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ABSTRACT

An overview of classroom and administrative issues related to the education of language minority students in the United States is presented in two sections. The section on classroom issues focuses on four topics: teaching methodologies for English as a second language; the features, titles, and sources of language proficiency assessment instruments; principles, techniques, and policies for improving mathematics skills in this group; and native and English language literacy for language minority students. The section on administrative issues discusses: a recent evaluative study of the Federal American Indian/Alaskan Native program; a transition program for refugee children; a study by several State Boards of education to help states strengthen their capacity-building for educational services to limited-English-speaking children; elements of effective counseling programs; and the Federal Education for All Handicapped Act of 1975. Each subsection contains a list of resources, and a list of resource organizations is appended. (MSE)

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INTRODUCTION

In an effort to address the information needs of underserved and special needs populations within the Title VII bilingual education community, the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) has compiled a series of nine articles that offer a general overview of classroom and administrative issues that are of interest to bilingual education teachers, principals, administrators, and parents.

Educating the Minority Language Student: Classroom and Administrative Issues is divided into two sections. Classroom issues focus on four topics: ESL methodologies; language proficiency assessment instruments; mathematics skills; and reading. The administrative section addresses five issues relevant to minority language students-- American Indian and Alaskan Native education; programs for refugee children; state boards of education, counseling programs; and bilingual special education. Each of the nine articles contains a overview on the topic that is being discussed and/or a collection of related shorter pieces, policy and research updates, and current available resources. These materials were developed primarily by the NCBE User Services staff in response to information needs of its users.

For more information on any of these topics, contact the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209.

Classroom Issues

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ESL Teaching Methodologies

By Anna Uhl Chamot and Denise McKeon

In the United States today there are large numbers of students from different language backgrounds learning English as a second language (ESL). These students are from families that have recently immigrated to the United States or from families that have lived in the United States for several generations in areas where languages other than English are spoken.

Various methodologies for second language teaching have been popular at different times. During the 1960s the Audiolingual Approach, where students memorize set dialogues then manipulate sentences modeled by teachers in drills, was the accepted approach. With the emergence of new linguistic and psychological research in the 1970s, the popularity of the Audiolingual Approach diminished.

Since then approaches that employ the selection of methods and techniques matched to the individual needs of the students have evolved. Emphasis has been placed on all four language skills--listening, reading, speaking, and writing--rather than just on oral skills. Linguistic accuracy has been de-emphasized, and communication of meaning has been encouraged. Learner-centered activities have replaced teacher-directed drilling of correct sentence patterns. In curriculum planning, language is now often classified by the function it serves and the notion it expresses rather than solely by its grammatical structure.

Most methodologies have been developed for adult second language learners. The adaptability of these methodologies to younger second language learners, with the exception of Total Physical Response and Natural Approach methodologies, has not been demonstrated. With increasing research evidence in various learning styles, it is probable that no particular method will be equally effective with all students. Here are brief descriptions of some of the second language learning methodologies that have gained recognition since the early 1970s.

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Confluent Language Education

Beverly Galyean describes Confluent Language Education as an approach originating in humanistic psychology. Cognitive, affective, and interactive teaching/learning objectives are interwoven so that whole-person learning is achieved. Four components form the basis of this approach: (1) "here and now teaching," where instructors focus on the interests, preferences, activities, and plans of individual students in developing language exercises; (2) student-generated output, which is used as class content for additional language practice; (3) interpersonal sharing, where students communicate their interests and feelings to each other on a one-to-one basis or in group discussions; and (4) the use of language as a tool to help students increase self-awareness and to promote personal growth.

Counseling-Learning or Community Language Learning

Counseling-Learning or Community Language Learning was developed by Charles Curran as a humanistic approach involving the learner's whole person through the use of counseling psychology techniques. In this approach teachers are the facilitators and the classroom emphasis is on shared, task-oriented activities where students and teachers cooperate in aiding each other. In the beginning, students sit in a circle and communicate freely with each other in their native languages. Teachers (or knowers) remain outside the circle and translate the conversation into the target language which the students repeat. Periods of silence and an unpressured atmosphere give students time to think about the target language they are hearing. A tape of the session may be made and played at the end of the class; if students wish, teachers write all or part of the target language conversation and briefly explain its structure.

Security and acceptance are emphasized in the classroom and are exemplified through the students' mutual support system, the teachers' sensibilities and counseling skills, and the use of the native language and translation in the early stages of instruction.

Silent Way

The Silent Way is a humanistic approach to second language instruction first introduced by its developer Caleb Gattegno in 1963. However, this approach was not widely known until the mid-1970s. The theory behind the Silent Way is based on several general principles: (1) teaching is subordinate to learning; (2) students learn by listening to each other rather than teachers; and (3) greater progress is made through self-evaluation than through teacher evaluation. A unique feature of this methodology is the use of wall charts and colored rods to establish the reference to meaning in the beginning levels of instruction.

Silence is used by both teachers and students to provide time for contemplating the sound and structure of the target language. Teachers point to a wall chart of symbols, which stand for syllables of spoken language and are color-coded to indicate similar sound patterns represented by the symbols. Students initially pronounce the syllables in the target

language in a chorus, then individually. As students master the sound patterns of the target language, greater emphasis is placed on vocabulary development achieved through the use of specific visual aids.

Suggestopedy, Suggestopedia, and Suggestology

Suggestopedy, Suggestopedia, and Suggestology are labels attached to the methodology developed by Bulgarian psychiatrist Georgi Lozanov. This approach is based on three principles: (1) students should enjoy rather than struggle against what they are doing; (2) students' conscious and unconscious reactions are inseparable; and (3) students' "reserve powers" must be mobilized leading to newer, faster, and a more permanent kind of learning.

Students' insecurity and resistance to the new language are diminished through the planned use of nonverbal techniques, classical music, and comfortable, aesthetic surroundings. "Infantilization" or a child-like trust in the system is fostered in students. Both "passive" and "active" sessions are conducted. In passive sessions students listen to long dialogues explained by teachers and presented in dramatic readings accompanied by music selected to lower the mental barriers students have toward new linguistic systems. In active sessions students use materials from the dialogues to interact with each other in the new language.

The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach, based on the work of Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen, proposes instructional techniques that facilitate the natural acquisition of a language. This approach, which encourages language acquisition by developing proficiency without direct or conscious recourse to the formal rules of the language, is based on two principles: (1) speech is not taught directly but rather acquired by understanding what is being communicated (comprehensible input) in low-anxiety environments; and (2) speech emerges in natural stages.

This approach focuses on successful expression of meaning rather than on correctness of form. An initial silent period, where students develop comprehension skills while teachers provide meaningful messages in simplified speech, is a prerequisite to actual speech production by students. Teachers accept all attempts by students to communicate, regardless of the accuracy of form or language of expression. Expansions, not translations, of incorrect or incomplete communication by the students are provided by teachers as is natural in two-way communication. Thus, conversation skills in the target language emerge but are not specifically taught.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Total Physical Response was developed by psychologist James Asher as a method for second language teaching that parallels first language acquisition sequences. This approach is based on three key ideas: (1)

understanding the spoken language precedes speaking; (2) understanding is developed through students' body movements; and (3) speech should not be forced as students naturally reach a "readiness" point when speech becomes spontaneous.

During instruction commands are given in the second language and acted out first by teachers then by the students, allowing them to perceive the meaning of the commands while hearing the language. As the commands become more complex, visual aids are used to enrich the students' vocabulary. Students begin speaking when they are ready, and communication is uninterrupted by corrections. During a one-hour lesson between 12 and 36 new lexical items may be introduced. Students are permitted to ask questions in their native languages only at the end of the class. The Total Physical Response method has been used to teach a variety of languages and has been the subject of experimental studies showing impressive language gain, including retention and transfer of oral skills to reading and writing.

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Language Proficiency Assessment Instruments

By Maria V. Impink-Hernadez

> All good tests possess three qualities: validity, reliability and practicality. That is to say, any test we use must be appropriate in terms of our objectives, dependable in the evidence it provides, and applicable to our particular situation (Harris 1969,13).

Language assessment plays a central role in second language instructional programs. Language assessment instruments serve to place students; to monitor their progress; and, ultimately, to determine whether they have mastered the objectives of the second language program. However, before any language assessment activity occurs, extreme care must be exercised in the selection of appropriate testing instruments. Educators, working with minority language students, can use the qualities of effective tests cited by Harris in selecting testing instruments to determine a student's levels of proficiency in both English and the native language.

One characteristic, educators should consider, is whether a testing instrument is practical: Is it appropriate for use with the intended student population in relation to age and language background? Are the required financial and personnel resources available to administer the instrument? Answers to these and related questions should assist educators in making an initial screening of assessment instruments.

Educators must also match assessment instruments with testing purposes and verify that valid measurements of the proficiencies in question will result. For instance, a test to be answered orally can provide a measure of proficiency in speaking, but not in writing, although the two skills may be related to each other. A testing instrument's contents and design must be compared with the instructional program design and its curricular objectives to determine whether the results of the test will provide meaningful data about the student's competencies. The validity of an

assessment instrument can also be identified by determining the instrument's statistical relationship with other assessment instruments or with future performance in the program. For example, students who score well on a placement test should not be expected to encounter difficulties later in an instructional program.

A testing instrument must be reliable. Test results should be consistent, regardless of who rates the performance or what day the test is given, so that the measurement can be shown to be accurate. Information regarding reliability is generally included in the Examiner's or Technical Manual for commercially-available assessment instruments. The reliability of locally-developed instruments can be verified in several ways. Two simple methods are: (1) test-retest--giving the same test twice to the same group of students several days apart. Results should be correlated from the first and second administrations, i.e., students who do well on the first administration should also do well on the second; and (2) parallel-form--developing two sets of test items that are similar in content and style and administering each set to one-half of a student group. Again, results from the two administrations should agree. Other procedures for analyzing test reliability can be found in most references on assessment and measurement.

Numerous language assessment instruments for use with minority language students have been developed both commercially and locally. The diversity in construction, design, and purposes offers educators a wide selection from which to choose the instruments appropriate for specific minority language populations. Below are abstracted descriptions of various instruments currently available in the United States. The listing was collected from testing instruments approved by evaluation boards in California and Texas, tests referenced in the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education's resource files and library, and tests cited in the Educational Testing Service database (ETSF). The sources for abstracts are cited in parenthesis after each abstract. The instruments noted below are only representative of the types of tests available. No endorsement is intended.

Instruments for the Language Assessment of Minority Language Students

Basic Inventory of Natural Languages (BINL)--C.H. Herbert

Abstract: A criterion-referenced system to assess the language dominance, proficiency, and growth of students in school language arts and reading programs. (Instruction Manual)
Publication date: 1979
Grade levels: K-12
Contact: CHECpoint Systems, 1558 North Waterman Avenue, Suite C, San Bernadino, CA 92404

Bilingual Oral Language Test (BOLT)--Sam Cohen, Roberto Cruz, and Raul Bravo
Abstract: A language dominance (English-Spanish) test that assesses oral language skills from simple sentence patterns to more complex syntactical forms of the language (ETS, Tests for Spanish-Speakers Grades 7 and Above)
Publication date: 1977
Grade levels: 4-12
Contact: Bilingual Media Products, Inc., P.O. Box 9337, North Berkeley Station, Berkeley, CA 94704

Bilingual Syntax Measure--Medida de Sintaxis Bilingüe (BSM) I and II--Marina K. Burt, Heidi C. Dulay, and Eduardo Hernandez-Chavez
Abstract: An individually administered instrument used to identify the student's mastery of basic oral syntactic structures in both English and Spanish; suitable for diagnosis and placement, as well as for summative and formative evaluation. (Publisher's Catalog)
Publication date: 1978
Grade levels: Level I: K-2; Level II: 3-12
Contact: The Psychological Corporation, 7500 Old Oak Boulevard, Cleveland, OH 44130

English Readiness Assessment--Estela Barandiaran
Abstract: Designed for use with bilingual students. This group or individual test covers English oral language development, word recognition, and comprehension skills. Eight levels of difficulty including an oral comprehension assessment to determine general language readiness. (ETSF database)
Publication date: 1979
Grade levels: K-4
Contact: Santillana Publishing Company, Inc., 257 Union Street, Northvale, NJ 07647

IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test I and II (IPT)--Enrique Dalton, et al.
Abstract: Tests four basic areas of English oral language proficiency: vocabulary, comprehension, syntax, and verbal expressions which include articulation. Individually administered, the test places students according to six levels of difficulty which correspond to placement levels in the IDEA Oral Language Program. Available in Spanish and Portuguese versions. (IPT promotional materials and Examiner's Manuals)
Publication dates: 1979-1983
Grade levels: Level I: K-6; Level II: 7-12
Contact: Ballard and Tighe, Inc., 480 Atlas Street, Brea, CA 92621

Ilyin Oral Interview--D. Ilyin
Abstract: Assesses an individual's ability to understand and speak intelligibly in a picture-controlled situation. To take the test, the individual needs to understand basic question words, sentence patterns, and rhythm and intonation patterns using noun, verb, and modification structures usually taught in the first stages of any intensive ESL program. (ETS, Tests for Spanish-Speakers Grades 7 and Above)
Publication date: 1976
Grade levels: 8-Adult
Contact: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 54 Warehouse Lane, Rowley, MA 01966

Language Assessment Battery (LAB): Levels I, II, III--New York City Board of Education

Abstract: Developed to identify those children whose English language deficiencies prevent them from effectively participating in the learning process and who might participate more effectively in Spanish. Subtests are: Listening, Writing, and Speaking. (ETS, Tests for Spanish-Speakers Grades 7 and Above)
Publication date: 1976
Grade levels: Level I: K-2; Level II: 3-6; Level III: 7-12
Contact: Houghton-Mifflin Company, Pennington-Hopewell Road, Hopewell, NJ 08525

Language Assessment Scales (LAS): I and II--Edward A. De Avila and Sharon E. Duncan

Abstract: A convergent assessment measure designed to provide an overall picture of oral linguistic proficiency based on a student's performance across four primary linguistic subsystems: phonemic, referential, syntactic, and pragmatic. (Padilla and Lindholm 1984, 7)
Publication date: 1981
Grade levels: Level I: K-5; Level II: 6-12
Contact: Linguametrics Group, P.O. Box 3495, San Rafael, CA 94912

Oral Language Proficiency Scale--Dade County Public Schools, Miami, FL

Abstract: Used in an oral interview for student placement in a program of English for Speakers of Other Languages. Placement is based on proficiency in four areas: understanding of spoken language, using grammatical structure, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Two forms are available: elementary and secondary. (ETSF database)
Publication date: 1978
Grade levels: K-12
Contact: Tests in Microfiche, Test Collection, Education Testing Service, Princeton, NJ 08541

Primary Acquisition of Language (PAL): Oral Language Dominance Measure (OLDM) and Oral Language Proficiency Measure (OLPM): Levels I and II--El Paso Public Schools, Department of Curriculum and Staff Development

Abstract: A test of oral proficiency based on the concept that proficiency requires four basic abilities: the ability to hear an utterance, understand it, formulate a statement, and produce it. Scores are obtained by determining the number of acceptable responses and the total number of words in the responses, then applying a two-way table of these two values. (Gillmore and Dickerson 1979)
Publication date: 1982
Grade levels: 3-10
Contact: Pro-Ed, 5341 Industrial Oaks Boulevard, Austin, TX 78735

Shutt Primary Language Indicator Test (SPLIT)--D.L. Shutt

Abstract: An individually administered measure of the child's primary operational proficiency in English and Spanish through response to items familiar to Spanish culture. (ETS, Tests for Spanish-Speakers Grades 7 and Above)
Publication date: 1976
Grade levels: K-6
Contact: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020

RESOURCES

Education Testing Service

The Education Testing Service (ETS) provides tests and related educational measurement services; offers advisory services on the application of measurement techniques and materials; and conducts educational, psychological, and measurement research (see Organizations page 54). A newsletter, News on Tests, is issued 10 times per year and offers updates of test bibliographies, reviews of new tests, and resource information.

GLOSSARY [1]

Content Validity. A correspondence between the contents of an instrument and an analysis or outline of the skill(s) to be tested. For example, if a test of listening comprehension requires a student to read in order to respond to the items, the instrument lacks content validity because the process of comprehending oral language does not normally involve literacy skills.

Criterion-Referenced Tests. Instruments which relate performance on a set of test items to mastery of specific, discrete skills. Such tests are useful in diagnosing a student's achievement in reference to outlined curricular objectives.

Empirical Validity. A correspondence between test results and some external measure of the skill(s) tested. For example, if the scores from a language proficiency assessment correlate with teacher ratings of language proficiency, then the assessment instrument can be said to have some empirical validity.

Face Validity. A relationship between the physical appearance of a testing instrument and the reaction to it. For example, if an instrument using children's drawings as pictorial stimuli is administered to adults, the adults may perform poorly because they judge the pictures to be silly or insulting. Such an instrument can be said to lack face validity.

Mean Score. Commonly known as an "average," the mean score is calculated by adding all the scores together and dividing the total by the number of recorded scores. The mean score can be a deceptive statistic because if all students perform at a very high level except one, who performs very poorly, the mean will reflect a lower quality of performance than was common.

Median Score. The midpoint of scores received by all candidates. This statistic is calculated by listing the scores in descending order then counting to the halfway point. For example, given nine scores, ranked in descending order: 100, 90, 90, 90, 90, 80, 70, 70, 60, the median score is 90 while the mean score is 82.

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Norm-Referenced Tests. Instruments which relate the scores of one student to those of other students. Results are generally reported in percentile ranks indicating that a student performed better than some other percentage of students.

Standard Deviation. The range of scores as related to the mean score. Most often, the standard deviation is added to and subtracted from the mean score to indicate the boundaries within which two-thirds of the candidates scored. For example, if the mean score is 50 and the standard deviation is 20, approximately two-thirds of the candidates scored between 30 and 70 on the test.

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Improving Mathematics Skills

By Terry Corasanti Dale

Developing a functional mathematics curricula for limited-English-proficient (LEP) students is an important and difficult task facing bilingual and ESL educators today. Traditionally, bilingual and ESL programs taught and reinforced computation skills, but have not emphasized mathematics problem solving skills. Yet, problem solving is a skill LEP students need to practice frequently. Such practice assists students in acquiring both reading and math skills as they work through math concepts. Problem solving is also the area singled out by mathematics educators to form the framework for all mathematics curricula (the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics 1980). A functional bilingual or ESL curriculum designed to provide LEP students with essential academic tools must include instructional components in mathematics, especially in mathematics problem solving.

Problem Solving in L1 and L2

Problem solving which involves word or story problems is quite common to basic arithmetic. In order to develop clearly defined teaching objectives in this area, the targeted activity must be analyzed, particularly in relation to the role of language in the problem solving learning process. A word problem, such as

> Monica needs enough plants to fill 6 window boxes. She can put 12 plants in each box. How many plants does she need to fill the boxes?

requires three essential skills: (1) the ability to read and comprehend the language in which the problem is posed; (2) the ability to apply knowledge of math concepts needed to identify the focus of the math problem and to plan a strategy for the solution; and (3) the computation skills needed to

calculate the solution. The computation skill necessary to solve this problem is a simple multiplication algorithm, 6x12=x. Most students who are past the third grade and who know how to multiply should have no difficulty with this computation. The primary source of difficulty lies in reading and comprehending the language in which the problem is posed and in selecting the correct process needed to set up the solution algorithm.

However, what problem solvers first must do to comprehend the problem is to read and translate the formal, mathematical language of the problem into everyday, natural language (Cazden 1979). Skills in this kind of translation require a familiarity with the specialized vocabulary and syntactic expressions used in mathematics language. Mathematics vocabulary, while composed of everyday words, reinterprets these words with a specialized meaning, such as the words set, point, and even. The vocabulary introduces technical words and expressions specific to mathematics, such as least common denominator and square of the hypotenuse. Math language also includes syntactic structures that express mathematical processes. These syntactic structures include phrases like the sum of the first and terms of the sequence. The teacher must deal with acquainting students with this mathematics language before attempting to teach the subject.

In addition to translating a specialized language, math students must manipulate quantitative concepts, key procedural words, and computational processes in this nonredundant, unfamiliar language. Often multiple math operations are included in a single math statement requiring the reader to mentally dissect the information in order to determine how the elements of the text are related (Coulter 1972). This dissecting of information requires understanding of comparative expressions, such as more/less than, n times as much, --er than, and as... as. Frequent use of prepositions and passive voice to convey a particular operation, especially division, as in eight divided by two versus eight divided into two, occurs (Munro 1979) and must be discussed in the mathematics classroom.

Given the complexity of the language of word problems, it is not difficult to see how understanding and solving word problems is a complex task. LEP students are required to read and comprehend problems presented not only in a second language, but in a second language that must be translated from the formal mathematical discourse of L2 into the natural language of L2 (Cazden 1979). If L2 problem solvers are not sufficiently proficient in L2 literacy skills and if they are not familiar with the language of mathematics in L1 and/or L2, they will have a difficult time grappling with the mathematical content of the learning activity, even if they possess the necessary math concept knowledge and computational skills. Teaching objectives should target this language problem.

Language or Math Skills: Which is More Important?

Problem solving research with both monolingual English subjects and bilingual subjects (where English is either the L1 or the L2) offer no conclusive answers as to whether strong reading ability in L1 or L2 or strong math concept knowledge and computation skills are more important to

successful problem solving. The information researchers provide appears to confirm that all these skills are essential.

The limited research data available with LEP and bilingual problem solvers indicate that the level of reading ability in the language in which the math problem is written does affect the student's competence (Macnamara 1970, Duran 1979, Dawe 1983). However, research findings differ on the relative importance of L1 and L2 skills and math skills in successful problem solving. Two recent studies with LEP students (Dawe 1983 and Tsang 1984) appear to indicate that academic competence in L1--specifically problem solving experience in L1 (from which knowledge of math concepts can be assumed)--might be more relevant than L2 skills, including reading skills. High achievement in mathematics by LEP students who score quite low in reading and other language dependent content areas signifies that there is not necessarily a relation between English language ability and math skills ability (Saville-Troike 1984). Students who are poor English speakers should not be labelled automatically as poor mathematics learners. Lesson plans may have to be modified to accommodate their special needs.

Developing an Approach for Teaching Math Problem Solving to LEP Students

Ideally, LEP students should have the opportunity to practice problem solving first in their L1. As students become more proficient in reading in English, they can begin to undertake problem solving in English.

Polya (1973) has suggested that problem solving involves four steps: (1) read and understand the problem; (2) devise a plan to solve the problem; (3) carry out the plan; and (4) look back and check the solution. While Polya's steps provide a blueprint for problem solving in any language, they are good starting points for bilingual or ESL students. Once students have a problem solving framework, as provided by Polya's steps, they can begin to acquire the vocabulary, syntactic expressions, and discourse skills peculiar to mathematics language. The process of reading and comprehending a problem and subsequently devising a plan for solution should become an activity in which students and teachers participate together. Diagrams, pictures, role playing--any kind of manipulatives--can help in conceptualizing the problem and in illustrating the math concepts to be applied. Necessary math concepts and computation skills can be taught as part of the problem solving process.

While students will need to develop many techniques to figure out a variety of mathematics problems, learning to use the general approach outlined in the steps is a useful start. Given the instructional time constraints faced by many bilingual and ESL programs, it may be one of the most successful approaches to teaching problem solving skills.

POLICY

Math And Science Bill

In action July 25, 1984, the U.S. House of Representatives passed H.R. 1310, the Education for Economic Security Act. The legislation would provide:

- Department of Education grants to state and local education agencies and institutions of higher education for teacher training and retraining and for improving access to mathematics and science instruction for historically underserved segments of the population;
- National Science Foundation support for teacher institutes, research and development programs, scholarships, faculty exchanges, instructional improvement efforts, and promotion of public understanding; and
- Presidential awards for excellence in teaching mathematics and science.

The measure, which passed the Senate earlier, has been signed by President Reagan.

RESOURCES

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics

Two publications are available by request from the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (see Organizations page 52). They are:

An Agenda for Action: Recommendations for School Mathematics in the 1980's (Single Copies free of charge)

Handbook for Conducting Equity Activities in Mathematics Education (Single copies free of charge)

The March 1984 issue of Journal for Research in Mathematics Education (volume 15, number 2) is a special issue on minorities and mathematics. It contains articles on the status of math education for women, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American students.

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Reading and the Minority Language Student

By Orestes I. Crespo

Reading instruction in English and in the home language of minority language children is a component of most bilingual education programs. However, questions remain concerning the teaching of overall reading skills, such as reading speed, vocabulary development, and comprehension. One of the major concerns of teachers working with limited-English-proficient (LEP) students is the appropriate sequence to follow in the introduction of literacy skills in the second language. Should reading in English be introduced after literacy in the native language has been mastered? What degree of oral language proficiency should be achieved by the minority language student before reading in English is introduced?

Native Language Literacy

Except in cases where the native language does not exist in written form, such as Hmong, most bilingual education programs either introduce native language literacy first or introduce reading in both the native language and English concurrently (Weber 1976). Educators usually agree, however, that learning to read in two languages simultaneously may be difficult initially. Instead, most bilingual programs promote the introduction of native language literacy before teaching reading in the second language.

In a review of the literature, Fradd (1982) found concensus toward methodologies which rely upon the development of literacy skills in the native language. Fradd notes the longitudinal study at the Rock Point Navajo Indian school in Arizona where prior to 1971, fifth and sixth grade students were two years below national norms in reading in English despite intensive instruction in English as a second language (ESL). Since 1971 when a language program for teaching Navajo literacy was first introduced, English reading skills have improved to match national norms.

In a more recent study, Mace-Matluck, et al. (1983) report on research involving native language literacy among Cantonese-speaking students. Results indicated that when native language literacy skills were substantially developed, such skills were positively related to the development of English literacy skills. Miller (1981) describes a bilingual program in Mexico which also promotes the teaching of native language literacy before reading in a second language is introduced. In this case, the native language is usually an indigenous language and the second language is Spanish. If research appears to indicate that native language literacy should come first, when should reading in the second language take place?

English Language Literacy

In their discussion of reading in the bilingual classroom, Goodman, et al. (1979) identify major assumptions that "have dominated curricular suggestions in bilingual literacy programs." One of these assumptions supposes that children must have oral proficiency in the language to be read before they can learn to read in that language. Goodman, et al. agree that, indeed, oral language development is of major importance; however, they propose that language is motivated by functional needs and "reading need not follow oral development, but may be parallel to it and contribute to general language control." Regarding ESL instruction, Sainz and Goretti (1981) suggest the use of a Piagetian reading method for LEP students, which allows the children the opportunity to perceive and conceptualize aspects of the English language, thus nurturing and motivating the students toward positive interactions.

Feeley (1983) acknowledges that while language arts models in the past stressed listening and speaking before reading, more current approaches emphasize an earlier introduction to reading since there is little research evidence supporting a delay of reading instruction. This is especially useful information in those schools where bilingual education or formal ESL instruction is not available for LEP students, such as in areas with too few LEP students for a formal program or with minority language students from a low incident language group for which native language instructors and materials may not be available.

Recent research findings in English language literacy are summarized by Huddleston (1984) as follows: (1) even children who speak little or no English are reading some of the print in their environment and are using the reading to increase their English; (2) ESL learners are able to read English before they have completed oral control of the language; (3) reading comprehension in a second language, as in a first, is influenced by the background knowledge and the cultural framework that the reader brings to the text; (4) as in the first language, writing in the second language interacts with reading--the two processes complement each other; and (5) the processes of writing, reading, speaking, and listening in a second language are interrelated and interdependent.

Language Experience Approach to Literacy in ESL

Literacy in a second language is better achieved when the written material is congruent with the reader's oral language repertoire (Chu-Chang 1981). The repertoire need not be representative of complete fluency in the second language. One approach that has been suggested as an introduction to second language literacy is the language experience approach (Allen and Dorris 1963). Kwiat (1984) explains the process used in this approach as one in which the LEP student is presented with an experience or concept and introduced to corresponding vocabulary. Then the student is guided to talk about that experience. The teacher records what the student says and later transcribes the student's own language for review by the student at a later date. The reading vocabulary can be directly linked with concepts and oral language recently encountered by the LEP student (Feeley 1983). Teachers often express the concern that allowing children to dictate and to read grammatically incorrect sentences may reinforce bad grammar and hinder mastery of standard English. However, researchers, such as Rigg (1981), have demonstrated that first draft language experience stories may be brought out again after the students have acquired a greater oral language proficiency and the students correct previous errors based on their increased knowledge of English.

Since the language experience approach does not focus on individual basic skills in literacy, such as the ability to decode high frequency sight words or the ability to generalize about the phonological patterns found in English words, other more sophisticated approaches should be utilized by the teachers of LEP students once the introduction into literacy in the second language has been introduced (Kwiat 1984).

Two conclusions may be reached about literacy in two languages. The first is that achieving literacy in the native language may help the LEP student develop English reading skills faster and more efficiently. The second is that reading in the second language may begin before complete oral language proficiency has been reached by the LEP student. Decisions, however, on when to begin instruction in the second language are still at the discretion of individual educators. Cummins (1980) strongly suggests that true equal education will result only from programs that optimize minority language children's potential by promoting literacy skills in both languages.

RESOURCES

International Reading Association

The International Reading Association is a professional organization for individuals involved in the teaching or supervising of reading programs (see Organizations page 52). The organization promotes research in developmental, corrective, and remedial reading. It publishes journals, monographs, and brochures and disseminates information on the reading process and teaching methods. Among the journals published are Journal of Reading and Lectura y Vida.

Literacy Volunteers Of America

Literacy Volunteers of America provides assistance in implementing literacy programs at the local, state, and national levels and in training volunteer tutors (see Organizations page 52). It disseminates pertinent publications and information, including training manuals, and acts as a referral service for potential tutors and students.

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Administrative Issues

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American Indian/Alaskan Native Program Study

by Theodora G. Predaris

A recent study evaluating the operation and effectiveness of Part A programs in meeting the educational and culturally-related academic needs of American Indian and Alaskan Native students found that Part A programs have a positive impact on Indian students, their parents, and school districts.

The study, The Evaluation of the Impact of the Part A Entitlement Program Funded Under Title IV of the Indian Education Act, concentrated on three areas: (1) project objectives, students served, academic and cultural activities, and federal, state, and local funding patterns; (2) the impact of projects on students, parents, and local school districts; and (3) what changes, if any, needed to be made in legislation or regulations affecting Part A.

Data for the study were collected during the 1981-1982 school year from a stratified random sample of 115 Part A projects, of which 65 percent were entirely funded with Part A funds. Project staff members, parent committee members, teachers, and students completed self-administered questionnaires; district administrators, community leaders, and parents were interviewed; and data were gathered from project and school district files.

Proficiency in basic academic skills, knowledge of American Indian culture and history, and the need for guidance and career counseling were identified most frequently by Indian community members as essential components within the school's academic programs. Tutoring and other academic activities were offered by 80 percent of the projects surveyed; Indian history and cultural instruction was offered by 64 percent. Approximately 48 percent of the projects provided counseling, while 38 percent supported home-school liaison activities. Another 22 percent provided financial assistance to parents for school related costs.

The study suggests there have been substantial improvements in the condition of Indian education since the early 1970s, when the Indian Education Act was passed. This improvement was due in part to the Part A program; however, it was not possible to estimate how much of that change was due to the program. Factors in the apparent success of Part A include other programs supported by the Indian Education Act, Johnson O'Malley programs, Title I and other federal programs, many tribal and community-based programs for students and parents, as well as, a more tolerant and sensitive attitude toward cultural differences. The study found that congressional objectives in enacting the Part A program were largely being met to the satisfaction of the Indian community.

Generally academic achievement among Indian students was still below the national norm, especially in secondary schools, but higher than the levels reported at the beginning of the 1970s. Many of these students needed academic assistance and encouragement to remain in school. The relationship between schools and parents also improved. The study found that parents were more involved than ever before in the education of their children and that they seemed supportive of the type of education the schools were providing their children. In the area of school dropout rates, the data showed no marked change since before the Part A program began. The study found that Part A efforts to teach culturally related topics and special heritage classes and substantially to involve Indian educators and parents in school programming were viewed as important, ongoing needs by the Indian community.

POLICY

H.R. 5190, Indian Education Act

Rep. Dale Kildee (D-Mich.) introduced H.R. 5190 in April 1984 to amend Title XI of the Education Amendments Act of 1978.[2] The bill would authorize forward funding for the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) Title XI school programs and require the BIA to establish enrollment boundaries for Indian schools.

The measure would require BIA to notify parents, students, and Congress one year before closing or consolidating any Indian school, and allow tribes running contract schools to waive certain BIA academic standards (as they are now allowed to do if the standards are "inappropriate or ill-conceived.") If BIA standards are waived, tribes must proprose alternatives to the Secretary of the Interior.

Navajo, Pueblo, and other Indian groups expressd support for the bill during hearings April 9 before the House Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education Subcommittee, and they generally agreed that tribes should be allowed to set their own BIA school attendance boundaries, as the measure provides.

RESOURCES

American Indian Multifunctional Support Center

Fifteen of the sixteen bilingual education multifunctional support centers (BEMSCs) have been funded for fiscal year 1984 by the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA), U.S. Department of Education. The remaining center, for service area 10, will be determined at a later date. The centers, which began operation in October 1983, are the newest component of the Title VII network. Their objective is to provide training, technical assistance, coordination, and other support services to their service areas.

Each BEMSC serves a designated geographic area. One, in Tempe, Arizona, functions as the National Indian Bilingual Center (see Organizations page 52) serving the American Indian population in those 13 states in Service Area 16 that have reported an American Indian student enrollment of 5,000 or more. The center, serving 80 Title VII programs, coordinates with other BEMSCs in providing services to American Indian students in their service areas. The center also has established these satellite centers:

Arizona Satellite Center
Arizona State University
National Indian Bilingual Center
Dixie Gammage Hall, Room 258
Tempe, AZ 85287
Terry McCarty, Coordinator
(602) 965-5688
Service Area: Arizona, California, and Utah

New Mexico Satellite Center
University of New Mexico
Onate Hall, Room 315-6
Albuquerque, NM 87131
Alice Neundorf, Coordinator
(505) 277-6350
Service Area: Arizona and Utah (Navajo) and New Mexico

Montana Satellite Center
Montana State University
Native American Studies
Wilson Hall, Room 2-104
Bozeman, MT 59715
Barney Old Coyote, Coordinator
(406) 994-2869
Service Area: Alaska, Montana, Washington, and Wyoming

South Dakota Satellite Center
National College
321 South Kansas City Street
Rapid City, SD 57701
Don Allery, Coordinator
(605) 394-4967
Service Area: Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and South Dakota

Indian Employment Resource Center

The National Indian Employment Resource Center[3] is a private employment agency providing exclusive employment brokerage services for American Indian and Alaskan Natives (see Organizations page 52). The center will maintain a database of professionally skilled and semi-skilled American Indian and Alaskan Native applicants. In addition to the database the center will also maintain over 2,000 current job listings. The goal of the

center is to bring together these two interests in order to increase American Indian and Alaskan Native employment and aid employers seeking qualified personnel.

Publications

Native American Traditions--Educational pamphlets on American Indians, **The Child, The Family,** and **The Indian Women** protraying tribal cultures, histories, and American Indian experiences in contemporary society are currently available from Daybreak Star Press, United Indians of All Tribes Foundation, Daybreak Star Cultural--Educational Center (see Organizations page 52).

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Transition Program for Refugee Children

by Harpreet Sandhu

The Refugee Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-212) authorized the Director of the Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, to provide services or make agreements with other agencies to provide services for refugees.

As a result of an interagency agreement between ORR and the Department of Education during fiscal year 1983, ORR provided funding for the special educational needs of refugee children who were enrolled in public and non-profit private elementary and secondary schools. Under this state-administered transition program, funds were distributed through formula grants based on the number of eligible refugee children in each state. These grants to state educational agencies (SEAs) were then distributed to local educational agencies (LEAs) as formula-based subgrants.

During the 1983-1984 school year, $16.6 million was made available to states for educational services to refugee children. These funds served 112,788 refugee children nationwide. Activities funded under the program include:

- Supplemental educational services oriented toward instruction to improve English language skills
- Bilingual education
- Remedial programs
- School counseling and guidance services
- Inservice training for educational personnel
- Training for parents.

For more information, or to receive a list of state refugee coordinators or state transition programs, contact Jonathan Chang, Office

of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Room 421, Reporters Building, Washington, DC 20202; (202) 245-2922.

RESEARCH

English Language Training For Refugees

A recently released study on the effectiveness of English language training (ELT) programs for adult refugees, funded by the Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, found that while ELT programs contributed to the success of refugees' English language acquisition, their previous education, age, and background and demographic characteristics were also important factors in determining their rate and level of English language acquisition.

A Study of English Language Training for Refugees in the United States investigated the language learning experiences of newly arrived Southeast Asian adult refugees in the United States, particularly those with little previous education or exposure to Western culture, over an 18-month period. The study found that refugees with more education learned English faster and reached higher proficiency levels than did refugees with little or no previous education. The study also found that most refugees enrolled in ELT programs within their first year in the United States. The longer the refugees remained in this country the more likely they were to enroll in ELT programs.

The study was conducted in three phases. In Phase I a mail survey was used to gather information on the extent and types of services available from local ORR-funded English language programs. Phase II consisted of on-site classroom observations of programs in eight metropolitan areas and surveys on the levels of English language training and proficiency in Southeast Asian households in four metropolitan areas. Phase III measured the differences in language acquisition by Southeast Asian refugees under different resettlement programs. The results were analyzed to show how individual background characteristics, work experience, and participation in ELT programs combined to foster English language acquisition.

For copies of the technical reports for the three phases of the study and copies of the final summary report, contact the Refugee Materials Center (see Organizations page 53).

U.S. Refugee Population Profile

Southeast Asians have remained the most numerous of the recent refugees arriving in the United States. Nearly 45 percent arrived between 1980 and 1981 although the numbers declined in 1982 and 1983. While Southeast Asian refugees have predominated among refugees arriving since 1975, Cuban refugees have remained the largest group admitted to the United States since World War II.

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More than 100,000 Soviet refugees arrived in the United States between 1975 and 1983, peaking in 1979 and 1980. Many other smaller refugee groups have arrived in the United States since the enactment of the Refugee Act of 1980. The following table depicts refugee arrivals in the United States from 1975 to 1983.

REFUGEE ARRIVALS IN THE UNITED STATES FY 1975 TO FY 1983 [4]

Year	Africa	Asia	Eastern Europe	Soviet Union	Latin America	Near East	Total
1975	--	135,000	1,947	6,211	3,000	--	146,158
1976	--	15,000	1,756	7,450	3,000	--	27,206
1977	--	7,000	1,755	8,191	3,000	--	19,946
1978	--	29,574	2,245	10,688	3,000	--	36,507
1979	--	76,521	3,393	24,449	7,000	--	111,363
1980	955	163,799	5,025	28,444	6,662	2,231	207,116
1981	2,119	131,139	6,704	13,444	2,017	3,829	159,252
1982	3,326	73,522	10,780	2,756	602	6,369	97,355
1983	2,648	39,408	12,083	1,409	668	5,465	61,681
Total	9,048	661,963	45,688	103,042	28,949	17,894	866,584

POLICY

Refugee Resettlement Program: Report To Congress

Section 413(a) of the Immigration and Nationality Act, as amended by the Refugee Act of 1980, requires the Secretary of Health and Human Services, in consultation with the U.S. coordinator for Refugee Affairs to submit a report to Congress on the Refugee Resettlement Program no later than January 31 following the end of each fiscal year.

The latest report, which covers refugee program developments from October 1, 1982, through September 30, 1983, is the seventeenth in a series of reports to Congress on refugee resettlement in the United States since 1975 and the third to cover an entire year of activities carried out under the comprehensive authority of the Refugee Act of 1980.

For a copy of the report, contact the Office of Refugee Resettlement (see Organizations page 53).

RESOURCES

Mainstream English Language Training Projects

The Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, has awarded a total of $543,318 to seven education programs serving limited-English-proficient (LEP) adults. The grantees

will implement mainstream English language training (MELT) demonstration projects for adult refugees. The MELT demonstration projects are designed to test, refine, implement, and validate (1) the ORR-proposed set of English as a second language (ESL) student performance levels and test instruments and (2) the ORR-proposed employment-focused core curriculum for domestic refugee English language training (ELT) programs. The results from the demonstration projects will be used by ORR to formulate standards for ORR-funded adult refugee ELT programs. The seven projects are:

Project Personal
375 Broad Street
Providence, RI 02907
(401) 831-1460

International Institute of Boston
287 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, MA 02115
(617) 536-1081

Refugee Education and Employment Program (REEP)
1601 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 276-8145

Northwest Educational Cooperative (NEC)
500 S. Dwyer Avenue
Arlington Heights, IL 60005
(312) 870-4106

Spring Institute for International Studies
5025 Lowell Boulevard
Denver, CO 80221
(303) 433-6355

San Diego Community College District
5350 University Avenue
San Diego, CA 92105
(619) 230-2144

San Francisco Community College District
33 Gough Street
San Francisco, CA 94103
(415) 239-3088

For more information, contact the Office of Refugee Resettlement.

Refugee Policy Group

The Refugee Policy Group (RPG) is an independent nonprofit, private organization established in 1982 to serve as a center of policy analysis and research on international and domestic refugee issues (see Organizations page 52).

The RPG produces occasional papers and holds meetings and symposiums, which bring together policy analysts, researchers, and service providers to discuss priority issues concerning refugees. As one part of its mission, RPG has established a resource center to collect documentation that will facilitate research on a broad range of topics relevant to refugees' needs and serve as an information center for other agencies and organizations.

The resource center provides a variety of information services, such as, assistance in conducting research; production of bibliographic materials; telephone reference assistance and information referral; maintenance of up-to-date statistical data on refugees; and access to RPG specialized materials through the use of an inter-library loan agreement.

Refugee Materials Center

The Refugee Materials Center provides free materials to teachers (both K-1 and adults), individuals, and agencies that provide services to refugees (see Organizations page 53).

The Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR), U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, has provided funds to the center for reprinting and disseminating refugee-related materials and expanding its services. As a result, the center has increased its titles of materials to 475--in English and in Vietnamese, Cambodian, Lao, Hmong, Chinese, Spanish, Polish, Farsi, Russian, and Rumanian. A bibliography of materials disseminated by the Refugee Materials Center is available upon request.

Refugee Database

A new database at the U.S. Census Bureau may aid researchers who are interested in worldwide refugee statistics. Stored at the Bureau's International Research Center, the database contains statistics on refugee movements that are part of demographic and socioeconomic information used to derive the population estimates of foreign countries.

By summer, officials hope that recent refugee information on all Third World countries will be part of the database.[5] Later, Third World and European refugee data from 1950 to the present are expected to be available. Currently the development is being financed by Congress and funds that have been raised through projects done with other federal agencies. The FY 1985 budget request for the database is $1.2 million. Information in the database is offered to other government agencies and to the public through the sale of tapes and print-outs.

State Boards of Education Study

by Orestes I. Crespo

The National Association for State Boards of Education (NASBE) recently completed a project designed to offer technical assistance to help states strengthen their capacity building programs for limited-English-proficient (LEP) students (see Organizations page 53). The main goals of the project were to:

- Develop awareness among top-level state education policymakers of the politics, content issues, and current and projected state policies pertaining to minority language students;
- Provide intensive, on-site technical assistance to states for bilingual education policy development and implementation;
- Expand the capabilities of parents and community leaders to become more effective advocates for LEP students and the delivery of services to their states;
- Disseminate information on issues central to the education of minority language students.

Four states--Maryland, Michigan, New York, and Rhode Island--were selected to participate in the project on the basis of need, interest, and availability of resources in identifying issues and problems related to LEP students. Different issues were identified for developing a comprehensive state plan of action that would address the needs of minority language students in each of the four states.

The specific policy issue in Maryland dealt with demographic projections that provided profiles of LEP students in that state. In Michigan a general meeting of state and local superintendents and bilingual project directors was held to review and assess the delivery of services at

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the state level for LEP students. The focus in New York was on special education for minority language students; in Rhode Island the issue of minimal competencies for LEP children was addressed.

Final reports on the various components of the project will be mailed to the respective state education agencies this fall. Plans for nationwide dissemination of the final project report are currently under consideration. This project was funded by the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education.

POLICY

National School Boards Association (NSBA) Adopts Resolution

M. Joan Parent, president of the National School Boards Association (NSBA), testified on behalf of NSBA on the Reauthorization of the Bilingual Education Act (HR 11 and related bills) before the House of Representatives Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education on March 28, 1984. Parent called for a "program of sufficient scope that will meet the growing national educational need for a full range of services and options to limited English speaking children."

The growing number of minority language children, Parent emphasized, will have an economic impact for local communities who are required to provide educational services to all students. "In reauthorizing Title VII, NSBA urges the Committee to consider a two part program: one for capacity building and one for a maintenance", Parent testified. With respect to capacity building efforts, funding would be required for:

- Inservice and preservice training for qualified teachers
- Development of instructional material
- Exemplary programs
- The array of programs and services necessary for initiating and improving local programs.

Parent also promoted the development of a program that would provide longer maintenance assistance for school districts with high concentrations of LEP children.

To further reinforce this stand, NSBA adopted the following resolution during their annual conference held from March 30 to April 2, 1984.

"NSBA urges that state and local school districts develop educational programs that will assure that limited-English-proficient children shall have access to excellence in education. NSBA supports the concept that these students should, as soon as possible, become proficient in English. NSBA urges Congress and the president to provide the necessary resources for school districts to meet these needs. All such federal aid should be distributed directly to local school districts providing such education."[6]

National Hispanic School Board Members Association Develops Plan

The National Hispanic School Board Members Association (NHSBMA) is currently developing a three-point plan which could be implemented in the secondary education curriculum (see Organizations page 53). The plan would provide students with three curriculum options:

- Entry-level Employment
- Higher Education
- Vocational Career Occupation.

All students would take the same course requirements although the content of subject matter would differ depending on the option selected.

The NHSBMA is developing this recommended course curriculum narrative in conjunction with Educational Policy Development, an organization established to encourage the partnership between public schools and the private sector.

RESOURCES

The Nation Responds

The Nation Responds: Recent Efforts to Improve Education documents the response to the final report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk, at the national, state, and local levels during 1983. Divided into three parts, The Nation Responds provides (1) an overview of national developments in education during this period and a summary of state and local efforts to improve education; (2) an alphabetical list of state "profiles" with information on each state's ongoing efforts at educational reforms; and (3) brief accounts of reform efforts in selected local school districts, postsecondary institutions, associations, and private sector organizations.[7]

Multicultural Education

NSBA Training Handbook on Multicultural Education presents a framework for policy and program development in multicultural education that includes principles, methods, and resources.[8] The following areas are covered: (1) a brief history of cultural pluralism and multicultural education; (2) developing individual cultural awareness; (3) cross-cultural communication; (4) the development of strict sensitivity; (5) school governance and cultural pluralism; (6) policy development for multicultural education; (7) school board statements on multicultural education; (8) conducting an ethnic heritage workshop; and (9) conclusion.

Effective Counseling Programs

The continuing influx of minority language students into U.S. schools has resulted in a demand for counselors who can work with a culturally diverse population. An increasing number of counselors unfamiliar with minority cultures are being called upon to build constructive relationships with minority language students and their families (Brower 1980). In order to meet the needs of culturally diverse students, counselors must become knowledgeable about the language, values, social patterns, and peer and family influences on these students. Once these factors are identified, counseling approaches may be developed and implemented to help the minority language student have school experiences which will be both positive and productive.

Student Support Network

Counselors can affect positive changes within the students' environment which will improve the quality of the support structure available to the student by utilizing resources outside of the student-counselor relationship. Peers, parents, teachers, administrators, and community members can contribute to shape student performance. Counselors reach a larger number of students by aiming at their primary and associational groups and thus expand their application of skills to these groups which support students in ways, and over periods of time, which are normally beyond the capacity of the individual counselor (Morrill, et al. 1980; Dinkmeyer and Carlson 1977). This approach which connects family members, community representatives, students, peers, teachers, and administrators is called a student support network.

The student support network can be especially appropriate when working with minority language students. Grossman (1983) reported that Hispanic school professionals felt that working with an informal advisory committee

composed of ethnic community members and professionals allowed the counselor to base decisions and approach problems from a broader perspective. Community members are usually more aware of and sensitive to issues that may affect the academic performance and/or socialization of minority language students. Additionally, a student's family members may not be proficient English speakers. Community members can act as a linguistic bridge between the family and the school, if necessary.

In developing a w ing relationship with the family of a minority language student, a counselor should become acquainted with the minority culture including the lifestyle, religion, language(s), and systems of education (Dam 1981). Brower (1980) suggests that counselors become acquainted with specific information about the minority culture to establish trust and rapport. In the understanding of Vietnamese culture, Brower discusses the avoidance of misunderstandings in the use of Vietnamese names, the understanding of Vietnamese attitudes toward sex roles, and the awareness of socioeconomic and ethnic differences among the Vietnamese.

The school environment provides an introduction into the majority culture for most minority children (Crespo 1982). School counselors need to represent the educational institution and its procedures clearly to these students. In return minority students need to know what is expected of them by the institution. Counselors who have acquired an open-minded perspective of minority cultures through a working relationship with families from those cultures and other community members will be able to effectively fill this interpretive role.

Guidance

In providing guidance to minority language students, the issues of self-esteem and career development must be approached from a cross-cultural orientation. Garcia (1976) indicated that minority language students often experience a loss of self-esteem while passing through an academic program based on the majority language and culture. This loss of self-esteem often precedes low academic achievement and, ultimately, a desire to drop out of school. The counselor must learn to recognize and treat the symptoms. Singleton (1982) encourages the use of an approach for the enhancement of the self-esteem of minorities in which one views the students as human beings with an appreciation of their humanness. This humanistic frame of reference takes into account the family, religion, and value orientation as important factors in the counseling process. Singleton describes theoretic orientations regarding love and choice as sources of power in human beings with implications for counselor behaviors. Since counseling may be perceived as an unfamiliar activity resembling forced friendship, guidelines and techniques for counseling behavior must be determined.

These guidelines must be shared by the counselor with teachers, administrators, and other individuals in contact with the minority language student. For example, when students experience biases in the classroom, learning is impeded. Since teacher attitude can be the most influential determinant of student achievement (Risk 1970), counselors must alert

teachers to this cause and effect relationship and share with educators techniques for a more effective cross-cultural relationship. All school personnel should become aware of the need for acceptance of cultural diversity in the school environment. The attitude a cafeteria worker takes toward certain ethnic foods can communicate a negative concept to a student from that same culture and others as well. The counselor can take an active part in the planning and implementation of cross-cultural workshops to train school personnel to understand the culture and values of the minority language culture(s) so that improved interpersonal relations may take place. A positive reaction from a member of the majority culture may help the minority language student avoid the loss of self-esteem.

Another area to be emphasized in the counseling program is career development. Effective counseling introduces students to career opportunities which minority language students may have otherwise ignored. During guidance sessions, counselors should acquaint minority language students with occupations that require knowledge of a second language. According to Strength through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability (1979), a report by the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies, the "untapped resource of language minority students who by being brought into the mainstream of educational and employment opportunities can be expected to make a rapid, new and valuable contribution to America's capacity." In addition to opportunities available for bilingual speakers, counselors should also emphasize employment opportunities outside of traditional vocations. Here, too, the support network can perform an important function by providing role models, by encouraging high personal expectations, and by creating learning opportunities for students outside of the classroom.

Student Academic Assessment

Standardized tests are used by counselors to make judgments about student performance and the effectiveness of instruction. Research indicates that when standardized tests are used to assess the language proficiency of minority language students the results are often inaccurate or inadequate (Dulay and Burt 1980). To prevent inaccurate assessments, an assessment committee composed of student services personnel; a school psychologist; a bilingual teacher; and a community member can collectively screen students. This collective screening can eliminate mistaken or arbitrary decisions by one individual. The committee could also monitor student placements by systematically examining and updating student progress.

A counselor can play a major role in the assessment of minority language students by determining the cultural biases inherent in standardized tests (Arrendondo-Dowd 1980). By establishing a system by which students are assessed from a variety of perspectives and within various cultural contexts, counselors can better diagnose student needs. Instruments which supplement responses to standardized tests, such as surveys, questionnaires, and interviews, could be utilized by members of the committee in the total evaluation process.

ERIC

Outside resources, such as regional Bilingual Education Multifunctional Support Centers (BEMSCs) or Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Centers (EDACs) offer the counseling program a broader basis for appraisal activities and a more efficient means to carry out necessary evaluation responsibilities.

A well-developed counseling program must be able to assist minority language students both in and out of the classroom and should rely on all available resources. Emphasis must be placed on the recruitment of counselors who are members of minority cultures. However, research indicates that while American Indian students may not feel comfortable working with non-Indian counselors, the American Indian counselors may lack the training to provide proper guidance. In a period when school counselors face conflicting pressures to address the special requirements of minority language students, while being hampered by limited time and funding, an applicable approach to school counseling must account for cross-cultural implications.

RESEARCH

Dropout Rate Tied To Counseling Quality

Poor academic counseling and a lack of parental involvement contribute to the 20 percent high school dropout rate among Hispanic youth according to two research studies to be released in September 1984.[9] The preliminary findings of the studies, one being prepared by the Hispanic Policy Development Project for the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics and the other a Michigan State Department of Education study, were recently revealed at the seventh national conference of the National Council of La Raza in Washington, D.C. Both studies indicate that Hispanic students in general education tracks are more likely to quit school than those in academic and vocational education tracks. The trend away from academics was found to be the direct result of ineffective counseling and lack of parental interest in academics.

RESOURCES

American Association For Counseling And Development

The American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD) is a professional society of guidance counselors, counselor educators, and related human development specialists (see Organizations page 51). Its 13 national divisions span counseling and human development work at all educational levels. Services include Personnel and Guidance Journal; Guide Post, a newspaper; and over 100 books, monographs, and pamphlets on topics of current interest.

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The Education for All Handicapped Act

By Jean Bender

The education of exceptional minority language students raises several concerns about the local education agency's (LEA) legal requirements concerning identification, placement, and services for this population. The Education for All Handicapped Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142, codified as 20 USC 1400) mandates and authorizes funds so that all handicapped students, including minority language handicapped students, ages 3-21 have available to them free, appropriate public education and related services designed to meet their unique needs.

These funds are made available to eligible states on a formula basis with subsequent flow through to the LEAs. The LEA is responsible for adhering to the rules and regulations of P.L. 94-142 while receiving funds under the act. To receive P.L. 94-142 funds, states must assure that:

- All children who have handicaps have a right to receive a free, appropriate education at public expense;
- Every child with handicaps has the right to an education based on a full evaluation and assessment of individual needs;
- Every child who receives special education services has an Individualized Education Program (IEP) which outlines the special education and related services the child will receive;
- Parents of every child with handicaps have an opportunity to participate in their child's educational programming;
- Parents of every child with handicaps have a right to a due process hearing if they disagree with the identification, evaluation, or placement of their child;

- Every child with handicaps is educated with nonhandicapped children to the maximum extent appropriate.

Requirements for minority language populations are not clearly defined in the act. However, the following stipulations are an effort to eliminate both the overrepresentation and underrepresentation of minority language students in special education classes:

- Testing and evaluation materials, as well as, the procedures used in the assessment, must be administered so as not to be racially or culturally discriminatory;
- Testing materials or procedures must be provided and administered in the child's primary language;
- No single procedure shall be the sole criterion for determining an appropriate educational program for a child;
- Correspondence to the parents or guardian must be in the native language of those persons.

(National Information Center for Handicapped Children and Youth 1984, see Organizations page 54.)

School districts are faced with the reality of providing programs which satisfy the requirements of P.L. 94-142 and are educationally appropriate for exceptional minority language populations. Three service delivery options which provide for the use of first and second language were described by Ambert and Dew (1982). The three options are described below.

<u>Bilingual Support Model</u>. A monolingual special educator is responsible for all instruction. The monolingual special educator implements IEP objectives to be covered in English and supervises those implemented by an aide in the native language. The special educator must receive training to understand the characteristics of bilingual children and the use of appropriate instructional strategies for that population. The aide must be trained in special education techniques and classroom management.

<u>Coordinated Services Model</u>. Students are serviced by credentialed special and bilingual/ESL educators. The instructors should be knowledgeable in the foundations and techniques of both fields to act as a unified team. The special educator is responsible for services delivered in English and the bilingual educator responsible for special education goals to be presented bilingually or in the native language only.

<u>Integrated Bilingual Special Education Model</u>. One educator is skilled in both fields and delivers all services independently.

RESEARCH

Mainstreamed Limited-English-Proficient Handicapped Students

Vazquez, Nuttall Associates, Inc., (1984) conducted a study which examined mainstreaming efforts in a sample of 21 local education agencies (LEAs). Three main areas were investigated: (1) the identification, assessment, and placement of mainstreamed LEP handicapped students; (2) the instruction of mainstreamed LEP handicapped students in bilingual classrooms; and (3) the inservice training for the staff servicing mainstreamed LEP handicapped students.

Findings indicated that when bilingual special education services were available at the LEA level for LEP handicapped children, these children were identified, assessed, and subsequently placed through the Individualized Education Program (IEP). In school districts without bilingual special education services, LEP handicapped students tended to remain in bilingual classrooms without formal identification and placement. Although one-third of the LEAs studied had bilingual special education instructional services, bilingual support personnel were not always available. Twelve of the LEAs screened all children including the LEP population entering kindergarten for handicaps. The other nine LEAs screened LEP children for special education services if they were referred by teachers, parents, or other interested parties. Problems cited by LEAs included serious shortages occurring in bilingual assessment personnel and assessment instruments not being normed on LEP populations. LEAs seemed to be relying on nonverbal tests and translations of tests most often in their testing procedures for minority language students.

When instructional services for the LEP handicapped student in a bilingual classroom were examined, it was found that teachers were adapting their instructional approach and individualizing the curriculum by simplifying instruction, designing worksheets with larger print and fewer words to a page, providing repetition and reinforcement, or presenting materials in a different sequence. It was also found that the focus of most inservice training was on legal requirements, identification, and referral procedures.

Handicapped Minority Research Institute

The Handicapped Minority Research Institute, located in Los Alamitos, California, was created to generate information regarding the special education needs which are unique to students who are both handicapped and speak little or no English (see Organizations page 54). The Institute conducts a number of activities, including:

- Research on the education of limited- or non-English-proficient students who exhibit mildly handicapping conditions;
- Research training and experience for graduate students and research assistants;

* Dissemination of its findings and products to parents, practitioners, researchers, program developers, and policy makers.

The Institute is funded through a five-year contract awarded by the Office of Special Education Programs, U.S. Department of Education (see Organizations page 54), to the National Center for Bilingual Research.

The Institute's research program includes both longitudinal and short-term studies designed to generate information on current practices in bilingual special education and to develop a database for future research in the area. Specific projects include:

* Longitudinal Study I explores district-level decisionmaking strategies and practices in the education of Hispanic LEP students with special needs. A "best practices" model will be developed to assist other districts in providing a quality education for minority language exceptional students.

* Longitudinal Study II focuses on high school age students and examines the interplay between language and communication skills, and the communication demands of school and work settings.

* Short-term studies explore issues, such as psychological assessment of Hispanic students; diagnosis of language disabilities through informal assessment techniques; sociolinguistic analysis of the most frequently used language tests; strategies for communicating with and involving minority families with handicapped children in the education of their children; and participation of handicapped students in the mainstream instructional program.

RESOURCE ORGANIZATIONS

ESL

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Suite 230
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 822-7866

Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 298-9292

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1555 Wilson Boulevard
Suite 605
Rosslyn, VA 22209
(800) 336-4560; (703) 522-0710.

Teachers of English to Speakers
of Other Languages (TESOL)
Georgetown University
202 D.C. Transit Building
Washington, DC 20057
(202) 625-4569

COUNSELING

American Association for Counseling and Development (AACP)
5999 Stevenson Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22304
(703) 823-9800

Consortium on Employment Communication
Northern California Office
Chinatown Resources Development Center
615 Grant Avenue, Fourth Floor
San Francisco, CA 94108
(415) 391-7583

or

Southern California Office for Career Studies
IEI-101
California State University at Long Beach
Long Beach, CA 90840
(213) 498-4680

MATHEMATICS

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM)
Department E
1906 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-9840

NATIVE AMERICAN

American Indian Higher Education Consortium
1602 South Parker Road
Denver, CO 80231
(303) 321-5909

Daybreak Star
Cultural-Educational Center
Discovery Park
Box 99253
Seattle, WA 98199

National Indian Bilingual Center (NIBC)
Arizona State University
College of Education
Center for Indian Education
Tempe, AZ 85287
(602) 965-5688

National Indian Employment Resource Center (NIERC)
2258 South Broadway
Denver, CO 80210
(800) 572-9450; (303) 698-2611

National Indian Institute, Inc.
Suburban Route, Box 198-2
Rapid City, SD 57702
(605) 348-6138

READING

International Reading Association (IRA)
P.O. Box 8139
800 Barksdale Road
Newark, DE 19711
(302) 731-1600

Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA)
404 Oak Street
Syracuse, NY 13203-2994
(315) 474-7039

REFUGEE

Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR)
Room 1332
Switzer Building, Room 1332
330 C Street, S.W.
Washington, DC 20201
(202) 245-0956

Refugee Materials Center
U.S. Department of Education
Region VII
324 Eleventh Street, Ninth Floor
Kansas City, MO 64106

Refugee Policy Group (RPG)
1424 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Suite 401
Washington, DC 22036
(202) 387-3015

SCHOOL BOARDS

National Association for State Boards of Education (NASBE)
701 N. Fairfax Street
Suite 340
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 684-4000

National Hispanic School Board Members Association
3951 East Medford Street
Los Angeles, CA 90063
(213) 269-5474

National School Boards Association (NSBA)
1680 Duke Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 838-6722

SPECIAL EDUCATION

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
10801 Rockville Pike
Rockville, MD 20852
(301) 897-5700

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-3660

Handicapped Minority Research Institute
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, CA 90720
(213) 598-0481

or

College of Education
Dept. of Special Education, EDB 306
University of Texas, Austin
Austin, TX 78712
(512) 471-4161

National Information Center for Handicapped Children and Youth
P.O. Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013

Office of Special Education Programs
Switzer Building
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202
(202) 732-1120

TESTING

Education Testing Service (ETS)
Rosedale Road
Princeton, NJ 08541
(609) 921-9000

NOTES

1. Definitions adapted from Harris 1969.
2. Source: Education Daily, April 10, 1984.
3. Source: Perspectives from the Northern Plains, January/February 1984, Resource and Evaluation Center II, United Tribes Educational Technical Center.
4. Source: U.S. Department of State.
5. Source: Refugee Reports, vol. V, no. 6, April 20, 1984.
6. Source: Proceedings from the NSBA Annual Conference, March 30-April 2, 1984; Resolution adopted by the Delegate Assembly, NSBA.
7. Available for $7.50 from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (stock no. 065-000-00198-5).
8. Available from the National School Boards Association, 1680 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22134; (703) 838-6722.
9. Source: Education Daily, August 1, 1984.

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