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ABSTRACT

This report examines the issues involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of educational programs for Indochinese refugees. The cultural and linguistic characteristics and resettlement patterns of Indochinese ethnic groups are discussed with respect to the different educational needs of these groups. The policies and services of Federal programs such as those provided under the Refugee Act of 1980, the Indochina Refugee Children Assistance Act of 1976, and the Title VII Basic Projects and Demonstration Projects Program are also examined. Problems incurred by school districts as a result of the migration of refugees are cited; demographic and enrollment information concerning refugee children is reported. Also covered are curriculum development issues, staff development and inservice education, and student, parent, and community organization strategies. It is concluded that further research is needed in order to clarify those services and methods which deal most effectively with the testing, placement, orientation, and provision of instructional services to Indochinese refugees. (JCD)

MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF INDOCHINESE REFUGEE CHILDREN

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I. INTRODUCTION

For the last three to six years, schools and school districts across the country have been facing an educational challenge, namely, the presence of refugee children from non-European backgrounds--children with limited amounts of education, with little exposure to Western technology and organizations, and often from preliterate societies.

What is not commonly known in any detail is the variety of efforts school districts have made to provide quality education for these children. To date, we have neither clarified what challenges the districts faced (and continue to face) nor gathered information as to what has been learned from this experience.

The presence of Indochinese refugee children in our schools can not be ignored. It is our conviction that because of the continual migratory patterns and political pressures in the world similar demands to meet the special needs of particular students will continue to appear and that we must be prepared for them. The way to do so is to identify what problems the districts have faced and solved and what still needs to be learned or attended to in order to improve future educational delivery. We need to understand how refugee problems are both different from and similar to those presented by other children with special educational needs.

Indochinese refugees have been resettled throughout several states in the U.S. One third of the refugees, however, now live in California. Although various school districts are involved in programs to meet the special needs of refugee children, information on the progress, problems, school population of these efforts are not, to date, widely available to educators, other school districts and educational policy makers.

The purpose of this report is to identify the specific nature of the challenge that the presence of Indochinese refugee children present

to educators and policy makers. This will be done by piecing together data gathered from a large number of sources from state, federal and local agencies that are either directly or indirectly associated with the education of Indochinese refugee children.

The methodology used to try to understand the issues involved was to take a very wide sweep and then to try to understand particular challenges which schools and school districts have tried to address.

Literature on Indochinese Refugees

A literature review was conducted. All of the major bibliographies which addressed refugee issues in the U.S. were used (see: Stein, 1979; Indochinese Refugee Action Center, 1980; Church World Service, 1980; Southeast Asian Refugee Studies Project, 1980/81; Health and Human Services/Office of Refugee Resettlement, 1981). Reports such as the Stanford Research Institute, 1981; Trans Century Foundation Report, 1979; Stein, 1981) which dealt with refugee issues were consulted. There was an amazing dearth of materials on educational issues and most of these were not too well documented. There is one doctoral dissertation written on the early Vietnamese wave (Chun-Hoon, 1978). There is a very good but short article on some of the issues which confront administrators (Liff, 1980). The Bauman, 1980, report is an excellent survey of English as a Second Language issues for adults. The National Center for Materials and Curriculum Development in Iowa City, Iowa, included excerpts from its needs assessment which discuss many of the educational issues. Unfortunately, the Health and Human Services Service Delivery Needs Assessment which was carried out in February, 1981, and which included

[1] One scholar said that trying to get a clear picture of any aspect of the Indochinese refugee situation was like the blind men touching an elephant: Each had only a piece.

a survey of education, did not appear in time to be included in this report though the author did discuss with the coordinator some of the major findings which appeared in the report. In addition to these major sources, mimeographed materials from schools, school districts, federal agencies, and voluntary agencies were also collected.

Other Sources of Information

Other sources of information for this report on the educational needs of Indochinese refugee children were gathered from interviews, classroom visits and attendance at conferences on Indochinese refugee issues.

The interviews were conducted with individuals who were either involved in service agencies for Indochinese refugees or did research on refugee issues. A second set of interviews was with persons who were directly involved, at one level or another, with the education of Indochinese refugee children at both the national and regional levels. These included administrators, teachers, ESL/bilingual coordinators, resource persons, and teacher trainees.

School visits were conducted for this report in several elementary and secondary schools in California, Maryland, and Virginia.

Finally, several professional meetings (at which refugee issues were the focus of interest) provided further information for this report. These meeting's included: The annual meeting of the National Association of Vietnamese American Education, March 26-28, 1981, Anaheim, California; sessions at TESOL, March 3-7, 1981, Detroit, Michigan; California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing, Workshop, June 11, 1981; Monthly Bilingual Coordinators' Meeting, Southwest Regional Laboratory, Los Alamitos, California.

II. INDOCHINESE IMMIGRATION TO THE U.S.

1. Numbers

The collapse of the government of South Vietnam in 1975 catalyzed the largest emergency mass migration of refugees in U.S. history (Taft,

North, and Ford, 1979). Between April and December 1975, over 130,000 Indochinese were admitted to the U.S. on the parole status as defined by the Immigration and Nationality Act. Under this proviso, Indochinese refugees were admitted through the parole authority of the Attorney General "for emergent reasons or for reasons deemed strictly in the public interest." Between 1976 and January 1979, approximately 64,000 more were admitted in the second wave of immigration to the U.S. While the first wave had arrived immediately after the collapse of the South Vietnamese government in 1975, the second wave included the so-called "boat people" and refugees from Cambodia and Laos.

In total, since 1975, approximately 492,965 Indochinese refugees have arrived in the U.S. (ORR/HHS). About fifty percent of this number are known to be below 20 years of age. Further, during the coming year, refugees are expected to arrive at the rate of 13 000 per month, reaching an estimated total for fiscal year 1981 of 130,000 (personal communication, State Department, Office of Asian Refugee Programs.) Although subject to change and discussion, the Department of State has asked for a budget for 144,000 refugees for fiscal year 1982, so the number of refugees is likely to increase still more in the next year.

2. Dispersion Patterns

The process of reset lement of Indochinese refugees begins in refugee camps. The first country of assylum where voluntary agencies (VOLAGS) authorized by the U.S. Government begins the process of preparing refugees for life in the U.S. In refugee camps in Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Singapore, and the Philipines, VOLAGS, such as the International Resource Committee (IRC), the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Service, the Church World Service, and numerous other agencies, initiate immigration and naturalization procedures. In addition, it is in these camps that refugees often have their first contact with the English language as they are processed for entry to the U.S. The arrangements for resettlement in the U.S. are conducted

by the American Council of Voluntary Agencies (ACVA) which consists of 44 member agencies. Essentially, ACVA is involved in matters involving developing assistance and material resources during the resettlement process. Once in the U.S., refugees are assisted in the resettlement process by VOLAGS, whose branches are located in key U.S. cities: USCC, United States Catholic Confidence; CWS, Church World Service; ACNS, American Council for Nationalities Service; AFCR, American Fund for Czechoslovak Refugees, Inc.; BCRRR, Buddhist Council for Refugee Resource and Resettlement; LIRS, Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Service; IRC, International Resource Committee; WRRS, World Relief Refugee Services; HIAS, Hebrew Immigration Aid Society, Inc.; Tols, Tolstoy Foundation; ISVA, Idaho State Voluntary Agency; IRSC, Iowa Refugee Service Center.

During the second wave of immigration from mid-1975 to mid-1978, approximately 36,000 refugees were admitted, but these refugees were not subject to any special placement policy or constraints. A high proportion (approximately 80%) of the third wave, 275,000 since October, 1978, have been placed in the refugee communities that have formed since 1975, based on the family reunification program (SRI, 1981). The initial policy meant that refugees were placed in almost all of the states. This meant that many communities which had not experienced foreigners from such distinct cultures now had several families to help and to try to integrate into their community. However, once settled, secondary migration began quite soon due to desire to be reunited with other family members, climatic attractions, welfare conditions and employment opportunities.

Table 1, indicates the numbers of Indochinese who are settled in different states. Some states have recently seen the resettlement of large numbers of Indochinese, while others are not affected at all. On the other hand, we can see that refugees are currently reported in every state, two territories and the commonwealth of Puerto Rico. However, the distribution is by no means equal. California is far and away the most heavily impacted state in the country with more than one

Table 1

State Report on Southeast Asian Refugees Estimated Cumulative State Totals as of May 1981 (since 1975)*

State	Estimated Total	State of Destination	Estimated Total
Alabama	2 252	Nevada	2,009
Alaska	443	New Hampshire	334
Arizona	3 180	New Jersey	4,667
Arkansas	2,569	New Mexico	2,349
California	170,412	New York	13,916
Colorado	8,400	North Carolina	4,122
Connecticut	4,527	North Dakota	563
Delaware	264	Ohio	6,718
District of Columbia	1,150	Oklahoma	6,734
Florida	9,107	Oregon	14,865
Georgia	5,226	Pennsylvania	19,188
Hawaii	6,199	Rhode Island	2 723
Idaho	928	South Carolina	1,799
Illinois	18,205	South Dakota	870
Indiana	3,841	Tennessee	3,058
Iowa	7,744	Texas	43,396
Kansas	6,466	Utah	6,314
Kentucky	1,799	Vermont	286
Louisiana	11,586	Virginia	14,806
Maine	732	Washington	22,849
Maryland	5,754	West Virginia	470
Massachusetts	8,589	Wisconsin	6,540
Michigan	8,758	Wyoming	362
Minnesota	16,484	Guam	349
Mississippi	1,445	Puerto Rico	33
Missouri	4,547	Virgin Islands	10
Montana	1,039	Other	0
Nebraska	1,954	Unknown	35
		Total	492,965

*Office of Refugee Resettlement Department of Health and Human Services.

third of the refugees. Refugees who have been resettled in Texas, Washington, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Minnesota and Oregon, account for the remaining two thirds of the refugee population.

This pattern of varied dispersion has created considerable problems: with few students and for those with large numbers. The issue of how to provide quality education for a very limited number of Indochinese children is a serious issue. For areas with large numbers of refugees, there are the issues of finding adequate staff and providing orientation for American teachers to cope with what has become a major crisis. These issues will be taken up below. (For an excellent discussion of the general policy issues involved in resettlement models, see pages A-9--11 in SRI, 1981).

3. A New Kind of Refugee

As Stein, 1980, pointed out: "Until the 1960's refugee resettlement was focused on traditional refugees--Europeans--Europeans, primarily eastern Europeans, who were the products of the Cold War" (p. 7). Further ". . . the 'new' refugees are culturally and ethnically vastly different from their hosts, they come from less developed countries, at a greatly different stage of development than the host, and they are likely to lack kin, potential support groups, in their country of resettlement" (p. 8).

Cultural differences: All of the school districts have recognized that these children come from vastly different cultural backgrounds and that these differences have important implications for the educational process. This has shown up in the schools in a variety of perplexing behaviors and challenges but also in some very pleasant behavioral differences. Sensitive teachers have found themselves asking about the personal naming system of the area or country, coming to recognize new patterns of touching and avoidance of touching among Indochinese, learning not to mind the lack of eye contact with Asian children by

recognizing that the absence of eye contact indicates respect rather than disrespect or dishonesty. They have also found themselves enjoying the dedication and attention Indochinese children give to the teacher. Teachers are pleased that many are never late and have perfect attendance records.

Educational differences: School districts have also had to come to terms with the differences in the educational process to which these children have been exposed. In all of Southeast Asia, education is highly valued and teachers are esteemed in society. It is the task of the teacher to "impart his/her wisdom" to his/her student. This means that students are much more passive in dealing with teachers. For all of Southeast Asia, innovative behavior in school is considered secondary to imitation and the student is not encouraged to be inquisitive or creative. Even if their English language skills were up to par, Southeast Asian children are not prepared to demonstrate interest and intelligence either by asking questions or by assuming an active role in the educational process.

On the other hand, some school practices are disturbing to the Indochinese. For example, Indochinese girls find the use of gym facilities and gym uniforms a problem since they are taught rules of modesty and find these facilities and uniforms a violation of their values. Sex education is also very disturbing to Indochinese. Vietnamese parents have found discussions regarding the changing role of the family in society disturbing because they feel that such discussions call into question the values they attach to the family and, consequently, encourages rebellion (personal communication - Julio Almanza).

Experiental differences: Perhaps the most immediate problem arises from the experiential background of these children. On the one hand, as Stein 1980 reports, many come from a different stage of development than is common in the U.S. This means that teachers find themselves having to cope with a very different set of problems than is

common. It has been reported that: "We have to teach them where the bathroom is, how to eat, how to sit." "I saw a boy back into the bushes the other day. He didn't know enough to ask where the bathroom was" (reported in Liff, 1980).[2] The schools find themselves having to teach "survival skills." More perceptive educators recognize that following the regular school curriculum is extremely difficult given the experiential background of these children. One Chicago elementary school teacher wondered: "How can we teach them the word 'policeman' when they don't even know what a policeman is?" (reported in Liff, 1980). Others seem less cognizant of the lack of fit between the curriculum and the experience of the children. In one classroom, this author observed a child coloring a poor mimeo representation of a dolphin, then printing the word below the representation, and repeating the word upon request. The exercise was clearly mechanical and the semantic intention of the exercise clearly lost on this child who so complacently did as requested.

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[2]This is most commonly reported for the Hmong and Mien tribal peoples. It is useful to note that: "The Hmong are a tribal group originally from Southern China who migrated southwest into the highlands of Laos in the mid-19th century. There they practiced slash and burn agriculture. . . ." "On their isolated mountain-tops they maintained their traditional way of life, organizing their society into large patrilineal clans and viewing the universe in terms of animistic spirits. This isolation was broken as the war in Indochina increased in intensity" (Reder and Green, 1981). Since the Hmong had sided with the Royalists and secretly aided the U.S. Central Inteiligence Agency in its fight against the North Vietnamese and tne Pathet Lao (Karnow, 1981), they fled when the Royal Government of Laos fell to the Pathet Lao.

The Mien are a tribal people who were native to the mountain ranges stretching across Southeast Asia. They are ethnically a Chinese minority and culturally akin to the Hmong. They traditionally cleared patches of jungle for hillside rice crops and when even the soil was depleted, the entire village moved (Sanders, 1981).

A second kind of experiential problem which has perplexed teachers, especially at the secondary level, is that which is related to being a refugee. This group of refugees shares the characteristics of most refugees which is quite different from those of immigrants. Immigration is a voluntary act and most immigrants can prepare for his/her trip, learn some of the new language, consider the job market, bring some resources along and even go home or elsewhere if the experience doesn't work out. The refugee, on the other hand, may leave with a cardboard box, no documents or valuables and with the mental and emotional baggage of having been forcefully expelled from their country with no immediate possibility of returning. The children of these refugees have also been through these experiences. At the secondary level, teachers often find it difficult to work with these children. One junior high school principal reported that her eighth grader demonstrated a lack of interest in class work and had short attention span. He was also repeatedly late for class. As it turned out the young student had often left the refugee camp in Thailand to go into the city and run black market for people. He was a procurer and he did all kinds of things. For such a student, the rules and regulations of class seem pointless (reported in Liff, 1980). In another instance, a teacher found that a Cambodian boy spent his day drawing tanks and bullets and found the boy to be quite arrogant. Fortunately, when another Cambodian child joined the class, he calmed down because he then had someone of whom to take care (personal communication: Khamchong Langpraseut)

4. Different Kinds of Indochinese

The Indochinese represent a very wide diversity of educational backgrounds and ethnic groups. Perhaps one of the reasons the school districts have not had time to really confront the complexities of the refugee child's education is because the first wave of Vietnamese refugees (1975-78) was reportedly one that was most educated and most

westernized.[3] A high percentage of the early Vietnamese refugees was composed of people who had been affiliated with the former South Vietnamese regime or with the Americans. Most of them lived in urban areas, chiefly Saigon. They were largely educated professionals who had had some exposure to English and/or French. The second wave of refugees, since 1978, is largely composed of people from rural areas or from fishing villages. They are generally thought to be poorly educated and many have never been inside a classroom.

Educators, according to The Center for Educational Experimentation Development and Evaluation reported that more recent refugees have substantially different academic backgrounds which may be explained, in part, by the following:

--After the Communists took over Indochina, there were major changes in the curriculum, methods of teaching and administration in the schools. Children spent substantial learning time internalizing the politics of the Communist Party, and in extracurricular activities in the schools. Learning of basic skills and academic subjects was deemphasized.

--Many LEP children were in camps for a long period of time prior to their arrival in the U.S. They received no education at all during their internment, and engaged primarily in aural-oral communication.

--Many Indochinese came from low income families or from minority ethnic families where educational opportunity was minimal.

(Center for Educational Development and Evaluation, 1981, pp. 5-6)

In general, of the three countries (Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia), the citizens of Vietnam had the highest educational level. Table 2, from a study carried out by Opportunity Systems by phone, shows the vast difference in educational backgrounds of refugees from the three countries:

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[3]Although all the documents attest to the differences between the first and subsequent waves, some scholars are not entirely sure what the mix of first wave refugees was. There is some thought that there were many less educated and less westernized refugees in the first wave though this has not been established due to the dearth of accurate information for all refugees over the entire period.

Table 2

Educational Attainment of Head of Household Indochinese Refugees*

	Laos	Cambodia	Vietnam
None	9.8%	15.4%	20.1%
Primary (Grades 1-5)	29.4%	16.5%	5.0%
Jr. High School (Grades 6-9)	33.9%	15.9%	10.8%
Subtotal	73.1%	47.8%	35.9%
High School	19.6%	29.5%	46.9%
University	2.6%	8.3%	15.5%
Other	4 4%	14.2%	1.5%

*Opportunity Systems, Inc., 1980, Table 37, quoted in Stein, 1980.

Comparing the above table with other reports, the high figures seem quite accurate. However, there is some question about whether the low figures are accurate. In particular, the high no attendance for Vietnamese is suspect. For comparison, Table 3, taken from the Bauman report, shows a different pattern for the no education figures with the Vietnamese showing the least amount of no education. According to Robert Bach, sociologist (personal communication), there is no set of comparative data for all countries through the entire time period that Indochinese refugees have been coming to the United States.

Nonetheless, it is clea, that there are major differences in the patterns of educational achievement among the refugees from these three countries.

With the second and third waves, the group that most educators find the most educationally perplexing are the tribal peoples from the mountains of northern Laos. The Hmong and the Mien are the most well known, though there are some 12 tribal groups living in the U.S. Generally, these people speak no English, come from preliterate homes

Table 3

Educational Attainment Level of Indochinese Refugees*

	None	Few Years	High School	College
Vietnamese	2%	22%	46%	29%
Chinese	3%	38%	53%	5%
Cambodian	24%	48%	28%	---
Laotian	15%	38%	43%	4%
Hmong	59%	32%	6%	3%

*From Bauman Report, 1980.[4]

(although among the literate Hmong many are literate in both Laotian as well as Hmong)[5] and have no experience living in a complex technological society. Teachers have found themselves at a loss, especially at the secondary level, in determining how to teach English as a second language while teaching literacy as well as school subjects at the same time.

Educators have also come to recognize that there is a wide diversity of cultural backgrounds represented by the Indochinese refugee children. They are well-represented in schools by a diverse group of people who are more rural and less educated. At least six ethnic groups are well represented in the schools: Vietnamese,

[4]This information was taken from self-reports made in a questionnaire given to 349 refugees of which 124 were Vietnamese, 60 were Chinese, 29 were Cambodian, 70 were Laotian and 66 were Hmong. 61% were males and all were 18 years and older.

[5]In a study of Hmong adults, Steve Reder, NW Regional Laboratory, has found an unexpectedly high rate of literacy - he reports some 40% are literate. He suggests that most Hmong don't generally report their literacy skills to strangers perhaps because he suspects literacy was used as a criterion for extermination by the Pathet Lao (personal communication)

Cambodian, Lao, ethnic Chinese from Chinese communities in Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos, and the Hmong and Mien (tribal peoples from the mountains of northern Laos). In addition there are limited numbers of other highland Lao tribal people in the U.S.: Tai Pam, Khma and still smaller groups.

The members of these six major ethnic groups speak: Vietnamese, Khmer, Lao, one of the five dialects of Chinese as well as Mandarin, and the Hmong and Mien languages. All but Khmer are tone languages and all are written in non-Roman alphabets, except Vietnamese, which uses the Roman alphabet with added diacritical marks to indicate tones. The Hmong and Mien languages, despite the development of several alphabets, still remain largely unwritten languages. Educators have struggled with the transfer problem for those children literate in non-Roman alphabets as well as with the provision of materials for first language literacy in non-Roman alphabets.

These cultural linguistic/language differences can have serious educational implications. According to Khamchong Langpraseut, Southeast Asian Bilingual Coordinator, Santa Ana Unified School District, one of the major differences which is reflected in educational practices is due to religious philosophies. The major contrast is between the focus of Confucianism and Buddhism and relates to what the function of education is--whether it is to encourage wisdom or to impart and instill knowledge. Where Confucianism is strong, the emphasis is on imparting knowledge which is attained through discipline. This emphasis means that it is acceptable to do whatever is necessary to encourage discipline and learning, including beating the child. The teacher is seen as a master who provides the discipline and the knowledge. On the other hand, where Buddhistic philosophy is more central in education, the emphasis is on encouraging wisdom. In Buddhism, wisdom comes through the accumulation of several lifetimes--since the Buddhists believe in reincarnation. Hence, there is no need

to focus on discipline; rather, the emphasis is on hope and on providing a positive environment in which to enhance the demonstration of wisdom. The teacher tries to be more of a friend. Within Southeast Asia, according to Langpraseut, the Confucian emphasis is stronger among the Vietnamese and Chinese and, indirectly, among the Hmong who, although animists, have come from China where Confucianism is prevalent. On the other hand, in Laos and Cambodia, the Buddhistic influence seems stronger in education. However, like all systems, nothing remains in its pure state. In fact, the Laotians and Cambodians were also exposed to the Confucian disciplinary approach to learning because the French brought Vietnamese school teachers and teacher trainers to Laos and Cambodia to promote education. Thus, Outsama, (1977), reports that teachers in Laos are authoritarian and usually keep their distance from students.

A second major difference among the cultures with educational implications, according to Langpraseut, is the opportunity to attend schools which the Vietnamese and Chinese children were afforded and which the others were not. As a result, the Vietnamese and Chinese children are more used to schools, more literate and more used to abstract thinking and learning. On the other hand, given the paucity of schools and books in Cambodia and Laos, learning is more of an experiential and demonstrative process than an academic one.

A related cultural problem which some educators have encountered, either through working with aides or with parents, relates to the basic history of the area. It must be recognized that historically, the Vietnamese have considered themselves the elite and have looked down upon the people from Cambodia and Laos as "country folk." Further, the Cambodians and Laotians people mistrust the Vietnamese since it was the Vietnamese army that participated in the invasion of their countries. A school district which has students and, hence, aides and parents from two or more of these countries, needs a skilled diplomat to help these people overcome their differences and work toward the common goal of

educating their children. Educators have also had to recognize the complex history of Vietnam since distrust among Vietnamese is still quite prevalent and may inhibit parental participation and cooperative efforts. Some of the newer refugees, the Laotian Hmong, for example, have for centuries comprised an ethnic minority in their own countries and have, as a consequence, developed an intense cultural resistance to attempts to acculturate and assimilate them (SRI, 1981, A-2).

III. WHAT GOVERNMENT POLICIES ARE RELEVANT?

1. The 1980 Refugee Act

The 1980 Refugee Act established a uniform policy for refugee admissions to the U.S. and as a result, ended the ad hoc nature of the several programs which have characterized admission and resettlement of refugees for the past several decades. It also establishes a domestic policy of resettlement assistance which is the same for all groups of refugees.

From a humanistic point of view, it is important to note that in Section 101 the bill establishes that it is the historic policy of the United States to respond to the plight of persons subjected to persecution in their home countries. In terms of numbers, for each of fiscal years 1980, 1981 and 1982, following presidentially-initiated congressional consultation, the Attorney General may admit 50,000 refugees "of special humanitarian concern" under the "normal flow" provisions of the bill. In succeeding fiscal years (1983 and following), a presidential determination will set the number of refugees to be admitted, following congressional consultation. In addition, prior to the beginning of any fiscal year, the President may seek to increase the admissions of refugees under "normal flow" provisions, following congressional consultation, for reasons of humanitarian concern or for reasons in the national interest. Further, the bill recognizes that unforeseen emergency situations may necessitate raising the number of refugees after the beginning of a fiscal year. These figures are of interest to educators in anticipating changes in school populations.

For FY 1981, the limit was set at 168,000 Indochinese refugees, although according to the Office of Asian Refugee Programs, Department of State, it is now thought that only 130,000 refugees will actually be brought in. This office is requesting a budget for 144,000 Indochinese refugees for FY 1982.

Under Section 412d, the Act authorizes projects for special educational services to elementary and secondary refugee students where a demonstrated need is shown. The services can be funded by grants or contracts through the Health and Human Services Refugee Office (HHS).

The Act is therefore important to educators because it gives some indication of the intentions of the Federal government vis-a-vis refugees and the authorization of federal subsidies for special educational programs at the primary and secondary level.

The actual administration of the law and the funding is delegated by the HHS to the Department of Education and in particular to the refugee children assistance programs, which is under the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.

2. Federal Funding

Prior to the 1980 Refugee Act. In order to minimize the fiscal impact of refugees on local government units, transitional financial assistance to education agencies was provided to help with the incremental costs of educating refugee children. In the 1975-76 school year, HEW granted $300 to local education agencies for each refugee child entering a school district. A school district which enrolled more than 100 refugee children, or 1% of the total school district's enrollment (whichever was less), received $600 per child for each child above the 100 or 1% level. The program expired on September 30, 1977. (For a brief discussion of some administrators' views of the

incremental costs of educating refugee children, see: Chun-Hoon, 1978.)

New funds came under the Indochina Refugee Children Assistance Act of 1976 to provide assistance to State departments of education in continuing education services to Indochinese refugee children. Actual funding took place the following May. The Act (P.L. 94-405 as amended by P.L. 95-561) authorized grants to States up to $450 for every Indochinese child who entered the United States since January 1977 and who was receiving instruction under the supervision of a local education agency. The states then made subgrants to the local education agencies to support the additional costs of providing basic and supplemental services. Under Continuing Resolution, H.J. Res. 440 (November 16, 1977), Congress appropriated $12 million for this program. The legislative history of the Continuing Resolution states that the funds were designed principally to meet the educational needs of Indochinese refugee children who entered school in the United States during the 1979-80 school year. Given an estimate of 50,000 eligible children, the States were to receive approximately $240 per child. (Indochinese Refugee Assistance Program, 1979 and Taft, North and Ford, 1979.)

After the 1980 Refugee Act - The Transition Program for Refugee Children. On January 14, 1981, the Secretary of Education published regulations to implement the Transition Program for Refugee Children under the authority of the Refugee Act of 1980. The program provides assistance to meet the special educational needs of refugee children and to enhance their transition into American society. Funds are provided for children enrolled in public and nonprofit private elementary and secondary schools.

The program funds (a) formula grants to States (under State-administered Programs) based on the number of eligible children in the State and (b) discretionary projects designed to produce and demonstrate exemplary approaches, materials and strategies to meet the special educational needs of eligible children.

The program allows the following services to be provided:

(a) Supplemental educational services--with emphasis on instruction to improve English language skills of eligible children--to enable those children to achieve and maintain a satisfactory level of academic performance. Services include: testing, special English language instructional, bilingual education, remedial programs of instruction, special materials and supplies.

(b) Support services--including inservice training for educational personnel, training for parents for more effective participation in their child's education, school counseling and guidance services.

(c) State Education Agency administrative costs and technical assistance to subgrantees or other agencies providing services.

The program uses a formula to distribute funds to State Education Agencies which gives differential weight to the following factors:

(a) Most weight will be given to eligible children who have been admitted into the United States for less than one year. Less weight will be given to children who were admitted longer than one year ago but no longer than 4 years ago.

(b) Children admitted less than one year will be treated equally but children who have been here longer than one year will be divided into secondary and elementary grades. Those in the secondary grades will be given more wight than those enrolled in primary grades. (Abstracted from the Federal Register, January 14, 1981.)

Under an interagency agreement, Health and Human Services transfered $23.6 million to the Department of Education from its FY 1980 budget for the operation of this program. For FY 1981 HHS has appropriated $44 million for this program. As of July, FY 1981 funds had not yet been distributed.

The formula grant is intended to address two of the more serious issues which have emerged in dealing with refugee children in the school systems. It still leaves those schools and school districts with small numbers of refugee children with considerable problems and need for creative means to cope with the children given the limited

funding their presence produces. Further, SEAs applying for assistance under the Transition Program for Refugee Children are required to count the number of children eligible under this program as of January 19, 1981, and to report this information as part of their application for funding. It is this number and not the number of children in school as of September, 1981, that will be used as the basis for allocation of FY 1981 funds. In many cases, schools experience a shortfall when the number of children changes dramatically from school year to school year.[6]

Bilingual Education Program. Refugee children served by the Transition Program are also eligible for educational services provided under the Title VII Basic Projects and Demonstration Projects Program, if they are limited English proficient. Additionally, they are entitled to services under Title VII if such grants are supplementary to the basic program of instruction offered by the school district and the educational services provided under the program. The differences between the Transition Program for Refugee Children and the programs authorized under Title VII are essentially the distinctions between a formula grant program that offers a wide range of supplementary assistance exclusively to refugees and discretionary grant programs that focus on a particular instruction techniques (such as Bilingual Education (Title VII)).

Some educational services were provided under Title VII to Indochinese Refugee Children. Of the approximately 551 Basic Projects funded in FY 1981, 42 were to Vietnamese, 33 to Cantonese and/or Mandarin (although the students did not necessarily come from Indochina), 18 for Lao and 7 for Hmong programs. Of 167 Training Projects (made to Local Education Agencies, State Education Agencies,

[6]Although there is a clause in the Regulation for the Secretary to provide additional funds for substantial and disproportionate increases in enrollment after a grant has been made, there is no guarantee that funding is available to support such regulations once so identified.

Institutions of Higher Education and Non-Profit Organizations) to provide degree-oriented inservice training, some 16 went to Vietnamese programs, 17 for Cantonese and/or Mandarin, 4 for Cambodian, 3 for Hmong and 2 for Lao language background teachers.

Additionally, information materials concerning Cambodian, Hmong, Lao and Vietnamese bilingual programs are produced and periodically updated by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Rosslyn, Virginia. (Abstracted from: Refugee Resettlement Resource Book, June 29, 1981.)

Indochinese Materials Center. The Indochinese Materials Center in Kansas City, Missouri, is funded by the U.S. Department of Education (through the Region VII Office of Educational Programs) to gather, maintain, and catalogue a collection of educational materials, curriculum guides, cross-cultural orientation materials, bilingual and ESL manuals, and other documents relevant to the teaching of Indochinese refugees. The Materials Center also collects and maintains supplementary materials and background information on Indochinese cultures and on problems and issues in domestic resettlement. (Abstracted from: Refugee Resettlement Resource Book, June 29, 1981.)

3. The Select Commission on Immigration and Refugee Policy

In October 5, 1978, P.L. 95-412 established a Select Commission on Immigration and Refugee Policy to "study and evaluate . . . existing laws, policies, and procedures governing the admission of immigrants and refugees to the United States and to make such administrative and legislative recommendations to the President and to the Congress as are appropriate." The Final Report of the Commission was submitted to the President and to the Congress on March 1, 1981. No final action has been taken, however. The President appointed an Interagency Task Force, headed by the Attorney General, to review the Report. It is not anticipated that the legislation which follows from this review will

affect the implementation now in effect under the Refugee Act of 1980. One of the recommendations--namely, that refugee clustering be encouraged is already being implemented by the Department of State (personal communication, July 9, 1981). A second recommendation that consideration be given to establishing a federal program of impact aid to minimize the financial impact of refugees on local services is already part of the Refugee Act--the amounts of such funding is of course dependent on the overall funding picture for social services.

IV. PROBLEMS FACED BY SCHOOL AGENCIES

As indicated above, the sudden mass migration of almost half a millon refugees from Indochina precipitated numerous problems in many school districts. The fundamental reasons for these problems were:

- numbers of children and the rate at which they came in was irregular,
- children from very different cultures than had been known heretofore in most schools and with different educational and life experience backgrounds,
- the amount of supplementary funding provided by the federal government was inadequate given the size of the task,
- the question of identifying or training adequate staff has been a continuing source of concern,
- the issues of teaching English as a second language and literacy to children who were preliterate or who had had very little school experience was and still is a major challenge,
- the schools had to face local parental resistance to providing special programs for these children since it was felt that this took time from their own children,
- schools, on the other hand, found the Indochinese parents seemingly unwilling or unable to participate as is expected in school activities,
- schools have noticed difficulties in matching the normal curriculum to the school backgrounds, language capabilities, age and educational experience as well as the potential work projected for these children,

- schools found considerable difficulty in testing the level of English and school knowledge in order to place these children in the appropriate grade levels,
- schools found it necessary to provide orientation for Indochinese students and parents as well as for American teachers, students and parents.

Educators and administrators are looking for novel means to provide quality education for all their children and many have been so snowed under by this crisis that they are not really informed of some successful alternative solutions which their colleagues may have found nor have they been properly oriented to recognize major gaps in certain aspects of teacher training. In this section, we intend to lay out the challenges which both administrators and the author have noted in dealing with the Indochinese. The author's observations are based on visits to several schools in California, Maryland, and Virginia and to discussions with educators in several states across the country.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Among the approximately 492 000 Indochinese refugees who have arrived in the U.S. since 1975, fifty percent are below twenty five years of age or eligible to attend public schools. Compared to the total U.S. school population (1979--46,000,000)[7] the Indochinese children do not constitute a large population. However, there are a number of special aspects to their distribution which have made their presence more complex than this number represents.

First of all, there are wide differences in their distribution in particular states, counties, school districts, schools and grades so that providing for them becomes a challenge.

[7]Source: Statistical Abstract of the U.S., 1980, 101st edition.

On the state level, we see that some states have large numbers of refugee children whereas most have relatively few. Table 4 lists the twelve most heavily impacted states.

Table 4

Twelve States with Largest Enrollment of Eligible Indochinese Refugee Children FY 1981

State	Elementary	Secondary	Total
California	20,073	15,871	35,871
Texas	4,135	3,167	7,302
Washington	3,384	3,015	6,399
Minnesota	2,628	2,285	4,913
Illinois	2 384	1,946	4,330
Pennsylvania	2,383	1,928	4,311
Oregon	2,394	1,696	4,090
New York	2,706	1,141	3,847
Virginia	1,887	1,699	2,586
Louisiana	2,038	889	2,927
Florida	1,711	1,112	2,823
Wisconsin	1,524	771	2,295
TOTALS	47,247	35,520	82,767

Source: Transition Program for Refugee Children, U.S. Department of Education.

Since the total number of eligible Indochinese Refugee Children in FY 1981 was 113,518, this means that twelve states with 82,767 children had some 73 percent of the students. The other 27% or 30, 751 children attended school in the other 38 states. In most of the other states, the number of Indochinese students was under 500.

Looking at the distribution by county, there were similar kinds of clustering patterns with some counties being heavily impacted, whereas others had very few to no Indochinese students. This pattern is clearly seen in the January, 1981, figures submitted by the State of California to the Department of Education for eligible Indochinese children.

Table 5

Eight Counties in California with Largest Enrollment or Eligible Indochinese Refugee Children (January, 1981)

	Elementary	Secondary	Total
Los Angeles	5,683	4,406	10,089
Orange	3,749	3,217	6,966
San Diego	2,583	1,930	4,413
Santa Clara	2,312	1,870	4,182
San Francisco	1,972	1,779	3,751
San Joaquin	937	575	1,512
Sacramento	871	638	1,509
Alameda	784	647	1,431

Source: State Department of Education.

Out of a total of 36,979 refugee children in California eligible for funding under the Transition Program for Refugee Children, 33 853 (91.5%) went to school in 8 counties, with Los Angeles county enrolling some 27 percent of the state total. The distribution for the other counties was as follows:

4 counties	300-900 children
7 counties	100-300 children
3 counties	50-99 children
11 counties	less than 50 children
24 counties	none

The uneven distribution is related to job opportunities, cost of housing and patterns of community settlement. To illustrate again this sort of unequal distribution we can see this pattern for Orange County in California:

Administrators have also reported that the changes at the district level can be quite remarkable from year to year requiring an immediate response without opportunity for much preparation. This shift is related both to new refugee arrivals as well as to the phenomenon called secondary migration where refugees have, for a variety of reasons, chosen to change their place of residence either between states or between school districts. An indication of this sort of

Table 6

Orange County Totals of Students of Indochinese Limited English Proficiency (1980-1981)

Santa Ana Unified School District	1,670
Garden Grove Unified School District	1,219
Westminster School District	725
Huntington Beach School District	462
Newport-Mesa Unified School District	421
Orange Unified School District	397
Anaheim Unified School District	277
Ocean View School District	250
Fullerton Elementary	217
Tustin Unified School District	172
Huntington Beach City School District	150
Fountain Valley District	132
Magnolia School District	131
Anaheim City School District	131
Fullerton JUH School District	124
Placentia	119
Irvine Unified School District	107
11 School Districts	Between 50 and 1
2 School Districts	0

change, can be noted by comparing the Indochinese refugee children figures for the same area for two years in a particular school district. Those for Orange County are quite representative. Here are some of the impressive shifts within districts over only a two year period:

For some, the change in number of students has been dramatic. Long Beach Unified School District started the 1975/1976 school year with 175 Indochinese. In 1980-1981 they counted 2,751 Indochinese students. In St. Paul, the number of Hmong school children has quadrupled in two years (personal communication, Julio Almanza, Director, Indochinese Program, St. Paul).

Table 7

Indochinese Refugee Students

	1980	1981	Late Spring 1981
Santa Ana USD	900	1,670	2 085
Garden Grove USD	621	1,219	1,900
Westminster SD	442	725	NA
Newport-Mesa USD	264	421	NA
Fullerton Elem.	123	217	NA

Finally, within schools we can see a wide variation of patterns of distribution of Indochinese refugee children. Within a specified school district, the number in a particular school is in part a result of parental choice--depending upon where the parent lives--and in part a result of the particular program configuration. Where the school district has chosen to provide a magnet school or a newcomer high school, the number of Indochinese may be quite high. On the other hand, without such school interference, there is very wide variation in how many children are in a particular school, what percent of the school population they represent and their distribution across grades. We attach reports of two Orange County school districts by school, by grade, and by ethnic/national origin in which the rather wide variation among schools, students and grades can be ascertained (Appendices 2 and 3). It is our impression that this is a fairly common pattern in other heavily impacted areas.

Many school districts and schools have been concerned about the difficulties of integrating Indochinese children into the school year because they have been arriving in quite regular numbers every month. This is to be expected since there is a monthly quota and refugees are brought from the camps in Asia in accordance with these quotas and not with the school year. However, it constitutes a serious problem for

the schools in testing, placing and helping the child to participate, since it requires special attention each month to the new group of children.

An example of this rate of arrival is the figures below for the Arlington County (Virginia) students in grades 7-12 for the year 1979-80.

Language	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Total
Vietnamese	34	18	14	17	4	25	8	26	146
(Chinese/Viet)	3	6	5	1	1	3	--	7	26
Laotian	5	4	1	2	1	10	4	13	40
Cambodian	-	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
(Khmer)	--	2	9	1	2	--	2	--	16

One other aspect which has added to the complexity of predicting numbers of school children has been the phenomenon of secondary migration where refugees have chosen to move once they have been settled due to perceived job opportunities, climate, better welfare, and/or the desire to join members of their ethnic community. As indicated above, this has been due in part to an initial policy which attempted to prevent too heavy a concentration of refugees in any particular area or state. However, once refugees are settled, they are of course free to move where they wish.

The Select Commission on Refugees and Immigration Policy Report has recommended that refugees be encouraged to establish communities by ethnic groups. To a certain extent, groups such as the Cambodians have already begun to choose to live where there are already groups of other Cambodians. School districts fare, in some sense, a predicament since they have no control over the numbers of refugee children who settle in their districts. By not knowing if the policy to encourage ethnic clustering will actually lead to their having, say, predominantly Cambodian, or Vietnamese children, they cannot plan from month to month for programs to accommodate the special needs of these children.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION ISSUES

Educators and administrators have commonly recognized that some adjustment in the curriculum and program organization had to be made in order to facilitate the education of Inchochinese refugee children. They seem to differ in how far they, the School Board, and the community are willing to change or adjust to accommodate the needs of these children. Despite special funding, the Lau versus Nichols decision which requires more than placement in a regular classroom, and State Bilingual Education Laws, the most general trend is to try to mainstream the children as quickly and as much as possible. This means that children are put into regular classes and follow regular course work as much as possible.

This pressure to mainstream is due in part to a lack of real awareness of the problems which these children may have in adjusting to a new language, a new set of expected behaviors, and a completely different school system (or even to a school system) For example, in one junior high school where an untrained ESL teacher provided three one hour a day periods of instruction to NES/LES children, the principal reported no counseling, cultural or learning problems among the Indochinese children despite the frequently reported perceptions of more sensitive educators and administrators of these issues across the country. Another example of the lack of community sensitivity to the problems of these children, is in an elementary school where the teachers were asked by the School Board to teach the children as though they were English speaking children. A teacher who had honestly tried to do so commented that teachers who had expected this to work were either living in ivory towers or a dream world.

Still, for the early wave of Vietnamese who had a fair amount of education, and had neither experienced long, painful months in camps, nor extended persecution in their own country, mainstreaming did not

seem as much of an obstacle--though some schools did recognize the need for ESL training especially at the early stages. Again, for the early wave who had studied French and who had, therefore, gone through the process of learning a second language, and an Indo-European one at that, the adaptation process was not that extreme.

However, with the second and succeeding wave, mainstreaming has worked less effectively and administrators have begun to think about the fit between the regular curriculum and the needs of these children.

There are a large number of factors which influence the choice of program for Indochinese children. Some of the most important ones are:

1. School level--primary or secondary
2. Issues in providing ESL for Indochinese
3. Issues regarding literacy training
4. Materials available to teach first language development and subject matter
5. Securing, training and using teachers and aides
6. Student's educational background

   --Academic and basic skills which the student has
   --Knowledge of English
7. Community (parents and school board) attitudes and pressures
8. State bilingual laws
9. State funding and coordination procedures
10. Student expectations and aspirations vis-a-vis school and life
11. The number of speakers in each language in a school or district

Although all of the above affect the program selected, studies and the interviews conducted for this report all focused predominantly on the first 5 items.

Fundamentally, programs for Indochinese children are designed to: (1) Mainstream the Indochinese children as soon as possible and as much as possible by using the regular materials and curriculum and assume that students will catch on or (2) Create some sort of special program for Indochinese and other NES/LES students.

When the mainstream approach is perceived as less than adequate, some additional treatment may be tried without changing the focus on integrating the children as much and as soon as possible. These additions include: (1) sending student to remedial reading--which we question in terms of effectiveness for NES/LES students, (2) use of a tutorial system for special help with math or other subject matter, (3) watering down the curriculum, especially at the secondary level. At the secondary level, this watering down takes the following possible forms: (1) ESL courses count either as a required English course or as an elective (2) Simplified social studies courses in English count as social studies.

Special attention programs may include a wide variety of options based on:

1. The recognition that English is a second language for the students and that some sort of special treatment is required. The specific treatment depends on the grade and on the philosophy of language teaching to which the school adheres. At the primary level, some use a variety of "immersion" in which the regular teacher tries to adapt his/her language to the language level of the student.[8] It is common to provide ESL classes for one to two hours each day. On the secondary level, regular ESL high intensive language training is common. (Called HILT by some school districts.)

[8] Research is needed to determine which variables most influence the effectiveness of immersion programs.

2. Teaching difficult materials in "simplified" English. Although this is a special program, it is more closely aligned to the mainstream approach where the intention is try to expose the student to as much English as possible. When taught by a teacher who is knowledgeable of what constitutes difficult materials and how to simplify his/her language so that the student can indeed benefit from the subject, then it can be useful kind of exposure. However, subject matter teachers often do not have the necessary knowledge to simplify English in a pedagogically sound manner. Further, this method works better with some subjects like math and biology than social studies because math does not depend on language as much and a biology lab with use of a lot of visual material and exercises with animals can be carried out with students who are not as advanced in English.

3. Teaching subject matter in English with a vocabulary supplement in first language. There are many schools where students know some English but are not familiar with the difficult concepts involved in secondary school subjects and where teachers are either not trained or interested in ESL techniques. One district had subject teachers put together a list of the most important terms used in their subject. This material was then given to Indochinese staff who prepared a glossary of English terms with a definition (and when appropriate, a diagram) and primary language terms with a definition in that primary language (for example, see Long Beach Unified School District, Southeast Asian Learners Project materials and Language Arts Deprtment, Escambia County School District, Pensacola, Florida).

4. Bilingual Education. Many school districts are trying to provide some sort of bilingual education for Indochinese children. On the primary level, this includes some primary

language development and development of basic skills in the primary language in addition to some provision for the development of English language skills. On the secondary level, most frequently, bilingual education has meant that some subjects are taught in the primary language, although the emphasis is to getting the students into English at the earliest possible moment. An example of a text for government which shows this transition is Questions and Answers on American Citizenship by Do Dien Nhi, social studies teacher at Wakefield High School, Arlington, Virginia. The book begins entirely in Vietnamese but about two thirds of the way through provides some questions in English with Vietnamese responses. Most high schools report that subjects like social studies which are based on less concrete materials require instruction in the mother tongue until the student has learned English.

One other issue which has come up quite frequently is the question of logistics for implementing a curriculum. This is dependent largely on the eleven points mentioned above. There are two sides to the issue: how to best organize the child's schedule and how to best organize the staff.

In organizing the student's schedule, there are three basic possibilities:

- move the children to a separate school,
- move the children to a separate part of the same school or,
- move the children to separate classes part of the day.

In those schools heavily impacted by Indochinese or by other NES/LES students, several schools in the country have established special newcomer high schools. The idea behind these newcomer schools is to be able to provide separate and specialized curriculum for

students who have limited English proficiency. One approach is to keep students there for a specified period of time--a year or less--until the student has acquired sufficient English language skills and acquaintance with the academic patterns and expectations of high schools. The most commonly reported problem with this separate high school is the question of transition after the year. In many cases students have not really become fully oriented to the academic and social differences which exist in American high schools and find the transition difficult. Also, they find the regular American courses very difficult, which indicates that there is a large gap between the structure of the courses in the newcomer high school and the regular high school.

A second approach is to set up part of a school for providing ESL, orientation, bilingual classes--when available--but to include the Indochinese students whenever possible in the regular curriculum, especially in such courses as gym, art, lunch breaks, auditorium. In this way, students can become more familiar with regular school organization and have some exposure to American students (especially if there are attempts to provide peer tutoring or international activities) and the transition to regular high school is more gradual.

A third approach is to provide special classes for Indochinese some of the day. This has many of the advantages of having the students spend some time in the separate part of the school; its effectiveness is dependent on the type of curriculum the school has established.

The question of how to allocate teacher time effectively relates in large part to the question of the number of students in a school. When there are sufficient students, separate classes can be set up if appropriate. But many of the schools which do not have large numbers of Indochinese students are concerned with how to provide adequate education for these students. There are several attempts to use

computers and video instructions on an individualized basis. The Irvine Unified School District has a grant to develop an ESL program using existing TV monitors in several of their schools. The ESL teachers are located at one site and interact with one of 4 or 5 schools and some 15 to 20 children at the same time. In addition, there is an aide at each site to provide assistance where appropriate. This program is still in the developmental stage. Another approach to the need for individualized instruction is being developed by the Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation in Iowa City, Iowa. Their approach is to provide curriculum materials in English and in Indochinese languages using the Apple Computer. Several schools which are using this computer are working with the Center in the implementation of these programs.

School Level: Elementary or Secondary

Elementary Grades. There are two basic issues that have confronted administrators in the elementary grades: (1) How to teach English as a second language as quickly as possible, and (2) how to teach literacy to children who do not speak English. Some educators have recognized that other curricular issues are at stake in the elementary grades--questions of the need to promote cognitive development in mother tongue while teaching ESL and literacy, questions of the child's experience with a technological world and how this relates to the curriculum. Recognition of ESL and literacy issues have led to a program model where mainstreaming is done whenever possible, whereas recognition of the cultural, cognitive and experiential background of the child have led to a program model more closely approximating some form of bilingual education.

Secondary Grades. In general, everyone reports that the curricular issues on the secondary level are more complex. The complexity has many sources: (1) since students have several teachers for each subject rather than one (two) who deals with the student the

entire time, response to their needs can be diffuse, (2) the conceptual level of the courses is much more challenging and mainstreaming is less effective, (3) although literacy issues are common among English mother tongue students, teachers have rarely met students who are absolutely preliterate at the secondary level, (4) given the fact that some students will only spend one or two years in school before reaching school leaving age, questions of meeting school requirements loom large.

English as a Second Language (ESL)

All of the heavily impacted schools have attempted to provide some sort of ESL program for the Indochinese children. In the best of situations, educators have hired fully trained ESL teachers as well as ESL resource persons to help provide guidance in methodology, materials and curriculum. More frequently, schools have, for a variety of reasons, used existing staff and whatever materials they could easily access. This latter approach derives from the fact that the problem was unanticipated, and that neither materials nor staff were readily available. Everyone has had to scurry around to find the appropriate staff and materials to meet the crisis. Given the level of ESL teaching to be observed today, one has to question the current popular pressures to fall back on ESL to provide quality education for LES/NES students.

What are some of the issues in the teaching of ESL in schools today?

1. Teacher Preparation. Many schools have mistakenly assumed that native speakers of English are automatically good language teachers. Hence, teachers of art and physical education or reading have been assigned to teach ESL courses since their knowledge of English and of pedagogical principles was assumed to prepare them for the task. This is far from what is needed. The teaching of English as a Second Language

has, for the past twenty five years, been a profession which consists of the systematic application of a collected body of knowledge combined with learning theory (Blatchford, 1981, 145). The author of this paper, a trained ESL teacher and researcher, has observed some very unacceptable teaching in ESL classrooms. For example, in many classrooms, untrained teachers focus on new vocabulary development which is an accepted technique in native English language development but is more complex in ESL. A native English speaker untrained in ESL, however, has no guidelines as to the number of items any ESL student can absorb in any one lesson nor guidelines as to the degree of lexical complexity for the student. In one classroom, the author observed a lesson fail completely because the teacher had chosen what she called a "high interest" lesson without recognizing that the number and level of abstraction of vocabulary items was so far beyond the students that the lesson was not only uninteresting but rather frustrating beyond belief. (The teacher herself later admitted the lesson failed.) In another classroom with an untrained "ESL" teacher, the teacher modeled a most unnatural form of English--due probably to the kind of drill being presented.

A survey made by Blatchford, 1981, of state certification requirements indicates that only 9 states and the District of Columbia currently have some sort of ESL certificate, endorsement or major (Delaware, Hawaii--at the secondary level only--New Jersey, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Texas--though ESL in actually a subset of English--Utah, Vermont and Wisconsin). Of course, for those states with BE certification, training in ESL is commonly a component. The fact is that for most states teacher certification in ESL is not known as yet. On the other hand, there are trained ESL teachers who do not have education certification and most states have been unwilling to hire these teachers without their teaching certification.

In addition to hiring native English speakers who are not trained ESL specialists, schools have hired Indochinese or other foreign language teachers to teach ESL classes. When the non-native teacher speaks near-natively and has had full training in ESL theory and practice, this works fairly well, especially if limitations are recognized. In one school district, a Norwegian English language teacher headed up the program but declined to teach pronunciation because she recognized she did not provide a native like-model. The use of trained ESL Indochinese teachers has the advantage of someone familiar with the frequent language problems of native Indochinese speakers and permits the teacher to interpret communications which are otherwise opaque to the native English speaker. On the other hand, ESL students should also have exposure to native English speakers as models early on so that they develop appropriate communicative competence and native-like pronunciation.

There are also many teachers teaching ESL who call themselves ESL specialists because they have had actual experience abroad or in the U.S., although they have never had ESL training. The results are also often unsatisfactory. The author observed a striking example of a teacher whose main experience was in teaching children whose first language was Spanish, working in a classroom with fifty percent Indochinese. This teacher only called on the Spanish speaking students (he was probably unfamiliar with the Indochinese names) and all of the children were required to drill pronunciation problems common to Spanish speakers but none of the drills were problems found among the Indochinese. For example, the class spent several minutes trying to get students not to have an initial vowel in words beginning with a consonant cluster. Thus, not: "I espeak Espanish, but I speak Spanish." A teacher trained in ESL theory and methodology would have known that the kinds of

problems Indochinese speakers have are different and would have tried to help these children as well.

One other strategy has been used, namely, use of teachers with bilingual education (BE) certificates. While these teachers are an improvement over teachers with no sympathy for the problems of the second language learner, there may still be problems in using them. First of all, they will probably not be familiar with the language of the refugees. Secondly, BE teachers are often trained for elementary classes and their use at the high school level is problematic. Finally, BE teachers may not have had sufficient training in first or second languages acquisition principles. According to a recent survey of IHE teacher training programs, only 31% had at least half a course dealing with language acquisition and bilingualism and only 62% had at least half a course in teaching a second language (information from a researcher on this survey).

Finally, in schools that are not heavily impacted and which may not be able to establish full scale programs due to the wide dispersion of refugees, the question of how to provide ESL services for these children is a serious one. We will make suggestions on potential remediation of the problem later in the report.

2. Methodology. Given the educational and experiential background of the Indochinese, even trained ESL teachers have been unable at times to observe the usual progress which foreign students in such classrooms make. The Bauman Report (1980), which reported on problems in teaching adults, outlines many of the same kinds of problems that trained ESL teachers have reported for public schools, especially for those at the secondary level.

According to Bauman, 1980, "These people tend to benefit only slowly or not at all from our pedagogical methods, which stress written materials, in-class learning, explanation rather than demonstration, visual abstractions, memorization, and other devices and skills outside their experience. In effect, the refugees are faced with an information lack which must be addressed and reduced before ESL instruction can be effective" (p. 18).

Most trained ESL teachers have coped with the preliterate groups in a variety of ways but most of these strategies constitute trial-and-error attempts, since the basic understanding of how tribal peoples learn a second language most effectively is not known (Bauman, 1980).

The author observed many primary level classes which tried to teach ESL through the use of unclear pictures or drawings, miniatures, and dittoed materials of phenomena which the children had never experienced. The teachers seemed unaware that the children lacked the ability to interpret what these symbols referred to, much less to incorporate them as part of their knowledge. In one first grade class a student was asked to color a mimeographed outline of a dolphin and then to print the word "dolphin" beneath the picture. Since the student did not grasp what a dolphin was--it was out of his experience--he merely repeated the word 'dolphin' from time to time when it was requested by the aide.

The problem of instructing preliterate children in ESL has perplexed many school districts. Recently, the State of California has identified some materials which appear to address the language learning needs of these preliterate children--the Asher Total Physical Response (TPR) (Asher, 1979) is now endorsed for beginning ESL levels. This methodology assumes no knowledge of English and emphasizes (1)

the need to listen before speaking and (2) the use of physical movement to provide context for meaning and relief from the boredom of a language class. The method can be used by teachers after a relatively short in-service program and permits teachers with no prior ESL training to help these children begin the language learning process.

3 ESL Curriculum. Some schools have explored establishing a formal curriculum for ESL. In fact, some actually have written up an ESL continuum. The argument behind the push for this sort of continuum is twofold: (1) so that children can be transferred from class to class and teacher to teacher with clear indications of where they are, and (2) so that incoming students can be tested and placed at the appropriate level whenever they enter the school (we should remember that students may and do enter in large numbers throughout the school year).

The above arguments are very powerful ones for teachers who see ESL as consisting of teaching structures and vocabulary; they are less powerful for those teachers who are concerned with providing the student with the appropriate language to function in the classroom. In the latter case, coming up with a set curriculum is complicated by the ever-changing demographic character of the incoming refugees. Further, some teachers find that a defined curriculum imposes great limitations on their creativity, which far outweighs the benefits to be had from greater coordination.

4. Materials. Until very recently, most of the materials prepared for teaching English as a Second Language were written for literate adults or for children studying English as a foreign language, that is, where English is not regularly used by large numbers of citizens. There were, and to a large extent still are, very few materials available for use in

American public schools, especially for children who are preliterate and even more so for children with such different life experiences and knowledge of modern technology.

Further, it is important to note that the field of ESL has been changing rapidly so that there has been a recent shift from a focus on grammar-training to more functionally and conversationally oriented materials, though many of the materials on the market represent the older methodology and an inexperienced teacher may select only these less satisfactory materials. Another serious problem in the selection and creation of materials is that these responsibilities are often delegated to persons with little training in ESL methodology and theory. Selection is often made on criteria unrelated to the language needs of the children. In one school the textbooks were selected with a view to how well they matched the regular school curriculum progression rather than with a view to how suitable they were to the needs of a child learning a new language.

Another materials problem is the lack of materials specifically designed to meet the interests and needs of secondary students. Many districts have tried using the materials prepared for teaching basic skills--for example, using the bank, reading street signs for driving and walking purposes, getting information by telephone and written information. The major problem is that these materials are not written for ESL students, and when untrained teachers use them they do not know how to present them in an appropriate sequence, given the language level and experiential background of the student.

5. Logistics for ESL. The general question here is how much time should be budgeted for the teaching of English? The answer to

this question depends in part on whether the general focus of the school is to mainstream a child or to provide some form of bilingual education. It also depends on whether the student enters at the primary or at the secondary level.

If the school is trying to mainstream the child at the primary level without the benefit of bilingual education, then the child may need more specific English language training on a regular basis. On the other hand, if the school is at the elementary level and providing some sort of bilingual education which includes presentation of material in English in a graded manner with English language skills in mind, then the child may not need to have specific ESL training.

At the secondary level, the issue is much more complex because classes are broken down by subjects. There are pressures in several directions which complicate decisionmaking. On the one hand, the students all want to get on with the subject matter and with fulfilling requirements for graduation. On the other hand, without an adequate knowledge of English, it is difficult for students to follow regular classes. Some schools have attempted to teach subject matter in "simplified" English or to teach subject matter with a vocabulary supplement. In some cases, this has worked. But I have also observed classes that ended up being neither ESL nor social studies. For example, in one "social studies" class in a high school for Indochinese, the teacher had the students reading articles from a newspaper. The exercise was extremely difficult because the students had to look up most of the words, first in their English-English dictionary and then in their native language-English dictionary. It is difficult to see how much the students learned, either of ESL or social studies, since so much time was spent on the mechanical look-up process with little time for discussion of the issues.

Hence, the class didn't accomplish much in teaching social studies nor did it really present an effective ESL class.

Some school districts have established cluster or magnet centers for NES/LES students. When these students interact some of the time with Americans, teachers report higher motivation to learn English.

Another serious issue emerging from logistical problems has to do with the organization of ESL classes. Experience has shown that a good ESL teacher can not handle more than 15 students per language class. This advice is generally not followed in any public school classes I observed. Further, it is generally not considered feasible for an ESL teacher to give adequate instruction to students if the spread of ESL competence is too great. Perhaps the most serious violation of this principle I observed was in an elementary school where Anglo parental objections to special attention for Indochinese refugee children led to a compromise which ill served the Indochinese. The parents agreed to a system whereby the Indochinese students would be pulled out of a regular class together, regardless of ESL level for ESL instruction. In this way, parents felt that their children would get special attention while the Indochinese children were out of the classroom. It in no way served the Indochinese since the ESL teacher found herself with five levels of ESL in the same room at the same time. She could proudly point to the elaborate schedule she had put together to try to "cope" with the child's needs but she recognized that the quality of instruction was way below adequate. Another elementary school teacher who taught the fourth and fifth combined made similar complaints. She said: "I feel like a one-room schoolhouse teacher." She had students of different ESL levels, with different academic level ability and even a fairly wide range

of ages in a classroom with some 34 students. (Note: Her district had no size limit for the 5th or 6th grades.)

6. Subject Matter Teachers at Secondary Level--Since high school is divided by subject matter rather than on attention to the development of the whole student, teachers have not been prepared to deal with limited English speaking students in presenting their subject matter. They do not generally understand the process of second language acquisition nor have familiarity with the appropriate procedures to simplify their language. In some schools, high school teachers have been resistant to the need to change their methods of teaching. The problem seems comparable in part to the feeling which subject teachers have toward their responsibility to improve the student's ability to write in an acceptable manner--that responsibility, they feel, belongs to the English teacher even though ability to write is essential to good performance in subject matter classes. In the case of ESL, the issue of ability to communicate at all is so critical that some high schools have made some adjustments to the Indochinese students. In addition to ESL classes, schools have either (a) taught subject matter materials in "simplified" English, (b) taught subject matter materials in regular English but with native language vocabulary supplements, and occasionally (c) provided subject teaching in the native language.

If the United States continues to have large numbers of NES/LES children, which seems quite likely, then schools of education should give serious consideration to requiring courses in second language acquisition theory and basic ESL methodology. This is true for all areas of the country, both heavily and less heavily impacted, for both primary and secondary level teacher preparation.

Literacy

There are many issues connected with teaching literacy to Indochinese Refugee children. Although most of the teachers at the primary level have considerable experience in teaching literacy to native English-speaking children, they have never tried to do so for children who are limited English or more commonly non-English speakers. Even when teachers with Bilingual certificates are employed to teach these children, the large majority are neither familiar with the language backgrounds of these children nor have they encountered children who have little familiarity life in Western technological societies. All of these factors have made the process of literacy teaching a perplexing issue. The issue is even more complex when students enter public schools for the first time at the secondary level. Generally, teachers at the secondary level are not trained to teach literacy, and if they happen to have done so before, their techniques are more applicable to younger children. Here are some specific problems which have been identified with teaching literacy to Indochinese children:

1. Curriculum. With the shortage of qualified teachers who speak, read and write one of the Indochinese languages (the nature of this shortage will be discussed below) and materials which focus on developing basic skills in these languages, the majority of schools have not given serious consideration to teaching literacy in the first language even at the elementary level. In one school district where a continuum for basic skills development in the Vietnamese language was prepared, it was not well received by the Vietnamese teachers because the continuum was a direct translation from a Spanish continuum which, in turn, was a direct translation from an English continuum. For the few schools which have considered basic skills development in an Indochinese language, administrators indicate some resistance on the part of parents to spending

time on this subject when their focus is on the most rapid means of acquiring English language skills. If a school district is to promote the benefits of first language basic skills development (as is required in California's bilingual education law AB507 which goes into effect, September, 1981), then some parental orientation will be required for Indochinese parents.

Those schools which teach ESL literacy find it useful to make a sharp distinction between children who have already acquired literacy in their first (or second) language and those who have no literacy. In the former case, the task is to promote English language development as well as the learning of Roman characters. In the latter, issues of methodology become quite serious.

2. Teacher Preparation. The problem of teaching literacy to children who (1) do not speak English, (2) have such different experiential and cultural backgrounds, and (3) may be well beyond elementary school has perplexed teachers across the country. The issue of how oral language development and knowledge relates to first literacy is once again open for discussion, that is, how much English does a child need to know in order to begin to learn to read, when it is his/her first experience in literacy. Some teachers would argue that "oral development must precede reading or writing. Nonliterate students should not be asked to read or write anything they cannot understand or say" (Nonliterate Adult ESL Students, 1981). Others claim that the skils of speaking, reading and writing can be taught concurrently, at least for adults (Indochinese Refugee Guides, #9, n.d.).

Since most of the reading teachers who have tried to help the Indochinese have no background in second language acquisition,

many problems have arisen. On the other hand, since most ESL teachers have little background in reading theory and practice, they are not always prepared to do the job.

Further, reading teachers have never encountered children who are unfamiliar with Western technology. As a result, they often teach words without recognizing that the concepts are unfamiliar to the children. As with the teaching of English, they commonly use pictures, drawings and miniatures of unfamiliar and hence unclear concepts.

The problem of teaching literacy on the secondary level is more complex for a number of reasons. On the one hand, literacy is more critical for participation in regular course work. On the other hand, most teachers are not prepared to teach literacy at this level. There are teachers who do remedial reading work, and some Indochinese students have been placed in such courses. The question is whether remedial reading which is focused on the reading problems of the native English speaker is appropriate for these students.

3. Methodology and Materials. Among those who have tried to find an appropriate methodology and materials for the complex array of literacy skills and experience with Western technology found among the Indochinese, there is some agreement about how to attack the problem. Some of this agreement has been put together in a small volume entitled, Nonliterate Adult ESL Students: An Introduction for Teachers. An earlier discussion of the issues of Teaching Literacy to Adult Non-Native Speakers of English can be found in the Indochinese Refugee Education Guides published by the Center for Applied Linguistics. Both of these pamphlets address methodological issues from an adult point of view. Nowhere is there a systematic treatment of the problem for Indochinese students

at the secondary level, though some of the same principles probably apply to them. Teachers often request materials related to the child experience and to his/her age, especially at the secondary level.

Bilingual Education Materials

Where schools have attempted to provide some bilingual education in the first language of the Indochinese children, they have been stymied by a serious lack of materials. Several attempts have been made to meet this need: (1) The U.S. Department of Education, Region VII, Kansas City, is a depository for all materials relating to the Indochinese. This Center produces a yearly list of materials and indications of where they can be obtained. (2) The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Rosslyn, Virginia, has produced handbooks for Vietnamese, Chinese, Lao, Khmer, Mien and Hmong, which include a restricted list of materials for these groups. (3) The Indochinese Center for Materials Development and Training, Arlington Heights, Illinois, produced some materials for Indochinese students. The Center is no longer funded, though some of the materials produced are still available. (4) The National Center for Materials and Curriculum Development, Iowa City, Iowa, is into its second year of development of both printed and computer assisted instruction for Indochinese in the areas of language arts, social science, science and math at various levels of difficulty, both from the point of view of subject matter and of language. (5) The Center for Applied Linguistics in 1975 translated some of the textbooks used in Vietnamese schools.

What are some of the problems which materials developers have confronted?

1. Which subjects? A needs assessment by the National Center for Materials and Curriculum Development showed that teachers felt that materials were most needed for language arts and social science. Next needed was science and finally some indicated a need for mathematics materials.

2. Which level? The National Center for Materials and Curriculum Development needs assessment showed that, in general, older children needed bilingual materials more than younger. This is probably due to the greater complexity of the conceptual materials, but probably also due to the fact that teachers at the secondary level are not prepared to teach ESL or literacy. Hence, there is a need to reach the children in their own language.

3. What type of materials? There are several concerns in the development of materials for Indochinese. First, they must take into consideration the educational background of the child. This can be very challenging when teaching basic skills to secondary students. Next, they must take into consideration the learning styles of the child. Since Indochinese students are not accustomed to an interactive learning style, materials should be more adjusted to their learning style. Third, they must take into account the cultural knowledge which the child brings to the classroom and make appropriate explanations where necessary. The National Center promotes more teacher independent materials because they recognize that in less impacted areas, the student may need to work alone, and because they recognize that teachers may not be able to offer explanations that are simple enough for the LES/NES student.

4. What is the relationship between the materials developed and the regular school curriculum? Given the general trend to mainstream and transition the student as quickly as possible, the administrative preference is to make the materials approximate the regular school curriculum. However, this goal is not easily accomplished, given the lack of ESL skills, the lack of literacy, and the academic level of the student, as well as the lack of technological and school knowledge. In the case of social science, science and math, the National

Center approach is of interest. They have established the competencies or objectives from a developmental point of view which school districts and textbooks aim for, and then developed materials in both English and Indochinese languages to promote the acquisition of these objectives. In the case of materials for secondary students who have limited basic skills, the materials are simplified so that they are high in interest for that age group while being low in demands (Lawrence Stolurow, personal communication). The relationship between the regular curriculum and development of basic skills is much more complex. First of all, development of language arts in English is dependent on a certain level of English language competence which must precede such development. On the other hand, development of language arts in Indochinese languages is more complex because language arts (other than literacy) were not developed in the schools in these countries. To the extent that they were, it was more commonly done in French.

Many of materials produced around the country are not directly keyed to a curriculum which has a developmental sequence behind it (Lawrence Stolurow, personal communiction). Rather, they are meant to be supplementary to a regular curriculum, providing information about holidays or history or culture.

5. Can the Indochinese school materials be used? Some attempt has been made to use Indochinese school materials. The Center for Applied Linguistics reprinted some of the Vietnamese materials in 1975. However, these have not been judged acceptable for the American school situation because they are obsolete and because they are more related to the European educational system.

The question of development and dissemination of Indochinese materials is a serious one. Although many districts have

developed materials to meet their own specific needs, these are often not appropriate to other districts and other states. Further, the dissemination of these materials has been largely ad hoc and it seems to require a monumental effort for a school district to access them (Norm Zimlich, HHS, personal communication).

SECURING, TRAINING AND USING TEACHERS AND AIDES

In all of the schools which are heavily impacted by Indochinese there is a consensus among educators that there need to be persons knowledgeable in the diverse language and culture backgrounds of these children who work with them some portion of the day. When there are large numbers of children speaking a single language most educators feel it desirable to have a full time person preferably certified to work with the children. In California, Assembly Bill 501 requires a bilingual teacher for every 10 NES/LES children. At the least there is no question about the need for an aide to work with the Indochinese children.

Certification of Indochinese Teachers

The question that occurs over and over again is how to use the many talents that exist in the Indochinese community. There are many Vietnamese and some Cambodian and Lao people who have been certified as teachers in their own countries and who have years of experience as teachers and administrators. However, there are problems with employing these people as regular teachers: (1) in many cases, they do not speak fluent English and if they are to become permanent teachers, they will need to meet certain language standards in order to also be able to communicate with non-Indochinese children, (2) it is difficult to equate their training with that of the American system. The Indochinese education system is based on the French, one which takes a different view of the nature of pedagogy, curriculum and teacher-student interaction. While this background and training is extremely

useful knowledge for teachers working with Indochinese children to have teachers also need to be familiar with the nature and procedures of American schools. Some Indochinese teachers feel that their transcripts have been unfairly evaluated and have asked for reevaluation.

In general, there are two ways to incorporate these former teachers and to use their many talents:

(1) Put them on an emergency or waiver status.

(2) Require them to be retrained if they are to become regular teachers.

While the emergency or waiver status may be a convenient solution for the school district, it is not a very satisfactory one for the Indochinese teacher because, in general, the pay at this status is quite poor and the job is not permanent.

On the other hand, the retraining route also has its difficulties. The Indochinese teacher may have had years of training and experience and, justifiably, resents the need to be retrained. Further and more importantly, there is no pay while being retrained and the potential teacher needs to be a wage earner immediately. There are an impressive number of Vietnamese teachers who strongly desire to serve the children but who have been kept from doing so by the time and money involved in retraining. Consequently, many have already switched to other professions.

The San Diego City School District, in cooperation with the San Diego State University, has come up with an innovative solution to the retraining problem which they will initiate in the Fall of 1981. They have a three year intern program for teachers from Indochina who have been certified in their own countries. During the program, they work with American teachers in regular classrooms and are paid as interns with a yearly increase in salary. They are given training in English so that they can come up to a specified level of competence and earn a

B.A. with a preliminary multi-subject credential at the end of the three years. The program attempts to address both the needs and requirements of the school district at the same time it addresses the needs of the Indochinese--salary and eventual permanent status.

One other issue has troubled administrators in hiring Indochinese on a permanent basis--that of the general declining demand for teachers in general and the resistance of the union bargaining units. For some administrators, this is a non-issue because the increased enrollment, and therefore increased revenues, more than justifies the hiring of teachers suited to provide adequate education for the new students so long as they have sufficient English competence to also work with native English speakers. Other administrators have been less willing to take this position.

Staff Development

The Transition Program for Indochinese Refugee Children permits the SEAs and LEAs to use 15% of their grant for staff development. The development can occur at many levels: the school, the school district, the county, the state, the BESC, community colleges, and universities or nonprofit agencies. Most impacted school districts have identified a variety of staff development programs, ranging from one-day seminars in how to teach TPR to four or five-week summer programs. For example, California State University, Long Beach, offers the following staff development courses: (1) Multicultural Methods for Teaching Indochinese Learners, (2) Contrastive Analysis of the Indochinese Languages and English, (3) The Indochinese in America: Their Culture and Contributions. CSU Fullerton has trained ESL teachers in a summer program and will offer a Vietnamese language course, Fall, 1982. Many of the Bilingual Education Service Centers and Community Colleges also offer in-service or staff development courses so that American-trained teachers can become familiar with the language, culture, education systems, and pedagogical orientation of these children as well as get

training in methods for improved ESL teaching. Most in-service or staff development do not, however, lead to a credential.

There is one other problem with the staff development issue. In California, teachers who work with more than 10 NES/LES students who do not hold a bilingual credential are put on waiver and given a bilingual aide. They are expected to take staff development courses in order to achieve full status. However, as the system currently works, the teacher who gets off waiver is in fact penalized because at that time, the bilingual aide is removed (personal communication from several teachers). Further, there is really nothing in the law which forces teachers to get off waiver nor are some school districts particularly anxious to confront the bargaining units regarding waiver-removal for tenured American-trained teachers.

Aides

A number of schools have hired Indochinese aides, with or without education training. From an administrative point of view, the use of aides is clearly advantageous: (1) they are generally paid much less than a regular teacher; (2) they can be hired part-time; (3) they are not permanent and can be released when the population shifts; (4) if part-time, they do not get fringe benefits; and (5) they can be hired without certification. From the aide's point of view, the first four of these advantages are clearly serious disadvantages. Even a full-time aide's salary is not enough to sustain a family. As a result, if an Indochinese head of household becomes an aide, he/she doesn't usually remain in the job once a better paying position is available. "The instructional aide program has a high turnover rate, as persons are generally underemployed at this level and may earn much more at other occupations" (Experimental Indochinese Teacher Training Program, 1981, p. 1). From an educational point of view, since most of the aides are not trained, teachers have to know how to orient the aide to use them in the most advantageous way and this is a complex problem.

There are a couple of interesting solutions to aspects of the aide problem. (1) Some community colleges are actually training bilingual aides for employment in the school districts. The demand for these aides is considerable. (2) The Santa Ana school district has tried to meet the pay requirements of the Indochinese refugee by a) hiring them for 6 hours a day as an aide and b) hiring them for an additional 2 hours a day as a community worker who receives higher pay. Further, the district has a career ladder for aides so that the position is not a dead-end one. During the two hour period when the aide is a community worker, the district has asked the aide to provide the following services: Be available after school for individual tutoring for Indochinese children; make personal contacts with Indochinese parents and try to identify some of the parental difficulties in participating in parent-teacher interaction. (The two forms used by the aide are attached in Appendices 4 and 5.) This use of the aides has proven invaluable.

EVALUATION AND PLACEMENT

"One of the generally reported problems is that a large proportion of the Indochinese refugee students are misplaced in schools." (Center for Educational Experimentation, Development, and Evaluation, 1981, p. 17.) There are two aspects to the placement issue: Questions relating to the evaluation process and questions relating to the placement issue once evaluation has been conducted.

Within evaluation there are again two aspects: There is the assessment of former records and the testing process. Since the students are refugees, most of them did not bring with them any school records. Even when there are records, however, or if the student is able to give some account of his/her education, the problem of equivalency arises and the means to determine such equivalency established. Materials are needed to provide the skills. Commonly, the schools feel it is important to test the students in order to

properly place them within the U.S. system. A search made by the Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation showed that the kind of instruments needed to properly place the Indochinese children simply do not exist (1981, p. 17). There are papers describing the Vietnamese, Laotian and Cambodian Educational System from a comparative point of view, although it is not clear how widely diffused these or similar papers are. Some examples are:

Cambodian Educational System 1960-1975, U.S. Department of HEW, Office of Education, Refugee Task Force.

A Comparison of Laotian and American Educational Methods and Systems by Som Sak Say Thongphet and Richard P. Murphy, Iowa.

Information on Vietnamese Education Curriculum and Grading System (source unknown).

The placement issue is still more complex. Most schools have opted to place students according to their chronological age. Use of age has its complications. In the first instance, determination of age is often a problem since the Indochinese means of assigning age is somewhat different than the Western way. For most Indochinese children age is calculated roughly from conception; thus they are considered one year of age at birth. An additional year is gained at every New Year or Tet. In addition, parents often changed their children's birth certificates in order to keep them out of the army longer (Ellis, 1980, p. 40). Secondly, given the Vietnamese payment system for permission to leave, many parents listed their child's age as somewhat younger than is in fact the case. Thirdly, since Indochinese generally tend to be quite a bit smaller than American children, the size issue can be a problem, especially at the secondary level. Most importantly, use of age becomes a serious problem, given the educational history of these children. With second and later waves of refugee children, schools have encountered children who have had either an interrupted education (for periods of three to four years in camps) or who may never have had any education. The problem is most complex at the secondary level, where the schools are not usually prepared to deal with students who do

not have at least minimal basic skills. There is an interesting cultural contrast here--age is used because Americans are so sensitive to age differences and there is much segregation by age groups. Older children are said to get a complex if they are required to repeat a grade or if required to participate on an equal basis with younger children.

In Indochina, the French school system was used and students were retained in grade until they passed all the subjects of a particular grade. Hence, it was not uncommon for children to be in the same grade for several years. In a sense, for the Indochinese, retention is an indication that schools are serious in their efforts to educate their children (personal communication: Kamchong Langpraseut)

The placement issue is still more complicated when the question of educational goals is seriously confronted. This is particularly serious at the secondary level. There are many students who are in high schools with no education, nonliterate and about 16 or 17 years of age. Placement at secondary level may be further complicated by the fact that the student may be an unaccompanied minor who is living with other unaccompanied minors. In this case, very often the student is most concerned with finding financial means to provide for a family member who is still in a camp. Placement at the high school age may also be complicated by the fact that the student may be "street-wise" and unable to adjust to the school setting and disciplinary measures especially when he/she is not very "school-wise."

Even in heavily impacted areas where a school is able to provide special programs for Indochinese students, the educational placement issue still arises. Many students, especially Vietnamese, have very high aspirations for their career goals, despite educational gaps and limited language ability. If the student is at the secondary level, the question of graduation in academic subjects is questionable, yet students resist the voctional education alternative.

Despite these complications the issue of misplacement is a very serious one with considerable educational and life repercussions. In the Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation report, 1981, p. 17, educators report that misplaced students often withdraw and in many cases develop frustrations that are worked out in non-constructive ways. Further, the student's development is delayed due to loss of time spent at the wrong level and in changing levels. There is a potential for retarded educational development and alienation from school.

ORIENTATION AND COUNSELING

Perhaps one of the most complex and least attended to problem is that of orientation of everyone involved in school districts where Indochinese children are present. With appropriate orientation, the schools can help Indochinese students be better integrated into the school and the community as well help the students achieve higher academic records. Further, with appropriate orientation the schools can help integrate Indochinese parents and families into the school system and into American society. However, most schools have not given sufficient attention to orientation needs unless there is some major crisis. This is understandable since the schools have not generally had children of such different cultural, educational and experiential background in such great numbers.

In order to promote an adequate orientation and counseling program, it is essential to enlist the aid of members of the community to help with the interface between the school staff, students, community and the Indochinese children and parents. What are the commonly recognized orientation needs of those involved in the Indochinese children's education?

Indochinese Students

In a recent lecture, Dr. Try Tran of Santa Ana College, listed five basic informational needs of Indochinese children: (1) educational, (2) academic, (3) vocational, (4) personal, and (5)

cross-cultural. Of interest are the last four since the first refers to questions of learning English and catching up in basic skills and subjects.

Students, especially at the secondary level, need information about the academic system used by high school in the United States--including the elective system. Indochina followed the French College preparatory system which had four academic tracks with no electives. Students also need information about the differences between the more academic and the more vocational track often used by high schools. One example of such information was made available in Vietnamese for the New York City School students. The topics were:

1. How to choose a high school
2. Types of high schools and different special programs
   a. The academic comprehensive high schools
   b. The specialized high schools and programs
   c. Vocational programs
   d. Educational options
   e. Independent alternative high schools
3. Requirements for the high school diploma
4. Basic competence tests--a new requirement for the high school diploma, beginning 1979

Further, they need some sort of explanation about courses not usually offered in their countries: required physical education and sex education.

On the vocational level, students need information and counseling about what their options are. American born students need such information as well, however, Indochinese need to learn to adjust their (reconcile their) educational background and language skills with their vocational aspirations.

The principal of one high school reported that they provide information about programs that are available (especially if they are

not expected to graduate) to the older Indochinese students. The programs include ESL and vocational programs which are given by the school district's adult education program and by the City College. The point is to make the refugee students aware that once they leave high school their education need not end and that there are programs tailored to their needs.

The Arlington (Virginia) school district has a Career Center which provides special programs for students who are unable to complete the high school diploma while attending regular high school. For those students who are beyond high school age and who need help with both English and academic subjects, the Center works with the students toward getting a GED (general education diploma). This program has been funded by the Indochinese Refugee Assistance Program. Indochinese students who are beyond school age are also enrolled in a youth drop-out program which the Center runs. This program helps students find employment and at the same time runs classes in ESL and where possible basic education leading toward the GED.

Given the fact that there are so many Indochinese students who enter public schools in their teens with ESL literacy and academic deficiencies, there needs to be more opportunities to help these children transition to self-sufficiency in the world of work.

On the personal and cross-cultural level, students need a lot of information and help. On one level, they need survival skills on how to do many things that Americans take for granted. They also need to learn some rules of behavior or they will soon cause friction. For example, some high schools reported that they needed to teach children about the rules for getting into the cafeteria line in order and the unwritten rules of who sits at which table which is socially important at the high school level. On another level, they need help with making American friends. Refugee children also need help in the conflict between parental values and those promoted in the schools. It is very

important for them to have the opportunity to value their own culture and to be able to share its values with fellow classmates. They are, as Ellis, 1980, points out "caught between two forces." Children have to adjust to expected forms of behavior at school and to different expectations at home and have to show a good deal of adaptability in changing cultures. Many children are not that successful at acquiring this ability, which has caused conflict between parents and children.

Because Indochinese children value school so much, and are quiet and obedient, it is sometimes easy to underestimate their needs and to undervalue the contribution they can make to the schools. But if the schools are to promote the academic achievement of the students, their information needs are considerable and on several level. Khamchong Langpraseut (lecture at California State University Long Beach, June 25, 1981) feels that Indochinese pupils need orientation in order to: (1) survive, (2) catch up, (3) learn, and (4) contribute.

Indochinese Parents

Indochinese parents also have a considerable need for information about how the school system operates and what the system expects of parents. This is compounded often by their own lack of English knowledge. Parent-Teacher Associations do not exist in Indochina. Teachers have no interaction with parents. The Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation, 1981, found that there is an expressed need for parent education and involvement in the school program. Further they found that there is a need for materials to provide parents with information, concepts, skills and attitudes that facilitate their relationship with the school.

Indochinese parents need to understand the differences between the American and their own educational system and to be informed about their responsibilities in the parent-school relationship. Equally, school administrators need to understand how to involve Indochinese

parents who are often inhibited by their lack of English knowledge. Some schools have identified ways to facilitate the involvement of parents. Through the use of interpreters, written translations, guest speakers from the community, certificate for parental contributions which create a sense of pride (Tuyet Pham, Long Beach . . .). Indochinese parents are more than willing to participate in school activities. Pham lists the following as ones that are acceptable: room mothers, tutors, classroom volunteers, interpreters, clerical helpers.

Schools can also serve to help integrate the parents into the community by encouraging sharing with other American parents through cultural evenings or through contributions of food (though the question of available money needs to be considered here).

American Teachers, Counselors and Administrators

All school providers of assistance to Indochinese children need orientation so that they can contribute to the child's adjustment to the new academic setting and community. This is basic to the child's ability to learn in school. Further, the entire school staff needs to be made aware of the Indochinese child so that they can help the children as well as help orient American children and parents who may be unfamiliar with the background and needs of these children.

Teachers, counselors and administrators need information about the academic systems in Indochina. they need to be aware of all the points raised by Try Tran for Indochinese students. Further, they need to be aware of the more common pattern of nonparticipation by parents in school activities and seek means to involve the parents.

Of major importance is information about the nature of cross-cultural communication and some means of recognizing when the communicative process is breaking down. They need to understand some

of the experiential sources of disciplinary problems, for example, street-wise children and those who haven't been in school before or feelings of isolation when they are the only child of that ethnic background. Further, they should be provided with information about the rich cultural heritage that these children come from and seek ways to help the children share this heritage with other students.

They need information about the survival problems which the children face and in particular their medical and psychological needs which come from their recent refugee experiences.

American Children

American children in the schools Indochinese attend also need an understanding of the recent experiences of the Indochinese so that they can develop some compassion for their plight. They need information about cross-cultural differences and they need to begin to learn how to recognize and understand these differences. They should be encouraged to see the presence of these children as an opportunity to learn firsthand about countries and cultures they might never have encountered. They need to be encouraged also to offer friendship to Indochinese children. Some schools have fostered interaction between Indochinese and American children by structured one-on-one play or structured one-on-one discussions.

Overall Community

The parents of American children, members of the School Board, and the overall American community need orientation as well. It is well known that although the Indochinese have worked very hard to be accepted by the community that (1) there have been inter-ethnic rivalries and (2) some American parents have resented the Indochinese presence and resisted special attention given them. The community needs orientation in order to be informed about the immigration of Indochinese refugees and to develop some compassion for their situation. Further, they need to understand that the presence of these

children constitutes a magnificent opportunity to learn about other cultures. This latter is not easily accomplished in many communities but the school district can do a lot to further the interaction between American parents and the Indochinese. The community needs to be encouraged to promote responsible and outstanding services to all the children because it will benefit the entire community in the long run.

The issue of orientation is an extremely complex one. As mentioned above, Americans have always assumed that the responsibility for adjustment belonged to the newcomer. Yet there are many reasons why it is of mutual benefit for there to be a thorough orientation of those schools where the Indochinese children (and in fact children from other foreign communities) are located. The benefits are multiple--the better the orientation of the school community (students, parents, staff) the faster the children will be able to make a contribution to the school and eventually to society without antisocial effects. On the other hand, given the increasing need for Americans to participate in a more sophisticated manner in the international scene, a well-developed orientation offers American students an extraordinary first hand opportunity to learn about the nature of cross-cultural communication and to become much more adept at the process. Orientation has not received the attention it should within the treatment of Indochinese yet it is the backbone of a successful program. Orientation needs to be a two-way process for the benefit of all.

V. NEEDED RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

Based on our review of the issues which confront administrators, we propose that the following research and development needs should be considered in order to better assist in the integration of Indochinese and other NES/LES students of similar backgrounds.

1. Development of materials to teach English as a Second Language to preliterate and those with limited academic training, especially 7-12 levels.

Background: Given that ESL materials have been developed largely for adults with fairly high educational levels, there has been a great demand for materials for the age level, academic background and literacy or rather preliterate background of the Indochinese.

Objective: Since learning English as quickly and as efficiently as possible is essential to self-sufficiency both in schools and in the work-a-day world, teachers need materials and curriculum which address the special needs of these students.

Procedures: (1) Identify teaching methods which are appropriate to the learning styles of preliterates. The materials should start with the 7-12 level since the need for sophisticated language in this age group is much greater and essential to school performance. For the 7-12 grade level, the experience of adult ESL/VESL Indochinese teachers shold be tapped. The IRAP programs, the VOLAG programs and the experience of NICTAC (Center for Applied Linguistics) are especially important.

Consideration should be given to the potential role of computer assisted instruction and/or interactive video (where the student actually interacts with the computer rather than via video which is also sometimes called interactive) in enhancing learning for students at diverse ages and with diverse learning styles.

(2) Identify topics which appeal to students at these ages as well as topics which can be related, if possible, to their previous backgrounds. Although not always compatible, topic should be made to interact with learning style. For example, driver education is a very important topic for the 16-18 age group yet it is not an important part of their background. It can be taught by signs and experientially which does use their previous learning experience style.

(3) Establish a sequence for presenting these materials, combining topic, controlled vocabulary and grammar as it relates to age (and possibly gender).

2. Development of materials to teach literacy especially at the grade 7-12 levels.

Background: Given that the schools have a greater number than ever before of preliterates NES/LES students, a situation which they have not been prepared for and which is a problem for which the research needs to be sorted out and clarified vis a vis this age group (most of the attention has been on question of literacy for the K-6 age group), we need to work on these

questions and develop materials so that these students are not kept from participation, when possible, in the regular academic program but at the least can attain an adequate job.

Objective: To provide the background and materials for teaching literacy at the secondary level to preliterate NES/LES students.

Procedures: (1) Review research and experience on the relation between knowledge of English as a second language (or any other language as a second language) and literacy for the first time, especially for students at the secondary level and age group. Considerations should be given to the experience of adult VESL Indochinese teachers. The research on the relation between first language literacy and second language acquisition should be reviewed to determine whether subjects should be taught simultaneously or not and to determine whether native language literacy needs to be taught before teaching literacy in a second language.

(2) Depending on the literature search, research on unclear aspects outlined or if not necessary, appropriate materials developed which use topics appealing to students at these ages and if possible, related to their experiential backgrounds.

3. Development of a program which will allow Indochinese LES/NES students and native English-Spanish children to acquire the skills necessary to improve their language learning--both English as a Second Language and Foreign Languages.

Background: The Indochinese children are often placed in classes where the teacher does not have an English as a Second Language Background and/or knowledge of the theory and practice of second language learning or where the numbers of Indochinese are such that special treatment cannot be easily given. The assumption is often made that children have good language learning skills even though they have never had such an experience which is just not true. Once the children are in regular classes or even ESL classes, they are under great pressure to acquire the language in the least possible time. On the other hand, there is an increased interest at the Federal and State level for children of English background to learn a foreign or second language. The problem for most Americans is that they don't know until adulthood which foreign language they will need. What is needed is to train them in the skill that's needed to learn a foreign language so that when they get to the point where it's needed, they will have the skill and be more effective language learners, better able to take advantage of a second language learning opportunity.

Objective: (1) To make what has been viewed as a crisis into a rate learning situation. (2) Provide the Indochinese Refugee

child, who is disoriented and depressed by the newness of his/her environment with an opportunity to be on the giving side. (3) Provide Anglo children with the foreign language learning skill which can be utilized when the need arises. (4) Provide Indochinese and American children with a task by whch they may become friends more quickly than would be the case if no such task existed.

Procedure: (1) Establish the order of skills to be learned. (2) Consider which medium to use to promote learning (instructions to teacher, instructions to students, use of video, films, etc.). (3) Develop materials which allow students to do activities to help themselves learn a foreign language by using the language of the Indochinese as the objective and ask questions which promote recognition of the learning process so that both Indochinese and Anglo children come away with the meta-skill rather than necessarily having learned to speak an Indochinese language fluently.

4. Development of orientation materials.

Background: Because the Indochinese come from such different cultural and academic backgrounds, and because neither teachers nor other students have had experience with these cultures, they need information. Information is needed by all groups: Indochinese children so that they can catch up and begin to contribute to the school and society, American children so that they can understand and begin to befriend the Indochinese (rather than riducule or fight them), school staff so that they can understand and help the Indochinese student take advantage of American education, Indochinese parents so that they can provide the necessary academic and parental support for their children, and the community, including school parents, so that they can understand the Indochinese needs, sympathize with them, and work to helping these children become a more productive part of the educational and regular community.

Objective: To provide information to facilitate the integration of the Indochinese student into the school community. A bi-product may be the enriched awareness of the nature of cross-cultural communication, something which is increasingly important in our international business world.

Procedure: (1) Establish order of priority of materials preparation for each group: Indochinese students, Indochinese parents, educational staff, American students, community. (2) Define information needs for each group. (3) Determine which are common needs for all target groups and which groups have different information needs. (4) Consider means for presentation for each group--taking into account that the populations may be dispersed, may not come to the school, may

arrive at different times in the year, may have limited educational background, will be at different age and experience levels, may be culturally different.

5. Research on special problems of preliterates in participating in regular high school programs, especially given the growing development of competency testing.

Background: Since many of the Indochinese students come to high school with little to no education; preliterate, with no knowledge of English and some are unaccompanied minors who may be 'street-wise' and unused to educational settings and often with problems in attention-span and concerned with earning some money to send to relatives still in Indochina, the question of the appropriate role education systems can play in helping these students learn enough to be able to be self-sufficient needs to be examined.

Objective: To define some means to provide appropriate education for high school students who enter preliterate, NES, and often as unaccomplished minors.

Procedure: (1) Survey of students who are preliterate, NES and have not had more than five years of schooling. Considerations should be given to their academic background, their ethnic background, the student's aspirations, potential and the parental aspirations for the student. (2) Survey of alternative solutions for these students--Vocational Education--either within the regular school or at some Career Center, Adult Vocational Education, Tutorial, Apprenticeship, etc. Survey should see what the rate of student and parental satisfaction is vis a vis different programs. (3) Report on issues to be used by educational administrators, outlining the issues and the potential solutions.

6. Research into differences among different Indochinese and other NES/LES students in adjusting to and contributing to school community and in taking advantage of education.

Background: The Indochinese students appear to have had certain differences in their experiences as well as in their knowledge of Western technology which set them apart from other refugees from Russia and Cuba and which set them apart from other immigrants from Western countries. Some of the differences may only be in degree and by understanding the extreme case of the Indochinese we may be able to improve our educational techniques and orientation for other refugee students and immigrants.

Objective: To understand how student performance or drop-out relates to mental health, teacher stereotypes of ethnic

groups,[9] family pressures to succeed in school, or to earn income, previous experiences with Western technology, knowledge of academic system and options, cultural traditions and personal experiences. That is, to relate student performance to factors other than knowledge of English.

Procedure: (1) Research design which examines the relation between several variables: mental health, experience with Western technology, parental pressures to succeed in school, expectations (student and parental vis a vis career aspirations), teacher stereotypes of ethnic group, and school performance.

7. Research into ESL teaching at secondary level.

Background: Because of the lack of immediately available Indochinese teachers and the lack of teachers trained in second language acquisition theory and practice, many people have been recruited to teach "ESL" to the Indochinese children. Since learning English is so essential to their survival in the U.S., Indochinese students, especially at the secondary level, need the best ESL teaching they can get.

Objective: To describe ESL classrooms. What is actually being taught? How it is being taught? And to compare these practices with the current theories of second language acquisition and teaching practice.

Procedure: (1) Abstract of literature on current theories on second language acquisition for children from 14 years on (basically adults). (2) Abstract of literature on role of teaching in second language acquisition for adults. (3) Create observation schedule for teaching strategies. (4) Create questionnaire for teachers to ascertain training, experience, knowledge and attitudes. (5) Establish sample.

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[9] Indochinese students have generally been perceived as approximating the ideal student: diligent, never tardy, perfect attendance, over eager, polite, whereas teachers have developed other stereotypes for students from other ethnic groups.

VI. SUMMARY

The presence of Indochinese Refugee Children in the U.S. schools has evoked a wide and disparate range of responses from administrators as they grappled with problems of a new order. The combination of preliterate, NES/LES and often with little experience with schooling or Western technology and organization has made issues of testing, placement, orientation and provision of instructional services a challenge not met before. The school issues become ever more complex as the age/grade of the students gets higher. For those over age 10, these questions become quite serious (HHS/ORR).

On the other hand, the presence of these children has raised a host of issues with great saliency, great urgency and few clear answers:

1. How to provide educational services for high school children who need to become self-sufficient in the work world but who cannot fulfill the academic requirements of a high school? A corollary to this is the whole issue of the appropriate role of a high school education in society. On the one hand, many consider it a prerequisite to all employment advancements and worry out high school drop-outs. On the other hand, if high schools lower their standards or make them mean different things for different students, then what information does this convey to those who would use the diploma as a selection procedure? The question is whether high school is to serve as gate-keeper, vocational preparation, or general citizenship preparation in a very old one which is only heightened by the Indochinese experience.

2 Recognition of a greater understanding of the nature of second language acquisition theory and method as a professional which requires training and not just use of native speakers who do not have the knowledge to help NES/LES students in an adequate and sympathetic manner.

3 How to meet the changing needs of the education population? Even though the Indochinese refugee children issue may diminish as a crisis in school system, there will be other NES/LES children for whom similar problems exist and to whom special attenton will need to be paid. Further, the issue of how to respond quickly to new types of populations and new types of needs when teachers have not been trained in this area, when the need is immediate and short-term but when the acquisition of the appropriate expertise is long-term.

4. Need to clarify which services can best be provided through networking, centralization or decentralization and how this can best be done.

What else can we say we have learned from the Indochinese experience? Over and over again, educators report on the importance of involving Indochinese in the educational services provision, of the need to fully recognize the value of refugee involvement in all aspects of orientation. Secondly, they report on the importance of getting information about the refugees--their needs, their background, their preferences, their confusions and misunderstandings. Next, there is a need to provide everyone with information. Never before have so many different persons in the school agencies had to know more about the cultural and academic backgrounds of the students in order to help them. Perhaps this is one of the most important contributions of the Indochinese to the school scene. For the first time, Americans have had to really try to understand people who live by different rules and to try to help them understand the American social rules. This is a phenomenal learning experience for teachers and one which many have found very challenging. Finally, we have learned to beware of labels. It has become increasingly clear that not all Indochinese are the same--that the label has been convenient for administrative and funding purposes but that for teachers and administrators, these children represent a wide variety of cultural, academic, linguistic, experiential backgrounds which need to be recognized in order to begin to provide services to these children.

Finally, there is the question which plagues all administrators. How long will the Indochinese issue last and how permanent are the problems surrounding the refugee issue? The reason for asking this question is clear--gearing up for providing adequate services is expensive, time-consuming and challenging. But why all this effort if the problem is short-term which it is not. There are ways to respond to this question. From the point of view of Indochinese refugees,

there are still many refugees in Asia to be resettled (148,309 at the end of 1980, according to 1981 World Refugee Survey) and more still leaving Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos. It is not clear how many the President will authorize as refugees, above the 50,000 allowed in the 1980 Refugee Act but the U.S. is likely to continue admitting Indochinese refugees for several years to come. The wider picture is that the number of refugees in the world is increasing. According to Paul F. McCleary of Church World Service "The 20th century has been called the century of the refugee because there are more refugees today than at any other time in history." Although the number of Indochinese may decline, other groups may begin to take their place. For example, Refugee Reports (July 24, 1981) notes that there now is a buildup in the number of persons from Eastern Europe, many of whom are Poles, who are seeking asylum in Austria and that the Reagan administration has recommended that the U.S. adjust the total number of Eastern European refugees it can admit for FY 1981. So it is our understanding that the refugee problem will not go away although the particular language and cultural background may vary.

The question then comes to: how specific should the gearing up be? What kinds of issues are common to all these groups and for which some more universal solutions can be found? What kinds of issues are specific to a particular group so that more modularized solutions need to be identified and employed when appropriate? There is a great deal of waste and inefficiency in the kind of emergency problem-solving that has been done to meet this crisis. We need to sort out what we have learned, what sorts of institutions, what kinds of training, what kinds of skills are needed to deal with the different kinds of populations that will continue to challenge our school agencies.

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APPENDIX 1

Interviews

I. Indochinese Refugee Issues - General

A. Health and Human Services, ORR

1. Norm Zimlich - Office of Service Delivery Assessment, Seattle, Washington

2. Linda Gordon, Chief Data Analyst, Washington, DC

3 David Haines, Washington, DC

4. Cynthia Coleman, Washington, DC

5. Barry Gordon, Washington, DC

B. NICTAC, CAL, Washington, DC

1. Allene Goss Grognet

2 Jody Crandall

3 Phu Ba Long

4. Cho Van Tran

5. Souksombaum Sayasithena

C. IRAC - Indochinese Refugee Action Centers, Washington, DC

1. David Ford

D. Church World Service, Washington, DC

E. Department of State Bureau of Refugee Programs

1. Margaret Carpenter

F. Researchers on Refugees

1. Barry Stein, MSU, Lansing Michigan

2 Eric Crystal, Mien Specialist, Oakland, CA

3 Herb Phillips, SE Asian Specialist, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA

4. Bruce Downing, Coordinator, SE Asian Refugee Studies Project, Minneapolis, MN

G. Select Commission on Immigrant and Refugee Policy, Washington,DC

1. Susan Forbes

2. Arnold Leibowitz

3 Nancy Shapiro

H. Indochinese Project, Washington, DC

I. Stanford Research Institute, Stanford, CA

1. Christine Finnan

J. VOLAG - International Institute, Los Angeles, CA

1. Janet Hosokawa

K. Institute on Pluralism and Group Identity. New York, NY

1. Gary Rubin

II. Education Issues

A. National/Regional Level

1. Department of Education, OBEMLA, Washington, DC

Jim Lockhart, Coordinator, Office of Refugee Children Assistance

2 Service Organizations

Lawrence Stolurow, National Center for Materials and Curriculum Development, Iowa City, IA

Linda Wing, Asian American Bilingual Center, Berkeley, CA

Indochinese Center for Materials Development and Training, Arlington Heights, IL

James Tumy, Indochinese Materials Center, Kansas City, MI

Tran Trong Hai, MIDWEST NORDAC, Milwaukee, WI

Nguyen Ngoc Bich, Georgetown, BESC, Washington, DC

B. State, District, Local Level

1. Jack D. DuBois, Principal, Long Beach Unified School District, Long Beach, CA

2 Bernardo Villanueva, Assistant Director, State Bilingual Education Office, Lansing, MI

3 Julie Chan, Indochinese Interdisciplinary Bilingual Education Program, CSU, Long Beach, CA

4. Khamchong Laugpraseut, Indochinese Program, Santa Ana Unified School District, Santa Ana, CA

5. Melodee Williams, Director, Title VII Multilingual/Multicultural Project, Irvine, CA

6. Bertha Segal-Swan, Head of Teacher Training, Orange County, CA

7. Betty Seal, SEAL Project, Long Beach Unified School District, Long Beach, CA

8. Esther J. Eisenhower, Fairfax County Public Schools, Folk Church, VA

9. Lay Kry, SEAL Project, Long Beach Unified School District, Long Beach, CA

10. Tony Rodriguez, Instructional Programs Office Huntington Beach High School District, Huntington Beach, CA

11 Tran Piet, Indochinese Resource Person, Wakefield High School, Arlington, VA

12. Aila Voorhies, ESL Team Leader, Fairfax County, VA

13. Iris N. Yamaoka, ESL Coordinator, Orange Unified School District, Orange County, CA

14 Loreen Chow, ESL Specialist, Long Beach Unified School District, Long Beach, CA

15. Shirley Morrow, Wakefield High School, Arlington, VA

16. Aurora Maramag, Newcomer High School, San Francisco, CA

17. Elementary School Teachers in Santa Ana Unified School District, Santa Ana, CA

18. Betty Knight, Coordinator, ESOL/BE, Montgomery County Unified School District, Rochville, MD

19. Julio Almanza, Director, Indochinese Programs, St. Paul School District, St. Paul, MN

20. Harold B. Wingard, Curriculum Specialist, Modern Language Education, San Diego City Schools, San Diego, CA

21. Joyce Wyles, Resource Person in ESL/BE, Long Beach Unified School District, Long Beach, CA

22. Joyce Schumann, Arlington Career Center, Arlington, VA

23. Gloria Frank, Coordinator, Cluster Center, Northwood High School, Montgomery County, MD

C. Special Literacy Programs and Issues

1. Steve Reeder, Literacy Research Project (including Hmong) Northwest Regional Laboratory, Portland, OR

2. Lao Family Community, Santa Ana, CA

   Xeu Vang Vangyi, Director

   Garoon Rujanawech, ESL Project Coordinator

3 Paul Chitlik, Assistant Director, IRAP, Long Beach City College, Long Beach, CA

SANTA ANA UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

APPENDIX 2

Transitional Language Department

Indochinese Program

THE POPULATION OF INDOCHINESE STUDENTS - MARCH, 1981

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
ADAMS ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	5
	K	Lao	2
	K	Hmong	11
	1st	Vietnamese	4
	1st	Lao	2
	1st	Hmong	18
	2nd	Vietnamese	10
	2nd	Lao	1
	2nd	Hmong	10
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	3rd	Lao	1
	3rd	Hmong	6
	4th	Vietnamese	6
	4th	Lao	1
	4th	Hmong	11
	5th	Vietnamese	8
	5th	Lao	2
	5th	Hmong	8
		TOTAL	112
DIAMOND ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	9
	K	Hmong	4
	1st	Vietnamese	8
	1st	Hmong	6
	2nd	Vietnamese	9
	2nd	Hmong	6
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	3rd	Hmong	5
	4th	Vietnamese	11
	4th	Hmong	5
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	5th	Hmong	7
		TOTAL	81

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
EDISON ELEMENTARY	K	Hmong	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Hmong	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	8
FRANKLIN ELEMENTARY	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Lao	1
	4th	Lao	2
	5th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	6
FREMONT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	10
	K	Lao	2
	1st	Vietnamese	11
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	7
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Vietnamese	7
	4th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	44
GRANT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	2
		TOTAL	7

THE POPULATION OF INDOCHINESE STUDENTS
March, 1981 - Continue

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
GREENVILLE FUNDAMENTAL	NONE		
HOOVER ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	3
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
		TOTAL	6
JACKSON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	20
	K	Lao	1
	K	Hmong	5
	1st	Vietnamese	22
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Lao	2
	1st	Hmong	8
	2nd	Vietnamese	17
	2nd	Lao	1
	2nd	Hmong	7
	3rd	Vietnamese	20
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	3rd	Lao	1
	3rd	Hmong	8
	4th	Vietnamese	21
	4th	Lao	2
	4th	Hmong	3
	5th	Vietnamese	19
	5th	Cambodian	1
	5th	Lao	1
	5th	Hmong	5
		TOTAL	166

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
JEFFERSON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	17
	K	Lao	1
	K	Hmong	2
	1st	Vietnamese	14
	1st	Lao	1
	1st	Hmong	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	15
	2nd	Hmong	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	17
	4th	Vietnamese	14
	4th	Lao	1
	4th	Hmong	2
	5th	Vietnamese	20
	5th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	108
LINCOLN ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	3
	K	Hmong	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Hmong	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Cambodian	2
	4th	Cambodian	1
	4th	Hmong	1
		TOTAL	15

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
MADISON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	K	Lao	1
	K	Hmong	6
	1st	Vietnamese	8
	1st	Lao	1
	1st	Hmong	5
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	2nd	Lao	1
	2nd	Hmong	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	8
	3rd	Hmong	4
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Lao	1
	4th	Hmong	8
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Lao	1
	5th	Hmong	2
		TOTAL	64
MONROE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Lao	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Lao	1
	5th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	15

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
MONTE VISTA ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Cambodian	1
	K	Hmong	6
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Hmong	6
	2nd	Hmong	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Cambodian	2
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Cambodian	1
	4th	Hmong	4
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Hmong	1
		TOTAL	35
ROOSEVELT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	5
	K	Cambodian	12
	K	Lao	9
	K	Hmong	19
	1st	Vietnamese	6
	1st	Cambodian	10
	1st	Lao	6
	1st	Hmong	9
	2nd	Vietnamese	6
	2nd	Cambodian	9
	2nd	Lao	7
	2nd	Hmong	9
	3rd	Vietnamese	3
	3rd	Cambodian	8
	3rd	Lao	10
	3rd	Hmong	15
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Cambodian	6
	4th	Lao	9
	4th	Hmong	8

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
ROOSEVELT (cont.)	5th	Vietnamese	5
	5h	Cambodian	5
	5th	Lao	5
	5th	Hmong	5
		TOTAL	190
SANTIAGO ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Cambodian	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Cambodian	1
		TOTAL	11
SIERRA ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
		TOTAL	6
TAFT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	3
	1st	Vietnamese	8
	2nd	Vietnamese	5
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	4th	Vietnamese	5
	5th	Vietnamese	5
		TOTAL	32

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
WASHINGTON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	13
	K	Lao	1
	1st	Vietnamese	5
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	14
	3rd	Vietnamese	14
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	10
	5th	Vietnamese	10
		TOTAL	69
WILSON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Cambodian	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Lao	2
	5th	Vietnamese	2
		TOTAL	13
CARR INTERMEDIATE	6th	Vietnamese	16
	6th	Lao	4
	7th	Vietnamese	15
	7th	Lao	4
	7th	Hmong	5
		TOTAL	44

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
LATHROP INTERMEDIATE	6th	Vietnamese	22
	6th	Cambodian	7
	6th	Lao	7
	6th	Hmong	8
	7th	Vietnamese	21
	7th	Cambodian	12
	7th	Lao	9
	7th	Hmong	6
	8th	Vietnamese	24
	8th	Lao	14
	8th	Hmong	9
		TOTAL	151
MCFADDEN INTERMEDIATE	6th	Vietnamese	23
	6th	Lao	1
	7th	Vietnamese	29
	8th	Vietnamese	24
	8th	Lao	2
		TOTAL	79
SPURGEON INTERMEDIATE	6th	Vietnamese	23
	6th	Lao	2
	6th	Hmong	4
	7th	Vietnamese	19
	7th	Cambodian	1
	7th	Lao	2
	7th	Hmong	7
	8th	Vietnamese	33
	8th	Lao	3
	8th	Hmong	5
		TOTAL	99

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
WILLARD ELEMENTARY	6th	Vietnamese	6
	7th	Vietnamese	5
	7th	Cambodian	1
	7th	Lao	1
	8th	Vietnamese	3
	8th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	17
SADDLEBACK HIGH	9th	Vietnamese	62
	9th	Cambodian	6
	9th	Lao	2
	9th	Hmong	3
	10th	Vietnamese	72
	10th	Cambodian	3
	10th	Lao	4
	10th	Hmong	3
	11th	Vietnamese	50
	11th	Cambodian	3
	11th	Lao	2
	11th	Hmong	1
	12th	Vietnamese	29
		TOTAL	240
SANTA ANA HIGH	9th	Vietnamese	23
	9th	Cambodian	19
	9th	Lao	30
	10th	Vietnamese	28
	10th	Cambodian	2
	10th	Lao	12
	11th	Vietnamese	17
	11th	Cambodian	1
	11th	Lao	4
	12th	Vietnamese	6
		TOTAL	142

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
VALLEY HIGH ✓	9th	Vietnamese	100
	9th	Lao	12
	9th	Hmong	56
	10th	Vietnamese	50
	10th	Lao	5
	10th	Hmong	29
	11th	Vietnamese	30
	11th	Lao	1
	11th	Hmong	13
	12th	Vietnamese	15
	12th	Lao	1
	12th	Hmong	1
		TOTAL	313
CARL HARVEY	13th	Vietnamese	3
	13th	Lao	1
		TOTAL	4
MITCHELL SCHOOL	13th	Vietnamese	4
	13th	Lao	2
	13th	Hmong	2
		TOTAL	8

APPENDIX 3

GARDEN GROVE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

INDO-CHINESE POPULATION

MAY 22, 1981

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
ALLEN ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st		0
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Vietnamese	1
ANTHONY ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	7
	1st	Vietnamese	6
	2nd	Vietnamese	3
	3rd	Vietnamese	3
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	2
BARKER ELEMENTARY	K		0
	1st		0
	2nd		0
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	6th		0
BRYANT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	8
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Vietnamese	5
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	5
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Lao	1

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
CARVER ELEMENTARY	K	Cambodian	1
	K	Vietnamese	1
	K	Hmong	1
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Hmong	1
	2nd	Cambodian	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Hmong	1
	4th	Vietnamese	3
	5th	Cambodian	1
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	1
CLINTON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	1st		0
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th		0
	6th		0
COOK ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	16
	1st	Vietnamese	14
	2nd	Vietnamese	13
	3rd	Vietnamese	13
	4th	Vietnamese	11
	5th	Vietnamese	13
	6th	Vietnamese	15
CROSBY ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st		0
	2nd	Vietnamese	3
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Vietnamese	5
EISENHOWER ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	1st	Vietnamese	5
	1st	Lao	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	7
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	6th	Vietnamese	5
	6th	Lao	1

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
ENDERS ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	2nd		0
	3rd		0
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th		0
	6th	Vietnamese	1
EVANS ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd		0
	4th	Vietnamese	3
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	4
EXCELSIOR ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	16
	1st	Vietnamese	9
	2nd	Vietnamese	10
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	4th	Vietnamese	13
	5th	Vietnamese	8
	5th	Lao	1
	6th	Vietnamese	5
FAYLANE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	K	Lao	3
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Lao	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Lao	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Lao	2
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	6th		0
GILBERT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Cambodian	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	3
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Lao	2
	4th	Vietnamese	3
	4th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Lao	2

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
HAZARD ELEMENTARY	K	Cambodian	1
	K	Vietnamese	3
	K	Lao	2
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Lao	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	3
	2nd	Lao	3
	3rd	Vietnamese	3
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Lao	1
	6th		0
HERITAGE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	K	Lao	1
	1st	Vietnamese	5
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	5
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	4
	5th	Lao	1
	5th	Hmong	1
	6th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Hmong	1
HILL ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	14
	1st	Vietnamese	7
	2nd	Vietnamese	9
	3rd	Vietnamese	7
	4th	Vietnamese	11
	5th	Vietnamese	13
	6th	Vietnamese	8
LAWRENCE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Lao	2
	1st	Vietnamese	4
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Vietnamese	4
MARSHALL ELEMENTARTY	K	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	7
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	6th	Vietnamese	2

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
MITCHELL ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	1st		0
	2nd	Vietnamese	3
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	5th		0
	6th	Vietnamese	3
MONROE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	5
	1st	Vietnamese	4
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	7
	4th	Vietnamese	3
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	6th	Vietnamese	4
MORNINGSIDE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	16
	1st	Vietnamese	8
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	10
	3rd	Vietnamese	9
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	9
	4th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	5th	Lao	1
	6th	Vietnamese	8
MURDY ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	9
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	7
	3rd	Vietnamese	5
	4th	Vietnamese	6
	5th	Vietnamese	4
	6th	Vietnamese	2
NEWHOPE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	8
	K	Lao	1
	1st	Vietnamese	6
	1st	Hmong	2
	2nd	Cambodian	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	8
	2nd	Hmong	2
	3rd	Cambodian	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	5
	4th	Hmong	1
	5th	Cambodian	1
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	5th	Hmong	3
	6th	Vietnamese	8

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
NORTHCUTT ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd		0
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	6th		0
PAINE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	6
	1st	Vietnamese	3
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Vietnamese	5
	6th	Vietnamese	5
PARKVIEW ELEMENTARY	K		0
	1st		0
	2nd		0
	3rd		0
	4th		0
	5th		0
	6th		0
PATTON ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Lao	2
	6th	Vietnamese	2
POST ELEMENTARY	K	Cambodian	1
	K	Vietnamese	10
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	5
	3rd	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Vietnamese	3
	5th	Vietnamese	4
	6th	Vietnamese	6

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
RIVERDALE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	13
	K	Lao	1
	K	Hmong	2
	1st	Vietnamese	9
	2nd	Vietnamese	13
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	3rd	Lao	1
	3rd	Hmong	1
	4th	Vietnamese	10
	4th	Lao	1
	5th	Vietnamese	12
	6th	Vietnamese	9
ROSITA ELEMENTARY	K	Cambodian	3
	K	Vietnamese	8
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Vietnamese	10
	1st	Lao	1
	2nd	Cambodian	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	6
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	6
	3rd	Lao	1
	4th	Vietnamese	14
	5th	Cambodian	2
	5th	Vietnamese	10
	5th	Lao	2
	6th	Vietnamese	9
	6th	Lao	2
RUSSELL	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Lao	1
	K	Hmong	7
	1st	Cambodian	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	1st	Hmong	2
	2nd	Cambodian	2
	2nd	Lao	1
	2nd	Hmong	2
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Hmong	4
	4th	Cambodian	1
	4th	Vietnamese	2
	5th	Cambodian	1
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	5th	Lao	1
	5th	Hmong	3
	6th	Vietnamese	1
	6th	Lao	1

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
STANFORD ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	5
	1st	Vietnamese	5
	1st	Lao	3
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Lao	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th	Vietnamese	9
	4th	Lao	2
	5th	Vietnamese	1
	6th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Lao	2
STANLEY ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	6
	1st	Cambodian	2
	1st	Vietnamese	3
	2nd		0
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	4
SUNNYSIDE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	5
	3rd	Vietnamese	2
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th		0
VIOLETTE ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	1
	1st	Vietnamese	2
	2nd	Vietnamese	2
	3rd	Vietnamese	3
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Vietnamese	1
WAKEHAM ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	4
	1st	Vietnamese	3
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	3
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	5th	Vietnamese	4
	6th	Vietnamese	1

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
WARREN ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	5
	K	Hmong	3
	1st	Vietnamese	4
	1st	Lao	1
	1st	Hmong	1
	2nd	Vietnamese	7
	2nd	Hmong	1
	3rd	Cambodian	1
	3rd	Vietnamese	7
	4th	Cambodian	1
	4th	Vietnamese	4
	4th	Hmong	1
	5th	Vietnamese	8
	5th	Hmong	1
	6th	Cambodian	1
	6th	Vietnamese	7
WOODBURY ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	3
	1st	Vietnamese	7
	2nd	Vietnamese	4
	3rd	Vietnamese	5
	4th	Vietnamese	1
	5th	Vietnamese	3
	6th	Vietnamese	1
ZEYEN ELEMENTARY	K	Vietnamese	2
	K	Lao	1
	1st		0
	2nd		0
	3rd	Vietnamese	1
	4th		0
	5th	Vietnamese	2
	6th	Vietnamese	3

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
ALAMITOS JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	11
	8th	Vietnamese	14
	8th	Lao	3
	8th	Hmong	2
CHAPMAN JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	2
	8th	Vietnamese	1
	9th	Vietnamese	4
DOIG JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Cambodian	1
	7th	Vietnamese	16
	7th	Hmong	1
	8th	Vietnamese	19
	8th	Lao	3
	8th	Hmong	1
BELL JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	1
	8th	Vietnamese	1
	9th		0
FITZ JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Cambodian	1
	7th	Vietnamese	10
	7th	Lao	2
	8th	Vietnamese	14
	9th	Lao	8
IRVINE JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Cambodian	1
	7th	Vietnamese	16
	7th	Lao	1
	7th	Hmong	1
	8th	Cambodian	4
	8th	Vietnamese	27
	8th	Hmong	2
JORDAN JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	42
	7th	Lao	1
	8th	Vietnamese	25
LAMPSON JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	6
	7th	Lao	1
	8th	Vietnamese	6
MC GARVIN JUNIOR HIGH	7th	Vietnamese	12
	8th	Vietnamese	11
	8th	Lao	1

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
BOLSA GRANDE HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Vietnamese	58
	9th	Lao	2
	10th	Cambodian	1
	10th	Vietnamese	60
	10th	Lao	3
	11th	Cambodian	1
	11th	Vietnamese	28
	12th	Vietnamese	15
GARDEN GROVE HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Vietnamese	15
	10th	Cambodian	1
	10th	Vietnamese	13
	11th	Cambodian	3
	11th	Vietnamese	16
	12th	Vietnamese	5
LA QUINTA HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Vietnamese	25
	10th	Vietnamese	31
	10th	Lao	1
	11th	Vietnamese	21
	11th	Lao	1
	12th	Vietnamese	9
PACIFICA	10th	Vietnamese	5
	11th	Vietnamese	3
	12th		0
RANCHO ALAMITOS HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Vietnamese	24
	9th	Lao	2
	10th	Vietnamese	16
	10th	Lao	3
	11th	Vietnamese	13
	11th	Lao	1
	12th	Vietnamese	13
SANTIAGO HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Vietnamese	31
	9th	Lao	1
	9th	Hmong	4
	10th	Cambodian	1
	10th	Vietnamese	38
	10th	Lao	2
	10th	Hmong	1
	11th	Cambodian	1
	11th	Vietnamese	31
	11th	Hmong	1
	12th	Vietnamese	16

NAME OF SCHOOL	GRADE LEVEL	LANGUAGE	NUMBER
LOS AMIGOS HIGH SCHOOL	9th	Cambodian	2
	9th	Vietnamese	21
	9th	Lao	5
	9th	Hmong	1
	10th	Cambodian	2
	10th	Vietnamese	2
	10th	Lao	6
	10th	Hmong	2
	11th	Vietnamese	5
	11th	Lao	4
	12th	Vietnamese	6
LAKE HIGH SCHOOL	9th		0
	10th		0
	11th	Vietnamese	3
	12th		0

JLD:JB:pt
6/10/81

APPENDIX 4

CONFIDENTIAL

SANTA ANA UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRIC

HOME SURVEY

BILINGUAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
Indochinese Program
Community Services

SCHOOL: _____

Survey dated: _____ Community Worker: _____

Mr._____ I-94 No _____ Address _____

Mrs._____ I-94 No _____ Phone ( )_____ Own a car YES ☐ NO ☐

Country of Origin: ☐ Cambodia ☐ Laos ☐ Vietnam Date of Entry to the U.S.: _____
month day year

Children's names	I-94 No	Sex	Age	Grade	NES	LES	FES	SCHOOLS

Came to the United States

from: Thailand ☐
Malaysia ☐
Indonesia ☐
Philippine ☐
other: _____ ☐

Sponsored by:

☐ USCC ☐ HIAS
☐ IRC ☐ LIRS
☐ CWS ☐ WRRS
☐ Tolstoy Foundation ☐ _____

Or personally sponsored by:

Mr.Mrs._____
_____
_____Phone_____

Father's Business Address _____Phone_____Position_____

Mother's Business Address _____Phone_____Position_____

Languages spoken at home ☐ Khmer ☐ Lao ☐ Hmong ☐ Vietnamese ☐ Cantonese ☐ _____

Ability to communicate in English: ☐ Excellent ☐ Good ☐ Limited ☐ None

Other people living under the same roof

Name	Sex	Age	Relationship	Business address	Phone	1-94
1.						
2.						
3.						

Major decisions by parents

1. We agree to have our children tutored in school in addition to regular classes on a daily basis ☐ YES ☐ NO
2. We would like to have evening classes organized to help us in learning English more efficiently ☐ YES ☐ NO
3. We would like to have opportunities to learn more about the American society, customs, culture ☐ YES ☐ NO
4. We would participate in school activities whenever we can manage to do so ☐ YES ☐ NO
5. We are interested in having American friends for our children and for ourselves to the social and cutural benefit of the community itself ☐ YES ☐ NO

Best time to contact : _____

Responding American families, individuals, organizations

Name : Mr.Mrs.Miss.....

Address :.....

Profession :.....Phone .....

Number of children :..... Boy(s).....Girl(s).....

Recommended by :_____

Date :_____ Phone ( ) _____

Other Information :

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

*** USCC - United States Catholic Conference, (Tel. 953-9236) IRC - International Rescue Committee, (Tel. 953-6912) CWS - Church World Service (213) 666-2707

HIAS - Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society , (Tel. 898-0023) LIRS - Lutheran Immigration & Refugee Service, (Tel. 534-6450) WRRS - World Relief Refugee Service Tel. 547-0730

APPENDIX 5

SANTA ANA UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

BILINGUAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
Indochinese Program
Community Services

SCHOOL :_____
Student :_____
Grade :_____

Community Worker :_____

Parents' names and address :_____
_____ Phone:_____ Country of Origin :_____

HOME CONTACTS AND SERVICES RECORD FORM

Date	Time	Phone	Visit	Subjects of talk / Problems	Suggestion / Observation

Date	Time	Phone	Visit	Subjects of talk / Problems	Suggestion / Observation