which project staff can assist non-project staff. Assistance with school-wide or district-wide multicultural programs is a possibility.
- Team teaching might be used as a way of developing good working relationships between project and non-project personnel.
- Seek contact and communication with teacher unions and organizations so that such misunderstandings do not develop.

In addition, the Office of Education might encourage better planning for the integration of a project into the total school or district program by requiring that these points be addressed in proposals when they are appropriate.

Assistance of dissemination centers in materials development. Most projects saw a need for assistance in materials development, particularly for beginning projects. Established commercially-produced materials for Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups do not appear to be a feasible source of materials for bilingual-bicultural education. For example, for most Native American languages, there are too few children learning the language to induce commercial producers to compete in developing instructional materials for them. Even for those Native American languages that have enough speakers to create a demand for materials, such as Navajo and Yupik Eskimo, experience to date indicates that commercially-produced materials must still be extensively modified before they are

really suitable for the needs of children in various projects. This is also true for Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups as well.

As with commercially-produced materials, the sharing of materials produced by other projects greatly aids projects by spreading new ideas, concepts, innovations, and techniques. However, in the projects included in this study, we found that the greater part of bilingual-bicultural curriculum and materials development must be done locally in order to insure appropriate content. Occasionally materials developed by other projects may be used, but they require extensive modifications. Those projects which serve languages which are not unique to one project have a decided advantage in the important goal of acquiring and developing relevant instructional materials.

Native American projects that must build a program without an acceptable orthography experience many difficulties in their planning and development stage. The most evident problems encountered are no appropriate language instruction materials to begin the program and few, if any, staff who can read or write the language. Because of the changing nature of the orthography and variations in the languages, initial books written must be revised to correspond to the new forms of the orthography and new understandings. Also, staff have to be trained in language literacy before literacy can be taught to the children. Every part of the developing and refining of the language and the materials takes much time.

When different dialects exist in a community, projects choose as a medium of instruction a language or major dialect that is widely used and which has a written form. Projects were sensitive to the dialects and local variations prevalent in the community but did not teach them. Among Native American projects, the typical approach is to reflect the dialects and local variations in the orthography, and subsequently, in the materials that were developed.

In summary, expertise in the native languages and in linguistic principles will no doubt become more important as technical expertise in bilingual-bicultural education grows, and programs have mastered more basic problems. For the present, however, such problems as acceptance and support for the project both at school and in the community, finding and

training staff, acquiring and developing materials, and finding financial support will continue to be the most important concerns.

Resource problems tend to occur more in projects involving Native American languages. Isolation from institutions or resource centers is probably the significant factor. Also, few people or institutions have dealt with these languages before. If there are no printing facilities at a school in an isolated village or on a reservation, materials must be sent to the closest town for printing, slowing the development process down considerably. On the other hand, for city schools, printing facilities may be available at the school or at the district or city offices which are fairly close at hand. The problem for Native American projects is compounded by the need to develop more of their instructional materials locally.

It is apparent that there needs to be a greater exchange of materials, development ideas (rather than content) among programs since there is such variation in languages and dialects. It is important though that programs share ideas about curriculum content, approaches, materials development approaches, uses, resources, etc. Conferences provide one alternative but they are inadequate in many ways. They are infrequent, unstructured, and often too large. There needs to be some kind of easy access of information among the Title VII projects.

It also appears that many projects wish to maintain control over materials development at the school level. Even so, most programs have a great need to share ideas and materials, and to perhaps receive training in how to develop materials themselves to meet local needs.

Some specific recommendations regarding materials development for Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific bilingual-bicultural projects are:

- The clearinghouse function of dissemination centers could be emphasized. There continues to be a need for some place where projects can turn to to learn about materials that have been developed commercially or by other projects. An important function then is to disseminate information to projects on a regular basis about new materials, new

techniques, and new resources that are either commercially available or have been developed by other projects.

- The materials development function of existing centers could be deemphasized. Instead, staff at the project level could be trained by experts at the centers and encouraged to develop materials locally. Local efforts could be supported by centers with technical assistance in the areas of editing, printing, and graphic reproduction.

Payments to local people for involvement in project activities. Study findings indicated that some projects felt that it was appropriate and necessary to pay local people for their contribution when involving them in project activities. For example, some projects felt that elders in the village should be paid for the time they spend relaying information about the culture, history, literature, science, etc. of the group to a project staff person to develop stories or materials. They also felt that local people should be paid for coming to the school to teach the children things about the culture that the regular teacher cannot and for working with the linguist to develop an orthography.

Although it is the usual practice to pay consultants for their time and advice on matters relating to materials development or evaluation, it has not been customary to pay parents or relatives of students for time that is spent in special school programs.

- Since several projects indicated that community involvement has been hampered because of their inability to make such payments, we suggest that the Office of Education examine the potential problem in greater depth than we have been able to do and to determine whether or not it severely hampers community participation in bilingual-bicultural projects.

Evaluation of bilingual-bicultural projects. The study findings reveal that problems in evaluation persist. Changes in project goals, unavailability of standardized tests in the native language, and lack of

staff who are trained in evaluation methodology make effective evaluation difficult.

Two recommendations seem appropriate here:

- For new projects, emphasis should be placed on formative evaluation with rapid feedback to the project in new or developing instructional strategies before summative evaluations are attempted.

- As mentioned under recommendation for technical assistance to projects, the Office of Education might provide workshops and advice to projects through experts at regional centers.

Funding practices. Most programs noted that considerable time and effort went into proposal preparation and related efforts to secure funds each year. It was generally felt that funding periods longer than a year at a time would place projects in stronger positions when hiring or retaining staff and in convincing non-project staff that the bilingual-bicultural project is not likely to be discontinued. It was also noted that official notification of funding for the following year sometimes came so late that project staff felt compelled to seek positions that were more secure. Based on these problems, the following recommendations seem appropriate:

- Whenever possible, projects could be funded for periods longer than one year at a time.

- If notification of funding could be made before the end of April, it would allow project staff to make plans before school is out.

Part II: Title VII Legislation

This part of conclusions and recommendations is limited to a review of study findings which suggest possible changes in Title VII regulations or legislation. Implications of the findings for legislative changes are included in this report as a means to aid the Office of Education in furthering the overall purposes of Title VII. The discussion is presented under four headings, followed by a suggestion to study or change the legislation.

- Allowable activities and objectives
- Ability of local educational agencies to absorb projects
- Bilingual-bicultural education and federal desegregation policy
- Definition of Parent Advisory Committee

Allowable activities and objectives. The study found that current bilingual-bicultural projects can be classified as having one of the following four general goals: transitional, mono-literate, partial bilingual, and full bilingual. Under these general goals, one or more of the following project objectives are adopted: improving English language skills, maintaining bilingualism, restoring the vitality of languages other than English, and improving the self-image of children of limited English-speaking ability. The findings also suggest that the individual needs of eligible target children may require quite different project goals and approaches in order to meet their diverse needs and that some activities may not be allowable under a strict interpretation of present Title VII legislation.

- It is recommended that the Office of Education study the issue of allowable activities and objectives under Title VII legislation, and that they consider changes which will permit activities and objectives that can best meet the needs of such diverse groups as those investigated in the present study.

The study findings also indicated that some projects had trouble in preparing budgets because it was not clear to them just what activities were allowable. Activities might be approved for one project; while quite similar activities would not be approved for another project without any official explanation from the funding agency.

It was also observed by some of the educators interviewed during site visits that problems sometimes arise when the project and the Office of

Education disagree about whether a particular expenditure is justified under an approved budget line item. For example, although activities such as "community and educational activities" are approved by the legislation, expenditures for things such as food or the paid participation of community elders may be refused reimbursement. Because the differences among programs and the language groups they serve are great, some flexibility in cost approval seems necessary, as rigid cost guidelines might bias the content of programs and tend to put a chill on new strategies and methods. On the other hand, too much flexibility in the present law and regulations may permit too much arbitrary agency action.

- A solution might be to develop a cost schedule on an "including but not limited to" basis, leaving the review of other kinds of costs to the discretion of the agency on a case-by-case basis.

Ability of local educational agencies to absorb projects. The study indicates that some communities served by Title VII projects are not able to absorb the costs of projects, as desired by the Office of Education, particularly Native American communities on reservations which do not have a tax base from which revenue can be sought. On reservations, the problem is further compounded by unusually high program costs, resulting from the fact that the languages involved are commonly unwritten. Media materials suitable for formal education are for the most part nonexistent in these languages, and it takes much longer to develop them than the five years generally allotted for demonstration projects.

- A possible solution is to establish refunding appropriations for successful on-going Title VII programs who are unable to secure further local funding.

Bilingual-bicultural education and federal desegregation policy. The study findings indicate that grouping students for bilingual-bicultural programs often resulted in groups that were not in compliance with federal desegregation policies. Concern that bilingual-bicultural education might serve as a pretense for evading federal desegregation laws has resulted in improvident limitations on programs.

- It is recommended that the Office of Education study

the issue of whether or not grouping students for purposes of bilingual-bicultural programs violates federal desegregation laws, and to seek ways of permitting groupings which are necessary to bilingual-bicultural education without violating the intent of civil rights laws.

Definition of parent advisory committee. The findings indicated that an important issue, especially among Native American communities, is the composition and selection of parent advisory committees under Title VII. The Title VII guidelines now require that only parents of children in the project can comprise the parent advisory group for bilingual education, and that the election of persons to the group will be by these parents. This stipulation is antithetical to the values of many Native American communities since the native language and culture and its use in the school are viewed as a concern of the total community, and not just parents.

- It is suggested that the Office of Education review those sections of the guidelines which prescribe how "parent advisory committees" should be formed, and that they seek changes which will permit the formation of advisory groups which are more in keeping with the values and structure of Native American communities.

APPENDIX A

Issues in Bilingual Education of Particular Relevance to Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups

Explanatory Note:

Appendix A incorporates all the issues taken from the literature review, which were found to be important in bilingual education for Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific language groups. Because of the comprehensive nature of the issues and the limited scope of this study, it was necessary to reevaluate them in terms of priority areas.

In February, 1975, the Bilingual Advisory Panel rank-ordered the issues. The issues with circled numbers indicate the Panel's final determination of the most important issues. Although this study attempted to explore all the issues, primary emphasis will be given to those issues considered most important.

Issues in Bilingual Education of Particular Relevance to
Native American, Indo-European, Asian and Pacific Language Groups

	Issues Keyed to Sites
(1.) To what extent does the environment of the reservation or village present unique differences and/or problems for bilingual-bicultural programs?	1-5
(2.) Are there unique differences between on-reservation and off-reservation Indians and their educational needs which have implications for bilingual-bicultural programs?	
(3.) To what extent does environment affect language dominance?	1-10
(4.) To what extent do traditional Indian values of the Native people affect the content, the methodologies, and the relationships of people in the bilingual-bicultural program?	1-5
5. To what extent do bilingual program staffs see their function as the perpetuation of the oral tradition of the tribes, or do they see this as a function of the community?	1-5
(6.) To what extent does the range of children's speaking ability, from limited English to non-English, affect the development of the bilingual-bicultural curriculum?	1-10
(7.) To what extent do Indian communities whose first language is primarily English need or want bilingual-bicultural education?	5
(8.) To what extent do outside influences, i.e., materials, teacher attitudes, school curriculum, etc., affect a child's self-concept?	1-10
9. What are some of the considerations in a bilingual-bicultural program which will change the negative self-image?	1-10

	Issues Keyed to Sites
10. What problems exist for bilingual programs where the Native language has not been put into a literate state, or has recently been put in a literate state?	2,4,5
11. What problems exist in the transition of the oral language into a literate state?	2,4,5
12. In terms of the development of the orthographies to be used in the bilingual program, to what extent are non-Indian linguists and anthropologists able to develop written systems and materials that do not misrepresent the existing culture or detract from the oral tradition of the tribe?	2,4,5
13. What linguistic considerations (i.e., alphabet, sounds, dialects, etc.) affect the bilingual program, particularly materials development, teacher training, and instruction?	1-10
14. How effective have programs been in incorporating the oral tradition into a formal educational system which requires translation into both written and spoken English?	1-5
15. What are the cost implications of bilingual programs for Indian tribes who have no orthography?	2,4,5
16. To what extent have bilingual-bicultural programs been able to enlist community support and involvement?	1-10
17. To what extent has community control of schools been able to carry out their own goals?	2,4
18. How have policies of the Title VII or state policies helped or deterred community fulfillment of educational goals?	2,4

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | | |
|-----|---|-------|
| 19. | To what extent has community involvement been able to affect change in student attitudes, behaviors, and achievement in the school? | 1-10 |
| 20. | How has parent and community involvement in and out of the school affected a change in attitude and actions among the community at large? | 1-10. |
| 21. | What are some of the approaches used by bilingual programs that have provided successful involvement of parents and community in and out of the school? | 1-10 |
| 22. | To what extent are there yet constraints to community involvement and how are programs able to overcome such constraints? | 1-10 |
| 23. | How have time limits, manpower, and costs affected goals and procedures in bilingual-bicultural programs? | 1-10 |
| 24. | To what extent do programs feel it is necessary to instruct non-Indian children in the Native language and culture? | 3,4,5 |
| 25. | What are the most appropriate methods of teaching language and culture to the tribe? | 1-5 |
| 26. | To what extent does language dominance, either in English or in the Native language, affect the methodology in a bilingual-bicultural program? | 1-5 |
| 27. | What do programs see as the "ideal" teacher in an Indian bilingual-bicultural program? | 1-5 |
| 28. | To what extent have programs been able to secure this "ideal" teacher? | 1-5 |
| 29. | To what extent have Native personnel aided in the planning and development of bilingual-bicultural programs? | 1-5 |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- 30. To what extent do non-Indian teachers' orientation to Indian cultures and languages affect their attitudes and subsequent behavior in the education of children both Indian and non-Indian?
- 31. What approaches to training and development have programs used to develop understanding and appreciation of the language and culture?
- 32. What kind of training or development is necessary for Native personnel who are not yet certified?
- 33. To what extent have state laws regarding certification affected Native teacher recruitment and/or training?
- 34. To what extent have bilingual programs been able to encourage Indian people into the educational professions?
- 35. What have been some of the effective methods of providing motivation for these prospective teachers?
- 36. To what extent do certain cultural considerations of the tribe affect the strategies of teacher training and development?
- 37. To what extent have bilingual programs been able to use traditional and commercial materials?
- 38. To what extent have programs been able to use materials from other existing Indian bilingual-bicultural programs?
- 39. To what extent have programs been able to use standardized tests?
- 40. Where standardized tests are inappropriate, how have programs overcome this constraint?

~~1-5~~

1-10

1-5

1-5

1-5

1-5

1-5

1-10

1-5

1-10

1-10

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 41. What techniques have programs used to evaluate the student and community educational needs? | 1-10 |
| 42. To what extent should a standard language be taught in addition to the local dialect? | 6-8,9-10 |
| 43. Is the "ideal" bilingual teacher one who in addition to speaking the standard language, speaks the local dialect? | 6-8,9-10 |
| 44. To what extent should speakers of the local dialect be required or be given the opportunity to learn a standard language? | 6-8,9-10 |
| 45. To what extent should English-dominant children be exposed to and instructed in the nonstandard local dialects? | 6-8,9-10 |
| 46. To what extent does the fact that a community's language is primarily oral affect the operation of a bilingual program? In home/school relations? In use of media for information dissemination? In teacher/parent contact? | 1-10 |
| 47. To what extent do socio-economic variables, the need for people to be bilingual, and their geographical location influence the bilingual programs? | 1-10 |
| 48. To what extent does the ethnic composition of a community affect cross-cultural interaction in a bilingual program? Between students? Between parents? Between community and school? | 1-10 |
| 49. To what extent does a mixed linguistic population in an urban setting, such as New York, require unique considerations in operating a bilingual program? | 7,8,9 |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | |
|---|------|
| 50. To what extent does the geographical location of a group of people affect the creation and operation of a bilingual program? | 1-10 |
| 51. To what extent does the size of a population of one language group affect the establishment of a bilingual program? | 6-10 |
| 52. To what extent does the length of time a linguistic group has resided in the United States affect the bilingual program? | 6-10 |
| 53. Do "newcomers" have unique needs? | 6-10 |
| 54. Should language maintenance programs be instituted to meet the immediate transitional needs of immigrants of all ages? | 6-10 |
| 55. To what extent do immigrant people tend to have more personal and social problems than others, and how do these affect the achievement and attitudes of students? | 6-10 |
| 56. To what extent should bilingual program staff intervene in social, family and personal problems? | 6-10 |
| 57. Should bilingual programs work more closely with social agencies? | 6-10 |
| 58. To what extent do social problems affect absentee and drop-out rates? | 1-10 |
| 59. What methods could be employed to promote dissemination of materials and techniques between programs? | 1-10 |
| 60. To what extent are special service projects and dissemination centers used by bilingual programs? | 6-1- |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | |
|---|------|
| 61. Are program needs met by these services? How could services be improved? | 6-10 |
| 62. Have models such as Service de Liaison and LETA proven to be effective? | 6-10 |
| 63. Could similar techniques be employed in other language programs? | 1-10 |
| 64. To what extent do programs rely on and utilize available resources rather than duplicate them independently? | 1-10 |
| 65. To what extent does a past history of exclusion and discrimination as seen in American laws and practices towards Asians present unique problems for bilingual programs? | 9,10 |
| 66. In particular, to what extent are there problems in getting parent support and community involvement; in developing good self-concepts among Asian children; in the selection and training of teachers that are sensitive to effects of history on Asians and to the myths and negative stereotypes that have developed in society about Asians; in the selection and/or development of materials that portray accurately the injustices experienced by Asians and the contributions that Asians have made? | 9,10 |
| 67. In bilingual-bicultural programs where consideration is given to Asian cultures, to what extent are teachers able to avoid developing expectations of students based on stereotypes? | 9,10 |
| 68. To what extent do or will existing bilingual-bicultural education programs for Asian groups prove to represent acceptable models for compliance with the <u>Lau vs. Nichols</u> decision? | 9,10 |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | |
|---|------|
| 69. To what extent are bilingual-bicultural programs responsive to the educational needs of new arrivals? | 6,10 |
| 70. Are the educational needs, attitudes and expectations of new arrivals different enough from those of second and third generation Asian Americans so as to require special program components such as special materials, instructional strategies, etc.? | 9,10 |
| 71. Are there special educational problems such as previous levels of schooling, expectations of language learning, socialization, and cultural factors which are unique to different Asian immigrant groups? | 9,10 |
| 72. To what extent do recent immigration patterns among Asian groups create acute needs for bilingual-bicultural programs to be responsive to students of secondary school age? | 9,10 |
| 73. To what extent do values held by Asian children who are newcomers or the expectations held by teachers affect the way children respond to directions given by teachers and to instructional strategies used in the classroom? | 9,10 |
| 74. To what extent is it necessary for planners and teachers in bilingual education programs for Asian students to understand and appreciate the culture and values of the groups they teach? | 9,10 |
| 75. To what extent is the teacher's sensitivity to the use of gestures and facial expressions and tone of voice important in developing rapport in classrooms with Filipino children? | 9,10 |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

- | | |
|---|------|
| 76. To what extent does the maintenance or retention of certain Chinese cultural values pose a conflict to Chinese students in the process of learning English? | 9,10 |
| 77. Would teaching English to Chinese students at an earlier age make learning English easier? | 9,10 |
| 78. To what extent do differences in language structure between Chinese and English languages contribute to difficulties experienced by Chinese students in learning English? To what extent are methods and materials available that can help diminish these difficulties? | 9,10 |
| 79. Would employing informality in the classroom and inducing a more relaxed atmosphere for learning English be helpful or detrimental to the more recent arrivals? | 9,10 |
| 80. Or should such practices be phased in in order to facilitate their gradual acquisition of a second language and culture? | 9,10 |
| 81. To what extent are teacher attitudes and teacher competencies in a teaching-learning environment important in bilingual education programs involving Asian students? | 9,10 |
| 82. To what extent are curriculum development problems further complicated by the inavailability of curriculum writers who can both write the language and have the needed perspective? | K-10 |
| 83. To what extent can and should bilingual bicultural programs be responsive to different dialects of major languages? | 6-10 |

Issues Keyed
to Sites

84. What criteria should be applied in deciding which spoken dialect should be used in the classroom as a medium of instruction?

6-10

APPENDIX B

Program Documentation Package

PROJECT INFORMATION

Program Title _____
Address _____
LEA _____
PR# _____ Grant Award _____
Year started _____ Expected longevity _____
Year started under Title VII _____ Expected longevity _____
Program Director _____ Phone _____
Number of schools involved in total program _____
Name of schools: _____

Participants

Age range _____ Grade levels _____
Total enrollment _____
Enrollment by grade levels _____

Average number of students per class _____
Number of English dominant students per school _____
Number of non-English dominant students per school _____
Language dominance _____
Community income level/school: below \$5,000 _____ \$10,000-\$15,000 _____
\$5,000-\$10,000 _____ above \$15,000 _____

Personnel

Number of certified teachers per school _____
Ethnicity _____
Time of each devoted to bilingual program _____
Number of certified bilingual teachers per school _____
Ethnicity _____
Languages of bilingual teachers _____
Time devoted to bilingual program _____
Number of non-certified teachers per school _____
Ethnicity _____
Time devoted to bilingual program _____

Number of non-certified bilingual teachers per school _____

Ethnicity _____

Languages of bilingual teachers _____

Number of support personnel per school _____

Kind of support personnel _____

Time devoted to bilingual program _____

Number of bilingual support personnel per school _____

Documents Reviewed (evaluation reports, previous and continuing proposals, meeting minutes, etc.)

Other comments _____

INTERVIEWEE INFORMATION

Date _____

Interviewee's Position _____

Interviewee's approximate age

_____ A. 15-25 _____ B. 25-35 _____ C. 35-50 _____ D. 50-over

Length of time with the program _____

Length of time with the school _____

Ethnicity _____

Member of community served by program _____

Sections of interview completed _____

Initials of Interviewer _____

Notes on interview _____

DATA COLLECTION GUIDE

Program Components

Program Planning

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of program planning that result from language and cultural considerations?

PP.1.1. Goals

- a) First year goals
- b) Present goals
- c) Long-range goals
 - Changes in goals
 - Reasons for changes

PP.1.2. Needs Assessment

- a) Methods, instruments, for assessing needs
- b) Persons or groups involved in assessing needs
- c) Needs priorities

PP.1.3. Initial Stimulus for Bilingual Program

- a) Previous efforts
- b) Key staff
- c) Key community persons or groups

PP.1.4. Planning Process (before program began)

- a) Key persons or groups involved/roles in major planning tasks
- b) Major activities

PP.1.5. Planning Process (on-going)

- a) Key persons or groups involved/roles in major planning tasks
- b) Major activities
- c) Major changes in initial plan
 - Reasons for changes
 - Provisions for on-going changes

H₂ Are there differences in approaches for program planning that result from language and cultural considerations of target group?

PP.2.1. Student Participants

- a) Selection criteria or process
 - Instruments

PP.2.2. Influences in program planning

- a) Federal requirements or restrictions

- b) State requirements or restrictions
 - c) Local requirements or restrictions
 - d) Lau vs. Nichols decision
- Effect on program

H₃ Are there differences in approaches to program planning that result from socio-economic, demographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

PP.3.1. Community(ies)

- a) Number of communities served by program
 - b) Racial makeup
 - c) Education level
 - d) Socio-economic status level
 - e) Language dominance
 - f) Number of language groups served
- Problems

PP.3.2. Characteristics of Communities

- a) Rural
 - b) Urban
 - c) Suburban
 - d) Reservation
 - e) Village
 - f) Isolated
- Effect on bilingual program

PP.3.3. Environment of Community

- a) Federal or state reservations
- Effect on bilingual program

PP.3.4. Student Participants

- a) Recent immigrants
 - b) Monolingual American-born (target language) students
- Needs
- Approach to meeting needs

H₄ Are there differences in resources for program planning which affect bilingual education projects?

PP.4.1. Available Resources for Program Planning

- a) Consultants
- b) Dissemination centers
- c) Community organizations
- d) National organizations
- e) Other bilingual programs
- f) LEA personnel
- g) Other federal programs

- h) Universities/colleges
- i) Parents
- j) Community members

PP.4.2. Resource Sharing

- a) Personnel
- b) Materials
- c) Training

PP.4.3. LEA Support in Planning Program

- a) Money
- b) Resources
- c) Consultation
- d) Services
- e) Facilities

PP.4.4. Program Staff Involvement in Planning

H₅ Are there differences in costs of program planning which affect the bilingual program?

PP.5.1. Planning Costs

- a) Factors which increased costs
- b) Most expensive items in planning
- c) Alterations in program due to costs

PP.5.2. Budget Restrictions in Planning

- a) Federal restrictions
- b) State restrictions
- Effect on program

PP.5.3. Development of Program

- a) Sufficient time
Planning grant in proposal
- b) Sufficient money
Needs

PP.5.4. Budget Expansion (hypothetical)

- a) Additions to program

Program Management and Administration

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of program management and administration that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PMA.1.1. Goals for Program Management and Administration

- a) Persons involved in setting goals
- b) Groups involved in setting goals

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to program management and administration that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PMA.2.1. Director

- a) Selection procedures
Persons or groups involved
- b) Responsibilities
Additional responsibilities different
from others in parallel positions
Decision making concerned with
- c) Time devoted to program
- d) Length of time in present position
- e) Length of time in program

PMA.2.2. Assistant Director

- a) Selection procedures
- b) Responsibilities
- c) Time devoted to program
- d) Length of time in present position
- e) Length of time in program

PMA.2.3. Informal Assistants to Director

- a) Positions
- b) Roles

PMA.2.4. Advisory Boards or Committees

- a) Types of boards or committees
Teacher
Parent
Community
School

PMA.2.5. Organization of Program Management

- a) Chain of command
- b) Structure of program management with school management
Separate from school management
Within structure of school management
Coordinated with school management
Positive and negative effects

PMA.2.6. Administration's Attitude Toward Bilingual Program (examples)

- a) School administrators (non-Title VII)
- b) Non-bilingual staff
- c) School board
- d) LEA
Effect on program

H₃ Are there differences in resources for program management and administration which result from socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

PMA.3.1. Bilingual Program Administration Site

- a) Located in school
 - b) Located outside of school
 - c) Distance from School
- Problems related to location

PMA.3.2. Management of Program

- a) Management of more than one school
- Number of schools
Problems involved

H₄ Are there differences in resources for program management and administration which affect bilingual education for the target group?

PMA.4.1. Resources in Program Management.

- a) Resources from LEA
- b) Resources from school or district personnel

PMA.4.2. Resources Needed But Not Available

- a) Reasons for inavailability

H₅ Are there differences in costs in program management and administration which affect the bilingual program?

PMA.5.1. Program Management Budget

- a) Most expensive items (besides salary)
 - b) Unusual costs due to location of administration site
- Factors causing high costs

PMA.5.2. LEA Financial Assistance to Bilingual Program.

- a) Materials and supplies
- b) Equipment
- c) Office space
- d) Travel
- e) Salaries (specify)
- f) Consultants and contracted services

Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction

H₁ Are there differences in goals for the bilingual curriculum and instruction that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

BGI.1.1. Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction Goals

- a) Five most important goals set for this year

- b) Five most important long-range goals
Expected time to meet goals
- c) Goals for monolingual (target group) students
- d) Goals for monolingual limited-English-speaking students
- e) Goals for monolingual-English-speaking Anglo students
- f) Goals for monolingual-English-speaking (target group) students

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to bilingual curriculum and instruction in the bilingual program that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

BCI.2.1. Languages and/or Dialects Spoken

- a) By community members
- b) By students
 - High school age
 - Jr. high school age
 - Intermediate grade age
 - Primary grade age

BCI.2.2. English-Speaking Communities

- a) Desire for bilingual-bicultural education
- b) Need for bilingual-bicultural education

BCI.2.3. Characteristics of Program

- a) Bilingual
- b) Bilingual-bicultural
- c) Bicultural
- d) ESL

BCI.2.4. Student Language Dominance

- a) Number of monolingual English-speaking students
Ancestry
- b) Number of limited-English-speaking students
Ancestry
- c) Number of monolingual (target group) students
Ancestry
- d) Program's response to accommodate different dialects
- e) Program's response to accommodate wide diversity of language abilities

BCI.2.5. Instructional Methods

- a) Individualized instruction
 - Criteria for individualizing instruction
 - Subject areas
 - Methods for instruction
- b) Grouping problems
 - Criteria for grouping
 - Subject areas grouped
 - Children grouped
 - Methods of instruction

BCI.2.6. English Instruction

- a) Introduction of formal English language instruction.
Age
Ability level
Grade
- b) Instructors
Ancestry
- c) Methods of teaching English
To English-dominant students
To (target group) students
- d) Time spent in English instruction
For English-dominant students
For (target group) students
For each consecutive grade level
Increase (how much)
Decrease (how much)
- e) Subject areas using English language as medium of instruction.
- f) Grade levels using English as medium of instruction.

BCI.2.7. (Target Group) Language Instruction

- a) Introduction of formal (target group) language instruction
Age
Ability level
Grade
- b) Instructor(s)
Ancestry
- c) Methods of teaching (target group) language
To English-dominant students
To (target group) students
- d) Time spent in (target group) language
For English-dominant students
For (target group) students
For each consecutive grade level
Increase (how much)
Decrease (how much)
- e) Subject areas using (target group) language as medium of instruction
- f) Grade levels using (target group) language as medium of instruction

BCI.2.8. Bilingual Education Patterns

- a) Transitional bilingualism: In programs of this nature the mother tongue is used only until the children adjust to school and are able to follow the academic subjects in the second language
- b) Monoliterate bilingualism: Programs of this nature have as a goal the development of oral language in the mother tongue and the second language, but reading is taught only in the second language. Programs with this kind of orientation represent an intermediate stage between language shift and language maintenance.

- c) Partial bilingualism: Programs of this nature have as an objective fluency and literacy in both languages, but literacy in the mother tongue is limited to some content areas, preferably those that have direct relation to the culture of the linguistic group
- d) Full bilingualism: In programs where full bilingualism is the main goal, students are taught all skills in both languages in all domains

BCI.2.9. Curriculum Content

- a) Cultural customs, traditions, values (target group)
Subject areas
- b) Cultural customs, traditions, values (Anglo)
Subject areas
- c) Cultural customs, traditions, values (recent immigrants)
Special considerations
Effect on teaching strategies
Special needs
Program's response to needs
Unique problems
- d) Comparability to regular (non-Title VII) school curriculum
- e) State or school requirements for curriculum content

BCI.2.10. Self-Concept

- a) Major influences in the classroom
- b) Most important influence
- c) Change in student attitudes and behavior
Towards school
Towards self
Towards peers
Towards staff
Towards (target group) language
Towards English language
- d) Effect on student attitudes and achievements
Presence of bilingual staff

BCI.2.11. Bilingual Curriculum Expansion

- a) Grades
- b) Levels
- c) Availability of funds
- d) Availability of resources

H₃ Are there differences in approaches to bilingual curriculum and instruction which result from socioeconomic, demographic, geographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

BCI.3.1. Recent Immigration

- a) Number of recent immigrants
Country originating from
Title VII school

- b) Special needs
 - Language maintenance programs
 - Special instruction
 - Orientation before entering program
- c) Instructional strategies
 - Special considerations
 - Unique problems
 - Programs response to problems
- d) Secondary level immigrants
 - Accommodation of immigrants who are above age or grade level of the Title VII project
 - Feasibility
 - Problems involved

BCI.3.2. -Geographic Location of School

- a) Number of schools in Title VII program
- b) Location of school(s)
 - In community
 - Outside community
 - Distance from community
- c) Student transportation to school
 - Bus (distance)
 - Car (distance)
 - Walk (distance)
- d) Boarding school
 - Adults in residence at school
 - Number
 - Role
 - Ancestry
- e) Problems in geographic location

BCI.3.3. Student Transition From Title VII Program to Regular School

- a) Curriculum content preparation
- b) Orientation procedures or preparation
- c) Student turnover
 - Effect on student attitudes
 - Effect on student achievement

BCI.3.4. Student Mobility Patterns

- a) Consistency of treatment
- b) Project's approach to transient students

H₄ Are there differences in resources for the target group which affect bilingual curriculum and/or instruction?

BCI.4.1. Community Resources (Human)

- a) Availability of people resources
- b) Program use of resources in bilingual curriculum
 - Role
 - Activities

BCI.4.2. Community Organizations' Resources

- a) Availability of organizations or groups
- b) Program use of resources in bilingual curriculum
 - Role
 - Activities

BCI.4.3. Community Facilities or Natural Resources

- a) Availability
- b) Program use of resources in bilingual curriculum
 - Activities

BCI.4.4. Curriculum Writer(s) or Developer(s)

- a) Ancestry
- b) Cultural perspective
- c) Ability
- d) Problems in acquiring curriculum developers

H₅ Are there differences in costs of, the bilingual curriculum and instruction which affect bilingual education for the target group?

BCI.5.1. LEA Financial Assistance to Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction

- a) Salaries
- b) Facilities
- c) Instructional supplies and/or equipment
- d) Instructional training and development
- e) Materials (commercial books, media, materials)
- f) Contracted services
- g) Travel

BCI.5.2. Federal Assistance (specify areas and amounts)

- a) Title I (ESEA)
- b) Title II (ESEA)
- c) Title IV (Indian Education Act)
- d) BIA

BCI.5.3. State Assistance (specify areas and amounts)

- a) State bilingual legislation

BCI.5.4. Bilingual Curriculum and ~~Instruction~~ Budget

- a) Most expensive items (besides salaries)
- b) Budget increase (hypothetical)
 - Additions to BCI
- c) Costs each consecutive year
 - Increased (explain)
 - Decreased (explain)
 - Remained same

BCI.5.5. Bilingual Curriculum

- a) Time and cost of research
- b) Time and cost of development
- c) Time and cost of demonstration

Materials Acquisition and Development

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of materials acquisition and development that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

MAD.1.1. Goals for Materials Acquisition and Development

- a) Constraints to meeting goals
- b) Time expected to meet goals

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to materials acquisition and development that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

MAD.2.1. Language Form

- a) Written
- b) Written previously, not written now
- c) Not written

MAD.2.2. Language in Written Form Now

- a) Developer(s)
 - Position
 - Role
 - Ancestry
 - Perspective
 - Results of work
 - Representative of language and culture
- b) Status of written form
 - When developed
 - Stage of development or refining of orthography
 - Problems in development
- c) Implementation of written form
 - When implemented
 - Stage of implementation
 - Problems in implementation
- d) Community familiarity with written form
- e) Classes available to teach written form
 - Instructors
 - Role/ancestry
 - Approach to teaching language
 - Frequency of classes
 - Number of community members attending
 - Problems in having classes

MAD.2.3. Language Written Previously, Not Written Now

- a) Developers of previous form
 - Role
 - Ancestry

- Perspective
- Results of work
- Representative of language and culture
- b) Status of written form
 - When developed
- c) Availability of this form
- d) Reasons for non-use

MAD.2.4. Language Not Written Now

- a) Stage of development
- b) Key members involved in development
 - Role
 - Ancestry
 - Perspective
 - Results of work
- c) Oral state to written form
 - Procedures
 - Activities
 - Problems
- d) Linguistic considerations
 - Problems in developing alphabet
 - Dialects
 - Sounds

MAD.2.5. Incorporation of oral traditions of (target group)

- a) Procedures
- b) Problems

H₃ Are there differences in approaches to materials acquisition and development which have resulted from socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

MAD.3.1. Geographic Location of School

- a) Effect on materials acquisition and development
- b) Proximity to institutional resources
 - Universities
 - Research centers
 - Dissemination centers
 - Media centers
 - Resource centers
- c) Use of institution resources

H₄ Are there differences in resources for the target group that affect materials acquisition and development in the bilingual program?

MAD.4.1 Materials Acquisition for English Instruction

- a) Availability of materials
 - Commercial and non-commercial

- b) Use of materials
- c) Reviewing and selection procedures
- d) Persons involved in reviewing and selecting
- e) Adaptation procedures
- f) Stereotyping problems in available materials

MAD.4.2. Materials Acquisition for (target group) Instruction.

- a) Availability of materials,
 - Commercial
 - Other bilingual programs
 - Other countries (specify which country(ies))
- b) Use of materials
- c) Reviewing and selection procedures
- d) Persons involved in reviewing and selecting
- e) Adaptation procedures
 - Problems involved
- f) Stereotyping problems in available materials

MAD.4.3. Materials Acquisition (cultural)

- a) Other federal programs in school
- b) Other federal programs in the community
- c) Previous bilingual program efforts
- d) Community members
- e) Parents
- f) Organizations
- g) Limitations or constraints in acquiring materials

MAD.4.4. Materials development for bilingual curriculum

- a) Kind of materials
 - Hard cover books
 - Paperbacks
 - Workbooks
 - Audio/visual materials
 - Manipulative materials (games, flashcards, etc.)
 - Instructional units or modules
- b) Key persons or groups involved in development of materials
 - Role
 - Activities
- c) Problems in developing materials

H₅ Are there differences in costs for materials acquisition and development in the bilingual program of the target group?

MAD.5.1. Budget for Materials Acquisition and Development

- a) Proportion of budget spent of MAD.
- b) Most expensive items in MAD. (Explain)
- c) Unusual costs.
 - Development or refining of orthography
 - Development activities
- d) Existing needs
- e) Future needs

MAD.5.2. Budget Increase (hypothetical)

- a). Additions to MAD

Staff Recruitment and Development

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of staff recruitment and development that result from cultural considerations of the target group?

SRD.1.1. Goals for Staff Recruitment and Development

- a) Most important long range goal
- b) Most important present year goal
- c) Length of time expected necessary to meet goals

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to staff recruitment and development that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

SRD.2.1. Staff Recruitment

- a) Procedures for recruiting staff
- b) Requirements or specifications of staff
 - Attitudes
 - Skills
 - Background
- c) Special considerations in recruiting
 - Target group members
 - Bilingual members
- d) Problems in recruiting staff

SRD.2.2. Staffing Pattern (chart)

- a) Percentage of (target group) staff members
- b) Percentage of Anglo staff members
- c) Ideal composite staff (explain)
- d) Availability of ideal teachers
- e) Availability of ideal teacher teams

SRD.2.3. Instructional Staff

- a) Titles
- b) Duties and responsibilities
- c) Labor divisions
- d) Instructional time
- e) Volunteers
 - Role
 - Ancestry
- f) Consultants
 - Role
 - Ancestry

SRD.2.4. Staff Meetings

- a) Frequency
- b) Purpose
- c) Staff attendance
- d) Opportunities to exchange ideas, materials; techniques.
 - Planned by school
 - Individual interest

SRD.2.5. Staff Release Time

- a) Staff meetings
- b) Conferences or workshops
- c) Classroom preparation
- d) Inservice training

SRD.2.6. Staff Training and Development

- a) Frequency of inservice sessions
 - Length of sessions
 - Time of sessions
- b) Location of inservice sessions
 - Problems
- c) Instructors
 - In-house staff
 - Consultants
 - Universities
- d) Needs assessment
 - Provisions for ongoing assessment

SRD.2.7. Training Sessions

- a) Attendance
 - All staff
 - Volunteers
 - Community
 - Non-Title VII staff
- b) Content (subject matter)
 - Understanding and appreciation of (target group) language and culture
 - Understanding of methodologies of bilingual education
 - Understanding of educational methods
 - Training to accomodate different dialects
 - Training to accomodate different students language abilities
- c) Methods
 - Understanding and appreciation of (target group) language and culture
 - Understanding of methodologies of bilingual education
 - Understanding of educational methods
 - Training to accomodate different dialects
 - Training to accomodate different students language abilities

SRD.2.8. Staff Development

- a) Motivational techniques
 - College credits (degree bound)
 - Pay raise
 - Payment of tuition
- b) Self-improvement classes (not directly connected with performance in classroom)
 - School
 - University
 - District
- c) Status of certification of teachers
 - Length of time expected to meet full certification of staff
 - Certification problems
- d) Problems in staff development

H₃ Are there differences in approaches to staff recruitment and development which result from socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

SRD.3.1. Staff Recruitment

- a) Geographic location of school
 - Teacher incentives to come to area
 - Problems in location

SRD.3.2. Teacher Training Institutions

- a) Proximity
- b) Supportiveness of program
- c) Expertise to train teachers for bilingual program

SRD.3.3. Home Visits

- a) Opportunities for teacher/home contact
 - Structured (mandatory, planned)
 - Non-structured (optional, unplanned)
- b) Key persons involved
 - Bilingual instructional staff
 - Anglo instructional staff
 - Bilingual support staff
 - Director
- c) Frequency of visits
- d) Purpose of visits

H₄ Are there differences in the resources for staff recruitment and development which affect bilingual education for the target group?

SRD.4.1. State or local laws

- a) Recruitment procedures
- b) Selection procedures
- c) Training procedures
- d) Effect on bilingual program

SRD.4.2. Availability of Staff

SRD.4.3. Volunteers

- a) Community members
- b) LEA staff
- c) Organizations

SRD.4.4. Turnover Rate of Teachers

- a) Problems

H₅ Are there differences in costs of staff recruitment and development which affect bilingual education for the target group?

SRD.5.1. Instructional Salaries

- a) Percentage paid by Title VII
- b) Percentage paid by LEA
- c) Percentage paid by other (specify)

SRD.5.2. Instructional Salaries

- a) School regulated
- b) Project regulated
- c) State regulated

SRD.5.3. Discrepancies in Pay

- a) Certified instructional staff
- b) Non-certified instructional staff
- c) Bilingual staff
- d) Non-bilingual staff

SRD.5.4. Budget for Staff Recruitment

- a) Unusual costs
- b) Budget increase (hypothetical)
Additions

Parent and Community Involvement

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of parent and community involvement that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PCI.1.1. Goals for Parent and Community Involvement

- a) Procedures for establishing goals
- b) Key person involved
- c) Evaluation of goals
Instruments
Frequency

- d) Progress in meeting goals
- e) Constraints in meeting goals
- Programs response

PCI.1.2. Community Control (Policy making, not necessarily financial)

- a) Long-range goal
- b) Desire in community
- c) Feasibility
- d) Constraints

PCI.1.3. Advisory Committee(s)

- a) Types
- b) Membership
- c) Ethnic makeup
- d) Chairman
- e) Responsibilities
- Decision-making powers

PCI.1.4. Advisory Committee(s) Meetings

- a) Language(s) used to conduct meetings
- b) Frequency of meetings
- c) Announcement(s)
 - Type
 - Purpose (activities, meetings, progress)
 - Language(s) used
- d) Location of meetings
- e) Time scheduled
- f) Attendance
 - Members only
 - Open to public
 - Staff
- g) Purpose of meetings

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to parent and community involvement which result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PCI.2.1. Language Dominance of Community

PCI.2.2. Parent and Community Involvement

- a) Procedures for getting parent/community involvement
 - Announcements
 - Newspapers
 - Radio
 - TV
 - Active solicitation
 - Advisory committee(s)
- b) Areas of Participation
 - Program planning
 - Curriculum development
 - Instruction

- Materials development
- Staff training
- Evaluation
- c) Activities
 - Program planning
 - Curriculum development
 - Instruction
 - Materials development
 - Staff training
 - Evaluation
- d) Participants and Role (target group)
 - Community organizations
 - Community members
 - Parents
 - Extended family

PCI.2.3. Adult Education Classes

- a) Subject areas
- b) Frequency
- c) Location
- d) Attendance
- e) Methods

PCI.2.4. Effective Methods for Increasing Parent/Community Involvement

PCI.2.5. Problems in Getting Parent/Community Involvement

PCI.2.6. Effect of Involvement in Program

- a) Policy change
- b) Instruction
- c) Staff attitude
- d) Student self-concept
 - Change in attitudes, behavior, achievement
- e) Dropout and absenteeism rates
- f) Student enrollment patterns

PCI.2.7. Effect of Involvement in Community

- a) Attitude change
- b) Cross-cultural exchange
- c) Awareness of school
- d) Interest in educational matters

H₃ Are there differences in approaches to parent and community involvement which result from socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental variables of the target group?

PCI.3.1. Location of School and Community

- a) Problems
- b) Effect on involvement

PCI.3.2. Immigrants

- a) Special services or information
- b) Referrals to social service agencies
- c) Orientation procedures

PCI.3.3. Parental Mobility

- a) Transiency problems
- b) Effect on student

H₄ Are there differences in resources for parent and community involvement which affect the bilingual program?

PCI.4.1. Facilities Available for Parent/Community Involvement

- a) Adult education classes
 - Materials
 - Instructors
- b) Advisory group meetings
 - Activities
 - Resources

PCI.4.2. Additional Resources Necessary for Parent/Community Involvement

H₅ Are there differences in costs of parent and community involvement in the bilingual program of the target group?

PCI.5.1. Budget for Parent/Community Involvement

- a) Proportion of budget allotted to parent/community involvement
- b) Most expensive items in parent/community involvement

PCI.5.2. Budget Restrictions and Effect on Program

- a) Federal agencies (Title VII)
- b) State agencies
- c) LEA

PCI.5.3. Budget Assistance for Parent/Community Involvement

- a) Federal agencies (besides Title VII)
- b) State agencies
- c) LEA
- d) BIA

PCI.5.4. Budget Increase (hypothetical)

- a) Additions

Program and Student Evaluation

H₁ Are there differences in the goals of program and student evaluation that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PSE.1.1. Goals of Program Evaluation

PSE.1.2. Goals of Student Evaluation

PSE.1.3. Requirements for Evaluation

- a) Title VII
 - b) State
 - c) LEA
- Effect on program

PSE.1.4. Removal of Restrictions and/or Requirements (hypothetical)

- a) - Changes in program and student evaluation

H₂ Are there differences in approaches to program and student evaluation that result from language and cultural considerations of the target group?

PSE.2.1. Program Parts Assessed

- a) Planning
- b) Program management and administration
- c) Bilingual curriculum and instruction
- d) Parent/community involvement
- e) Staff
- f) Staff recruitment
- g) Staff development

PSE.2.2. Evaluation of Program

- a) Instruments
 - Appropriateness
- b) Selection of instruments
 - Procedures
 - Key persons involved
- c) Frequency of assessment
- d) Agency or persons contracted
- e) Key persons involved
- f) Changes in program

PSE.2.3. Student Evaluation

- a) Instruments
 - Standardized
 - Criterion-referenced
 - Teacher made
 - Parental advice

- b) Use of instruments
 - Achievement
 - Language dominance
 - Attitude (self-concept)
 - Skills in subject-areas
- c) Selection of instruments
 - Key persons involved
 - Procedures
- d) Development of instruments
 - Key persons involved
 - Procedures for development
 - Validation of instruments
 - Prediction of instruments
 - Language used
 - Appropriateness of instruments
 - Problems in developing instruments
- e) Problems in student evaluation

PSE.2.4. Pupil Progress

- a) Assessment records
 - Type
- b) Reports to parents
 - Conferences
 - Report cards
 - Phone calls
 - Community liaison person
- c) Language(s) used in reporting

PSE.2.5. Program Recommendations for Program Evaluation

H₃ Are there differences in approaches which result from socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental variables for the target group?

PSE.3.1. Student Educational Needs

- a) Assessment procedures
- b) Key persons involved

PSE.3.2. Community Educational Needs

- a) Assessment procedures
- b) Key persons involved

H₄ Are there differences in the resources for program and student evaluation in the bilingual program?

PSE.4.1. Availability of Appropriate Instruments

PSE.4.2. Evaluation Agencies or Evaluators

- a) Need
- b) Availability
- c) Staff training for evaluation

H₅ Are there differences in costs of program and student evaluation in the bilingual program?

PSE.5.1. Budget Assistance

- a) Title VII
- b) LEA
- c) State
- d) Other federal programs

PSE.5.2. Development of Instruments

- a) Unusual costs
- b) Training staff
- c) Consultants

PSE.5.3. Continuation of Bilingual Program

- a) Anticipated funding source
 - LEA
 - State
 - BIA
 - District
 - Other federal programs
- b) Financial capabilities of funding source
- c) Attitudinal support of community
- d) Attitudinal support of LEA

Data Collection Guide For Use
With Parents and Community Members

Community Impact

H₁ Is there an impact in the community as a result of bilingual education?

CI.1.1. Identification

- a) Respondent's ancestry
- b) Respondent's language dominance, usage
- c) Residents in community, length of time
- d) Age, sex

CI.1.2. Relationship to Project

- a) Connection to bilingual project
- b) Involvement in project
- c) Attendance at project activities
- d) Participation as volunteer

CI.1.3. Knowledge of Project

- a) Familiarity with project and staff
- b) Sources of communication with project
- c) What do they know of project, how do they know it

CI.1.4. 1) Attitudes Towards Education

- a) Feelings toward their own education
- b) Feelings towards their children's education

2) Attitudes Towards Bilingual Education

- a) Value of bilingual education
- b) Choice of bilingual education
- c) Changes in attitudes towards education resulting from bilingual project

CI.1.5. Effect of Parent/Community Involvement in Program

- a) Policy change
- b) Instruction
- c) Staff attitude
- d) Student self-concept
Change in attitudes, behaviors, achievement
- e) Drop-out and absenteeism rate
- f) Student enrollment patterns
Non-enrolled students
District exchange

.CI.1.6. Effect of Bilingual Program in Community

- a) Attitude change
 - Other ethnic groups
 - Use of language(s)
 - Awareness of school
 - Interest in educational matters
- b) Cross-cultural exchange
- c) Attendance at adult classes
- d) Participation in bilingual program