DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 372 640 FL 022 341

AUTHOR Malave, Lilliam M., Ed.
TITLE National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE). Annual Conference Journal, NABE '92-'93.
INSTITUTION National Association for Bilingual Education, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 94
NOTE 143p.; For selected individual papers, see FL 022 342-350. 1992 Conference held in Albuquerque, New Mexico. 1993 Conference held in Houston, Texas.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Serials (022)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Bilingual Education; *Bilingual Education Programs; Bilingual Teachers; Classroom Techniques; Curriculum Development; Dropout Prevention; Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; English (Second Language); *Gifted; Identification; Inservice Teacher Education; Instructional Innovation; Language Proficiency; Limited English Speaking; *Special Education; *Talent; Teacher Characteristics; Teacher Effectiveness; Team Teaching; Writing Instruction

ABSTRACT

This collection of papers on bilingual education, presented at the previous two NABE annual conferences, focuses on special programs, gifted and talented education, special education, and innovative teaching approaches. Articles include: "Writing Instruction for Limited English Proficient Students: A Survey of Teachers' Perceptions" (Laurie R. Weaver, Yolanda N. Padron); "Curriculum Extension for the Gifted and Talented Student with Limited English Proficiency" (Judith A. Marquez, Cheryl B. Sawyer); "Developing and Using Collaborative Bilingual Special Education Teams" (Kathleen C. Harris, Ann Nevin); "A Qualitative Assessment Method for Accurately Diagnosing Bilingual Gifted Children" (Virginia Gonzalez, Patricia Bauerle, Maria Felix-Holt); "Consultation and Collaboration: English as a Second Language and Regular Classroom Teachers Working Together" (Rita van Loenen, Perry Kay Haley); "Valued Youth Program: Dropout Prevention Strategies for At-Risk Youth" (Maria Robledo Montecel, Josie D. Supik, Aureli Montemayor); "Bilingual Technology Equalizes Opportunities in Elementary Classroom" (Angela Mielke, Chencho Flores); Staff Development Specialists for Bilingual and Bicultural Education Programs: A Training Program" (Liliana Minaya-Rowe); "The Emergence of the Framework for Intervention" (Joan Wink); and "Effective Bilingual and ESL Teachers: Characteristics and the Oral Language Proficiency of Their Students" (Lilliam M. Malave). (MSE)

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO • 1993 HOUSTON, TEXAS



# ANNUAL CONFERENCE JOURNAL





NABE

NATIONAL ASSC  L EDUCATION

**Published by:**
National Association for Bilingual Education
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, DC 20005

# ANNUAL CONFERENCE JOURNAL

## NABE '92 - '93

**EDITOR**
Lilliam M. Malavé
University of Buffalo
State University of New York

**ASSOCIATE EDITOR**
Jo Ann Parla
SUNY - Fredonia

**National Association for Bilingual Education**
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, D.C. 20005

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The editor wishes to express sincere thanks to her colleagues and assistants at the University of Buffalo and the National Association for Bilingual Education for their help during the preparation of this book. This endeavor would not have been possible without the generous support of these institutions. The regular use of the facilities at the University of Buffalo was vital to this publication. The editor is grateful for the dedication the graduate assistant, Ms. Ruth Gates, without whose assistance and effort this book could not have been completed. Special recognition to Ms. Betsy Mercado and Mrs. Carmen Márquez for the training and research assistance provided and to Mr. James Lyons and Dr. Nancy Zelasko for facilitating the NABE Conference Journal Publication. Thanks are also due to the editorial review board members for their enthusiastic participation and vigor during the rigorous review process. The generous cooperation of the contributing authors is recognized.

Lilliam M. Malavé, Buffalo
January, 1994

Jo Ann Parla, Fredonia
January, 1994

# WRITING INSTRUCTION FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS: A SURVEY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

**Laurie R. Weaver**
**Yolanda N. Padrón**

**Abstract**

Improving writing instruction for Hispanic limited English proficient (LEP) students in our nations schools is of concern to educators today. Since teachers teach what they perceive to be important (Mayer, 1985; Nespor, 1985), it is essential to identify whether instruction in process-oriented writing strategies is perceived to be a worthwhile approach by teachers who work with LEP students. This study, therefore, examines whether teachers perceive instruction in process or product-oriented writing strategies as more important to teach to LEP students. The subjects in the present study were 52 elementary school teachers of ESL students. The Writing Strategy Survey (WSS) was administered to all the teachers. The WSS is a four-point Likert-type scale questionnaire consisting of 28 product and process strategies that have previously been identified by research as those used by English-monolingual and bilingual students during the composing process (see e.g., Padrón & Bermúdez, 1988). Results of the survey indicate teachers perceived process-oriented strategies as the most important to teach LEP students.

Improving writing instruction for Hispanic limited English proficient (LEP) students in our nations schools is of concern to educators today. Achievement scores, in general, for the LEP student are low (Lindholm, 1990). Writing, in particular, has been found to be a difficult task for students attending school in their second language. Writing is a difficult task for the LEP student because it is, as Cummins (1988) describes, a context-reduced task. A context-reduced task is characterized by reliance on linguistic clues to meaning and on knowledge of the language itself. In comparison, a context-embedded task is one in which the participants are able to negotiate the meaning and receive feedback about whether the message has been understood. There are many situational and contextual clues to aid understanding of context-embedded tasks, however, the opposite is true of context-reduced tasks. Writing, then, is a context-reduced task for LEP students since there are few contextual clues to aid the student and a high degree of knowledge of the language is required.

Instruction in process writing, an approach whereby students learn to see writing as a cyclical process in which development of writing skills occurs through trial and error (Connor, 1987; Silberman, 1989), has been found to improve the writing skills of monolingual English-speaking students (Calkins, 1983; Graves, 1983; Scardamalia, 1984). Often, instructional practices that have been found to be successful for the monolingual, English-speaking students have also been found to be useful with LEP students (e.g., Padrón, 1991, 1992).

This present study, therefore, was designed to survey inservice teachers about their perceptions of process and product-oriented writing. Since teachers

teach what they perceive to be important and what they think is most beneficial for their students (Mayer, 1985; Nespor, 1985), it is important to identify whether instruction in process-oriented writing is perceived to be a worthwhile approach by teachers who work with LEP students. More specifically, this study examined whether teachers of ESL students consider it more important to teach students to use product-oriented strategies such as being concerned with neatness of the paper, thinking about spelling, and focusing on grammar (see e.g., Padrón & Bermúdez, 1988) or process-oriented strategies such as planning and revising (Krapels, 1990). It is hypothesized that preservice and in service teachers, who teach ESL students, will perceive process-oriented strategy instruction as an effective approach for teaching writing to their students.

Process Writing Instruction

A distinction can be made between the traditional, product-centered model of teaching writing and the recent, process-centered approach. According to Connor (1987), the product-centered model stresses the importance of style. Writing is considered linear and students are taught to determine the end point of their writing before they even begin to write. The product itself is the goal of the writing task with this approach. In contrast, the process-centered approach to writing instruction emphasizes writing as a cyclical process (Connor, 1987). Instruction is concerned with encouraging students to write for real people and for real purposes (Graves, 1983). Thus, students taught with a process approach learn to consider audience, purpose, and context of writing (Connor, 1987; Roen, 1989).

Silberman (1989) describes the cyclical nature of writing as consisting of a variety of activities, namely, planning, drafting, conferring, revising, and drafting again. The author stresses that this in not something that can be taught as a step-by-step procedure but is better characterized as recursive in nature. Both Graves (1983) and Silberman (1989) describe the first stage of writing as a preparation period in which writers daydream, doodle, read, and think about what they are going to say. The drafting stage is one of selecting words and phrases, composing, rereading one's writing, and composing again. After rereading and conferring with others, writers revise their work, which results in expanding and refining the content (Calkins, 1983). This is the third stage. Finally, editing occurs and the correct structural form is focused upon (Silberman, 1989). Throughout the composing process, writers move and forth through the various stages until the final version is published and shared with others (Calkins, 1983).

Writing Strategies Research

In order to assist students to become better writers, researchers have also examined what strategies writers use as they write and which strategies lead the writer to be considered successful or unsuccessful. A variety of terms are used to describe these writers, among them: expert and novice (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986); proficient and inexperienced (Hall, 1990); and basic and competent (Monahan, 1984). The expert writer has been found to use process strategies (see Table 1) such as planning, translating, and revising when writing (Humes, 1983), whereas the novice writer focuses on product strategies such as being

concerned with spelling and mechanics (Monahan, 1984; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986).

Planning is a thinking process engaged in throughout the composing process. According to Humes (1983), setting goals, organizing content, and prewriting activities such as making notes and mapping, are all aspects of planning. Expert writers have been found to engage in some type of planning of what they were going to write before writing (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). In addition, they use a wide range of activities when planning; while, the novice writers us[illegible]ewer to no planning activities before writing.

Translating refers to writing, drafting, and transcribing while composing (Humes, 1983). According to Humes (1983), translating is the process of changing meaning from thought to graphic representation, both of which are forms of symbolization. Years of practice with handwriting, spelling, and grammar allow the writer to automatize these skills making translating a quick endeavor. Research, for example, has found that expert writers are able to write quickly with spelling and punctuation being automatized, whereas novice writers were slower and became bogged down with mechanics (Monahan, 1984; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986)

In a process-oriented approach to teaching writing, revision encompasses not only surface level changes, but lexical and discourse level ones as well (Connor & Farmer, 1990). Revising not only consists of editing tasks such as correcting spelling and punctuation, it also consists of rewriting sections of the composition by reorganizing the content and/or adding new material. In regards to revisions, revising was found to occur across all drafts in the work of the expert writers (Hall, 1990; Monahan, 1984; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). Their revisions changed entire sentences rather than just words (Hall, 1990; Monahan, 1984) and transformed the meaning of what they had written (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). In contrast, the novice writers were more likely to see revision as a last-draft-only activity (Hall, 1990; Monahan, 1990) and novice writers tended to focus on cosmetic changes instead of content ones (Hall, 1990).

Limited English Proficient Students and Process Writing

Research conducted with self-report surveys or think-aloud protocols has examined the strategies that LEP elementary, secondary, and university level students report using when writing (Padrón & Bermúdez, 1988; Raimes, 1985). Padrón and Bermúdez (1988), for example, examined the writing strategies that elementary and secondary students in traditional, English monolingual and in bilingual/ESL classes reported using when writing. Using a self-report questionnaire, Padrón and Bermúdez (1988) surveyed 866 elementary and secondary students. They found that students in the traditional (i.e., all English monolingual) classrooms reported using significantly more process strategies than did the students in the ESL classrooms. Nonetheless, all students in the study reported using more product strategies than process strategies. Similarly, using a think-aloud protocol approach whereby students describe into a tape recorder what they are doing as they write, Raimes (1985) examined the writing strategies of LEP students in a college level developmental composition course. The findings of this quasi-experimental study were similar to those of Padrón and Bermúdez (1988) in that the subjects in Raimes' study also reported using few

process strategies when they wrote. In the Raimes' study, for example, students showed little awareness of audience, even when the audience was specified. Raimes (1985) noted that the students spent little time in prewriting/planning their writing and they also spent little time revising and rarely wrote a new draft. In addition, most of the students' revisions were found to be of the surface type. Thus, the work of Padrón and Bermúdez (1988) and of Raimes (1985) indicates that some LEP students are not using strategies that have been found to be effective for monolingual English-speaking students.

Several experimental and case studies have found that a process approach did indeed lead to more effective writing being produced by LEP students (Bermúdez & Prater, 1990; Edelsky, 1982, 1986; Urzua, 1987). According to Graves (1983), conferences are an essential part of the writing process. The presence of a listener often encourages the students to become readers of their own texts (Calkins,1983) and these interactions between the listeners and the writers often lead to revisions in the writers' work. Urzua (1987), for example, examined the effect peer conferencing had on LEP students' writing. The researchers met with four upper elementary Asian students for 45 minutes, once a week, for 15 weeks. During this time period, the students engaged in peer conferences. The resultant writing pieces produced by these students were analyzed in regards to their sense of audience, sense of voice, and sense of power in writing. The results indicated a growth in the students' writing in all three areas.

Edelsky (1982, 1986) using writing samples from 524 students in three bilingual classes found that using the writing process helped students to have an understanding of audience. In this study, the students were enrolled in a program that emphasized writing for real purposes for a variety of audiences (Edelsky, 1982). Many students' compositions were found to take into account their audience as demonstrated by use of arrows and other marks to show the reader where to read next, or where a word should be added when reading. The students also seemed to differentiate between readers who were insiders and outsiders and provided outsiders with more precise information.

In terms of planning to write, one strategy that has been used effectively with monolingual-English-speaking students is mapping. Mapping, as described by Calkins (1983), is a prewriting task that is often also used to stimulate discussion during a reading lesson. Bermúdez and Prater (1990) studied the effect of that instruction in mapping on LEP students' writing. In their quasi-experimental study, the same teacher presented three, two day reading lessons based on three different stories in a basal reader to two groups of LEP students. One group received a traditional reading lesson while the other group engaged in a mapping activity. Both groups wrote a paragraph at the end of the lesson. Although no significant differences were found in regards to the students' fluency (number of words and main ideas) nor in organization of their writing, a significant difference was found in elaboration. The results indicated that the students who had been instructed with mapping produced more elaboration in their paragraphs. That is, they had included more ideas that went beyond the text material (as determined by two independent readings of each essay by two trained graduate students). The researchers concluded that perhaps representing concepts graphically aids the LEP writers to elaborate upon their discussion of materials. Through mapping activities, their prior knowledge may

be activated and linkages with the new knowledge may be formed. Results from these studies in (Bermúdez & Prater, 1990; Edelsky, 1982, 1986; Urzua , 1987) indicate that writing process instruction may improve the writing produced by the ESL students.

The Role of the Teacher

The change from a product-oriented approach to writing instruction to a process-oriented approach, also changes the role of the teacher. When the focus is on the end product, the teacher is seen as the "editor with the red pen" (Connelly, 1990). That is, the teacher's role is to examine a student's paper for grammatical errors, mark the errors with a red pen, then allow the student to recopy the composition making the indicated corrections. With a process-oriented approach to teaching writing, the teacher's role changes from editor to facilitator.

In a process-oriented approach to writing, the teacher's role is to facilitate the student's writing by focusing on the content first (Beeker, 1981; Calkins, 1983; Chew, 1984; Connelly, 1990; Graves, 1983; McKay, 1983). Research investigating the instruction received by LEP students, however, has found that the emphasis is still being placed on form rather than content (Zamel, 1987,1990). Zamel (1987, 1990) , for example, has found that, in contrast to what pedagogy says is effective writing instruction, writing is still strictly controlled by the teacher. Language skills tend to be hierarchically sequenced in the classrooms of the ESL students and writing is the last of the four language skills to be introduced to the students

In order to assist students in developing their writing skills, teachers using a process approach to writing instruction should make no assumptions regarding the students' abilities (Chew, 1984; McKay, 1983). The language of the students should be enhanced by reading to them, asking them questions, and exposing them to a variety of forms of writing (McKay, 1983). Finally, Connelly, (1990) and McKay (1983) stress that students need to learn to evaluate their own writing. Through individual conferences with the teacher and with peer group conferences, students are provided the opportunity to practice revising their own work (Calkins, 1983; Graves, 1983).

If students are to be able to use process writing strategies effectively, they must be instructed in their use (Chew, 1984; McKay, 1983). Therefore, the teacher's role is to give students practice in writing for different audiences and for different purposes. Considering the changing role of the teacher in a process oriented approach to teaching writing and the lack of instruction using this process in classrooms with ESL students, it is important to examine teachers' perceptions towards the product-process strategies.

The present study surveyed in service teachers about their perceptions of writing strategies that are important to teach to LEP students. It is hypothesized that in service teachers, who teach ESL students, will perceive process-oriented strategy instruction as an effective approach for teaching writing to their students. This may be particularly true for these participants, since they are all currently enrolled in courses at the university and have been exposed to this approach.

## Method

Subjects

The subjects in the present study were 52 elementary school teachers of ESL students. These participants were in service teachers that were all enrolled in graduate level courses at the university. The university is an upper division institution located in the southwest region of the United States. There were 5 males and 47 females. The ages of the participants were as follows: 40% were between the ages of 26-35; 30% were between 36-45 years of age; 22% were between the ages of 18-25; and 8% were older than 45 years of age. Approximately half (51.9%) of the participants were Caucasian; 34.6 % were of Mexican American heritage; 3.8% were African American; while Native American (1.9%) and Asian/Pacific Islander (1.9%) each accounted for less than two percent of the teachers surveyed.

Slightly more than half (57.1 %) of the teachers had less than one year teaching experience in an ESL program. Teachers with 1-3 years of teaching experience comprised 24.5% of the teachers surveyed; 12.2% had between 4-6 years of teaching experience in an ESL classroom; and 6.1% of the teachers had been teaching in an ESL classroom for 7-10 years. None of the teachers had experience teaching in an ESL classroom for more than 10 years. However, the total number of years that these subjects has been teaching reflected a more experienced population. For example, 27.5% had taught less than one year; 23.5% had taught 1-3 years; 15.7% had taught 4-6 years; 19.6 had 7-10 years of teaching experience; and 13.7% had over 10 years of teaching experience.

More than half of the in service teachers (69.4%) were in the process of completing their bilingual/ESL certification. Of the remaining teachers surveyed, 22.4% had completed their bilingual/ESL certification between 1987-1992, while 8.2% had completed certification between 1975-1980. None of the participants were certified before 1980.

Instrument

The Writing Strategy Survey (WSS) was administered to all the teachers. The instrument was adapted from the Writing Skills Inventory designed by Padrón and Bermúdez (1988). The WSS is a four-point Likert-type scale questionnaire consisting of three sections. The first section provides demographic information about the teachers who participated in the study. Items on the demographic questionnaire included gender, age, grade level taught, number of years taught in ESL classrooms and total number of years teaching. Section 2 of the WSS lists 28 strategies that previously been identified by current research as those used by English-monolingual and bilingual students during the composing process (see e.g., Padrón & Bermúdez, 1988). Twenty-one of the items describe strategies that have been identified as process-oriented strategies. Seven items described strategies identified as product-oriented strategies. Product and process strategies were randomly placed throughout the survey. In this section, subjects respond on a four-point scale indicating the importance they placed on teaching students to use each strategy. The scale consisted of: (1) not important, (2) somewhat important, (3) important, (4) very important. The third section listed the same set of strategies again and asked the

respondents to rate each strategy in terms of how difficult each one would be to teach to LEP students. The scale consisted of: (1) not difficult, (2) somewhat difficult, (3) difficult, (4) very difficult, and (5) don't know. An estimated reliability coefficient of .70 was obtained on the survey using the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula.

Procedures

The Writing Strategy Survey (WSS) was administered by the researchers to the teachers during class time at the beginning of the semester. The survey took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

## Results

Table 1 reports the means, standard deviations for all variables. A score of 4 indicates that teachers perceived this strategy to be "Very Important"; 3 indicates that the strategy is "Important"; 2 "Somewhat Important", and 1 "Not Important". In terms of the strategies that teachers' perceived as important to teach ESL students, the following three strategies received the highest ratings: Have Students Use Their Own Experiences (M= 3.55; SD= .67); Concentrate on Ideas and not Words (M= 3.48; SD=.58); and Jot Down Ideas While Writing (M= 3.29; SD= .72). The least important strategies, according to the teachers were: Focus on Spelling /Mechanics (M= 1.67; SD= .83); Change Spelling/Mechanics During Writing (M= 1.59; SD= .75); and Finish Quickly (M= 1.29; SD= .57).

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance of Teaching Writing Strategies to LEP Students

| Strategies | M | S |
|---|---|---|
| Plan Goals of the Story | 3.11 | .89 |
| Think of Words in the Native Language | 2.94 | 83 |
| Say Story to Themselves Before Writing | 2.86 | .93 |
| Write Neatly | 2.06 | 1.01 |
| Have Students Use Own Experiences | 3.53 | 1.70 |
| Think About the Reader | 3.00 | .72 |
| Guess the Spelling of a Word | 2.83 | .95 |
| Begin to Write Immediately | 1.83 | .91 |
| Finish Quickly | 1.25 | .55 |
| Focus on Spelling/Mechanics | 1.69 | .82 |
| Revise Stories after Completion | 2.63 | 1.03 |
| Focus on What the Teacher Wants | 2.22 | 1.90 |
| Use the Dictionary to Check Spelling | 1.86 | 1.05 |
| Think in Native Language; Translate to English | 2.58 | .84 |
| Look up Words in the Dictionary When Finished | 2.39 | .96 |
| Imitate Styles of Good Writers | 2.50 | 1.06 |
| Use Imagery | 3.25 | .77 |
| Get Help from Other Students | 2.78 | .83 |
| Concentrate on Idea, not Words | 3.44 | .56 |
| Jot Down Ideas While Writing | 3.33 | .72 |
| Change Spelling/Mechanics During Writing | 1.47 | .65 |
| Talk About Ideas to Others | 3.11 | .79 |
| Revise to Change Meaning | 2.22 | .80 |
| Revise to Facilitate Reader Understanding | 2.50 | .91 |
| Change Plans Before Starting | 1.67 | .79 |
| Think of New Ideas After Writing Begins | 2.17 | 1.00 |
| Think of New Ideas After Writing is Complete | 2.17 | .85 |
| Write About What is Easiest for Them to Say Aloud | 2.28 | 1.11 |

Key:
1=not important
2=somewhat important
3=important
4=very important

It must be pointed out that the following results need to be interpreted with caution, since the number (n= 52) of subjects participating in this study is small.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were differences in teachers' perceptions depending on their total number of years of teaching experience. In addition, an ANOVA was also conducted to determine whether there were differences in teachers' perceptions of writing strategies according to the number of years that they had been teaching LEP students.

The ANOVA results indicated that there were few statistically significant differences in teachers' perceptions of writing strategies according to the total number of years of teaching experience. Overall, the ANOVA results indicated statistically significant differences for the following writing strategies: Guess the Spelling of a Word; Use the Dictionary to Check Spelling; Revise to Facilitate Reader Understanding; and Change Plans Before Starting. Generally, teachers' with a greater number of years of teaching experience perceived these strategies more important than teachers with less teaching experience. For the strategy, Guess the Spelling of a Word, teachers with less than a year of teaching experience perceived this strategy as being less important than teacher who have had one or more years of teaching experience. Use the Dictionary to Check Spelling was similarly viewed as less important by teachers with fewer years of experience than by those with more (>3) teaching experience. The strategies, Revise to Facilitate Reader Understanding and Change Plans Before Starting were perceived by teachers with the greatest number of years (>7) of teaching experience as being more important than by teachers with fewer years (<6) of teaching experience.

There were very few statistically significant differences when examining by the number of years teaching LEP students . There were only two strategies that were statistically significant different: Revise to Change Meaning and Revise to Facilitate Reader Understanding. For Revise to Change Meaning, less experienced teachers (less than a year to 6 years) perceived this strategy as less important than teachers who had taught for more than seven years. For the strategy, Revise to Change Meaning and Revise to Facilitate Reader Understanding teachers with three or less years of teaching perceived this strategy as being less important than teachers who have taught for seven or more years.

## Discussion

Overall, teachers who participated in this study perceived process-oriented strategies as the most important to teach LEP students. There were, however, three process-oriented strategies that teachers did not consider important and found difficult to teach. These included Imitating Styles of Good Writers, Revising to Change Meaning, and Changing Plans Before Starting to Write. These results differ from previous studies which have indicated that instruction in process-oriented strategies is not taking place in ESL classrooms. A possible explanation for the findings in the present study may be that all the teachers are enrolled in graduate level courses, and perhaps they have had the opportunity to learn about process-oriented instruction in writing. Therefore, these teachers may be more aware of the importance of these strategies, than teachers who have been in the field for many years without having received additional training.

It is interesting to note that the years of teaching experience had little effect on teachers' perceptions of writing strategies. The present study did indicate a few differences that were related to years of experience. The differences found in this study, however, must be viewed with caution. The results of this study are limited in that the sample was small and homogeneous population. Future studies need to examine the perceptions of a larger more diverse population of educators. Also, research needs to be conducted to help determine the extent to which teacher training affects teachers' implementation of strategy instruction. In addition, future studies need to examine whether the strategies that teachers view as important are the ones that are actually being taught to LEP students in their classrooms. In addition to observational studies that identify the strategies actually being taught by teachers, research also needs to examine the extent to which and how frequently are these strategies taught to LEP students. This type of information can help in developing more appropriate teacher training programs for teachers of LEP students.

## References

Beeker, R. (1981). Introducing the writing process: New procedures, new expectations. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 252 853).

Bermúdez, A., & Prater, D. (1990). Using brainstorming and clustering with writers to develop elaboration skills. TESOL Quarterly, 24(3), 523-528.

Calkins, L. (1983). Lessons from a child: On the teaching and learning of writing. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Chew, C. (1984, March). Writing instruction: Commitment to improvement. Paper presented at the Queensboro Reading Council Conference, Bayside, NY. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 244 283).

Connelly, M. (1990, July). The teacher's role in responding to student writing. Paper presented at the Conference on Rhetoric and the Teaching of Writing, Indiana, PA.

Connor, U. (1987). Research frontiers in writing analysis. TESOL Quarterly, 21(4), 677-696.

Connor, U., & Farmer, M. (1990). The teaching of topical structure analysis as a revision strategy for ESL writers. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 126-139). New York: Cambridge.

Cummins, J. (1988). Language proficiency, bilingualism and academic achievement. In P. Richard-Amato (Ed.), Making it happen: Interaction in the second language classroom (pp. 382-395). New York: Longman.

Edelsky, C. (1982). Writing in a bilingual program: The relation of L1 and L2 texts. TESOL Quarterly, 16(2), 211-228.

Edelsky, C. (1986). Writing in a bilingual program: Habia una vez. New Jersey: Ablex.

Graves, D. (1983). Writing: Teachers and children at work. Exeter, NH: Heinemann.

Hall, C. (1990). Managing the complexity of revising across languages. TESOL Quarterly, 24(1), 43-60.

Humes, A. (1983). Research on the composing process. Review of Educational Research, 53, 201-216.

Krapels, A. (1990). An overview of second language writing process research. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 37-56). New York: Cambridge.

Lindholm, K. (1990). Bilingual immersion education: Criteria for program development. In A. Padilla, H. Fairchild, & C. Valadez (Eds.), Bilingual education: Issues and strategies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Mayer, R. (1985, April). Recent research on teacher beliefs and its use in the improvement of instruction. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

McKay, S. (1983). Some limitations in teaching composition. In J. Handscombe (Ed.), On TESOL '83: The question of control. Selected papers from the Annual Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (pp. 187-194). Toronto, Canada. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 275 151).

Monahan, B. (1984). Revision strategies of basic and competent writers as they write for different audiences. Research in the Teaching of English, 18, 288-304.

Nespor, J. (1985). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching: Final report of the teacher beliefs study (Tech. Rep. No. 143). Austin, TX: University of Texas, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

Padrón, Y. N. (1991). Commentary on "Dialogues promoting reading comprehension." In Teaching advanced skills to at-risk students: Views from research and practice (pp. 131-140). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Padrón, Y. N. (1992). Instructional programs that improve the reading comprehension of students at risk. In H. Waxman, J. Walker de Felix, J. Anderson, & H. P. Baptiste, Jr. (Eds.), Students at risk in at-risk schools: Improving environments for learning (pp. 222-232). Newbury, CA: Corwin.

Padrón, Y., & Bermúdez, A. (1988). Promoting effective writing strategies for ESL students. Southwest Journal of Educational Research Into Practice, 11, 19-26.

Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. TESOL Quarterly, 19(2), 229-258.

Roen, D. (1989). Developing effective assignments for second language writers. In D. Johnson & D. Roen (Eds.), Richness in writing: Empowering ESL student (pp. 193-206). New York: Longman.

Scardamalia, M. (1984). Higher order abilities: Written communication. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association for the National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 273 573).

Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1986). Research on written composition. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (3rd ed.). (pp. 778-803). New York: MacMillan.

Silberman, A. (1989). Growing up writing: Teaching children to write, think, and learn. New York: Random House.

Urzua, C. (1987). "You stopped too soon": Second language children composing and revising. TESOL Quarterly, 21(2), 279-304.

Zamel, V. (1987). Recent research on writing pedagogy. TESOL Quarterly, 21(4), 697-715.

Zamel, V. (1990). Through students' eyes: The experiences of three ESL writers. Journal of Basic Writing, 5(2), 83-98.

# CURRICULUM EXTENSION FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENT WITH LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

**Judith A. Márquez**
**Cheryl B. Sawyer**

**Abstract**

This paper offers suggestions for meeting the needs of gifted and talented (GT) limited English proficient (LEP) student through an extension of the differentiated curriculum. An overview of the differentiated curriculum and issues which must be addressed in meeting the needs of the GT/LEP student are presented. Teaching strategies and methods which can be used in the instruction of GT/LEP students, as well as recommended teacher characteristics, are also included.

Although no specific prepackaged curriculum can be recommended to meet the needs of GT/LEP students, the criteria discussed in this article should be included in developing strategies which impact their instruction. The curriculum, when extended utilizing the recommended criteria, should provide the necessary foundation for cognitive and linguistic development.

## Introduction

Gifted and talented (GT) children "require differentiated educational programs and/or services beyond those normally provided by the regular school program" if they are "to realize their contribution to self and society..." (Marland, 1971, p. ix) The differentiated curriculum forms the core of the gifted and talented program. Educators may, however, fail to recognize the need for a differentiated curriculum designed to meet the needs of all students identified as gifted and talented. Just as a need exists for some individualization within the regular education program, so does a need for individualization within the gifted and talented program. As more culturally and linguistically diverse students are identified as gifted and talented, the need for an appropriate educational program which considers their linguistic and cultural needs becomes a priority (Sawyer & Márquez, 1992).

When developing the appropriate differentiated curriculum for GT/LEP (Limited English Proficiency) students, educators must keep in mind that culturally and linguistically diverse gifted students share characteristics with all other gifted and talented students although there may be some differences exhibited in behaviors which emerge from the students' cultural values, needs, and interests (Kaplan, 1982). Therefore, the curriculum which is developed for gifted and talented students needs to be extended to address the linguistic and cultural needs of that population. The curriculum must be designed for both the general and specific characteristics of the gifted and talented population for whom it was intended (Kaplan, 1982).

## The Differentiated Curriculum

Curriculum is defined by Sato (1988) as an organized set of purposeful experiences in school, at home, and in the community which helps students become all that their potential allows them to be. To serve the gifted/talented most effectively, "curriculum must be appropriately differentiated, articulated kindergarten through grade 12, sequential in content to be assimilated and skills to be acquired...and linked meaningfully to the regular curriculum" (Sato, 1988, p. 2). The GT curriculum should provide opportunities beyond the boundaries of the existing school and should begin with the interests and present knowledge of the student. Gifted and talented curricula should allow the student the opportunity to acquire those basic skills and concepts taught in the regular program, as well as provide opportunities for the student to expand those skills and concepts. Differentiated curricula designed to enhance the learning potential of the gifted and talented student should encourage the student to pursue topics in depth at a pace commensurate to student ability and interest, explore unforeseen tangents without the confinement of curriculum parameters, and initiate activities which diverge from the structured format within a framework of guidance and resource appropriate for such exploration. Such curricula would also allow students to ask questions about aspects of studies which could lead to even more questions; to experience emotional involvement with a project based on the students' interests and use of higher levels of ability; to learn the skills, methodology and discipline involved in intellectual and creative pursuits; to think (interpret, connect, extrapolate) and imagine (ideas, images, insights) to fully develop products; and to experience the use of intellect and senses necessary in all creative endeavors (Blanning, 1981).

Curricula for the gifted and talented student can be categorized under three basic types: accelerated, enriched, and individualized. Accelerated curricula allow GT students to move at a rapid pace through a subject or field of study. Enriched curricula consist of learning experiences with greater depth and/or breadth than the mainstream students want or need. Individualized curricula emphasize independent study on self-selected topics or interest areas (Eby & Smutney, 1990). Since gifted education programs must take into consideration the characteristics of all their students, including limited English proficient (LEP) students, it would be difficult to recommend a specific curriculum which would address the needs of all GT students. Therefore, it is advised that the characteristics and needs of the GT population which is being served in a specific district or school be assessed and that an appropriate program model be developed to meet their needs. When a curriculum model has been selected, educators should examine it closely to verify that the needs of the entire GT population, including the GT/LEP are being met.

Educators should take into consideration guidelines for judging curriculum materials and principles of differentiation for the culturally and linguistically diverse child. Gallagher and Kinney (1974) recommend, among other things, that the cultural backgrounds of children be taken into consideration not just for the benefit of the culturally different child but for all gifted children.

## Meeting the Needs of GT/LEP Students

Many teachers and administrators state that they have inadequate knowledge about giftedness and gifted education. Educators also lack knowledge and training on cultural and linguistic issues which can affect the identification of culturally and linguistically diverse gifted students (Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990). In a recent research study, educators expressed hesitation and frustration at the idea of even identifying LEP students for GT programs when there was no appropriate curriculum or placement to address their unique needs (Sawyer, 1993).

Teachers involved in gifted and talented programs should examine their attitudes and expectations concerning culturally and linguistically diverse students, in general, and GT/LEP students, in particular. The inclusion of gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency in GT programs should be perceived as an opportunity to expand knowledge rather than as a burden which must be accommodated. Thorough training in multicultural, linguistic, and gifted issues would enable teachers to utilize this opportunity fully (Sawyer, Rakow, & Bermúdez, 1992).

Linguistic issues

When addressing the needs of students with limited English proficiency, teachers need to be cognizant of the stages involved in first and second language acquisition in order to support the GT/LEP student's on-going development in both languages. Providing instruction in the first language can develop skills in that language, as well as enhance the child's development in the second language (Cummins, 1981). The first language should be actively supported throughout the acquisition of the second language. Failure to maintain and continue the development of the primary language during the second language acquisition process can result in subtractive bilingualism (i.e., the loss of the primary language).

Teachers should not confuse limitations in the second language with limitations in academic cognitive ability. Teachers often have low curricular expectations for LEP students because they perceive these students as having inadequate skill development due to their being in a transitional stage between their first and second language.

The language acquisition process is facilitated by comprehensible input and social interaction. Comprehensible input refers to language which is made more understandable to the learner (Krashen, 1982). Reference to concrete materials, paraphrasing, repetition of key points, and acting out meanings are some of the ways in which speakers can help convey meaning and make language more understandable (Peregoy & Boyle, 1993).

Background knowledge

In order for students to succeed in school, they must understand academic material, and in order for students to understand academic material, they must have the appropriate background knowledge. Background knowledge, or schema, plays a crucial role in understanding language. Rummelhart (1980) states "schemata are employed in the process of interpreting sensory data (both linguistic and nonlinguistic), in retrieving information from memory, in organizing ac-

tions, in determining goals,... and generally in guiding the flow of processing in the system" (pp. 33-34). Culturally based schemas, or a lack of schemas, can interfere with full understanding of a text (Adamson, 1993). LEP students may not have the schemata necessary for full understanding of all the material to which they are exposed or for which they are responsible. All students should be provided with the appropriate support system for expanding their experiences in order to give them an extended repertoire of schemata from which to draw. In addition, the background knowledge which culturally diverse students bring with them to school should be valued and utilized to expose students to diverse points of view.

Teaching strategies and methods

The impact of teaching styles must be given serious consideration in the establishment of a positive learning environment for the GT/LEP student. Instructional methods should integrate a variety of strategies to develop thinking in all students (Sawyer, et al., 1992). Cooperative learning strategies, holistic approaches, and other non-competitive activities incorporating broad-based themes which stress multicultural issues should be included in the curriculum.

Cooperative learning provides LEP students frequent opportunities for natural second language practice and negotiation of meaning through interaction (Peregoy & Boyle, 1993; McGroarty, 1989). The tasks and group structures which are used in cooperative learning foster different types of verbal exchange, thus offering fluent speakers of a language more opportunities to tailor speech and interactions to the communicative needs of the less proficient (Gaies, 1985). This, in turn, facilitates the second language (L2) acquisition process by providing comprehensible input to the learner. In addition to the effects on language development, cooperative learning strategies can have positive effects on the social skills of all students. By requiring that all group members participate in some manner, all students have the opportunity to share in the success of the project. The students perceive themselves as an integral part of the group's success, and at the same time enhance the development of their social skills. Feelings of confidence and self-esteem are then combined with the comprehensible cooperation (Solís, 1988).

Another approach which is recommended in the extension of the curriculum to meet the needs of GT/LEP students is whole language. In whole language classrooms, children read for enjoyment and for the purpose of locating information, rather than to earn a good grade. Although teachers are available to give students the help they may need at a particular time, the children become increasingly independent in seeking their own solutions and monitoring their own performance (Cantoni-Harvey, 1992). Students in a whole language classroom "...achieve a sense of control and ownership over their own use of language and learning in school, over their own reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking...." (Goodman, 1986, p. 10). As students use language functionally and purposefully in a whole language classroom, they are also developing language. This approach is, therefore, one which could meet the needs of GT students, LEP students, and GT/LEP students.

Real life issues and related products can often be appropriately integrated into the curriculum in an effort to offer themes which are relevant to the student. Renzulli and Reis (1985) note that while textbook issues are often unmotivating

to the student, emerging topics within the cultural community such as racism, poverty, education, and politics stimulate the student and offer an opportunity to explore and incorporate cultural values in the classroom setting.

Interdisciplinary approaches should be included in a flexible curriculum which incorporates broad-based themes. The study, knowledge, and awareness of outstanding individuals in the arts, sciences, humanities, among other fields from culturally diverse groups should be considered as a component of the curriculum rather than as a separate unit. For example, George Washington Carver should be included within the context of the agricultural revolution and César Chávez within the study of unions, the mathematical contributions of the Mayans within the study of math, and so forth. The study of values could include those derived from authority, deductive logic, sense exploration, emotion, intuition, and science and how different cultures view and derive their values from each of these (Sawyer, et al., 1992).

Disciplines such as math, science, social studies, and art can be integrated into the curriculum in such a way that important objectives are not overlooked. Mathematics offers opportunities for advancing the thinking and reasoning capabilities of gifted students, thus offering a unique area for educating GT/LEP students (Valencia, 1985). The sciences provide GT/LEP students the opportunity to extend their knowledge through the use of assigned readings, field research projects, and problem solving cognitive strategies (Valencia, 1985; Kaplan, 1982). Social studies allows for in-depth research into contemporary issues and problems and provides for leadership development through group interaction (Valencia, 1985). The visual and performing arts curriculum provides the GT/LEP student with the vehicle for artistic expression as well as developing artistic skills and dexterity (Valencia, 1985). Theater and visual arts can form a curriculum designed to "develop a sense of community, release imagination, train concentration, and sharpen awareness of the environment" (Niro & Wolf, 1982, p. 1). All of these skills and concepts should and can be developed in the GT/LEP student with appropriate individualization of the differentiated curriculum.

Success in school is related to the understanding and utilization of abstract concepts. Gifted children often excel in their ability to acquire concepts faster and to develop these concepts to higher levels of abstraction than average children. Children are able to solve many kinds of problems intuitively even though they may not be able to verbalize the process. For GT/LEP children trying to verbalize a process in English may be even more of a challenge because of their lack of proficiency in that language. Therefore, teachers should incorporate teaching techniques in which children can work on some problems without necessarily providing verbal explanations (Frasier, 1978).

The differentiated curriculum should allow all GT students, regardless of their English proficiency, the opportunity to pursue topics in depth at a pace commensurate to the students' ability and interest. LEP students should be given the option to pursue their areas of interest in either their native language or English. Resources should be made available in a variety of formats and languages in order to give LEP students the same opportunities to pursue interests which fully English proficient GT students have. The information and concepts which LEP students acquire in their first language can then be transferred to English.

Teacher Characteristics

In order to meet the needs of limited English proficient students within the gifted and talented program, teachers must possess certain characteristics. What are the characteristics necessary to be a successful teacher of the GT/LEP student? Maker (1975) recommends that teachers of gifted students be highly intelligent, flexible, creative, and self-confident. She also states that possessing a sense of humor, being sympathetic with the problems of the gifted, and possessing a sense of self-understanding are important characteristics. Additional essential characteristics for the teachers of gifted and talented students include a high level of knowledge, well developed problem-solving and planning skills, a high energy level and enthusiasm, and a high tolerance for ambiguity (Colangelo and Exum,1981). All of these characteristics are not only essential in teaching GT students, but also in teaching LEP students.

Teachers of GT/LEP students must also possess specific skills in order to communicate effectively with culturally diverse children. Those skills identified by Kito and Lowe (1975) as necessary for effective communication include a knowledge of the individual's culture, an awareness of situations which may be culturally sensitive and knowing how to respond appropriately in such situations. An awareness of expressions to which an individual may be culturally sensitive and familiarity with figures of speech peculiar to the cultural background of the individual are important as well.

Although proficiency in the students' language(s) is not a requirement for teachers of GT/LEP students, it is certainly beneficial, especially if students are given the opportunity to pursue their interests in their first language. If the teachers of GT/LEP students are not bilingual, they should work closely with bilingual teachers or other resource personnel to ensure that LEP students have the necessary support and that the students' work is evaluate appropriately.

Teachers need to be sensitive to cultural issues, receptive to expanding their knowledge about other people, and flexible enough to accept other experiences and points of view as valid. Cultural awareness can be attained through formal training, through experiences, or through other avenues. Torrance (1975) strongly promotes the concept of students teaching teachers about their culture through informal sharing experiences. The sharing of personal experiences will enhance the opportunity for students and the educators to become more familiar with different cultural values and lifestyles.

Teachers of GT/LEP students also need to recognize the relationship of language to culture. Without language, culture cannot be acquired effectively nor can it be expressed and transmitted. There is a strong link between language and culture in the process of knowledge acquisition, as well as in the context of the whole development of young people (Trueba, 1989). Language is one of the vehicles through which people express their cultural values, their knowledge, and their experiences. Stigmas should not be attached to the student's language or to the circumstances under which it was acquired. Culturally diverse languages are different but not inferior or inadequate. In addition, language differences should not be viewed as a barrier to learning nor as limitations in ability. Teachers should also be aware that although gifted LEP students may be highly articulate in their native language, they may not be at a stage where they are able to exhibit that same ability in their second language (Valencia, 1985). Teachers

with the aforementioned characteristics should be able to meet the needs of all their students by extending and adapting the differentiated curriculum accordingly.

## Conclusion

Programs and curricula should be developed for students which build upon their strengths rather than upon their deficits (Torrance, 1975). Maintaining a focus on student deficits rather than assets only serves to deny LEP students the opportunity to excel through the diversified curriculum.

Although no specific prepackaged curriculum can be recommended to meet the needs of the GT/LEP student, the criteria discussed in this article should be included in developing strategies which impact all GT students, including the GT/LEP. The curriculum, when extended utilizing the aforementioned criteria, should provide the necessary foundation for cognitive and linguistic development.

Every curriculum must have a basis for evaluation and opportunities for further development and revision. According to Passow (1986), a successful curriculum should have: experience in learning how to learn; traditional disciplines taught in both divergent and convergent ways; culturally pluralistic themes; individual and small group strategies; opportunities to enhance bilingual skills; high expectations; a community base; a climate for excellence; and ongoing staff development (Passow, 1986). These factors, along with the others which have been mentioned previously, should be considered as a basis for an exemplary curriculum designed to meet the needs of GT/LEP students.

## References

Adamson, H. D. (1993). Academic competence: Theory and Classroom Practice: Preparing ESL students for content courses. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Blanning, J. (1981). High school students undertake study of controversial heroes. Gifted Child Today, 1(4), 35-36.

Bermúdez, A. B., & Rakow, S. J. (1990). Analyzing teachers' perceptions of identification procedures for gifted and talented Hispanic limited English proficient (LEP) students at-risk. [Special Issue]. The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 7, 21-33.

Cantoni-Harvey, G. (1992). Facilitating the reading process. In P. A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), The multicultural classroom: Readings for content-area teachers (pp. 175-197). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Colangelo, N., & Exum, H. (1979). Educating the culturally diverse gifted: Implications for teachers, counselors and parents. Gifted Child Today, (6), 22-23, 54-55.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Eby, J. W., & Smutney, J. F. (1990). A thoughtful overview of gifted education. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Frasier, M. M. (1978). Culturally different gifted/talented: Educational implications--Cognitive. In H. N. Rivlin (Ed.), Advantage: Disadvantaged Gifted. Presentations from the Third National Conference on Disadvantaged Gifted (pp. 53-57). Ventura, CA: Ventura County Superintendent of Schools Office.

Gallagher, J. J., & Kinney, R. (Eds.). (1974). Talent delayed - talent denied: The culturally different child, a conference report. Reston, VA: Foundation for Exceptional Children.

Gaies, S. (1985). Peer involvement in language learning. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall/Regents/Center for Applied Linguistics.

Goodman, K. (1986). What's whole in whole language? Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Kaplan, S. (1982). There is a single curriculum for the gifted. Gifted Child Quarterly, 26(1), 32-33.

Kito, J., & Lowe, B. (1975). Cultural diversity and the exceptional child: Indian component. In J. F. Miley (Ed.), Promising practices: Teaching the disadvantaged gifted. Ventura, CA: National/State Leadership Training Institute on the Gifted and Talented, Ventura County Superintendent of Schools.

Krashen, S.D. (1982). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Maker, C. J. (1975). Training teachers for the gifted and talented: A comparison of models. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Marland, S. P. (1971). Education of the gifted and talented, Vol. I. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. (cited in Passow, A. H., 1982).

McGroarty, M. (1989). The benefits of cooperative learning arrangements in second language instruction. NABE Journal, 13(2), 127-143.

Niro, L., & Wolf, N. L. (1982). Talent search and development in the visual and performing arts: User's Guide. Stratford, CT: Center for Theater Techniques in Education.

Passow, A. H. (1982). Differentiated Curricula for the gifted/talented: A point of view. In I. S. Sato (Ed.), Selected Proceedings of the First National Conference on Curricula for the Gifted/Talented (pp. 4-20). Ventura, CA: Ventura County Superintendent of Schools.

Passow, H. W. (1986, February). Educational programs for minority/disadvantaged, gifted students. Paper presented in the Distinguished Lecturer Series of the San Diego Unified School District, San Diego, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 268 190).

Peregoy, S. F., & Boyle, O. F. (1993). Reading, writing, and learning in ESL: A resource book for K-8 teachers. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Renzulli, J., & Reis, S. (1985). Scope and sequence approach to process development. Gifted Child Today, 37, 2-6.

Rummelhart, D.E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), Theoretical issues in reading comprehension (pp. 35-58). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Sato, I. (1988). The $C^3$ Model: Resolving critical curricular issues through comprehensive curriculum coordination. Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 11(2), 92-115.

Sawyer, C. B. (1993). Identifying gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Houston, Houston, TX.

Sawyer, C. B., & Márquez, J. A. (1992). Curriculum extension for the gifted and talented student with limited English proficiency. Houston, TX: Research Center for Language and Culture, University of Houston-Clear Lake.

Sawyer, C. B., Rakow, S. J., & Bermúdez, A. B. (1992). Excellence in programs for the gifted and talented student with limited English proficiency: A delphi study, final report. Houston, TX: Research Center for Language and Culture, University of Houston-Clear Lake.

Solís, A. (1988). Planning for cooperative learning. Classroom Practices Bulletin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2(1), 1-3.

Torrance, E. P. (1975). In J. F. Miley (Ed.). (1975). Promising practices: Teaching the disadvantaged gifted (pp. 1019). Ventura, CA: National/State Leadership Training Institute on the Gifted and Talented, Ventura County Superintendent of Schools.

Trueba, H. T. (1989). Raising silent voices: Educating the linguistic minorities for the 21st century. New York: Newbury House.

Valencia, A. A. (1985). Curricular perspectives for gifted limited English proficient students. NABE Journal, 10(1), 65-77.

# DEVELOPING AND USING COLLABORATIVE BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEAMS

**Kathleen C. Harris**
**Ann Nevin**

**Abstract**

This paper takes a constructivist view of teaming and presents a case study of how bilingual and special educators developed and instituted their own collaborative bilingual special education teams in a southwest urban school district. Ethnographic methodologies were used. The first author audio taped and kept field notes of team meetings at two schools as well as discussions with team members and other school personnel regarding the bilingual special education teams. Several lessons were identified regarding the development and maintenance of the bilingual special education teams in this district. First, self-determination of team characteristics was evidenced. Second, the teams and team processes continued to evolve. Third, cohesiveness among team members can be instigated by a crisis. Fourth, there are no "right answers." Finally, even without ideal conditions, positive changes can occur in a school.

## Introduction

Transdisciplinary team structures are needed in educational settings in which bilingual/bicultural students are served. The importance of collaboration and the development of collaborative, transdisciplinary team structures within educational settings is well documented in the literature (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie 1979; Idol, West & Lloyd, 1988; West & Idol, 1987). While some educators are beginning to use such structures, they lack experiences working in this manner (Chiarelott, Reed, & Russell, 1991). Even fewer school personnel have had experience in working together through collaborative interactions to meet the needs of students who are limited English proficient and also experiencing learning problems (Fradd, 1991; Hudson & Fradd, 1990; Ortiz & Wilkinson, 1991). For example, teacher assistance teams have been instituted in a few schools to specifically address the needs of bilingual/bicultural students who are having problems in school prior to referral to special education (Collier, 1988; García & Ortiz, 1988; Ortiz & Wilkinson, 1991). These joint efforts require coordination, consultation, and collaboration among bilingual and special educators.

The literature provides suggestions for how to institute school-based teams (Chalfant, et al., 1979; Heron & Harris, 1993; Idol, Nevin, & Paolucci-Whitcomb, 1993; Ortiz & Wilkinson, 1991) as well as evidence suggesting the effectiveness of these teams (Chalfant & Van Dusen Pysh, 1989; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr, 1990; Graden, Casey & Bonstrom, 1985; Nelson, Smith, Taylor, Dodd, & Reavis, 1991; Ortiz, 1990). Although the literature provides suggestions for instituting teams, research is needed to determine means for assisting schools in collaboratively constructing and using teams. The purpose of this paper is to describe a constructivist view of teaming and to present a case study of how

bilingual and special educators in one school district developed and instituted their own collaborative bilingual special education teams.

## Method

Ethnographic research methodologies were used to study these teams (Miles & Huberman, 1984). By systematically participating in and observing the team process, the authors sought to understand the meanings of actions, practices, and events from the teachers and administrators working in the setting. Additionally, the longitudinal design of this study provided the opportunity to build working relationships between the authors and school district personnel. As rapport developed, it provided access to the beliefs and attitudes of the participants -- information that is often difficult to obtain in other ways (Edgerton & Langness, 1978).

### Setting

The location of this study was a school district on the fringe of a southwestern city's traditional inner city area. The district's neighborhoods are a mix of small business and light industrial development. This K-8 district, with approximately 6,000 students, has 84% minority representation, 81% family poverty, 52% population turnover and 74% of its' students are limited English proficient. The district is not rich in resources; neither does it have a reputation for being on the forefront of educational innovations. Therefore, it is representative of many urban school districts in the country faced with serving a challenging student body with limited resources.

### Sources of Data

A university professor has been involved with the process of developing and implementing the teams in this district since the inception of the team concept. In the spring of 1991, she participated in district deliberations resulting in the decision to establish teams. During the first academic year of implementation (1991-1992), the professor attended the team meetings at both schools and kept fieldnotes. Periodically, she talked with team members, teachers who referred students to the team at the elementary school, and department heads at the junior high school to obtain their perceptions of the team process and its effectiveness. The professor has maintained a relationship with the district and has supported the establishment of a third team at an elementary school in the district. Throughout the past two years, she documented conversations with district administrators, principals and teachers regarding the developing teams and collected artifacts from the teams to document their development as well as transcriptions of tape-recorded team meetings, field notes, and interviews.

## Procedures and Results

The results are interwoven with the procedures. Results are presented in chronological format, with excerpts from the interviews and logs, to illustrate the three phases of the study: developing the teams, collaboratively constructing the team processes, and using the teams.

Developing the Teams

The following words describe the impetus for the special education director at the school district to establish bilingual special education teams.

> It was about three years ago now ... the scenario will probably sound somewhat familiar. I was in a situation where I had the coordinator of the bilingual program come to me and say, "we have a problem because there is a special ed. kid at one of our schools who is also bilingual and just not getting the services they need." And I said okay ... after Christmas we need to take a look at this. Well after Christmas the special ed. people came to me and said, "we got a problem because we have this child who is bilingual but they've got to have these special ed. services ... and the bilingual teachers are saying that I can't serve them....The bilingual people were saying he's special ed. but he needs to have all of his instruction in Spanish and he goes back to the special ed. room and all they do are these English things and the special ed. people are saying that he has to have special ed. because he's a special ed. kid ... " (Special Education Director, February 1993).

She called a meeting of bilingual and special education personnel. As she describes it:

> We met in a library in one of the schools and the special ed. people sat over here and the bilingual people sat over here. It was very interesting because the bilingual people were saying "they don't understand our kids and they don't know what to do with them. If we refer them nothing happens to them." And the special ed. people were saying "well they never refer them" ... (we decided) to problem solve ... (we decided) we've got to have some training.... We did a day of training (with the first author), half of the morning bilingual training and half of the morning special ed. training. So the bilingual and special ed. people could communicate on somewhat of an equal basis .... In the afternoon we brainstormed and let these people tell me and (the first author) what it was they thought needed to be done .... And it came down to these specific seven. We felt that language of instruction needed to be based on the linguistic needs of the child. Collaborative efforts using expertise of teachers across departments was necessary. There needed to be buy-in by administrators and we're talking top down. We needed to have the numbers of kids in the class changed,... interface using materials, (provide) in service for both bilingual and special ed. staff and (orchestrate) parent involvement. (Special Education Director, February 1993).

During the first year (1991-92), the interface of bilingual and special education materials as well as the interface of bilingual and special education services was addressed through in services conducted by district employees. Administrative buy-in for collaborative efforts was addressed by talking with principals about the establishment of bilingual special education teams and

securing the participation of an elementary principal and a junior high school principal to establish teams at their schools. The elementary school principal received training in the teacher assistance team process used by Chalfant and Pysh (1989) and was eager to establish such a team at his school. The junior high school principal had not received training in the teacher assistance team concept but she was interested in interdisciplinary teams as a vehicle for delivering instruction to students.

Composition and Role of the Teams

The university professor and the special education director met with each principal separately. At this meeting, the professor, the special education director and the principal clarified the team purpose and determined the composition of the team. The purpose of the team was to provide support to the teacher in instructing students with non-native English speaking backgrounds who were having problems in school, a focus consistent with the teacher assistance team concept (see, for example, Chalfant, et al., 1979). The bilingual special education team did not replace the special education referral team (i.e., Child Study Team); neither was it a required step in the prereferral process for the Child Study Team.

The factors of expertise and staff personalities influenced the composition of the teams. At this elementary school, the core team members included: a primary level bilingual resource teacher (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English), an intermediate level bilingual resource teacher (Cuban, bilingual Spanish/English), a special education resource teacher (Anglo, monolingual English), a speech and language pathologist (Anglo, monolingual English) and the principal (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English). At the junior high school, the core team members included: a bilingual teacher (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English), an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher (Mexican-American, monolingual English), a special education resource teacher (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English) and the assistant principal (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English).

During the first academic year, the composition of the elementary team did not change. However, the composition of the junior high team changed. Because the duties of the assistant principal prevented active participation in team meetings, he was replaced by the Title VII bilingual specialist (bilingual Spanish/English). The principal (Anglo, monolingual English) became a member of the team to emphasize its importance to school staff. Finally, in the spring, a general educator (Mexican-American, bilingual Spanish/English) was added to the team to provide credibility to the general education staff and to account for the general education perspective.

Collaboratively Constructing the Team Processes

The authors (both Anglo, monolingual English) used a constructivist approach to support the development of these teams. That is, the authors did not impose a model for school-based teams but supported school personnel in the process of team formation, team implementation, and team evaluation. This support was provided by creating a "community of discourse" (Fosnot, 1991, p. 58). The authors asked clarifying questions, paraphrased understandings, and

helped school staff use conflicts as opportunities to make structural changes. This approach for support was used to promote active construction of knowledge as well as team ownership.

In collaboration with the special education director (Anglo, monolingual English), the authors constructed a series of learning opportunities in which participants mutually developed and refined their teaming processes. Team members were released from school responsibilities and the sessions were conducted in the district office conference room. The goal for session 1 was to model a collaborative process to establish teams. Administrators and university personnel facilitated separate meetings of each bilingual special education team. At this time, team members shared information and beliefs with one another, established a purpose for their team and determined a team name. The elementary team identified the following aspects of teaming to be most important: communication skills and being supportive; evaluation and the ability to be flexible and follow-up resources; time; team effort, i.e., how the team works as a group, willingness to learn and being an advocate for the child; and knowing limits of team members. The purpose identified by the elementary team was: in depth study of helping and meeting the appropriate educational needs in the least restrictive environment via collaboration. The team chose to be named the Bilingual Education Support Team.

The junior high school team considered the following aspects of teaming to be most important: collaborative approach - share expertise, materials, resources (seek resources outside team, if needed), problem-solving, be open-minded (keep ego outside); establish comfortable situation for the referring teacher and focus on the student. The junior high team identified the following purposes: provide interventions;strategies; provide resources/materials; have weekly meetings; communicate activities of the team; identify exceptional students; articulate among programs (e.g., new ESL program, Child Study Team); and change negative attitudes into positive attitudes. The team chose to be called the Collaborative Assistance Team.

The goal for Session 2 was to model a collaborative process to maintain and refine team functioning. Information regarding a simple 30 minute problem-solving process and referral procedures used by other teams (Downes, Saver, Maass, Thaney, & Hill, 1990; Hudson & Fradd, 1990) was shared with participants. The teams themselves developed their own referral forms and processes.

The goal for session 3 was to model a collaborative process for mutual coaching and debriefing activities. Two 2 hour simulations were held with each team at their school site. The authors, the special education director and team members practiced reviewing the referral information, conducted a mock team meeting based on a hypothetical referral, and debriefed the outcome and the interpersonal communication processes after the simulation. Subsequent refinements occurred during weekly hour-long team meetings during which the first 15 minutes focused on setting the agenda, verifying roles, and discussing referrals; the next 30 minutes were devoted to the team meeting during which members practiced selected roles and collaborative behaviors; and the last 15 minutes focused on debriefing, deciding what to change, and celebrating achievements.

Using the Teams

During the first year of the project, the elementary team had seven referrals and was accessed by general and bilingual educators. Approximately 60% of the students who the teachers referred were born in the United States and approximately 50% were English dominant. Teachers referred students for both academic and behavior problems, including problems with the English language, problems retaining concepts, writing and reading problems (in both English and Spanish), problems with motivation, distractibility and socialization to school. The elementary team started with referrals one or two weeks after the initial aspect of the training was completed. The issues this team grappled with during the first academic year were: maintaining referrals at mid-year, interpreting feedback regarding the team process, and refining team processes for the following year which would clearly address follow-up of team interventions and support for team members.

To maintain teacher referrals throughout the year, the team members provided incentives to teachers, e.g., thank-you notes, coupons which reminded staff of the support provided by the team, and reminders at staff meetings. The first author obtained feedback from referring teachers by engaging them in unstructured interviews which addressed team process, outcome and suggestions for teacher support. Their comments were audio taped and transcribed. The transcriptions were summarized by the first author and summary statements under each general topic area were presented to the team members. Though referring teachers provided strong positive comments regarding the process and outcome of team meetings, the team members focused upon suggestions for change and, therefore, interpreted the feedback as negative. This "crisis" seemed to provide the impetus for the team to move forward in team development and to refine their team process for the second academic year.

During the first academic year, the junior high team had five referrals and was accessed primarily by special educators. Eighty percent of the students referred were born outside of the United States and were Spanish dominant. Teachers referred students for both academic and behavior problems including problems with speaking English and understanding English directions. The issues they grappled with were stability, effective use of a problem-solving process, referrals to the team, and support for team members.

The stability of the team was affected by the team's singular focus on outcomes of team meetings; team members had to be encouraged to develop their team process skills. Team stability was addressed through additional simulations and focused coaching on team process during debriefing sessions as well as changes in membership. To promote referrals to the team, team members personally approached teachers who they knew and who were receptive to make referrals to the team as well as reminders in the school daily paper and staff meetings.

Both the elementary and junior high teams struggled with obtaining support to maintain the teams' functioning. As the first year drew to a close, teachers indicated that the extra work team membership required (i.e., meeting once a week before or after school and consulting with referring teachers) was considered an extra responsibility. Support during the first year was provided through a university stipend to team members. At the end of the first academic year, the elementary school team identified several strategies that would help to support

their team membership including compensatory time for team participation as well as a priority for the collaborative bilingual special education team over other school committees. At the junior high school, the collaborative bilingual special education team became part of the school-wide planning for interdisciplinary teaching teams. For the 1993-94 academic year, the team members on the collaborative bilingual special education team were each assigned to an interdisciplinary team. Rather than waiting for referrals to come to the collaborative bilingual special education team, team members will work directly with the interdisciplinary teaching teams to support those teachers and to identify students who are in need of adaptations to their instructional program. There was reluctance, from both principals, to provide released time for team members to consult with the teachers who accessed the team as well as reluctance, from team members, to serve primarily in a consulting role. That is, during the first year of implementation, team members behaved as if the way to support teachers was to suggest interventions for students that required team members to teach students directly by pulling them out of their classes. However, by the end of the first academic year of implementation, the elementary school principal and at least one of the team members recognized that lack of assuming a consulting role was a weakness.

> Title VII Teacher: ... And one of the problems that we did have at the junior high was the all day classes and I wasn't there enough to pull kids out and work with them...
>
> Elementary Principal: But see that's also one of the weaknesses of our team is that we started doing that. It's not nearly as collaborative as possibly it should have been. They start taking on and which of course the teachers ate up.
>
> Title VII Teacher: You know as I think about it, the pulling the kid out of the special, that's easier probably in the short term to do... but many times it felt like it was rough going all the way and perhaps it was because a couple of times we said "hey, we can't do their work for them. They've got to try this, they've got to try that." (End of year interview, June 1992)

## Discussion

Results of this study are discussed within the framework identified by Harris (1991) regarding the four general collaboration competency areas needed by educators serving culturally and/or linguistically diverse students. The first general competency is to understand one's own perspective. By the end of the first academic year, both teams identified their beliefs regarding the nature of collaboration. That is, it became obvious to the junior high team members that they were outcome-focused as well as apparent to the elementary team members that they were process oriented. To establish a balance, it was necessary to provide opportunities for junior high team members to address team interpersonal communication process skills and for the elementary team members to redesign follow-ups to clearly address the outcomes of team meetings.

The second competency identified by Harris (1991) was to use effective interpersonal, communication and problem-solving skills sensitive to cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary interactions. Interpersonal communication, problem-solving, and organizational skills (such as arranging for meetings) were practiced by members of both the junior high and the elementary teams. Ownership of the team processes and products evolved when the teams were approached by another school whose faculty were eager to replicate the team process. Trust among the team members was strengthened when each team experienced a crisis which was stimulated by an evaluation of their effectiveness. When confronted with information that their meetings were sometimes intimidating to referring teachers, both teams began to understand the iterative cyclical process of re-design and the reciprocal interaction of the interpersonal skills that are needed for teams to be effective.

The culture and language used by team members was a mix of school and individual cultures. That is, junior high humor (e.g., recounting jokes/pranks evident among the junior high students) as well as references to Latino culture (e.g., talk about food to bring to team meetings such as tamales) were prevalent among members of the primarily Latino junior high school team. In contrast, the elementary team was a mix of Latino and Anglo cultures. The atmosphere was one of learning about Latino cultures from the Latino team members (e.g., asking the Intermediate Bilingual Resource Teacher to interpret a letter in a child's folder written in Spanish) but conducting team meetings from a linear problem-solving perspective and using the language of the school (e.g., acronyms for committees and special programs at the school).

The third competency, to understand the role(s) of collaborators, and the fourth competency, to use appropriate assessment and instructional strategies, were evident in the information and materials shared among team members. All team members were comfortable sharing material resources related to assessment and instructional techniques for students who are limited English proficient as well as for those experiencing learning and behavioral problems. As the teams continued to meet, members increasingly showed their willingness to learn from each other. This culminated in the development of a resource file for each team during the summer after the first academic year.

Several lessons were identified regarding the development and maintenance of the bilingual special education teams in this district. First, self-determination of team characteristics was useful in establishing the teams. That is, the teams identified their own focus (i.e., outcome oriented versus process oriented) and the communication techniques that worked best for them (i.e., institutional versus individual contacts). Second, encouraging the teams to evolve was useful. Ownership became more evident as the teams shared with other teams and school districts and increased interdependence among team members was apparent as time in team membership increased (e.g., team members accessed each other more as resources). Third, cohesiveness among team members was instigated by a crisis (i.e., when evaluating their effectiveness, team members pulled together to redesign and renew the team process). Fourth, there seemed to be no "right answers." The teams developed to meet the needs of each school. They did so with support which is based on principles of effective teaming and sensitivity to the process of change. Finally, even without ideal conditions, positive changes occurred in the schools. This is important as this is the reality of many urban

schools. They are not ideal "lab" schools yet they are the schools faced with the challenge of educating many of our culturally and linguistically diverse students.

This paper is based on a presentation given at the 1993 NABE Conference in Houston. Funding for this research was provided by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education & Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) (Award # H023A10054). However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of OSERS, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

Note. The authors wish to thank the Director of Special Education of the school district which is the focus of this paper. Without her needs analysis, participation and support, this study would not have been possible.

## References

Chalfant, J. C., & Pysh, M. V. (1989). Teacher Assistance Teams: A system for supporting classroom teachers - Workshop Packet. Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona.

Chalfant, J. C., Pysh, M. V., & Moultrie, R. (1979). Teacher assistance teams: A model for within building problem solving. Learning Disability Quarterly, 2, 85-95.

Chalfant, J. C., & Van Dusen Pysh, M. (1989). Teacher assistance teams: Five descriptive studies on 96 teams. Remedial and Special Education, 10(6), 49-58.

Chiarelott, L., Reed, P., & Russell, S. C. (1991). Lessons in strategic planning learned the hard way. Educational Leadership, 48, 32-35.

Collier, C. (1988, October). Bilingual special education curriculum training project. Paper presented at the Crosscultural Special Education Network Symposium, Denver, CO.

Downes, B., Saver, K., Maass, G., Thaney, S., & Hill, S. (1990, June). P.I.T. Crew (Peer Intervention Team): Enhancing collaboration. Paper presented at the Symposium on Enhancing Collaboration Between General and Special Educators: Essential Skills and Roles, Aspen, CO.

Edgerton, R. B., & Langness, L. L. (1978). Observing mentally retarded persons in community settings: An anthropological perspective. In G. Sackett (Ed.), Observing behavior: Vol. I, Theory and applications in mental retardation (pp. 335-348). Baltimore: University Park Press.

Fosnot, C. (1991). Enquiring teachers, enquiring learners: A constructivist approach for teaching. New York: Teachers College Press.

Fradd, S. H. (1991, April). Developing collaboration in meeting the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Paper presented at The Research Symposium, State University of New York, Buffalo, NY.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., & Bahr, M. (1990). Mainstream assistance teams: A scientific basis for the art of consultation. Exceptional Children, 56(6), 493-513.

García, S. B., & Ortiz, A. A. (1988). Preventing inappropriate referrals of language minority students to special education. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education - New Focus, 5, 1-12.

Graden, J. L., Casey A., & Bonstrom, O. (1985). Implementing a prereferral intervention system: Part II. The data. Exceptional Children, 51(6), 487-496.

Harris, K. C. (1991). An expanded view on consultation competencies for educators serving culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional students. Teacher Education and Special Education, 14(1), 25-29.

Heron, T. E., & Harris, K. C. (1993). The educational consultant: Helping professionals, parents, and mainstreamed students (3rd ed.). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Hudson, P., & Fradd, S. (1990). Cooperative planning for learners with limited English proficiency. Teaching Exceptional Children, 23(1), 16-21.

Idol, L., Nevin. A., & Paolucci-Whitcomb, P. (1993). Collaborative consultation (2nd ed.). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Idol, L., West, J. F., & Lloyd, S. R. (1988). Organizing and implementing specialized reading programs: A collaborative approach involving classroom, remedial, and special education teachers. Remedial and Special Education, 9, 54-61.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Nelson, J. R., Smith, D. J., Taylor, L., Dodd, J. M., & Reavis, K. (1991). Prereferral intervention: A review of the research. Education and Treatment of Children, 14(3), 243-253.

Ortiz, A. A. (1990). Using school-based problem-solving teams for rereferral intervention. The Bilingual Special Education Perspective, Newsletter of The University of Texas at Austin, College of Education, 10(1), 3-5.

Ortiz, A. A., & Wilkinson, C. Y. (1991). Assessment and intervention model for the bilingual exceptional student (AIM for the BESt). Teacher Education and Special Education, 14(1), 35-42.

West, J. F., & Idol, L. (1987). School consultation (Part I): An interdisciplinary perspective on theory, models, and research. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20, 388-408.

# A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT METHOD FOR ACCURATELY DIAGNOSING BILINGUAL GIFTED CHILDREN

**Virginia González**
**Patricia Bauerle**
**María Félix-Holt**

**Abstract**

A qualitative assessment method for cognitive-language development in bilingual children and its underlying model are discussed. This model views language learning as a concept formation process in three domains: cognitive, cultural, and linguistic. This qualitative assessment method has proven to be useful for making accurate differential diagnosis between genuine handicapping conditions, disabilities, giftedness, or normal second language learning. Two major methodological problems in the assessment and identification of language-minority, low-income, gifted children are discussed in relation to two needs (a) to develop psycholinguistic models including cognition, culture and language; and (b) to control external factors influencing language -cognitive development. The application of the qualitative assessment method is illustrated by a case study portraying the richness of bilingualism that includes a home language survey, parents' and teachers' ratings of the child's language proficiencies and talents in the school and home environments, and results of language and non-verbal intelligence standardized tests. Finally, a discussion of the current dilemmas that evaluators face when assessing bilingual children is provided in light of myths and misconceptions.

## Introduction

Presently, there are two major methodological problems in the assessment of bilingual children that result in two needs: (a) to construct robust psycholinguistic models that consider cognitive, cultural, and linguistic variables; and (b) to control external factors influencing language-cognitive development when assessing and differentially diagnosing between normal second language learning, handicapping conditions, disabilities, or giftedness. A number of researchers have responded to the need for psycholinguistic models studying how bilingual children develop cognitively and linguistically in a bicultural environment. Only some relevant studies focusing on the positive effects of bilingualism on cognitive development, resulting in a multidimensional definition of metalinguistic awareness, will be reviewed in this paper.

For Cummins (1978) metalinguistic awareness was related to bilingual children's understanding of the arbitrary nature of word-referent relationships and to the use of sophisticated reasoning strategies. For Díaz (1985) metalinguistic awareness was the product of the effect of bilingualism on cognition, and was defined as the ability to analyze and objectify language. Bialystock (1986) considered that metalinguistic awareness: (a) was a composite of two skills, analysis of linguistic knowledge and control of attention for linguistic processing; and (b) was influenced by early word concept

development, level of bilingualism and biliteracy. Hakuta (1987) suggested that metalinguistic awareness was related to the bilingual child's first language proficiency. Finally, Snow (1992) considered that early bilingualism can influence positively metalinguistic awareness.

These two methodological problems are related, as external factors affecting the validity of assessment methods for diagnosing cognitive-language development in bilinguals, and correspond to cultural, linguistic, and cognitive domains that interact in psycholinguistic models. Qualitative assessment methods derived from psycholinguistic models show construct validity which is of central importance for accurately diagnosing language-cognitive development in bilingual children. Presently, validity is presumed to pertain to the ethical, moral, educational, and social long lasting and powerful consequences of using assessment instruments that are meaningful for diagnosing, labeling, and placing children in regular, bilingual, or special classes (AERA, APA & NCME, 1985; Messick, 1989).

These two interrelated methodological problems in the assessment of bilingual children are even more acute when the objective is to accurately identify gifted, language-minority, low-income children. Often the result of assessment is the under representation of these students in gifted educational programs across the nation. The first methodological problem of developing psycholinguistic models is related to the need for a definition of giftedness that encompasses linguistic and cultural diversity among low-income children. According to Renzulli (1978) definitions of giftedness can be considered conservative or liberal, in relation to the degree of restrictiveness used in determining who is eligible for special services. The definition ranges from straight IQ, failing to consider motivational factors and cultural and linguistic expressions of aptitudes, to multiple criteria. This difference in criteria results in misinterpretations and misuse, and allows practitioners to discriminate against individuals who have the greatest potential for high levels of accomplishment. He considered gifted children the ones who showed a composite set of traits: above-average abilities to generate diverse and creative solutions to problems, task commitment, and potential for any valuable area of human performance.

Moreover, Frasier, (1987) has highlighted that giftedness occurs regardless of the child's cultural and linguistic background, socioeconomic class, and parents' educational and social background or values. As a result, if gifted children come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, then our identification procedures should also reflect this diversity. In addition, Frasier (1991) has pointed out the importance of recognizing that culturally and linguistically diverse children have received a diverse or different stimulation from their sociocultural environment, but they do not lack stimulation or are deprived. This distinction is related to the expression of mainstream cultural attitudes in the connotations of labels used with minority children (i.e., recently we have changed the label culturally deprived for culturally and linguistically different or diverse).

In addition, Renzulli (1991) pointed out the need for research studies that examine the expression of giftedness in culturally and linguistically diverse, low-income children as only few studies have being conducted until the present. For instance, Márquez (1992) found problematic definitions of giftedness which include criteria cutoff scores in standardized tests that discriminate against limited English proficient children who are not acculturated. As a solution,

Márquez (1992) developed a profile of gifted Hispanic children that include the cultural perception of the community in the identification process. Gifted Hispanic children were described by their parents as curious, motivated, creative, observant, inquisitive, able to find multiple uses for objects and to solve problems, and interested in trying new things and in reading. Scott, Perou, Urbano, Hogan, and Gold (1992) conducted a survey of parents of Black, Hispanic, and White children that found some similar attributes of giftedness which have also been identified for mainstream children (e.g., talked early, likes reading, learns quickly, has good memory, and is above peers). In addition, some differences emerged as Hispanic gifted children were described by their parents as communicative/expressive, loving books, being observant, and excelling in academic skills.

The issue of similar characteristics in gifted children across cultural, ethnic, linguistic, gender, and socioeconomic groups has also being pointed out by Frasier (1991). She suggested that all gifted children showed the same attributes such as intrinsic motivation, very high levels of cognitive and verbal communication skills, and academic performance. Then, some characteristics of gifted majority children reported by several researchers (e.g., Cecil, Gray, Thornburgh, & Ispa, 1985; Kogan, 1983; Lieberman, 1977; Meador, 1992; Torrance, 1968) can also be applied to minority children, such as transformation of objects, dramatizations, fanciful explanations, fantastic stories, translation of experiences into action, imaginative or symbolic play, physical-social-cognitive spontaneity, manifest joy, sense of humor, and a playful attitude, among others. A second traditional problem has been the control of external factors influencing the valid and reliable assessment and identification of gifted, language-minority, low-income children. For instance, Merino and Spencer (1983) found that most commonly used oral language proficiency tests (e.g., The Language Proficiency Scales -LAS, De Avila & Duncan, 1986) were not comparably equivalent across psychometric properties (i.e., validity, reliability, and the norming process) and areas examined (i.e., language area: syntax, phonology, or semantics; domain: home, school, or neighborhood; developmental comparability of items; and language variety or dialect measured). Frasier (1991), has pointed out that the problem of identifying gifted minority children has generated some solutions (e.g., teachers' nominations, adaptation and translation of standardized tests, quota system models, identification and instructional models), but none have actually solve our present need. As a result, Frasier (1987) and Renzulli (1991) have called for the use of multiple quantitative and qualitative assessment methods in order to broaden the criteria traditionally used for identifying gifted minority children.

In addition, Renzulli (1991) has pointed out the critical need to conduct hypotheses testing research supported by strong data basis grounded in empirically validated theories or models with the objective of developing identification procedures. Thus, the two methodological problems for the identification of gifted minority children are interrelated, because the construction of psycholinguistic models will result in appropriate definitions of giftedness for minority children, and in the development of accurate assessment methods.

Moreover, a number of authors (e.g., Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990; Frasier, 1987; González, 1990, 1991; Loyola, McBride, & Loyola, 1991; Oller, 1991; Santos de Barona & Barona, 1991; Snow, 1992) have highlighted several needs

at present given the state-of-the-art of standardized instruments that lack validity and reliability when used with language-minority students. Some of these needs are: (a) to assess language proficiency in both languages in language-minority children, as they might have different proficiency levels in different areas (e.g., functional versus academic language; or oral language proficiency versus reading and writing; or phonology, grammar, and vocabulary development versus verbal and non-verbal conceptual development); (b) to incorporate cultural features in their verbal and non-verbal cognitive development (e.g., code-switching, code-mixing, vernacular dialects, cultural gestures); (c) to rely more on non-verbal rather than on verbal measures of intelligence; (d) to assess potential for learning the second language and develop cognitively rather than assessing for acquired knowledge; (e) to include individuals from the linguistic and cultural community of the child as informants (e.g., parents, relatives, peers) in order to understand their cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes, their affective relationships, discipline and control strategies, and language use at home; and (f) to stimulate advocacy roles and awareness in school personnel for representing the best educational interests of language-minority children when participating in assessment, diagnosis, and placement committees.

In general, as Frasier (1991) has pointed out we need to avoid stereotypical descriptions of minority children as portrayed by standardized tests that compare minority with dominant children. Several authors (e.g., Damico & Hamayan, 1992; Frasier, 1987; González, 1993; Kitano, 1991) have highlighted the need to change present attitudinal biases, philosophical, theoretical, and political beliefs in school personnel that may result in the misconception that giftedness cannot be found in low-income minority students.

In this paper, we propose a new solution that encompasses most of the needs highlighted at present for developing valid and reliable instruments for accurately identifying gifted language-minority children. This solution involves a qualitative assessment method that includes verbal and non-verbal problem-solving tasks administered in first and second language. This qualitative assessment method is based on a psycholinguistic model constructed by González (1991) for explaining the interface between cognitive-language development in bilingual children, such as verbal and non-verbal concept formation measured through classification tasks. Thus, this paper has a double objective: (a) to describe how to implement the qualitative assessment method; and (b) to illustrate its use in a real-life context with the purpose of accurately identifying gifted bilingual Hispanic kindergartners in a metropolitan school district in the Southwest region of the United States. In this paper a case study shows contradictory information resulting from using qualitative and standardized assessment methods, and illustrates the successful application of this qualitative method as it assesses bilingual gifted minority children's genuine cognitive and language potentials.

## Model

González (1991) proposed a new model to explain the influence of cognitive, cultural, and linguistic factors on semantic category formation. This model states that concepts are represented in three ways: (a) non-verbally as abstract categories (i.e., basic semantic categories -daily life labels for objects, and non-

basic semantic categories -labels for categories and subcategories of objects), (b) symbolically by meanings of sociocultural conventions (i.e., animate object referents as animals, and inanimate object referents as food -natural and arbitrary linguistic gender respectively), and (c) linguistically by structures and markers (i.e., familiar and unfamiliar words, and similar and different linguistic structures between first and second language).

According to this model, the cognitive process of mapping verbal onto non-verbal meanings involves categorization and transformation of concepts that can be universal or culturally and linguistically bound. Then, one way of showing the interaction between cognitive, cultural, and linguistic factors is by assessing children's verbal and non-verbal classifications of objects representing non-verbal concepts, symbolic sociocultural meanings, and linguistic gender markers. Gender was selected as the first linguistic structure to study because of major differences between English and Spanish in the three ways of representing concepts (non-verbal, symbolic, and verbal) for animate and inanimate objects. González (1991) found that bilingual children constructed (a) one universal representational system common to Spanish and English for knowledge of non-verbal, symbolic, and verbal conceptual categories; and (b) a second representational system for symbolic and verbal conceptual categories unique to a specific language and culture. González (1991) concluded that conceptual development in bilingual children is represented through abstract (non-verbal) and semantic (verbal) categories. In summary, this new model that integrates cognitive, cultural, and linguistic variables has direct practical implications, as the tasks created for developing the model have been used as an alternative qualitative assessment method for identifying gifted bilingual children.

González (1991) established five verbal (labeling, defining, and verbal justification for sorting) and non-verbal (sorting and category clue) classification tasks. Children were given manipulative objects representing animate (animals) and inanimate (food) items, corresponding to 14 experimental stimuli groupings reflecting cognitive, cultural, and linguistic variables. Two parallel sets of stimuli, both representing animals and food, were designed to avoid transference of learning when administering the tasks in both Spanish and English. These five tasks tested two theoretical approaches, the traditional Piagetian theory (e.g., Piaget, 1965, 1967; Sinclair-de-Zwart, 1969) and the constraint approach (e.g., Markman & Hutchinson, 1984; Waxman, 1990). These two theoretical approaches were included because previous research studies from the Piagetian theory and constraint approach have yielded different results in the level of semantic categories formed by children. Furthermore, both verbal and non-verbal tasks were used to compare how linguistic and cultural factors influence semantic category formation in bilingual children. A brief description of the five verbal and non-verbal tasks is included below. In addition, some genuine examples of responses and its categorization and scoring are portrayed in the case study.

Labeling is operationalized as a verbal production task that measures language development at two levels: (a) the object level, reflecting word knowledge; and (b) the gender level, indicating knowledge of the linguistic structures and markers for gender assignment. Defining is operationalized as a verbal production and comprehension task that measures verbal conceptual development as it gives information of the child' s ability to produce and understand basic and non-basic semantic categories. The sorting and verbal justification for sorting

tasks measure non-verbal and verbal concept formation at the production level based on the interface between linguistic gender assignments, sociocultural symbolic meanings, and abstract semantic categories. Category clue is a non-verbal comprehension level task that measures the child's ability to understand metalinguistic hints given by linguistic gender assignment; and to construct links between metalinguistic clues, symbolic meanings, and semantic categories.

Application of the Model for Identifying Gifted Bilingual Hispanic Kindergartens

Applied problem. Under the request of a large school district in the Southwest region with a large percentage of Hispanic children (more than 40% of the school population), this qualitative assessment method was adopted as an alternative individualized procedure for selecting and placing bilingual Hispanic students in gifted classrooms. These bilingual Spanish/English children attending regular kindergarten classes were referred for further individualized testing based on (a) a qualitative group screening procedure using observations of spatial, linguistic, and mathematical/logical abilities developed by Maker (1991); (b) a home language survey developed by González (1991) for measuring language use as reported by parents (c) teachers' and parents' ratings of students' creative behaviors, gathered using a locally-designed open-ended survey; and (d) students' samples of classwork selected by classroom teachers. Referred children were tested individually using a qualitative assessment method (González, 1991), and a standardized test for non-verbal intelligence (Raven Coloured Progressive Matrices, 1976). Results of this prereferral information and individual testing were examined by an interdisciplinary placement committee formed by teachers, administrators, parents, school psychologists, graduate students, and university faculty. For the purpose of illustrating the implementation of the qualitative assessment method, one case study portraying the richness of bilingualism has been selected.

Case Study

Background information. A bilingual English/Spanish Hispanic child attending a kindergarten regular classroom was referred to be assessed individually. David (the child's real name has been changed in order to protect his identity) was 5 years and 10 months old by the time of assessment. Parents reported that they were born in Arizona, and that the child was a third generation Mexican-American. David was the youngest of 5 siblings. He had triplet brothers of 14 years of age, and a sister of 11 years of age. David's first language was determined to be English, and his second language Spanish; as indicated by his scores on the LAS, and as reported by his parents on a home language survey and by his classroom teacher in a language rating scale. Self-reports of both parents indicated that they were fully proficient in both Spanish and English. Parents' ratings of David's language proficiency indicated an "above average" level for English, and "not quite adequate in comparison with peers" for Spanish. Parents reported that they used Spanish and English at home but that their children preferred to use English. They reported that their older children spoke Spanish fluently, and that even though David understood Spanish, he could only speak a little Spanish with his grandparents.

Parents' qualitative description of David's talents and abilities. David's parents reported that David had older friends because of his brothers and sister, and that he made new friends easily as everybody seemed to like him. He liked to ask questions, and make people laugh with his anecdotes. When playing with other children, David liked to be in charge and to organize games; when by himself, David liked to draw and do homework. David was described as friendly, observant, curious, talkative, energetic, independent, outgoing, cooperative, imaginative, and creative.

Teacher' s qualitative description of David's talents and abilities. David's classroom teacher was a monolingual English speaker of Anglo ethnicity. David was described as a highly-verbal child who asked many questions and told many anecdotes related to academic activities. His greatest abilities were reported to be in math as he performed at higher levels than his peers in logical operations (i.e., seriation, conservation of number, and classification). David's teacher also reported that he liked to draw, especially in his journal in which he worked intently taking a lot of time to mak complete illustrations. David was described as enthusiastic regarding all aspects of school as an actively involved child who persevered in academic activities, and a risk-taker who used trial and error. He was admired by his peers because he was competitive in a positive way, and he liked to cooperate with others while taking the leadership role. In summary, David was describe as active, creative, observant, and curious.

Qualitative assessment method: English administration. Two examiners worked jointly in administering the qualitative assessment method (González, 1991) with the objective of assuring reliability in the diagnostic conclusions. Both examiners were bilingual graduate school psychology students, one was bilingual English/Spanish, and the other one was bilingual Greek/English. The child was examined during the first trimester of the school year. Examiners reported that David was very cooperative, enthusiastic, and friendly; and that he had good command of the English language as he elaborated on all his answers by making connections of the objects and tasks to his personal experiences (e.g., he told a detailed story about the rescue of a person bitten by an alligator that he had watched on television).

For the production level of the defining task in relation to animal stimuli, David performed at a concrete level as he compared animals that belonged to the same kind and mentioned the similarities. For the item "tiger", the child responded: "Black and orange, looks like a lion, because a lion has....(points to marks). If you color out the black lines, it would be a lion". For this task in relation to food stimuli, David performed at a perceptual level because he described the objects in terms of their shape, form, and color. For the item "tomato", the child responded: "They are red and green, with things on top. It's juicy, with little lines like a pumpkin but has to be orange". For the verbal justification for sorting task, David performed at a concrete level when he formed two parallel lines of animals that corresponded in kind, size, and gender. For this latter task, for the item "alligator" when David was asked why he had grouped the animals in that way, he responded: "The mom alligator is fat, the daddy isn't", and then he compared the two animals to see which was bigger (in reality both alligators were exactly the same). In summary, David was diagnosed as performing at the functional and concrete levels for production and comprehension tasks when

forming verbal and non-verbal concepts. David performed above age-appropriate levels as he made many creative comparisons in relation to the objects' shape, color, and size using his own experiences.

Qualitative assessment method: Spanish administration. Other two examiners, both graduate school psychology students, did the Spanish administration. One of the examiners was bilingual English/Spanish, and the other was an English native speaker with some knowledge of Spanish as a foreign language. Two weeks following the English administration, David was examined in Spanish using a parallel set of stimuli for preventing direct transference of learning. David understood the Spanish instructions, but responded almost always in English, using only a few Spanish words (i.e., code mixing).

Examiners reported that David showed motivation and non-verbal creativity. He was always helpful in arranging the materials and putting them away. David was very easy to engage, very polite, and friendly. He asked a number of questions about the procedure and about the examiners themselves. Upon seeing the stimuli for the task, he informed the examiners of the tasks he had done in the English administration and verbally cited most of items he had used the last time. This seems to indicate that he had strong visual and verbal memory abilities. In addition, David showed a high verbal ability, as he was aware of verbal subcategories (e.g., that Dalmatians are a kind of dogs), and also of different classifications of animal families (e.g., he noted that "A gorilla resembled a monkey"). Moreover, David also seemed to rely heavily on non-verbal communication. For instance, when questions were asked about different objects, in addition to providing a verbal description he frequently acted out what the animals do (e.g., how some animals would fight with and prey on others as shown in the movies). David persistently used onomatopoeic sounds and nonverbal actions for conveying meaning. His responses centered around "the fat" theme for both animals and food.

In the definition task David described with detail the objects, and even went beyond by describing the imaginative representations that he was visualizing in his mind. David's performance for the defining task administered with animal stimuli was at the concrete level due to the presence of categories and subcategories. For instance, he responded: "A dog. This is a Dalmatian. I have one, but he doesn't have dots on his face. He's all black on his face. They' re fat in the middle, have long legs, a little tongue, and big ears. "*Se parece* (Spanish for "it is like") a cat.....fat". For this task using food stimuli David responded at a metalinguistic level, as he compared objects in shape and form and also used language humorously. For instance, for the item "steak", he said: "You cook it in the fire. It's like a cat' s face. Big ears, and the eyes are here, the nose is here, the whiskers are here. It' s like a carpet, one of those things you clean your feet on when you go into the house. It' s like a tortilla because it' s flat. The dog can' t eat the bone because the bone will start moving. It' s black and white and red all over". Then, the toy steak represented as cooked, became in his imagination a raw steak, which in color and shape resembled in David' s words "A penguin with sunburn". David was also performing at the metalinguistic level in the verbal justification for sorting task for food stimuli in Spanish, as he could recognized and explain verbally and non-verbally the difference in meaning very quickly and correctly if the linguistic gender was changed. For instance, when David was asked if the gender of "la pizza" could be changed, he responded:

"No, because *el piso* is the floor". In the category clue task David developed his own system for arranging and transforming the objects. For instance, he used the triangular shape foods (e.g., pizza, pie) to make a sandwich with the largest pieces of food as the outer pieces of bread.

Thus, David was diagnosed as performing at concrete and metalinguistic levels for the production and comprehension tasks when forming verbal and non-verbal concepts in English and Spanish. It was recommended that David should be placed in a bilingual gifted educational program, as he had shown an ability to form verbal concepts, a command of the English language above age-appropriate levels, and a good understanding of the Spanish language. David could further develop his strengths and use his great amount of creativity, imagination, verbal and social skills, and intrinsic motivation in a bilingual gifted educational program.

Results of standardized tests. On the Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices, the child scored at the 79 Percentile, 7 Stanine. The district required as the standard criteria for placement in the gifted education program to score in the 97 Percentile or above. On the LAS, the child was classified as a non-Spanish speaker, and as a fluent English speaker. However, the qualitative assessment method and the information given by David's parents and classroom teacher was used as primary criteria by the interdisciplinary committee for placing David in a gifted first grade classroom the following school year.

## Discussion

The case study presented was selected to disprove some common myths leading to misconceptions that still influence the assessment process of bilingual children across the nation. Firstly, when we find a child who is English dominant, and who also scores high on standardized language assessment scales in English, we assume that the child is fluent in English and that we can accurately diagnose the English dominant minority child using standardized tests in other developmental areas (e.g., verbal and non-verbal intelligence). This is a misconception for several reasons, for instance: (a) standardized language scales mostly reflect functional but not academic language proficiency, (b) a bilingual child may know more than he may be able to produce verbally in his dominant language, and (c) being "proficient" in English according to scores on standardized language scales does not mean that the child has the same educational experiences and prior cultural knowledge in comparison to a mainstream child (see González, 1993).

Another popular myth and resulting misconception among evaluators is that language proficiency levels reflect intelligence development in bilingual children. This popular myth is far from the genuine cognitive abilities of language-minority children as has been demonstrated by González (1991). She found that non-verbal cognitive development of kindergarten and first grade bilingual Spanish/English children was above-normal developmental levels, and that verbal cognitive development was at age-appropriate developmental levels (Piaget, 1965, 1967) when assessed with qualitative methods. In contrast, language and intelligence standardized tests, even non-verbal intelligence tests (i.e., the Test of Non-Verbal Intelligence -TONI-, Brown, Sherbenou, & Dollard, 1982) underestimated the genuine verbal and non-verbal potentials of bilingual children.

These contradictory results will often lead to different classifications of bilingual children's cognitive-linguistic development when differentially diagnosing between genuine handicapping conditions, disabilities, giftedness, or the normal process of learning English as a second language. Due to the possible resulting contradictory diagnostic conclusions, it is important to include multiple sources of information such as to evaluate the child in both languages and to use different monolingual/monocultural and bilingual/bicultural informants (i.e., teachers and parents, peers, more than one specialized evaluator -educational diagnostician, school psychologists, speech pathologists, nurse, doctor, social worker). The importance of evaluating the bilingual child in both languages is illustrated by the selected case study, as David performed at-age appropriate levels when assessed in English, and at above-normal levels when assessed in Spanish. This difference in performance when assessing cognitive development using two languages, is not only related to the child's language proficiency levels in both languages. But, it is also related to the cultural and linguistic variables influencing differently the expression of cognitive development in both languages in a bilingual child. In relation to the importance of using different informants, González (1991) found that when using a rating scale teachers evaluated only 3.3.% of the children as Limited English Proficient (LEP), and 33.3% of the children as Limited Spanish Speakers (LSS). In contrast, parents rated 10.3% of the same children as LEP, and 30% of the same children as LSS. Moreover, 43.3% of the children were diagnosed as LEP when assessed by the IDEA Oral Language Proficiency test (Ballard, Tighe, & Dalton, 1979).

That is, as illustrated by the selected case, the presence of two different informants (i.e., the classroom teacher and the parents) offers the possibility of broadening and enriching our perspective of a bilingual child. In this case, the classroom teacher was a monolingual English speaker from a mainstream cultural background. This classroom teacher could describe, interpret, and evaluate David's cognitive-linguistic performance from the child's English language and mainstream culture personality dimension. In contrast, David's bilingual parents could describe, interpret, and evaluate the child's cognitive-linguistic performance from the child's bilingual-bicultural personality dimension. In fact, David's parents could open a whole new window or dimension in the evaluation process that his classroom teacher could not offer. This is an illustration of a traditional assessment principle, stating that no evaluation should be interpreted by itself, but in a meaningful context of a battery of measurements portraying the individual's performance in different contexts. In the case of a bilingual child, different contexts of assessment are related to informants from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. It is also important to remember that the performance of a bilingual child in a monolingual and a bilingual context can show similarities and also a number of differences as shown in the selected case study. That is, the interface between first and second language and cognitive development can offer a new and different developmental dimension in comparison to just observing how the child functions cognitively in one language independently from the other.

As a result, due to the presence of contradictory information when conducting an assessment and diagnostic process with bilingual children, evaluators face theoretical, practical, and legal problems when they evaluate and participate in diagnostic and placement committees. Thus, it is important to raise the aware-

ness level of evaluators of the need to become committed advocates in order to reduce the number of misdiagnoses and misplacements of bilingual children (Damico & Hamayan, 1992). Evaluators can become advocates only if they reflect on their own attitudes toward culturally and linguistically diverse students with the help of nurturing and supporting professional groups (see González, 1993). Presently, it is important to nurture evaluators of bilingual students because we are facing a paradigm shift between standardized instruments derived from the medical model to qualitative methods of assessment derived from developmental, multicultural, and bilingual approaches. Thus, presently given the-state-of-the-art of the assessment models and instruments that are being used with bilingual students, evaluators can come to opposite conclusions depending on what theories and philosophies they follow, and what attitudes and beliefs they have.

The former methodological and psychometric problems of current standardized tests when used with bilingual children are just some examples of the many myths, misconceptions, and attitudes that need to be changed by evaluators of bilingual children. Moreover, this attitudinal change is difficult to achieve because these myths result in the creation of internal barriers that prevent individuals to be aware of their personal responsibility when they realize that their personality is their major tool for assessment. Our personality as a tool for assessment includes, just to name a few areas, our own: (a) ethnic-cultural-linguistic identity, (b) personal and professional commitments to specifics schools of thought that defend different assessment models and instruments, (c) beliefs and theories about how bilingual children learn and develop, and (d) personal backgrounds and experiences with language-minority students. This attitudinal change in evaluators of bilingual children will only happen with the necessary professional support for becoming committed advocates for bilingual children (see González, 1993).

In summary, the differential diagnosis between genuine handicapping conditions, disabilities, giftedness, or the normal process of learning English as a second language is a very complex problem that given our current theories and assessment instruments is far from being an "objective process". We need to become aware of the subjectivity involved in diagnosing and placing bilingual children. The current problem of the over representation of bilingual students in special education and their under representation in gifted education is just a reflection of the subjectivity involved in the diagnostic process. Thus, presently alternative qualitative assessment methods that can accurately diagnose bilingual children, like the one illustrated in this paper, are a major applied need.

## Conclusions

Even though some bilingual children have a functional command of the English language, assessing them through a qualitative method encompassing cultural and linguistic factors gives them the opportunity to show their genuine cognitive abilities and potentials. Due to lack of control for external factors (e.g., cultural and linguistic differences, socioeconomic level) when developing assessment instruments for cognitive and language development, bilingual children do not qualify for gifted educational programs when assessed using standardized tests. There are still several myths and misconceptions been held by profession-

als responsible for the assessment of bilingual children in the process of learning English as a second language. These myths are related to the attitudes, values, and ethnic identities of evaluators, because our personalities are the most important assessment tools through which we observe a bilingual child and make diagnostic conclusions. One of these myths illustrated by the case study is that English dominant children who score high in language proficiency standardized tests can be accurately assessed following mainstream procedures. The case study presented demonstrates that standardized tests do not reflect the English dominant bilingual child's genuine cognitive abilities and potentials. In contrast, when the child is assessed and diagnosed using a model and qualitative assessment method that reflects the child's culture and second language, new cognitive and metalinguistic developmental characteristics can be revealed. Concerning the differential diagnosis of bilingual children, the proposed qualitative assessment method has important theoretical and practical implications: (a) it can be adapted for different languages and cultures; and (b) it can address the important educational issue of the under representation of language-minority, low-income children in gifted educational programs.

## References

American Educational Research Association (AERA), American Psychological Association (APA), & National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME). (1985). Standards for educational and psychological testing. Washington, DC : American Psychological Association.

Ballard, W. S. , Tighe, P. L. , & Dalton, E. F. (1979). IDEA oral language proficiency test. Whittier, CA: Ballard & Tighe, Inc.

Bermúdez, A. B., & Rakow, S. J. (1990). Analyzing teachers' perceptions of identification procedures for gifted and talented Hispanic limited English proficient (LEP) students at-risk. The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 7, 21-52.

Bialystock, E. (1986). Factors in the growth of linguistic awareness. Child Development, 57, 498-510.

Brown, L., Sherbenou, R. J., & Dollard, S. J. (1982). Test of Nonverbal Intelligence (TONI). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Cecil, L. , Gray, M., Thornburg, K., & Ispa, J. (1985). Curiosity-exploration--play-creativity: The early childhood mosaic. Early Child Development and Care, 19, 199-217.

Cummins, J. (1978). Bilingualism and the development of metalinguistic awareness, Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 9, 131-149.

Damico, J. S. , & Hamayan, E. V. (1992). Implementing assessment in the real world. In E. V. Hamayan & J. S. Damico (Eds.), Limiting bias in the assessment of bilingual students (pp. 304-316). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

De Avila, E. A. , & Duncan, S. E. (1986). The Language Assessment Scales. Monterey, CA: CTB.

Díaz, R. M. (1985). Bilingual cognitive development: Addressing three gaps in current research. Child Development, 56, 1376-1388.

Frasier, M. M. (1987). The identification of gifted Black students: Developing new perspectives. Journal of the Education of the Gifted, 10(3), 155-180.

Frasier, M. M. (1991a). Disadvantaged and culturally diverse gifted students. Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 14(3), 234-245.

González, V. (1990). Fitting symmetric and asymmetric log linear models to observed frequencies by language (Spanish/English), language proficiency,

type of phonological strategies, and levels of reading readiness in bilingual children. Unpublished manuscript, The University of Arizona, College of Education, Tucson, AZ.

González, V. (1991). A model of cognitive, cultural, and linguistic variables affecting bilingual Spanish/English children's development of concepts and language. Dissertation. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 345 562).

González, V. (1993). Special voices, NABE News, 16(6), 23-26.

Hakuta, K. (1987). Degree of bilingualism and cognitive ability in mainland Puerto-Rican children. Child Development, 58, 1372-1388.

Kitano, M. K. (1991). A multicultural educational perspective on serving the culturally diverse gifted. Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 15(1), 4-19.

Kogan, N. (1983). Stylistic variation in childhood and adolescence: Creativity, metaphor, and cognitive styles. In P. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Cognitive Development Vol. 3. (4th Ed.). (pp. 630-706). New York: John Wiley.

Lieberman, J. (1977). Playfulness: Its relationship to imagination and creativity. New York: Academic Press.

Loyola, J. L. , McBride, D. F., & Loyola, L. J. (1991). Cognitive and linguistic abilities of Puerto Rican bilingual children: Implications for assessment. The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 8, 31-50.

Maker, C. J. (1991). Problem solving: A process approach to identifying giftedness in special populations. AAGT Potential, 22(4), 1-2.

Márquez, J. A. (1992). Incorporating community perceptions in the identification of gifted and talented Hispanic students. The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 10, 117-127.

Markman, E. M. , & Hutchinson, J. E. (1984). Children's sensitivity to constraints on word meaning: Taxonomic vs. thematic relations. Cognitive Psychology, 16, 1-27.

Meador, K. S. (1992). Emerging rainbows: A review of the literature on creativity in preschoolers. Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 15(2), 163-181.

Merino, B. J. , & Spencer, M. (1983). The comparability of English and Spanish versions for oral language proficiency instruments. NABE: The Journal for the National Association for Bilingual Education, 7, 1-31.

Messick, S. (1989). Meaning and values in test validation: The science and ethics of assessment. Educational Researcher, 18(2), 2-11.

Oller, J. W. , Jr. (1991). Language testing research: Lessons applied to LEP students and programs. (Monograph). In First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues: Focus on Evaluation and Measurement (pp. 43-123). Washington DC : OBEMLA and the Office of Educational Research and Improvement.. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 349 814).

Piaget, J. (1965). Mental imagery in the child, a study of the development of imaginal representation. New York: Oxford University Press.

Piaget, J. (1967). Piaget's theory. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's manual of child psychology, Vol. I . (pp. 703-732). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Raven; J. C. (1976). Coloured Progressive Matrices. London, England: H. K. Lewis & Co. Ltd.

Renzulli, J. S. (1978). What makes giftedness ? Reexamining a definition. In W. B. Barbe and J. S. Renzulli (Eds.), Psychology and Education of the Gifted (pp. 55-65). New York: Irvington Publishers, Inc.

Renzulli, J. S. (1991). The national research center on the gifted and talented: The dream, the design, and the destination. Gifted Child Quarterly, 35(2), 73-80.

Santos de Barona, M., & Barona, A. (1991). The assessment of culturally and linguistically different preschoolers. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 6, 363-376.

Scott, M. S. , Perou, R. , Urbano, R. , Hogan, A. , & Gold, S. (1992). The identification of giftedness: A comparison of White, Hispanic, and Black families. Gifted Child Quarterly, 36(3), 131-139.

Sinclair-de-Zwart, H. (1969). Language acquisition and cognitive development, In T. E. Moore (Ed.), Cognitive development and the acquisition of language, (pp. 78-134). New York: Academic Press.

Snow, C. E. (1992). Perspectives on second-language development: Implications for bilingual education. Educational Researcher, 21(2), 16-19.

Torrance, E. (1968). Must pre-primary educational stimulation be incompatible with creative development? In F. Williams (Ed.), Creativity at home and at school (pp. 55-73). St. Paul, MN: Macalester College.

Waxman, S. (1990). Linking language and conceptual development: Linguistic cues and the construction of conceptual hierarchies. The Genetic Epistemologist, 17,13-20.

# CONSULTATION AND COLLABORATION: ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE AND REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS WORKING TOGETHER

**Rita van Loenen**
**Perry Kay Haley**

**Abstract**

The number of students with a primary home language other than English who are in need of specialized instructional services is on the rise. However, relatively few regular education teachers are prepared to teach this increasing number of second language learners.

This article reviews the literature on consultation and collaboration as it relates to special education. Consultative models have been effectively employed in special education for a number of years. Application of consultative methods to BLE/ESL programs is suggested and benefits for teachers and students are discussed. Information on a Bilingual and ESL program that currently uses a collaborative model is presented.

## Introduction

The number of students with a primary language other than English who are in need of specialized instructional services is on the rise (Hamayan, 1990). Many mainstream teachers have accepted the challenge of working with social, intellectual, and cultural differences and abilities. However, relatively few teachers are prepared to teach second language children along with native English-speaking children (Faltis, 1993). Students who are learning English as a second language in either a bilingual or ESL setting need a variety of opportunities for communication which is authentic. The mainstream classroom provides opportunities for authentic communication and interaction with native English speakers in a variety of circumstances.

The integration of Collaborative/Consultative models affords regular classroom teachers who do not have specialized training in the area of second language acquisition the opportunity to work with bilingual teachers or ESL teachers who have been specially trained in strategies that assist in second language acquisition.

## Collaboration/Consultation in Special Education

Special education employs several service delivery models to serve students with mild handicapping conditions. An effective service delivery model is resource consultation in which resource teachers spend part of their day giving direct service to identified students and some portion (20% plus) to consultation with regular classroom teachers (Graden, Casey & Christenson, 1985). The intent of this model is to reduce "pull outs" of students from the mainstream and to increase skills of regular classroom teachers so they can work more effectively with placed students in their classroom (Gersten, 1990; Huefner, 1988). In fact,

it appears that in many cases the best placement for effective educational and psychological interventions is in the regular classroom (Brown, Wyne, & Blackburn, 1979).

The impact of Public Law 94-142 which has referenced the regular classroom as the least restrictive environment has increased the need for collaboration. The consultative model is also consonant with the federal government's Regular Education Initiative (Huefner, 1988).

There are many benefits to a consultative approach. Through teacher consultation, classroom behavior improves (Engelhardt, Sulzer & Alterpruse, 1971). Teacher consultation has positive effects on academic performance (Randolph & Saba, 1973) and teachers' attitudes toward students with behavior problems (Palmo & Kuzaiar, 1972).

Neel (1981) describes three consultation models. The preferred model of "process consultation" seeks to assist classroom teachers in clarifying student needs and to develop solutions through a prescribed set of activities presented by the consultant. This model is in contrast to the less effective "doctor-patient" model in which the consultant diagnoses problems and prescribes solutions; if the prescription doesn't work, the consultant has full responsibility to find a new intervention. In the "purchase model", the classroom teacher "buys" resource services, usually direct services to children, that are needed to solve problems. The purchase model alleviates short term problems but does little for long-term solutions. It is important for the teacher consultant to be involved in "process consultation" so that the consultant can assist teachers in the process of identifying problems and developing solutions.

Dealing with Resistance and Gaining Support

Due to our recent educational history of referring students with special education needs and providing direct services in self-contained and resource classrooms, there are indicators that teachers may be reluctant to join in collaborative, classroom-based efforts to serve students with special needs (Friend & Bauwens, 1988; Idol-Maestas & Ritter, 1985; Brown, et al., 1979). Therefore, consulting teachers must be prepared to identify and deal with some possible resistance to the consultation process.

Gaining support begins with the administration at district and local school levels. In service training of regular education staff and administrators is a prerequisite to initiation of a consultative model. At the local school level, resistance to consultation must be considered both an individual and a group phenomenon. Resistance is reduced through an atmosphere of mutual trust, acceptance, and confidence. Interpersonal contact and communication with the whole staff is important. Teacher leaders are key staff members to begin consultative processes because many teachers will follow their acceptance or rejection of consultation. Ways to develop acceptance include demonstration of worth of strategies presented by the consultant and recognition of regular classroom teachers who have developed effective programs through consultation (newsletters, notes, principal's recognition at staff meetings or through daily contacts). Credit is always given to regular classroom teachers, not to the consultant (Brown, et al., 1979).

Listening and Communication Skills

Basic to a consulting relationship is the ability to strategize skills, question, listen and communicate (Huefner, 1988). The two parties should be equal and consultation should be viewed as a mutual, reciprocal form of communication (Pugach & Johnson, 1988). All of the personnel involved in the collaborative process are considered equals within their areas of expertise, yet each person involved can develop new skills for working with second language learners (Fradd, 1992).

Developing and Monitoring a Shared Educational Plan

Consultation, although in a broad sense ongoing, is short term and definitive when dealing with a particular student's needs. An educational action plan is required which involves shared responsibility by all parties. This plan includes strategies to be used, person(s) responsible, beginning and ending dates. Important features of this process are: agreement on roles, description of situations/needs/resources, data confirmation, prioritization of steps, development of goal statements and specification of objectives for both teachers and students.

The next step is implementation of program change. This process includes collaborate brainstorming by all teachers to generate possible interventions. Selected interventions are used to develop a plan of action. Critical aspects of program implementation are monitoring and adjusting. Frequent evaluation of the intervention plan, adjusting existing interventions, and implementing additional interventions from the plan increase intensity.

Generalization of the intervention plan in the regular classroom means that the classroom teacher will be able to use these strategies across multiple subject areas.

Content Knowledge

Consultants must be aware of learning styles, instructional interventions, behavioral strategies, and the curriculum of the district. Regular education curriculum is often adapted for children placed in special programs. Knowledge of language learning theory adds to the credibility of the consultant.

Prereferral

A prereferral intervention system reflects a trend toward indirect service (Graden, Casey & Christenson, 1985 a, b). The goal of the prereferral intervention model is to implement systematic intervention strategies in regular classrooms and to evaluate effectiveness of these interventions before a student is referred.

This collaborative process can reduce the number of students referred for direct services. Large numbers of students are exhibiting academic and behavioral difficulties in school and special education is being used to serve increasing numbers of these students each year (Algozzine, Ysseldyke, & Christenson, 1983). It is questionable whether special education can and should serve all students with learning and behavior problems under the direct services umbrella.

Application to the BLE/ESL pullout program

To understand the application of consultation to ESL pullout programs, one must understand the theory of language acquisition. Pullout programs for the purpose of second language acquisition have minimal effect since language instruction occurs in the "out of classroom" setting rather than in the authentic mainstream classrooms. In ESL pullout programs, second language students leave their mainstream classes at certain times during the day to receive structured ESL instruction in a separate classroom (Richard-Amato & Snow, 1988). Instruction lasts from 15 to 50 minutes each day ( Faltis, 1993). Snow, Met, & Genesee (1992) suggest that a rationale behind integrating language and content teaching is that language is learned most effectively for communication in meaningful, purposeful social and academic contexts. Therefore, the mainstream classroom offers the greatest opportunity for meaningful and effective communication for second language students. The pull-out setting, because of the time constraints and lack of English language role models, is not the most ideal setting for those students trying to acquire a second language. Practice and application of learning from the pullout program do not always generalize to the regular classroom settings. This is because teachers traditionally do not tend to collaborate nor consult with one another across grade levels or disciplines. Students learning a second language need a natural setting with a purpose for authentic communication and good models of English which is the regular classroom. This validates the need for consultation/collaboration in order to achieve maximum language learning opportunities.

BLE/ESL pullout programs serve students in a delivery model similar to special education resource programs. When second language students spend the majority of their school time in regular classrooms, it makes sense to use ESL teachers as consultants. Their knowledge of second language learning can be used to develop effective programs for rapid language acquisition in the regular classroom. For example, in Arizona endorsed BLE/ESL teachers have a minimum of 21 course hours in specific BLE/ESL methods and many have years of experience working with second language students. BLE/ESL teachers can also provide information on cultural backgrounds of these students which promotes understanding and acceptance of language minority students.

Benefits

There would be many benefits to introducing the consultative model to BLE/ESL programs. Presently there is an over representation of minority students in special education programs (Rechly, 1988). Consultation using a prereferral model would reduce the number of inappropriate placements since interventions would be implemented in regular classrooms and fewer students would be referred to special education. Classroom teachers would learn additional strategies to work with LEP students. This increased knowledge would benefit students currently in the class as well as future LEP students.

Through increased communication between BLE/ESL teachers and regular classroom teachers, there would be a reduction of student program fragmentation and more integrated instructional plans for LEP students. Parent communication would be enhanced due to closer staff working relationships. The action plan could be the basis of effective parent conferences.

In summary, it appears feasible and expedient to introduce the consultative model to BLE/ESL programs. Benefits include increased effectiveness of programming for LEP students, better parent communication, reduction of inappropriate referrals to special education, and increased communication between special area and regular education teachers.

The Consultative Model in Practice

Beginning with the 1992 school year, several school sites within a rural/urban school district in the southwestern United States began to implement various ESL and bilingual consultative models according to the needs of students and size of programs. A consultative model was implemented at all seventeen schools. One elementary school chose to continue with a delivery model that included an ESL program for Kindergarten through sixth grade while operating a transitional bilingual education program for kindergarten through fifth grade. Parents in this school setting were given the option of enrolling their children in a designated bilingual classroom or in an all English classroom with ESL support.

The ESL/BLE consultative model became more focused when a team of teachers from elementary and secondary schools came together in the fall to design an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) for LEP students who were enrolled in the district's ESL or bilingual programs. The IEP format was designed to align with the district criterion reference tests at each grade level in the areas of Reading and Writing. One junior high faculty also developed a Math IEP for their transitional ESL students.

The development of the IEP allowed classroom teachers, principals, counselors, bilingual teachers and ESL specialists to regularly review the progress of transitional bilingual and ESL students within the mainstream classroom. It also focused the regular classroom teacher on the delivery of services to students who were limited English proficient. It allowed them opportunities to examine their delivery of lessons and explore how that delivery might be enhanced through the use of strategies and materials that were better suited to students who were being transitioned into an all English course of study. It also afforded them opportunities to collaborate on a regular basis with an ESL specialist or bilingual teacher who worked with the students in a variety of educational settings. The ESL specialist was able to work with students in the Computer Assisted Instruction lab, the regular classroom, bilingual classroom and in a tutorial situation both during and after school. The ESL specialist's schedule allowed time to work with regular classroom teachers during regularly scheduled class time. Both the ESL specialist and bilingual teachers could assist the classroom teacher with lesson presentation, preparation of appropriate materials and individualized student assistance. The ESL specialist and certified bilingual teachers were available for consultation on instructional interventions, behavioral strategies, and district curriculum. This in-class consultation allowed ESL students and those students being transitioned from the bilingual classrooms to remain in mainstream classrooms which maximized language learning and provided natural models .

The integration of language and content area instruction requires that ESL teachers and bilingual teachers collaborate with mainstream content area teachers.

> Such collaboration requires a reciprocal relationship between instructors. Thus, the language instructor may consult with the classroom teacher about what is being taught, with particular attention given to content that has specific or special language requirements. The language instructor is then able to incorporate into language instruction meaningful and important content that has evident language-related value in the rest of the curriculum. (Snow, Met, Genesee, 1989).

This type of collaboration also gives ESL specialists and bilingual teachers an opportunity to model desired teaching strategies and promotes understanding and acceptance of the special needs that language minority students bring to a mainstream classroom.

The San Marcos Model

In the 1987-88 school year, San Marcos Elementary School in Chandler, Arizona began a school restructuring project that included an Outcome Based curriculum format and the integration of all special programs. The focus of this restructuring project was to allow opportunities for teachers to collaborate with grade level teams, cross grade level teams, and special area teachers to provide greater opportunities for all students to become successful in school. In to support the philosophy of "Together We Succeed," faculty and staff focused on the employment of an interdisciplinary collaborative model for the delivery of services for special needs' populations. On a weekly basis, special area teachers met as a team to plan strategies and develop units for those students enrolled in the ESL program. Members of the team included the physical education teachers, media specialist, computer specialists, special education teachers, speech teacher, music teachers, counselors, classroom aides, Chapter 1 curriculum specialist, and ESL teacher. The team developed units of study that were designed to incorporate prescribed district ESL curriculum objectives. Each team member was responsible for contributing their expertise to the development of the units.

They were also available to consult with regular classroom teachers who were given a weekly summary of the lesson objectives and hints for incorporating the objectives into their prescribed grade level curriculum. Vocabulary lists were developed to accompany each unit so regular classroom teachers could use them for spelling words for their ESL students in the mainstream classroom. The idea behind this approach was that second language learners do much better in acquiring a second language when it makes sense, is categorically presented, and is repeated in many different formats.

An example of this collaborative effort was a unit that was developed on Spatial Relationships. The unit was first introduced in the ESL classroom. Literature was selected by the media specialist that would supplement the unit theme. Other media materials related to the theme were also selected and distributed to regular classroom teachers who had them available for their ESL stu-

dents. The physical education staff designed activities that reinforced the theme of spatial relations with activities such as obstacle courses that the children had to complete while the teachers verbally gave the directions. They also designed activities where the students followed written directions that were displayed on cones throughout the obstacle courses. Other activities involved games and activities that incorporated the theme of the unit.

The music teachers found songs that related to the theme and again incorporated opportunities for total physical response much like those that the physical education staff developed. The music activities gave the students a chance to hear the target vocabulary in yet another natural setting. The computer specialist developed activities for the computer lab that allowed for incorporation of the unit objectives. Special computer programs were selected and word lists were customized to allow for maximum exposure to both the spoken and written word. The special education teacher was able to target unit objectives within the special education classroom.

Many of the units were developed by interdisciplinary staff; this project encouraged participation of classroom teachers and special area teachers. This collaborative interdisciplinary approach to ESL allowed for a consultative relationship to develop between the regular classroom teachers and all special area teachers. Communication, responsive collaboration, increased effectiveness of programs for limited English proficient students, and reduction of inappropriate referrals were all positive outcomes of this approach. Students benefited through increased mastery of unit objectives, continuity of expectations, and a more focused effort to meet the individual needs of every student.

## Conclusion

Consultative models offer a win-win situation. When teachers work together to provide language rich experiences, students and teachers alike benefit. Since content area teachers may be ill-prepared to "teach" language or even recognize student's language-learning needs because of a lack of training in language pedagogy, language teachers become pedagogical resources for mainstream teachers who are willing to assume some responsibility for treating students' language needs (Snow, et al., 1989, Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992). Over the past several years there has been a renewed interest in language education that integrates language and content instruction for second language learners (Hudelson, 1989). Language-across-the curriculum has been advocated for some time for native speakers of English (Anderson, Eisenberg, Holland, Weiner & Rivera-Kron, 1983).

This integrated approach to language teaching and content area instruction provides opportunities for collaboration between classroom teachers and ESL/BLE teachers. Cummins (1980, 1981) provided theoretical impetus for considering the integration of language and content instruction. Working cooperatively, the mainstream teacher and language teachers thus pinpoint the linguistic needs of the learner and plan jointly to meet these needs (Snow et al., 1989). These educators benefit from increased communication with specialists that results in a clearer focus on individual student needs. Classroom teachers benefit by increasing their skills and expertise so that they can more effectively work with second language learners who are placed in their classrooms.

Consultative models offer opportunities for development of an atmosphere of mutual trust, sharing, acceptance and confidence.

Students benefit from the increased communication between the special area teachers and regular education teachers. Collaboration provides a more coherent developmental program for second language students. There are fewer inappropriate referrals and placements to special education. Problems that arise are quickly addressed. Appropriate second language strategies are modeled and implemented to assist students in content area classes. Student learning is increased due to attention to individual needs and learning styles.

It is time to tear down the walls that have separated teachers for so long. Collaborative interdisciplinary models should be a major consideration for BLE/ESL programs of the 1990's. As the numbers of second language learners in our schools increase and resources decrease, the need for collaboration becomes more evident.

## References

Anderson, J. R., Eisenberg, N., Holland, J., Weiner, H. S. , & Rivera-Kron, C. (1983). Integrated skills reinforcement: Reading, writing, speaking, and listening across the curriculum. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Algozzine, B., Ysseldyke, J. E., & Christenson, S. (1983). An analysis of the incidence of special class placement: The masses are burgeoning. Journal of Special Education, 17, 141-147.

Brown, D., Wyne, M. D., Blackburn, J. E., & Powell, W. C. (1979). Consultation: Strategy for improving education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Cummins, J. (1980). The exit and entry fallacy of bilingual education. NABE Journal, 4(3), 25-29.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Engelhardt, L., Sulzer, B., & Alterpruse, M. (1971). The counselor as a consultant in elementary out of seat behavior. Elementary School Counseling and Guidance, 5, 196-204.

Faltis, C. J. (1993). Joinfostering: Adapting Teaching Strategies for the Multilingual Classroom. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Fradd, S. H. (1992). Collaboration in schools serving students with limited English proficiency and other special needs. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 352 847).

Friend M., & Bauwens, J. (1988). Managing resistance: An essential consulting skill for learning disabilities teachers. Journal of Learning disabilities, 21(9), 556-561.

Gersten, R. (1990). Enemies real and imagined: Implications of "teachers' thinking about instruction" for collaboration between special and general education. Remedial and Special Education, 11(6), 50-53.

Graden J. L., Casey, A., & Christenson, S. L. (1985). Implementing a prereferral intervention system: Part I the model. Exceptional Children, 51(5), 377-384.

Graden J. L., Casey, A., & Bonstrom, D. (1985). Implementing a prereferral intervention system: Part II the data. Exceptional Children, 51(6), 487-496.

Hamayan, E. V. (1990). Preparing mainstream classroom teachers to teach potentially English proficient students. In Proceedings of the First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficients' Issues (pp. 1-22). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education & Minority Languages Affairs.

Hudelson, S. (1989). Teaching English through content-area activities. In P. Rigg & V. Allen, (Ed.). When They Don't All Speak English. (pp. 139-152). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Hudelson, S. (1989). "Teaching" English through content-area activities. In P. Rigg & V. Allen, (Eds.). When They Don't All Speak English. (pp. 139-152) Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Huefner, D. S. (1988). The consulting teacher model: risks and opportunities. Exceptional Children, 54, 403-414.

Idol-Maestas, L., & Ritter, S. (1985). A follow-up study of resource consulting teachers. Teacher Education and Special Education, 8(3), 121-131.

Neel, R. S. (1981). How to put the consultant to work in consulting teaching. Behavioral Disorders, 6, 78-81.

Palmo, A. J., & Kuznair, J. (1972). Modification of behavior through group counseling and consultation. Elementary School Counseling and Consultation, 6, 255-262.

Pugach, M. C., & Johnson, L. (1988). Rethinking the Relationship Between Consultation and Collaborative Problem-Solving. Focus on Exceptional Children, 21(4), 1-7.

Randolph, D. L., & Saba, R. G. (1973). Changing behavior through modeling and consultation. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 8, 98-106.

Reschly, D. J. (1988). Minority MMR overrepresentation and special education reform. Exceptional Children, 54, 316-323.

Richard-Amato, P. A. (1988). Making it happen: Interaction in the second language classroom: from theory to practice. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Richard-Amato, A., & Snow, M. A. (1992). Strategies for content area teachers. In A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), The Multicultural Classroom (pp. 145-163). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Snow, M. A., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1989). A conceptual framework for integration of language and content instruction in second/foreign language instruction. TESOL Quarterly, 23(2), 201- 217.

Snow, M. A., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1992). Language minority students in multicultural classrooms. In A. Richard- Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), The Multicultural Classroom. (pp. 5-15). White Plains, NY: Longman.

# VALUED YOUTH PROGRAM: DROPOUT PREVENTION STRATEGIES FOR AT-RISK YOUTH

**María Robledo Montecel**
**Josie D. Supik**
**Aureli Montemayor**

**Abstract**

This article presents the findings of the Valued Youth Program, a national research and demonstration project funded from 1988 to 1990 by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual and Minority Language Affairs. The Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA), in collaboration with school district personnel, developed this instructional program in an effort to reduce dropout rates among middle school children who are limited-English-proficient and at risk of leaving school. Researchers found that tutors stayed in school, improved their reading grades, increased their self-pride, and developed a better attitude toward school and teachers. The NABE 1992 presentation was based on this research which was guided by Dr. José A. Cárdenas as executive director of IDRA. Dr. Richard Harris was responsible for the statistical design.

## Introduction

In the mid-1960s, Dr. José Cárdenas, one of this country's pioneers in bilingual education, was superintendent of the Edgewood Independent School District in San Antonio, Texas. He struggled to erase the inequities between wealthy and poor school districts. It was his conviction that the children in his district who were primarily poor, minority and limited-English-proficient, had the same right to a quality education as children in the wealthiest districts. He believed it was the school's obligation to provide such an education to all children regardless of their parents' wealth or ethnicity.

In his struggle towards improving the educational opportunities for all children, especially the poor, minority and limited-English-proficient, Dr. Cárdenas sought ways in which educators would realize the tremendous potential and contributions of these children. It was in this context that the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program was born. The idea was to take secondary students who were considered "at risk" of dropping out of school and train them to become tutors of elementary school children. These "at risk" children then became "valued youth."

What began as one man's idea twenty-five years ago in a single school district in San Antonio, Texas has grown to a cross-age tutoring program in thirty secondary schools across the country. The program is internationally recognized for its effectiveness in reducing students' dropout rates and improving their grades, self-esteem, disciplinary action rates, and attendance rates.

This article presents the genesis and evolution of this program as it was developed and nurtured at the Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) and the research that shaped it.

## Background, Foundation and Theoretical Framework

IDRA's 1988 study on the under education of American youth demonstrated that children from non-English language backgrounds are 1.5 times more likely to leave school before high school graduation than those from English language backgrounds. Among Hispanics born in the United States, a non-English language background increases the chances of leaving school before graduating from high school. (Cárdenas, Robledo, and Waggoner, 1988).

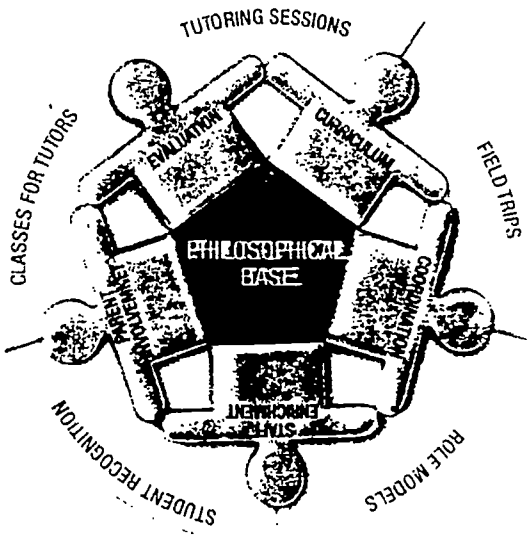
English-proficient children, they often failed to address the needs, characteristics, and strengths of the potential dropout. (Robledo, et al., 1986). In reviewing the research literature on effective programs for children at risk of dropping out, IDRA identified the following *critical elements* of an effective program. These critical elements served as the foundation for the Coca-Cola Valued Youth model:

- Provide appropriate bilingual instruction for limited-English-proficient students (Cordasco, 1976; Hakuta, 1986),
- Develop students' higher-order thinking skills (Brandt, 1988; Pogrow, 1988; Rose, 1987)
- Provide accelerated learning for disadvantaged students (Levin, 1987).
- Incorporate a cross-age tutoring component which places the at-risk student as tutor ("Big Kids", 1987; Hedin, 1987; Robledo, Cortez, & Penny-Velázquez, 1989).
- Provide programmatic activities designed to enrich, expand, extend and apply the content and skills learned in the classroom (Robledo, et al., 1989).
- Establish or encourage school-business partnerships that provide both financial resources or job opportunities and human resources as role models (Hispanic Policy Development Project, 1984).
- Increase student recognition of their accomplishments and talents (Canfield and Wells, 1980; Ochoa, Hurtado, Espinosa and Zachman, 1987), and encourage student leadership and participation (Moody, 1987).
- Involve parents in school activities that are meaningful and contribute to their empowerment (Cummins, 1986).
- Conduct and utilize evaluation of student learning for modification and improvement purposes (Coleman, 1982; Loucks and Zacchie, 1983; Madaus and Pullin, 1987).
- Plan for staff development in a cooperative manner (Crandall, 1983; Lowcks-Horsley and Hergert, 1985), and design campus activities with the curriculum and student needs in mind (Dorman, 1984; Levin, 1987; Raffini, 1986).
- Exhibit strong leadership that supports success (Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985), collaborates and establishes educational goals (Landon and Shirer, 1986; Sparks, 1983).
- Create a curriculum that incorporates self-paced and individualized instruction (Bickel, Bond, & LeMahieu, 1986; National Foundation for the Improvement of Education [NFIE], 1986), uses cooperative learning and whole language approaches.

Coca-Cola Valued Youth Model

The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program (VYP) has six goals for "at-risk" students: (a) reduce dropout rates, (b) enhance students' basic academic skills, (c) strengthen students' perception of self and school, (d) decrease student truancy, (e) reduce student disciplinary referrals, and (f) form school-home-community partnerships to increase the level of support available to students. School districts across the country have slightly varying definitions of "at risk" youth, the characteristics of the "at risk" student often include: (1) reading below grade level, (2) a higher than average absenteeism rates, (3) a higher than average disciplinary action rates, (4) limited English proficiency, (5) of a minority background, and (6) poor. This program's model (shown in Figure 1) turns perceived liabilities into strengths, remediation into acceleration, and "at-risk" students into valued youth. The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program creates these transformations through instructional and support strategies that pivot around a time-tested concept: youth tutoring youth.

Figure 1: Intervention Model




The program's success is based on the idea of valuing "at-risk" children—those with the potential of dropping out—by placing them in positions of responsibility, as tutors of younger students. The tutors also receive a minimum wage stipend for participation in the program.

The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program is based on seven important tenets:

1. All students can learn.
2. All students are valued by the school.
3. All students can actively contribute to their own education and that of others.

4. All students, parents and teachers have a right to participate fully in creating and maintaining excellent schools.
5. Excellence in schools contributes to individual and collective economic growth, stability, and advancement.
6. Commitment to educational excellence is created by including students, parents, and teachers in setting goals, making decisions, monitoring progress, and evaluating outcomes.
7. Students, parents and teachers must be provided extensive, consistent support in ways that allow students to learn, teachers to teach and parents to be involved.

In 1984, Coca-Cola USA awarded $400,000 to IDRA to design, develop, and evaluate the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program. Between 1984-1888, IDRA implemented the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program in five school districts in San Antonio, Texas. Approximately 525 secondary school tutors and 1,575 elementary school tutees participated in the program during these years of Coca-Cola USA funding.

Building on this experience and using evaluation results which indicated that the program had an observable positive effect (Cárdenas, Sosa, Johnson, C., & Johnson, R.L., 1988), IDRA refined the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program and began implementation in 1988 with support from the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA). As a two-year research and demonstration project, IDRA designed and developed the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program, and researched its effects on 101 Hispanic, limited-English-proficient middle school students in two San Antonio, Texas school districts. Both districts had low property wealth and high concentrations of Hispanic, limited-English-proficient students.

## Research Design

While there were a number of questions which guided the research design, the three most relevant for this discussion are:

1. How is the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program actually implemented at each site?
2. Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth program have an effect on the dropout rate of the tutors when compared to the dropout rate of the comparison group?
3. Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program have an effect on the tutor's academic achievement, self-concept, attitude toward school, attendance and disciplinary record?

A quasi-experimental research design was used to answer each of these questions. Pretest data were collected for treatment and comparison students before tutoring began (Baseline - 1988), during implementation, and at the end of the first and second program years (Year 1 - 1989 and Year 2 - 1990, respectively).

A total of 101 tutors and 93 comparison group students were selected on the basis of two criteria: (1) limited English proficiency as defined by the State of Texas guidelines and (2) reading below grade level on a standardized achievement test. The State of Texas identifies limited-English-proficient students through the use of (1) a Home Language Survey which determines the language normally used in the home and by the student, (2) an oral language proficiency test which

determines proficiency in English, and (3) State approved standardized achievement tests (TEA Time and Treatment Guidelines, Spring 1986).

Both the tutors and the comparison group were selected from the same pool of "at-risk" students. Random selection from the same pool was done for the purpose of minimizing differences between the tutor and comparison group, thus decreasing the number of confounding variables in post-test comparisons. There were no Baseline differences between the tutors and the comparison group on age, average grade in reading, quality of school life and self-concept scores, ethnicity and retention. This provided the basis for rejecting rival hypotheses as part of the quasi-experimental design of the project. The only significant difference between groups was with lunch eligibility; tutors were poorer than the comparison group, a fact that only increased the likelihood of their dropping out.

## Methods

Instruments and Procedures. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected on participants at the Baseline Year, and Years 1 and 2. Methodological and standardization rigor was maintained throughout the development of protocols for data collection. Qualitative measures included monthly journals for tutors, tutor surveys, and focus group interviews conducted with teacher/coordinators and counselors from each of the four participating campuses at the end of the first and second years of implementation (May 1989 and May 1990). Elementary school representatives also participated in the interviews in May 1990. Case study interviews were conducted with the tutors at the end of Year 2 (May 1990). These interviews generated important information on the roles and responsibilities of participants and the strengths and weaknesses of the program. With this formative information, refinements to the program were made the second year. The following measures were used to answer each of the research questions:

1. How is the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program actually implemented at each site?
   Measure(s): (a) Monitoring, Documentation, and Evaluations of all Interventions
   (b) Formal On-Site Observations
2. Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth program have an effect on the dropout rate of the tutors when compared to the dropout rate of the comparison group?
   Measure(s): Enrollment Figures for the Tutors and Comparison Group (using the state dropout definition)

Student records of each of the tutors and the comparison group students were accessible to both IDRA and the individual teacher/coordinators and were kept up-to-date by the school registrar. Withdrawals were noted by the school registrar as were any subsequent requests for transcripts. As the end of June 1990, any student who had withdrawn from school and for whom there was no evidence in the registrar's office of a request for transcript from another school was defined as a "dropout" by the school and IDRA. A student is defined as a dropout by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) if he or she "is absent for a period of 30 or more consecutive school days without approved excuse or documented transfer from

the public secondary school (grades 7-12) in which he or she is enrolled; or if the student fails to re-enroll during the first 30 consecutive school days in the following semester or school year without completion of a high school program. Documentation for approved excuses or transfers [is accepted only] under standards set by the [Texas] commissioner of education" (W. N. Kirby, personal communication, January 26, 1988). In other words, students who withdrew from school and for whom no requests for transcripts were made by another school as of June 1990 were considered "dropouts."

3. Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program have an effect on the tutor's academic achievement, self-concept, attitude toward school, attendance and disciplinary record?

   Measure(s): (a) Disciplinary Action Referrals (number of actions against the student that are disciplinary in nature, as defined by each district;
   (b) Grades (class grades given by teachers in particular subjects, range: 0-100).

Reading grades given to tutors and comparison group students every six weeks by their reading teachers were averaged by school staff for each of the three school years: 1987-1988 (Baseline), 1988-1989 (Program Year 1) and 1989-1990 (Program Year 2). The average grades were then recorded on the individual student records by school staff. Grades were assigned on the basis of classwork and unit tests, (A=90-100; B=89-80; C=79-75; D=74-70; F= 69 or less). Schools provided IDRA access to student records and IDRA staff recorded the average reading grades from each of the three time periods.

(c) Minimum Competency Tests (Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills, TEAMS, measures student competency in mathematics, reading, writing at grades 1,3,5,7 and 9 and in mathematics and English language arts at grade 11/12; Possible Ranges: 0-999.

(d) Achievement Test Scores (standardized achievement scores as normal curve equivalents; Possible Range: 1-99). Normal curve equivalents are based on an equal interval scale. The normal curve is represented on a scale of 1 to 99 with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 21).

(e) Absentee Rates (number of days absent from school as defined and recorded by each district).

(f) Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (an 80-item, self-administered questionnaire designed to assess how children and adolescents feel about themselves; Possible Range: 0-80). (Piers-Harris, 1984).

Self-concept was measured with the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale - a self-administered, 80-item questionnaire designed to assess how children and adolescents feel about themselves. It is possible to score 0 to 80 on the scale. The normative mean is 51.84 with a standard deviation of 13.87. This was derived from a sample of 1,183 school children in grades 4-12 from a public

school system in a small Pennsylvania town (Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Revised Manual, 1984). The counselor at each school administered the instrument to the tutors and comparison group students before the program began, at the end of Program Year 1 (1989) and Program Year 2 (1990).

(g) Quality of School Life Scale

Attitudes toward school were measured with the Quality of School Life Scale - a self-administered, 27-item questionnaire designed to measure student reactions to school, their classwork and their teachers. It is possible to score 0 to 27 on the scale. The mean lower limit for seventh graders is 10.86 while the mean upper limit is 13.56. These normative ranges are based on estimates of the distribution of averages of groups of a specified size (in this case, N=100), drawn randomly from the research sample of individuals. The Quality of School Life Scale is a widely used instrument with a significant body of research citing its reliability and validity. (The Quality of School Life Scale, Administration and Technical Manual, 1978). The counselor at each school administered the instrument to the tutors and comparison group students before the program began, at the end of Program Year 1 (1989) and Program Year 2 (1990). Each counselor was trained in instrument administration by IDRA staff before administering any instruments. A set of research protocols was developed for each instrument and their adherence monitored by IDRA staff in order to assure quality control.

Results

**(1) How is the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program actually implemented at each site?**

Through *monitoring, documentation, and evaluations of all interventions and formal on-site observations*, actual implementation of the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program incorporated instructional and support strategies. The instructional strategy incorporated five major components:

Component 1: Classes for Student Tutors.

Classes were planned and taught by the teacher coordinator once a week in order to develop and enhance the students' tutoring skills; these skills included

(a) developing tutoring skills which would enable them to become successful student tutors;
(b) improving reading, writing and other subject matter skills enabling them to teach these skills to elementary school students; and
(c) developing self-awareness and pride.

Component 2: Tutoring Sessions.

After a two-week observation period in the elementary classroom during which students made note of discipline techniques, classroom management systems and materials use, they began tutoring a minimum of four hours per week. The student tutors, who received the federal minimum wage for their efforts, were expected to adhere to the employee guidelines of their host school. Their primary responsibility was to work in a one to three ratio with tutees. Each tutor was treated as an adult, with adult responsibilities, but was also provided teacher supervision and support.

Component 3: Field Trips.

Field trips were designed to expose students to economic and cultural opportunities in their local community. Through at least two planned field trips

throughout the year, students expanded their horizons beyond the classroom and recognized the interrelationship between schooling and the wider community.

Component 4: Role Models.

An important component of the program involved the identification of adults who were considered successful in their fields and who represented students' ethnic background(s). One powerful kind of modeling can be provided by a person who overcame serious barriers to survival and success.

Component 5: Student Recognition.

Students were acknowledged for their efforts and contributions made while fulfilling their responsibilities as tutors. Throughout the year, students were invited on field trips with their tutees, received media attention and were honored at a luncheon or supper. Students experienced, through these events, the importance of their tutoring to the school and the district.

The five major components of the instructional strategy required a parallel set of activities and functions in support of the program and included the following:

Component 1: Curriculum.

The primary goal of the base curriculum was meeting the needs of the tutors. Its objectives were improving the students' self-concept, tutoring skills and literacy skills. The curriculum offers an opportunity for praxis—an ongoing interplay between the action (tutoring) and reflection.

Component 2: Coordination.

Coordination provided a planned and structured design. This was crucial to establishing and continuing educational as well as program goals, objectives, and activities. An implementation team with clear definition of roles was imperative to the success of the program.

Component 3: Staff Enrichment.

The goal of staff enrichment was to create a cohesive group that was dedicated and committed to success, and that had high expectations for the students and their peers.

Component 4: Parental Involvement.

Empowering minority and disadvantaged students required involving parents in meaningful school activities. Activities with parents included a meeting to enlist their understanding and support for the program's goals. A vigorous personal outreach plan was also implemented in which a culturally-sensitive, bilingual outreach person visited parents' homes, especially those without a phone or who had not participated in parent activities.

Component 5: Evaluation.

Program evaluation served (1) to monitor VYP operations and develop on-course corrective action as needed, and (2) to document the results of VYP implementation. Both quantitative and qualitative measures previously mentioned were used to gauge student progress.

**(2) Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth program significantly reduce the dropout rate of participating student tutors as compared to the dropout rate of the comparison group?**

Using the *enrollment figures and the state definition for "dropout,"* one tutor out of 101 (1%) dropped out of school towards the end of the two-year Valued Youth Program. Eleven students of the 93 comparison group students (12%)

also dropped out as of June 1990. These results are comparable to the results for the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program implemented from 1984 to 1988. In that program, 13 (2.5%) of the tutors dropped out of school.

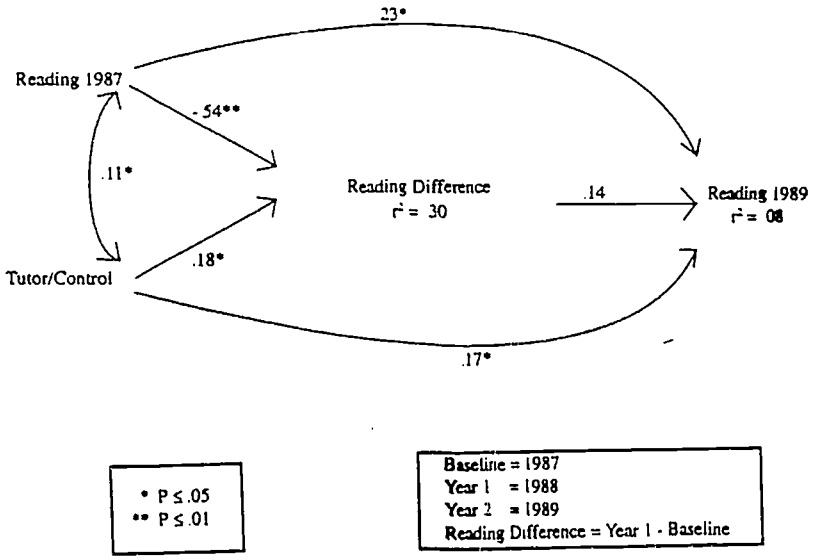
**(3) Did the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program have an effect on the tutor's academic achievement, self-concept, attitude toward school, attendance and disciplinary record?**

a. Disciplinary Action Referrals (number of actions against the student that are disciplinary in nature, as defined by each district): No disciplinary records were available at Baseline, thus making a matched case analysis across time impossible. However, from Year 1 to Year 2, tutors lowered their mean disciplinary referral rate from 3.2 to 2.0, while the comparison group raised their from 2.5 to 2.9.

b. Grades (class grades given by teachers in particular subjects, range: 0-100): When compared to the comparison group, tutors in the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program achieved higher reading grades after participation in the program.

A two-step multiple regression analysis procedure was employed to determine the effect of the program on change in reading grades from the Baseline year (1987) to Year 1 (1988) and on final reading performance in Year 2 (1989). The two regression equations provide all of the coefficients necessary to complete the path analysis model as illustrated in Figure 2; the path model clearly shows that the Valued Youth Program has a significant positive effect on reading grades. The students in the tutor group experienced an increase in reading grades between 1987 and 1988, and being in the tutor group is also related to significantly higher reading grades in 1989.

Figure 2: Path Model for Average Reading Grades



Focusing on reading differences, the tutors gained nearly three points more than the comparison group on the reading grade between 1987 and 1988, controlling for the initial 1987 reading grade. By 1989 the tutors scored nearly three points higher than the comparison group again even when the reading difference between 1987 and 1988 and the base year reading grades are included in the regression analyses.

The small correlation (.23) that exists between 1987 and 1989 reading grades appeared counter-intuitive and not consistent with other research in reading. In order to examine this phenomenon further, the data were desegregated by tutor and comparison group and correlations between 1987 and 1989 reading grades by group were generated. The data indicate that among comparison students reading grades are correlated positively (.25, $p < .05$ ); among tutors, baseline reading grades (1987) and post-treatment grades (1989) are not correlated. Coupled with the regression analyses presented earlier, these data suggest that participation in the Valued Youth Program creates a departure from the predicted performance of students. The consistency of assigned grades that would be expected for poor performing students is broken and reading grades improve significantly for tutors over each of the two years.

c. Minimum Competency Tests (Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills, TEAMS, measures student competency in mathematics, reading, writing at grades 1,3,5,7 and 9 and in mathematics and English language arts at grade 11/12; Possible Ranges: 0-999): At the end of Year 1, the comparison group scored higher than the tutors in all three subtests. No TEAMS tests were administered in Year 2.

d. Achievement Test Scores (standardized achievement scores as normal curve equivalents; Possible Range: 1-99): Normal curve equivalents are based on an equal interval scale. The normal curve is represented on a scale of 1 to 99 with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 21).

At the end of Year 1, tutors had higher normal curve equivalents (NCE) means than the comparison group for mathematics (41.9 vs. 40.6), language (37.4 vs. 37.3), science (34.1 vs. 33.6), and the composite score (35.5 vs. 35.1). At the end of Year 2, tutors had a higher mean NCE than the comparison group for reading (29.8 vs. 29.4), language (35.7 vs. 34.7), mathematics (40.5 vs. 37.4) and the composite score (34.5 vs. 33.2). The comparison group scored higher than the tutors in science (35.4 vs. 35.2) and social studies (36.6 vs. 34.4).

e. Absentee Rates (number of days absent from school as defined and recorded by each district): At Baseline, tutors had a higher mean absentee rate than the comparison group (8.1 vs. 7.3). However, while tutors lowered their mean absentee rate to 7.6 at the end of Year 1, the comparison group raised their mean absentee rate to 8.9 ($p=.06$). At the end of Year 2, tutors raised their mean absentee rate to 8.4 while the comparison group lowered theirs to 7.0. It should also be noted that the comparison group of students who left school had the highest mean absentee rate of all groups — 14.7 at Baseline and 12.4 at Year 1.

f. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (an 80-item, self-administered questionnaire designed to assess how children and adolescents feel about themselves; Possible Range: 0-80): When compared to the comparison group, tutors in the

Valued Youth Program had a higher self-concept as a result of their participation in the program.

A two-step multiple regression analysis procedure was employed to determine the effect of the program on change on self-concept scores from the Baseline year (1987) to Year 1 (1988) and on self-concept scores in Year 2 (1989).

The fact that there is no direct influence of tutoring on the 1989 self-concept score suggests a threshold effect in which the self-concept gains are achieved largely in the first year. The strong positive influence of self-concept change from 1987 to 1988 on self-concept scores in 1989 suggests that the initial influence of the Valued Youth Program is maintained during the second year.

The tutors gained four points on the self-concept scale over the comparison group. Between 1987 and 1988, these results are consistent with other program findings. Teacher/coordinators, when asked to rate the individual tutors on self-concept at each of the three time periods, had consistently higher ratings at each time period. The teacher/coordinators rated seventy-six percent (76%) of the tutors' self-concept very positively/positively at Baseline; that increased to 83% at Program Year 1; and 87% at Year 2.

g. Quality of School Life Scale (a self-administered 27-item questionnaire which measures student reactions to school, their classwork and their teachers; Possible Range: 0-27): Tutors in the Valued Youth Program had a better attitude toward school as a result of their participation in the program than their counterparts in the comparison group.

As with reading grades and self-concept scores, a two-step multiple regression analysis procedure was employed to determine the effect of the program on change on quality of school life scores from the Baseline year (1987) to Year 1 (1988) and on quality of school life scores in Year 2 (1989). In this case, the tutors had a significantly greater increase in QSL scores between 1987 and 1988. The fact that there is no direct influence of tutoring on the 1989 QSL score suggests a threshold effect in which the QSL gains are achieved largely in the first year. The strong positive influence of QSL change from 1987 to 1988 on QSL scores in 1989 suggests that the initial influence of the Valued Youth Program is maintained during the second year. Between 1987 and 1988, the tutors gained over three points more on the QSL scale than the comparison group.

As with the self-concept ratings, teacher coordinators' ratings of their tutors' attitudes toward school also increased after participation in the program. A Friedman test on Baseline, end of Year 1 and end of Year 2 data yielded significant Baseline to Year 2 increases for tutors' interest in academics ($p=.03$), class ($p=.001$), and school ($p=.01$), their ability to socialize with the school environment ($p=.05$), their desire to graduate ($p=.04$), and their relationship with teachers ($p=.008$).

The qualitative measures including the case study interviews added another dimension to the study which the quantitative measures may not show as powerfully.

"Manuel" is a 15 year old eighth grader at Middle School #4. He was retained twice in school. He lives at home with his parents and a 12 year old sister in the fifth grade. His two older sisters are 24 and 25 and have been married for a year and a half. Both of his older sisters graduated from high school and have had 2-3 years of college. They left college to work.

Manuel's parents were both born in the U.S. and have been married for 25 years. Manuel's father is a janitor at a department store and his mother works full-time as a seamstress. Learning both languages is encouraged although Spanish is spoken more often in the home than English.

At the end of Year 1, Manuel had improved his average grade in English from 79 to 82. His TEAMS reading score also improved from 810 to 838. His achievement test NCE scores improved for reading (30 to 37) and composite (32 to 41).

At the end of Year 2, Manuel had increased his average reading grade from 70 to 83 and maintained his English average - 82. His achievement test scores improved in reading (37 to 39), language (29 to 41), science (23 to 32), social studies (23 to 42) and composite (41 to 44).

At the end of Year 1, Manuel's self-concept score went from 64 to 73 and his QSL score went from 22 to 24.

Manuel's parents and older sisters encourage him to finish school. Since being in Valued Youth, Manuel also believes it is important that he graduate; "...if they don't finish school, they're going to have a tough time going through life. And I know because all my cousins have dropped out of school....They don't have a job....They go through tough times. And I don't want my sisters or myself to go through that."

Manuel tutored fifth graders in Year 1 and two third grade girls in Year 2. He believes he's made a difference in the lives of his tutees, "their attitudes toward their teachers and coming to school and doing their homework....They have a lot of positive attitudes toward other things...." Manuel wants his tutees to finish school and have a good job; "...I care for them. It's bad for people to see Hispanics drop out. I just get sick every time I hear that."

Making a difference in their lives had an effect on Manuel as well, "It makes me feel glad because I know that I helped them out and accomplished what I was supposed to accomplish in this program."

Manuel believes his teachers treat him differently than the other students because of his involvement in Valued Youth, "...they [teachers] treat you like they have more respect for you, not like some other students...they know that you're in the program...they should respect you more than the other kind, because we have experience...two years helping out the little kids...."

Manuel saves half of the stipend for college; "I want to keep on saving it. Hopefully, some day if I have to go to college and pay my own way then I'll just use it for college." So far he has $300.00 in his savings account at the bank. He used the other half of the money to buy gifts for his family.

He believes Valued Youth improved his behavior, as well. He has a better relationship with his teachers and principal, "...now I know they're there to help us." His relationship with his parents has also improved, "...I used to fight with them a lot and now I get along with them like I'm supposed to. We don't argue anymore, well, sometimes over little things...I used to go out a lot...now I don't. I wouldn't do those things no more [sic]."

After Year 1, Manuel enrolled in a junior police academy. This special program, offered by the local police academy, takes teenagers interested in a future in law enforcement, ages 15 to 21, and offers them initial police training. Occasionally Manuel walks the malls with security officers. Manuel sees him-

self going to college and working in law enforcement. He wants a wife and children some day and to own house.

## Conclusions

The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program was specifically designed to transform "at risk" students into "valued youth." Results from this two-year research and demonstration project show that the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program transformed Hispanic, limited-English-proficient students who were deemed at risk of dropping out into valued youth whose contributions to younger children were recognized and celebrated. The measurable results included a lower dropout rate, an improvement in their reading grades, their self-esteem and attitudes toward school.

The research findings from this study resulted in the U.S. Department of Education's Program Effectiveness Panel's approval of the program for inclusion in the National Diffusion Network (NDN); the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program remains the only Title VII funded program to be approved for the NDN.

After a period of research-based refinement, the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program continues to maintain the same critical elements and methodological rigor. IDRA recognizes this is critical if the program's integrity is to be maintained as it expands exponentially. In 1990 the Coca-Cola Foundation awarded IDRA $1.325 million to replicate the program in five secondary schools across the country. Three years later, the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program is being implemented in thirty secondary schools across the country, impacting over 800 middle and high school tutors and 2400 elementary tutees from Montana to New York to California to Florida. The valued youth selected for the program continue to be minority, poor, and limited-English-proficient. Most are Hispanic and most continue to benefit from the program as IDRA's evaluation has shown.

## References

Big kids teach little kids: What we know about cross-age tutoring. (1987). The Harvard Education Letter, 3(2), 1-4.

Bickel, W. E., Bond, L., & LeMahieu, P. (1986). Students at risk of not completing high school. Pittsburgh, PA: Pittsburgh Foundation.

Brandt, R. (Ed.). (1988). Teaching thinking throughout the curriculum. Educational Leadership, 45(7), 4-6.

Canfield, J., & Wells, H. C. (1980). 100 ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom: A handbook for teachers and parents. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Cárdenas, J. A., Robledo, M. R., & Waggoner, D. (1988). The Undereducation of American Youth. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

Cárdenas, J. A., Sosa, A. S., Johnson, C., & Johnson, R. L. (1988). Valued Youth Partnership Dropout Prevention Program. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association

Coleman, G. J. (1982). Identifying and addressing student needs: Using and reporting test results. Monograph No. 2, Steps in the Right Direction. Lansing, MI: Michigan State Board of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 246 116).

Cordasco, F. (Ed.). (1976). Bilingual schooling in the United States: A sourcebook for educational personnel. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Crandall, D. P. (1983). The teacher's roles in schools' improvement. Educational Leadership, 41, 6-9.

Cummins, J. (1986). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. Harvard Educational Review, 56(1), 18-36.

Dorman, G. (1984). Middle grades assessment program. Carrobron, NC: Center for Early Adolescence.

Epstein, J. L., & McPartland, J.M. (1977). QSL: Quality of School Life Scale. Chicago: Riverside Publishing Company.

Hakuta, K. (1986). Mirror of language: the debate on bilingualism. New York: Basic Books.

Harris, D. B., & Piers, E. V. (1984, revised edition). The Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scale. Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services.

Hedin, D. (1987). Students as teachers: A tool for improving schools' climate and productivity. Social Policy, 17(3), 42-47.

Hispanic Policy Development Project, Inc. (1984). Make something happen, Vol. II. New York: National Commission on Secondary Education for Hispanics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 253 598).

Landon, G. L., & Shirer, W. R. (1986). A practical approach to school improvement. Educational Leadership, 44, 73-75.

Levin, H. M. (1987). Accelerated schools for disadvantaged students. Educational Leadership, 44(6), 73-75.

Lezotte, L. W., & Bancroft, B. A. (1985). School improvement based on effective schools research: A promising approach for economically disadvantaged minority students. Journal of Negro Education, 54, 301-312.

Loucks, S. F., & Zacchie, D. A. (1983). Applying our findings to today's innovation. Educational Leadership, 41, 28-34.

Lowcks-Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. F. (1985). An action guide to school improvement. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Madaus, G. F., & Pullin, D. (1987). Questions to ask when evaluating a high-stakes testing program. Boston: National Coalition of Advocates for Students.

Moody, K. (1987). Goals for youth: A life skills goal setting model. New York: State Bureau of Migrant Education.

National Foundation for the Improvement of Education. (1986). Blueprint for success. Washington, DC: Author.

Ochoa, A. M., Hurtado, J., Espinosa, R. W., & Zachman, J. (1987). The empowerment of all students: A framework for the prevention of school dropouts. San Diego, CA: Institute for Cultural Pluralism, San Diego State University.

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Revised Manual, 1984.

Quality of School Life Scale, Administration and Technical Manual, 1978.

Pogrow, S. (1988). Teaching thinking to at-risk elementary students. Educational Leadership, 45, 79-85.

Raffini, J. P. (1986). Student apathy: A motivational dilemma. Educational Leadership, 44, 53-56.

Robledo, M. R., Cárdenas, J. A., Supik, J. D., Cortez, A., Johnson, R. L., Ladogana, A., Ramirez, D. G., & Waggoner, D. (1986). The Texas school dropout survey project: A summary of findings. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

Robledo, M. R., Cortez, A., & Penny-Velázquez, M. (1989). The Answer: Valuing Youth in schools and families. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

Rose, C. (1987). Accelerated learning. New York: Dell.

Sparks, G. M. (1983). Synthesis of research on staff development for effective teaching. Educational Leadership, 41, 65-72.

# BILINGUAL TECHNOLOGY EQUALIZES OPPORTUNITIES IN ELEMENTARY CLASSROOMS

**Angela Mielke**
**Chencho Flores**

**Abstract**

The learning context of our schools must adapt to our changing world, from one in which students are receptacles to be filled by the teacher, to a student-centered learning environment where teachers are coaches. Technology is a significant source to aid schools in achieving instructional strategies which are meaningful, active, and sensory, connected to the real world, in which students are able to construct meaning from their learning and apply it to their lives. Availability of bilingual software, compact discs, and videodisks is increasing, providing needed assistance for equal instruction for the bilingual student.

## Introduction

As students enter a classroom, the teacher may wonder how best to give each of these wonderful beings what they need to be successful learners. The teacher's goal is that all students under his/her care be offered the best learning possible. With educational technology becoming available, teachers have new tools to enhance learning. The growing proliferation of technological tools in schools has made educational technology widely available to make possible an equal chance for all children to experience success in learning. Bilingual teachers have an added challenge with children who are Limited English Proficient/Limited English Speaking Abilities (LEP/LESA). Help and instruction for students should be provided in two languages. Quality bilingual products for computers, CD ROM and videodisk players, though not abundant, are becoming increasingly available. Teachers can utilize educational technology to assist in equalizing the education of all students. The aim is not to have high tech schools per se, but to use technology to enable students to become well-educated, productive citizens.

## Rationale For Bilingual Education

One might ask why LEP/LESA students need this extra resource since they represent a minority of children. The following statistics show how for example, the number of monolingual Spanish children is growing; therefore, the need for bilingual education becomes evident. Minority language children are growing in number. Due to immigration and the natural population increase, the number of Hispanic citizens in the United States continues to grow. Fourteen percent of the population aged five and over spoke a language other than English in 1990 compared with eleven percent in 1980 ("Census Reports," 1993). Spanish is the most common non-English language spoken with 54% of the language-minority population ("Census Reports, " 1993). In Texas, student

population overall rose 18% in the last decade, while the LEP population rose 53% (Texas Education Agency, 1992). Due to immigration and natural increase, the number of U.S. Spanish speakers will continue to grow. Spanish is spoken ten times more frequently than any other language and is the prevailing non-English language in 39 states and the District of Columbia ("Census Reports," 1993). According to an October 1993 report of the Projections Department of the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the Hispanic population is the fastest growing group and will total 34 million by the year 2003 (staff, personal communication, October 4, 1993). Of that total, 9 million will be between the ages of 5 & 18. However, only a bare majority of the native born citizens will be given Spanish as their first language (Texas Education Agency, 1992). The language shift from Spanish to English usually spans two to three generations (California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992). Continual immigration to the U.S., especially in border states, of Spanish-speaking families can be expected, particularly with the recent passage of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The increase in the market for Americans who are bilingual in English and Spanish, the major second language in the South Central Region of the United States, raises the opportunity for competent bilingual personnel to find jobs. Children who initially have limited English abilities have the opportunity to become *literate* in two languages through our public school educational system, if they are properly educated. In fact, some of the same technology discussed here can be used to teach monolingual *English* students how to speak *Spanish*.

## Bilingual Education Programs

Teachers must determine how best to teach their potentially bilingual children so they can learn as well as their majority English peers. Research has shown that bilingual education does not slow the process of language shift to English. Bilingual education should actually facilitate a smooth transition to English (California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992). Bilingual classes enable Hispanic children to maintain grade level development and avoid being held back, while at the same time learning English. Children are best served by programs that teach both Spanish and English, thereby simultaneously developing basic reading and computation skills. A holistic attitude toward preserving native culture, combined with an ever-increasing integration of English and a new culture, will best serve our immediate generations of students (California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992). Bilingual education can conceivably give students an advantage over the monolingual English child in the future. Bilingualism is a skill increasingly sought after by employers in the labor market.

### Effects of Segregation

Demographic studies of school enrollments done in 1989 demonstrate that Hispanic students of all backgrounds - Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Latin American - have become steadily more isolated in virtually all parts of the country since 1968. Evidence suggests that the isolation and segregation may result in detrimental effects. In addition, Hispanics have the highest dropout rate of

any ethnic group in this country. In 1989, one-half of all Mexican-American and Puerto Rican students did not graduate from high school. Furthermore, few Hispanic students are prepared for college in the way that many non-Hispanic students are. Low teacher expectations and assignment to non-college bound curriculum "tracks" often hinder the academic success of the Hispanic student (Wells, 1989).

Benefits of Bilingualism

Building a quality bilingual program with a solid foundation in what research has shown to be effective is imperative for giving non-English dominant children equal opportunities as their English speaking peers.

> research has shown that young children who live in supportive and nurturing bilingual environments do not develop linguistic handicaps....Bilingual children, both at early and late periods of development, do not differ significantly from monolinguals, with no significant differences on measures of vocabulary, phonological, or syntactic development....Bilingual children raised in supportive and nurturing environments demonstrate linguistic and cognitive advantages in comparison to monolingual children. (García, 1990).

Bilingual teachers who can build on the phonological and syntactic development of language facilitate students' learning. Bilingual education can be the means by which this occurs. Bilingual acquisition involves a process that builds on an underlying base for both languages. Naomi Baron, professor of linguistics at the American University in Washington, states that, "Children who know more than one language are significantly better at thinking about problems from more than one perspective, compared with children who are monolingual" (Kutner, 1992). Active cultivation of bilingual development is desirable for children. Bilingual language instruction that matches the natural social context of the child is recommended by research. "The better a child masters language in general, including related cognitive and social skills of effective communication in two languages, the better the child can master academics in English" (García, 1990).

Research also indicates that bilingual education programs can, if properly implemented, significantly enhance academic achievement in comparison to English only instructional programs (Lewelling, 1991). An integrated curriculum, responsive to the linguistic ability of students and implemented by trained bilingual teachers is needed. There is evidence that advanced bilingualism brings with it advanced cognitive development. Bilinguals outperform monolinguals on certain linguistic tasks, and on tasks involving cognitive flexibility and divergent thinking (García, 1990). Children should be made to feel that their bilingualism, like their biculturalism, is an academic asset, not something for which they or their families need to feel embarrassment. Such differences should be celebrated (García, 1990). Differences should be part of the building blocks of a curriculum that is sensitive to multiculturalism. These building blocks, in establishing cultural value and pride, can provide incentives for students to learn.

Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students

Students are sometimes mainstreamed into the regular classroom because they appear to communicate well in spoken English. Simply speaking well in English does not indicate that there is sufficient language proficiency for total English instruction. In English-only classrooms many LEP students "encounter difficulties understanding and completing schoolwork in the more cognitively demanding language needed for successful performance in academic subjects" (Lewelling, 1991). Basic proficiency needed in second language learning is often not adequate for successful learning. Language minority students either do not have exposure to or lack an understanding of the vocabulary and context-specific language needed to perform the more demanding tasks required in academic courses.

A study done by Lewelling in 1991 substantiates the need for bilingual education. The level of proficiency in the first language has a direct influence on the development of proficiency in the second language. The lack of continuing first language development has been found, in some cases, to inhibit the levels of second language proficiency and cognitive academic growth. The study also found that "native language proficiency is a strong indicator of second language development.... Cognitive maturity, knowledge, and experience in the first language transfers to the second language" (Lewelling, 1991). If learning to read means making sense of printed material, of understanding what is written, it is easier done in language and concepts already understood. Once one learns to read in the first language, mechanical knowledge of reading rapidly transfers to other languages acquired. "For academic achievement, it does not matter when second language learning begins, as long as cognitive development continues at least through age 12" (Lewelling, 1991). Instruction focusing on communication skills for only two or three years will often slow down LEP students two to three years to fall behind their English-speaking peers in school subjects. This is because linguistic skills needed for student success haven't been fully developed in the second language. Primary language instruction throughout elementary school years, "coupled with gradual introduction of the second language, seems to produce a consistent pattern of greater achievement in the second language at the end of 4-7 years of schooling....Cognitive skills and conceptual knowledge can be transferred from the native language to English" (Lewelling, 1991).

English as a Second Language (ESL)

Transferring skills into the second language is one of the aims of bilingual education. Time for this transfer to manifest itself is essential to meeting the needs of monolingual Spanish or other non-English speaking students. "By the year 2000, it is anticipated that the number of LEP students aged 5-14 in the U.S.A. will reach approximately 3.4 million" (McKeon, 1987). These will be students who may lack the necessary English skills for immediate success in an all-English curriculum. There are a number of different program structures to provide ESL instruction. Regardless of the program design, whether stand-alone ESL or ESL-plus, the minimal goal of an ESL program should be to provide

each student with the English skills necessary to function successfully in an academic setting. Successful programs have three ingredients in common:

1. High quality subject matter teaching in the first language, without translation.
2. Development of literacy in the first language.
3. Comprehensible input in English.
(California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992)

## Technological Opportunities

**Technology** is fast becoming the trend to help ensure that children learn. Many language minority children are not proficient in English and need whatever extra help is available to make sure they have equal educational opportunity as their English speaking peers. Due to the growing availability of personal computers, software in Spanish and English may now be utilized in the classroom to develop thinking skills and competence in academic areas. After the dominant language has been mastered, children can learn English in the most effective manner possible. A review of literature indicates that there are presently various software programs developed specifically for the language minority student. The bilingual student benefits from computer assisted learning because of the extra time, patience, interactivity, and feedback provided by this technology leading to more expedient and efficient learning. The motivational factor for the child in using computers is also very high. Multimedia software takes advantage of sound and graphic capabilities of computers, allowing the child to be exposed to learning in a variety of modalities. Learning style theories emphasize the importance of allowing the child to learn in his/her dominant modality.

Technology can help give students a rich linguistic environment that makes regular use of their bilingualism for academic purposes. An example of how recent technological innovation holds promise for teaching bilingual students is in auditory skill development. Auditory development is the basis for learning to speak a second language. A superior format for learning a language is delivered via Compact Disk Read Only Memory (CD ROM) players with their high-quality audio and storage capabilities. The enhanced audio provided by CD ROM technology and computers give learners a higher quality of auditory perceptual skill development that is so vital for learning a second language (Greenfield, 1993).

The abundant storage capacity of a compact disk (CD) is illustrated by its ability to store a whole set of encyclopedias on one CD. The quality and quantity of information available through CD ROM and computer technology gives the teacher a wider variety and volume of superior tools with which to work.

Academic Achievement of LEP Students

Children need to acquire two kinds of language. One is conversational language that is used for informal, interpersonal communication. The other is academic language proficiency that is used in school for learning and discussing abstract ideas that will be tested. Conversational English is usually acquired very rapidly, in two years or less. Academic language takes longer, generally five to seven years. Hurdles to be crossed by the student range from oral competence to testing performance. Language acquisition results from comprehensible input, and background knowledge helps make input comprehensible (California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992). Before LEP students are confronted with achieving in the regular classroom, they need to experience English as a tool for learning subject matter, not just in communication, or survival skills. When students learn subject matter in the primary language, they gain knowledge, knowledge of the world, as well as specific subject matter knowledge. Knowledge does not manifest itself in the English language. This knowledge in turn makes thinking skill development in the primary language more comprehensible and speeds second language acquisition. CD and videodisk programs such as *Cell-abration* and *Windows on Science* are excellent resources for providing subject matter in quality and quantity, with availability for the Spanish speaking child to explore the environment. Background knowledge provided through first language mastery will make reading in English more comprehensible. It will help the child develop English reading ability, vocabulary, grammar, and writing style (California Association for Bilingual Education, 1992). Technology offers tools for teaching in the primary language and in learning the second language.

*Story Tailor* is a software series of story and poem templates in Spanish and English. These templates allow the teacher to customize the reading content to personalize it for students. Students can become an integral part of the reading selection and can be the main characters. Their ideas can be incorporated into the stories and poems and so provide familiarity with the reading content, important for learning in any language. *Español Para Ti/English For You* contains writing activities that inspire children to write their thoughts in their dominant language, either English or Spanish, for favorite children's books such as *Where the Wild Things Are (Donde Viven Los Monstruos).*

ESL

In all the studies investigated, there is no question that children in bilingual programs eventually learn to communicate in English. Teaching grade level curriculum while teaching English is the goal of bilingual education. Reaching grade level means that the former LEP children are scoring at the 50th percentile on standardized tests. This means that they are scoring at the average level of native English speaking children of the same age! Some software can assist in any ESL program instruction. With use of *Stickybear Reading* and *Reading Maze* for example, student progress in ESL development can be monitored and recorded without direct supervision of the teacher. *The Playroom* and *1-2-3 Sequence Me* are two other software programs well suited to use in an ESL program. Children learn language by experimenting and playing with it, not by rote memorization.

With the proper software, computers provide many opportunities for this kind of learning.

Bilingual Instruction for All Students

Two-way language development programs are full-time programs that use two languages, one of which is English. These programs seek to promote bilingual education as an enrichment program for all students, give better understanding between two linguistic communities, give access to equal education by all students, and provide educational excellence (Lange, 1990; Freeman & Freeman, 1988). School districts sometimes find themselves lacking qualified bilingual teachers while still needing to attend to the needs of Spanish dominant students. Spanish language arts software, such as *Stickybear Reading* and the *Story Tailor* series, facilitates the child's learning in the dominant language until qualified teachers become available.

Incorporating Language and Culture into Whole School Program

Educators who see their roles as adding a second language and cultural affiliation to students' repertoires empower those students. For instance, schools could provide signs in the school office and elsewhere to welcome people in Spanish and English. Pairs of students, one English and one Spanish dominant, can be taught to use programs such as *The Print Shop* to help make these signs. *MacWrite II* and *ClarisWorks* are two examples of word processing software available in both English and Spanish versions. A purpose of using such software is to provide opportunities for bilingual students to communicate with one another in their first language in cooperative learning environments (Cummins, 1991). Computer programs provide an excellent means for children to work together toward a common goal. Administrators and teachers should recruit people who can tutor students in their first language. A one-on-one environment has been a viable method for years to help individual children.

Pictures and objects of the various cultures should be displayed in schools. Again, the ability of the computer to print graphics and eye-catching text through a variety of programs can be instrumental in this process. Telecommunications can be used to research these topics and find more graphics that are useful.

Students should be encouraged to write in their dominant language. It is easier to express oneself in the language where one feels most comfortable. All language learning should be interactive. Teacher guidance and facilitation, rather than total reliance on a computer, are more effective ways to promote meaningful, higher level thinking skills. To learn language arts and reading skills, programs such as *Stickybear Reading* can be used. Teaching process writing in a whole-language environment can be provided through programs such as *Story Tailor*, *Word Weaver* and *Write On!*.

Parent Involvement

"The evidence is clear that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement, even after the students' ability and family socioeconomic status are taken into account" (Simich-Dudgeon, 1986). Students who are part of parent

involvement programs show higher reading achievement than children who are not. Children who are encouraged to read to their parents and talk with their parents about their reading have higher reading gains than children who have not had this opportunity (Simich-Dudgeon, 1986). There does not have to be a computer in the house for parents to understand what the child is doing at school. For instance, when they bring home a *Story Tailor* selection that has familiar names and places incorporated, children and parents are more likely to find a higher interest level in the material. This relevance may motivate them to spend more time reading together, and help to bridge the gap between school and home.

## Effectiveness of Instructional Technology in Bilingual Programs

Technology can have a significant positive effect on LEP/LESA students. Computers allow students to learn at their own speed in a highly motivated and non-threatening environment. Learning is *individual*. The computer gives the student different ways to learn at different times. Computers and their materials can be varied. Computers equalize all education from the disadvantaged, to the gifted, to the student of any given learning style (Dunn, Beaudry, & Klavas, 1989).

One elementary principal, Michael Hoy of San Juan Elementary School, recently stated, "It is critical to empower our more disadvantaged students with the same tools as their fellow students without alienating those who are not disadvantaged. We want our school to be a place where all parents are happy to send their children" (Kutner, 1992).

A study by the Department of Education examined the effectiveness of two major types of instructional technology used in bilingual education programs: computer assisted instruction and video instruction. Results established that both of these technologies can have a significant positive effect on LEP/LESA students. Computers have the potential to permit students to learn at their own speed in a highly motivating and non-threatening environment. (Department of Education, 1994)

Decades of research prove the effectiveness of cooperative learning. One study shows cooperative grouping improves computer based learning ("Can Technology Help," 1992). One of the abilities of computers is in providing an additional means of instruction rather than merely replicating teacher guided instruction. Computers also add to the whole-language approach in the curriculum. Students can use Spanish literature available on CD ROMs, such as the *Discis Books* , *Just Grandma & Me*, *Arthur's Teacher Trouble*, and *The Hare and the Tortoise*.

## Implementation

To maximize the computer's potential, administrators and teachers need training structured for computer application to educational problems. Impediments to effectiveness include the lack of instructionally and technologically sound software, and lack of training in computer use and planning. Teacher training and selection of quality software are essential elements in utilizing technology as an integral part of the curriculum.

Minimum teacher training should include use of technology within the classroom setting. "Technology" training encompasses use of computer and software applications, telecommunications, CD ROM players, and videodisk players. Institutions of higher education are beginning to respond to this need. For example, in 1991, The University of Texas at Austin revamped its computer literacy course for its teacher training program. According to Dr. Judi Harris (personal communication, November 12, 1993), University of Texas, Director of the Computer Literacy course, the course concentrates its study on tools applicable in K-12 classrooms. The class focuses on the basics of word processing, data bases, spreadsheets, programming in HyperCard and LogoWriter, telecommunications, and CD ROM searches. Subject area courses are advised to teach specific computer application programs which would be useful for that subject. The Bilingual Education Department at U.T., according to Department Head Dr. George Blanco (personal communication, November 15, 1993), uses technology to train future teachers to facilitate their proper use of Spanish word pronunciation with accents and for on-line communications with classmates and professors.

Good quality children's software, whether for computers, CD ROM players or videodisks, can often be recognized by the presence of certain characteristics or program features. The program itself and the documentation must be thoroughly examined. It should be **appropriate** for the student group who will use it, and carry out stated **objectives**. The structure should be **pedagogically sound** and contribute to children's **comprehension** of the world around them. A high degree of **interaction** from the children, calling for thoughtful responses and providing options that require children to make choices is best. Additional considerations should be made when evaluating bilingual software. It should **supplement**, not supplant, language arts objectives. Awareness of use of **colloquialisms**, relationship to the **curriculum**, and whether it is for **ESL or bilingual** mainstream are essential considerations. Finally, the quality of the **translation**, verbatim or clausal meaning, should be checked.

## References

Arthur's Teacher's Troubles. (1992). [Computer Program]. Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

California Association for Bilingual Education: (1992). On Course: Bilingual Education's Success in California. Los Angeles: Author.

Can Technology Help? (1992). Electronic Learning, 12(3), 18-19.

Cell-Abration. (1992). [Computer Program]. Lewisville, NC: Science for Kids.

Census Reports Sharp Increase in Number of Non-English Language-Speaking Americans. (1993). NABE (National Association for Bilingual Education) News, 16(6), 1.

ClarisWorks. (1993). [Computer Program]. Santa Anna, CA: Claris Corporation

Cummins, J. (1991). Empowering Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students with Learning Problems. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 333 622).

Department of Education. (1984). Review of the State-of-the-Art of Educational Technologies Implemented in Programs Serving LEP Students. Washington, DC: Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 255 076).

Discis Books. (1991). [Computer Program].Toronto, Canada: Discis Knowledge Research, Inc.

Dunn, R., Beaudry, J. S., & Klavas, A. (1989). Survey of Research on Learning Styles. Educational Leadership, 46(6), 50-59.

Español para ti/English for you. (1991). [Computer Program]. Hood River, OR: Humanities Software, Inc.

Freeman, D., & Freeman, Y. (1988). Sheltered English Instruction. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 301 070).

García, E. (1990). Bilingualism and the Academic Performance of Mexican-American Children: The Evolving Debate. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 321 963).

Greenfield, E. (1993). Multimedia Titles: Educational CD-ROM and Videodisk Choices Abound. T-H-E- Journal, 20(7), 10.

The Hare and the Tortoise. (1993). [Computer Program]. Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

Just Grandma & Me. (1992). [Computer Program] Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

Kid Pix. (1992). [Computer Program]. Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

Kutner, L. (1992, December 5). Misconceptions hurt bilingual education. Austin-American Statesman, pp. D12

Lange, D. L. (1990). Two-Way Language Development Programs. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 321 589).

Lewelling, V. W. (1991). Academic Achievement in a Second Language. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 329 130).

McKeon, D. (1987). Different Types of ESL Programs. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 289 360).

MacWrite II. (1989). [Computer Program]. Santa Anna, CA: Claris Corporation

1-2-3 Sequence Me. (1992). [Computer Program]. Pleasantville, NY: Wings for Learning, Sunburst Communications.

The Playroom. (1991). [Computer Program]. Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

The Print Shop. (1991). [Computer Program]. Novato, CA: Brøderbund Software, Inc.

Reading Maze. (1991). [Computer Program]. Scotts Valley, CA: Great Wave Software

Sendeck, M. (1984). Donde viven los monstruos. [Where the wild things are]. (A. Gervás, Trans.). Madrid, Spain: Ediciones Alfaguara. (Original work published 1963).

Sendeck, M. (1963). Where the wild things are. New York: Harper & Row.

Simich-Dudgeon, C. (1986). Parent Involvement and the Education of Limited-English Proficient Students. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 279 205).

Stickybear Reading. (1992). (Computer Program]. Middletown, CT: Optimum Resources, Inc.

Story Tailor. (1992). (Computer Program]. Hood River, OR: Humanities Software.

Texas Education Agency. (1992). PEIMS (Public Education Information Management System) Enrollment Data. In Limited English Proficiency Analysis. Austin, TX: Author.

Wells, A. S. (1989) Hispanic Education in America: Separate and Unequal. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 316 616).

Windows on Science. (1991). [Computer Program]. Warren, NJ: Optical Data Corporation.

Word Weaver. (1992). [Computer Program]. Hood River, OR: Humanities Software.

Write On! (1992). [Computer Program]. Hood River, OR: Humanities Software.

# STAFF DEVELOPMENT SPECIALISTS FOR BILINGUAL AND BICULTURAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A TRAINING PROGRAM

**Liliana Minaya-Rowe**

**Abstract**

This paper discusses a three-year training program for staff development specialists to work in bilingual and bicultural education programs within a context of staff development partnerships between and institution of higher education (IHE) and six local education agencies (LEAs). It discusses the official status of the IHE's bilingual training program based on eight indicators of institutionalization. It presents the curricula to increase the trainees' qualifications in terms of theoretical and practical needs. It analyses the staff development process-oriented approach used in the program via a seminar and a practicum at LEAs to make the trainees more responsible for change and for creative problem solving. It illustrates the trainees' interpretations of theoretical constructs in the areas of language acquisition and bilingual cognitive development in the context of linguistic and academic instruction and how they presented them in an understandable way to a partially-trained audience. Evaluative descriptions by the participants of the staff development delivery and by the trainees of the seminar and the practicum are presented.

## Introduction

IHEs have as a mission the provision of services to the increasing language minority populations in the country. According to the 1990 Census, the number of school-age children, ages 5 to 17, who are limited English proficient (LEP) increased significantly during the last decade by 38 percent, accounting for approximately 6.3 million children. Currently, LEP students account for over 14 percent of the elementary and secondary population. Furthermore, 9 percent of these children speak Spanish at home, representing over 4 million children (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993).

However, as the student population becomes more linguistically and culturally heterogeneous, the teaching force is expected to become increasingly homogeneous. At present, ethnic minorities account for 10 percent of the teaching force, and their representation is supposed to drop to 5 percent by the year 2000 (Boe, 1990; Macías, 1990). These trends point to language minority schooling as one of the most critical issues in teacher education today. The demographic imperative calls for immediate action on at least three fronts. First, everyone entering the teaching profession--regardless of area of expertise or level of training--must be prepared to teach linguistically and culturally heterogeneous classes. Second, teacher training IHE must find ways of increasing the pool of language minority teachers and teacher trainers who can serve as role models and linguistic brokers for the growing numbers of language minority students in the elementary and secondary schools. Third, teacher trainers have a role to play as staff de-

velopment specialists for bilingual and mainstream teaching staff in in-service training at the LEA level (García, 1993).

In addition to the demographic challenge, there has been for over the last two decades a considerable amount of research--pedagogical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic--that has evolved in terms of second language acquisition, first language development, bilingualism and biculturalism. That research has helped refine, substantiate, and re-state the goals of bilingual and bicultural education. It has also supported the position on the positive effects of bilingual education and the use of the first language to achieve true bilingualism. It has led to proposals to the society at large, the monolingual population, that bilinguals are truly blessed and talented to be able to function in two languages (Wong Fillmore, 1993). For over a decade, researchers and practitioners have also discussed the importance of empowerment to validate and build on the experiences of learners in order to connect them to challenging learning opportunities that enable higher level thinking and performance (Cummins, 1989; García, 1992; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Trueba, 1989; Walsh, 1991).

## Objective of This Paper

This paper discusses a three-year training program of staff development specialists to work in bilingual and bicultural education programs or in schools with substantial numbers of LEP students. Staff development is defined as an in service system that ensures that bilingual and English as a second language (ESL) education professionals regularly enhance their academic knowledge and professional performance. It consists of ways to embed professional growth opportunities into the work life of teachers and administrative and supervisory personnel (Calderón & Marsh, 1988; Mercado, 1985). This program sought to train staff development specialists who could function in two languages, who were cognizant of and sensitive to the problems and advantages of LEP students, who developed a strong background in bilingual and bicultural education, and who were committed to quality education and social change. It was expected that the knowledge and skills acquired in this training would add to their professional development and upward mobility to compete for jobs on the local and state levels.

This paper examines the IHE's efforts to institutionalize its training program in relation to eight features of institutionalization. It discusses the staff development training to increase the qualifications of trainees, and the curricula to meet the staff development needs of the six LEAs. The training was offered within a context of staff development partnerships between an IHE and six LEAs to meet the needs of LEP students in an effort to strengthen their respective bilingual programs. The LEAs are located in the six largest cities in a state in Southern New England and serve the largest concentrations of LEPs in the state. The paper focuses on the process of training of staff developers as creative problem solvers in charge of effective change processes. It examines selected theoretical constructs used in the training and how these constructs apply to the reality of the classroom, in language development and in the content areas of the curriculum. Finally, it discusses the outcomes of this program in terms of the issues just mentioned.

Program Institutionalization

Institutionalization is a socioeducational, political, and economic process of legitimacy that systematically integrates the program of bilingual education teacher training with the academic system of the IHE (Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, 1989). The process makes the program a regular part of the IHE's academic offerings. This IHE's graduate teacher training program of bilingual and bicultural education has been in place for over a decade. It offers the master's and doctoral degrees and the post-master sixth-year professional diploma as part of the School of Education regular offerings. As it is the case of many IHEs, this IHE considers the provision of bilingual education services to LEP students a vital function in its training programs, and that it has a role to play in the preparation of personnel who, in some capacity, will be or are meeting the educational and linguistic needs of bilingual students.

The bilingual training program meets the eight indicators of institutionalization proposed by the RMC Research Corporation (1981) and reported by Chu and Levy (1984) and Johnson and Binkley (1987). The indicators of institutionalization are as follows: (1) **Active support of administrators.** The IHE has a Steering Committee for Bilingual Education chaired by the Dean of the School of Education. The Committee meets three times a year to discuss curricular issues and program policies. Members of the Committee are the bilingual faculty, LEAs' Bilingual Program Directors, the SEA's Bilingual Director, graduate students, and support faculty from eleven academic departments within the IHE; (2) **Positive attitudes of non-bilingual education faculty.** Most faculty outside the bilingual program has been supportive for the institutionalization of the program. In addition to teaching courses for the bilingual program, they are also members of its advisory committee and its graduate admission committee; (3) **Faculty support through institutional funds.** The three bilingual faculty positions are entirely funded by institutional funds; (4) **Faculty tenure status.** The bilingual faculty are tenured and promoted or are on tenure track; (5) **Program continuation without federal funds.** The IHE has assumed program costs when federal funding has ceased, especially with respect to faculty positions; (6) **Involvement of several professionals in program operations.** The vitality of the bilingual program is due to the skills and dedication of its bilingual faculty and a cohort of faculty from within the School of Education in the departments of Curriculum and Instruction, where the bilingual program is located, Educational Psychology, and Educational Leadership, and from departments outside of the School, Anthropology, Linguistics, Spanish, Puerto Rican Studies, English, Psychology, and Communication Sciences; (7) **Compatibility with institutional priorities.** The bilingual program is compatible with the IHE's mission--to research, to teach, and to provide services. The presence of the state bilingual education legislation and certification have been important variables in assessing compatibility with IHE's goals since such legislation and certification legitimizes the existence of the curriculum and courses within the School of Education framework; and, (8) **Sufficient high enrollment levels to sustain the program.** The bilingual program has had sufficient numbers of enrollees to justify faculty and other instructional resources. The state bilingual education certification has guaranteed a certain level of demand for bilingual education teachers. Also impor-

tant has been the Title VII funding received to pay for students' tuition, books, stipends and traveling to sites of field experiences.

## Staff Development Training

Eight years ago, in an effort to strengthen its three functions of teaching, research, and services, the IHE approached an LEA and offered a staff development partnership. It was chosen because it served the largest LEP population in the state. A tenured bilingual faculty was assigned to conduct the staff development. Four years later, the IHE approached five other LEAs to offer staff development partnerships also. The IHE had just received funding for a Title VII Educational Personnel Training Program to train fifty-five bilingual educators to become staff development specialists for teachers of LEP students. The IHE planned to involve these trainees in the staff development delivery in an effort to link their training to the reality of the classroom via in service training.

The overall objective was to increase the qualifications of professional educational personnel who were preparing to participate in staff development activities in programs of bilingual and bicultural education. The project aimed at providing staff development specialists-to-be with the following substantive training: (1) theory, research and practice of bilingual bicultural education; (2) theoretical foundations of education--psychological, philosophical, social--in a variety of cultural and intercultural settings; (3) theoretical understandings of the nature of bilingualism from the perspectives of psychology, anthropology and linguistics; (4) the relationships of points 1-through-3 to the training of teachers of LEP students by means of staff development training models and practicum to complement the trainees theoretical training.

The curricula designed and implemented for this project consisted of a minimum of 36 graduate credit hours of study. It reflected the theoretical and practical needs in bilingual bicultural education, foundations of education, curriculum development, research methodology, administration and supervision, practicum and areas of expertise.

1. Nine hours in bilingual and bicultural education. This core component provided the trainee with exposure to a range of issues on bilingual and bicultural education, bilingualism, biculturalism, language teaching methodology and staff development. It centered on: legal, state and federal mandates for bilingual bicultural education programs; bilingual bicultural program characteristics and variations; assessment and evaluation; mentoring techniques, coaching and the process of transfer; the use of the native language (L1) as medium of instruction, of ESL and cognitive academic skill development; and, the need for programs which stress the development and maintenance of bilingual bicultural capability.
2. Nine hours in foundations of education, learning and curriculum development. This component provided the trainee with exposure to philosophical and psychological foundations of education in a variety of cultural and intercultural settings. Courses offer the trainee with a basic understanding of the philosophical and psychological processes, and of curriculum and staff development, especially as they relate to the nature of educational change, planning and cross-cultural characteristics of schooling.
3. Six hours of research methodology. This component provided the trainee with exposure to the applications of ethnolinguistic research to bilingual instruction

and first and second language development. Trainees would develop some research skills in planning, locating resources, implementing a research project, interpreting, analyzing and discussing data, reporting both quantitatively and qualitatively for a partially-trained audience in staff development units, and constructing a report for in-service teacher training purposes.
4. Variable hours in a practicum. This component offered the trainee a practical setting for staff development and mentor teaching to complement his/her theoretical training.
5. Variable hours in administration and supervision. Trainees developed expertise to receive the administrative certificate.
6. Additional work was recommended in another area of study such as elementary education, reading, special education.

Upon graduation, these specialists received post-master sixth-year professional diplomas in education with specialization in bilingual and bicultural education from the IHE and the administrative certification from the state.

LEAs Training Needs

The IHE surveyed the LEAs' needs for technical assistance and training. Survey data were compiled from a representative number of bilingual education and ESL teachers from the elementary, middle and high school levels as well as from their administrators. In examining the data, it was found that teachers and administrators gave the highest rankings to in-service workshops/services and classroom demonstrations in the areas of sheltered English, whole language, reading in the L1, and parental involvement.

All administrators identified the transition component as the most in need of technical assistance. The transition component, as it pertains to the six LEAs, is the fourth phase of the English component within the LEA's bilingual program. Its focus is to prepare students with the academic and linguistic skills needed to succeed in the mainstream, to serve as a bridge between the bilingual program and the all-English regular program, and to assist these students to transfer their conceptual knowledge from their L1 to English, their second language (L2) via receptive and productive domains. This component receives students who have achieved level III of ESL and are considered by the LEA to be ready for increased instruction in English.

## The Training of Staff Development Specialists

The staff development process-oriented approach proposed by Joyce and Showers (1988), Calderón (1987), and Calderón and Marsh (1988) was used to train staff development specialists in a seminar entitled "Trainers of teachers of limited English proficient students". According to Joyce and Showers, quality staff development needs to provide teachers with five major components of training: (1) the study of the theoretical basis or the rationale of teaching methods; (2) the observation of demonstrations by persons who are relatively expert in the model; (3) practice in simulated and real settings; (4) feedback in protected conditions; and, (5) coaching one another at the school to ensure continuous development and use of a new skill.

The seminar was based on the need to make the bilingual and ESL staff developer-to-be more responsible for change and for creative problem solving

(García 1992; Villegas, 1993). It placed emphasis on the process by which the she/he acquires the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to be effective on how she/he develops professional judgment about what works, with whom, and why. It attempted to promote reflection and collaboration with a focus on problem setting and problem solving (Martínez, 1992; Romero, 1990). Collaboration incorporates formative feedback which is used to modify and improve on ideas and practices in transition. As such, it gives the trainee opportunity to converse with colleagues in order to clarify rather than judge. Sharing and providing feedback empowers the receiver and fosters introspective and creative problem solving (Mercado, 1993).

The seminar focused on the holistic process that begins with information. However, rather than give bilingual/ESL teachers quick-fix solutions and recipes for what to do in the classroom when problems surface, trainees were being helped to understand why a new approach was being proposed and advocated. The focus was initially on theory in order to develop an understanding of the theory that supports effective practices. The theory was followed by the observation and demonstration of practices where the trainees got to see the pedagogical strategies recommended. During the seminar, the trainees observed and wrote ethnographies of workshops presented by others--e.g. specialists, professors, administrators. Also they assisted this trainer to prepare for in service trainings. They provided feedback on ways to strengthen the presentation. They also observed, wrote ethnographies and videotaped the workshop delivery to groups of teachers at LEAs. At the next seminar class meeting, a discussion on what went well, what did not go well took place.

The responsibility to offer staff development gradually shifted from the seminar to the practicum the following semester. Cohorts of 3 to 7 trainees assumed responsibilities to prepare and to conduct in service training. Participants were elementary, middle and high school bilingual and ESL teachers and administrators. The training offerings mirrored regular academic semesters, weekly two-hour meetings for fifteen weeks plus an official LEA in-service day.

Theoretical Developments

The overall objective was to move teachers between the theory and the practice through guided reflection with the premise that good practice informs theory as much as good theory informs practice. Therefore theory was used to generate practice and practice was analyzed to understand theory (Kagan, Dennis, Igou, Moore, & Sparks, 1993; Lieberman & Miller, 1991).

The focus of the staff development plan relied on theoretical developments of the last twelve years on the areas of language acquisition and bilingual cognitive development proposed by Cummins (1981, 1984, 1989) and Krashen (1981, 1985, 1989). Cummins poses that basic cognitive skills are pre-linguistic or metalinguistic because the fundamental capabilities easily flow back and forth between the two different language domains. Basic conceptual skills--e.g. insights in mathematics and science--are not therefore closely tied to a particular language, once they are mastered by the LEP student. He suggests that first and second language academic skills are interdependent. They are manifestations of a **Common Underlying Proficiency**.

Cummins also poses two dimensions that account for the differences between the linguistic and academic demands of the school and those of interper-

sonal communication contexts outside the school. In the **context-embedded/context-reduced dimension**, communicants can or can not actively negotiate for meaning while the language they use is or is not supported by a wide range of contextual clues, such as gestures, realia. In the **cognitively undemanding/cognitively demanding dimension**, demands have or have not been largely automatized and may or may not require active cognitive involvement. This framework served the staff development program as follows: (1) the transition students will be able to function orally in English; and, (2) they will then be able to transfer the skills from context-embedded, concrete situations to more abstract, context-reduced problem-solving.

Christian, Spanos, Crandall, Simich-Dudgeon, and Willets (1990), Crandall, Dale, Rhodes, and Spanos (1987) and Spanos, Rhodes, Dale, and Crandall (1988) have emphasized the way in which academic tasks require problem-solving and conceptual agility in context-reduced situations. The teaching of content areas of the curriculum, as commonly occurs in bilingual and mainstream classrooms, is especially context-reduced whenever math computations or science problems are to be solved as simple, unadorned computations or experiments with no content whatsoever to the numbers or scientific experiments (Secada, 1992). All students must, of course, be able to deal with context-reduced and cognitively-demanding challenges in their later years of school. However, such cognitive skills are usually developed through rich, contextualized experiences of problem solving in the earlier years.

During the practicum, the staff developers-to-be interpreted Cummins' theoretical proposals and prepared visual representations of them. Illustrations of the context-embedded/context-reduced (horizontal) continuum included: high/low context; easiest/hardest; clues/no clues (gestures, concrete referents, visuals, realia, intonation); and, less language dependent/language dependent. Illustrations of the cognitively-undemanding/cognitively-demanding (vertical) continuum included: low/high cognitive demand; easiest/hardest; some/no automaticity; knowledge, comprehension, application/analysis, synthesis, evaluation; pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar/semantic meaning, functional meaning. Examples from the context-embedded to the context-reduced continuum ranged from eating at McDonald's to making a cheesecake to writing an assignment. Examples from the cognitively-undemanding to the cognitively-demanding continuum ranged from a visit to the supermarket to following directions to solving an algebra equation. An ensuing step was to illustrate a sequential bilingual education program placing various academic and linguistic skills in the four quadrants of the two continua.

Krashen (1981, 1985, 1989) has emphasized the importance of **comprehensible input** as an essential component in developing increased cognitive and language skills. That is, a major fraction or portion of the language-mediated input a student is receiving must be comprehensible--understood by the individual--to provide a framework for absorption of new material.

Typically in mainstreamed (mathematics, science, social studies) classes, bilingual students have been confronted with both new concepts, new cognitive challenges, and a "foreign", new, vocabulary of expression. With a new vocabulary added to the conceptual issues, the student has great difficulty in linking the new materials back to his or her store of basic cognitive abilities, even though

he or she may have experienced some of the content in everyday activities with peers.

Krashen also claims that students need to be willing and lower their **affective filter**. The affective filter will be permissive toward the acquisition of new knowledge and skills if students feel some familiarity with the materials they are working on. Students are bound to be more positively inclined and motivated if they are given the opportunity to participate in the collection, the definition of the content along with the specific L1 vocabulary relevant to content areas of the curriculum. The use of cooperative group structuring of activities may also contribute to lowering the resistance or filtering effect, thus adding to the likelihood of positive experience and enhanced learning (Kagan, 1986; McGroarty, 1989).

During the practicum, the staff developers-to-be interpreted Krashen's theoretical proposals and prepared visual representations of the process of second language acquisition via comprehensible input and low affective filter. They interpreted comprehensible input as verbal or non-verbal. Comprehensible input meant i + 1, 2, 3, etc., whereas i = language already known and background knowledge (cognitive, linguistic, cultural in L1 and English) and + 1, 2, 3 = new linguistic, cognitive, cultural material, high context, low/high cognitive involvement, interesting, relevant, not grammar-based, focus on the message. Low affective filter meant: motivated; low anxiety level; not on the defensive; self-confident; not concerned with the possibility of failure; member of the group; focus on the message, on what, not on the form, on how. Both comprehensible input and affective filter trigger language acquisition meaning cognitive, academic and cultural development via verbal or nonverbal performance.

Staff Development Delivery

It was often necessary that in the preparation of staff development, trainees would observe classrooms, talk to teachers and school administrators in order to determine the specific training need to be addressed in the workshop. Frequently, the need was introduced in the context of a problem-solving scenario usually followed by a group dynamics activity that tended to involve participants from the beginning of the workshop. This trainer then became their facilitator who attempted to provide them with a coaching environment from theory, to observation, to practice with coaching. Then each cohort practiced with feedback and was videotaped delivering a workshop to a group of teachers in an LEA. At the following class meeting, each group discussed within the group and later with this trainer what had gone on, what was effective, what was ineffective.

The staff developers-to-be co-presented a number of workshops at LEAs. Workshop titles included: "Helping language minority students after they exit from the bilingual classroom"; "Sheltered English: Classroom applications and implications"; "Second language acquisition via whole language"; and, "Meaningful reading in Spanish". Workshop titles for parents included: "Helping to educate our adolescents"; and, "The power of language and culture in the education of our children".

At the conclusion of each workshop, participants completed objective evaluations. The ratings for the workshops from teachers were exceptionally high; that is, participating teachers believed that the workshops were an especially useful resource. They indicated that: (1) the workshops were clearly organized and presented; (2) the presenters had a command of the subject matter and used varied

approaches in order to meet the training objectives; (3) the objectives and materials were appropriate to address the needs of participating teachers and their students; and, (4) knowledge and skills learned in the training would be applied to specific teaching situations.

The ratings for the workshops from parents of LEP students were also exceptionally high. Like the teachers, parents were thoroughly pleased with the presentation of workshops by the trainees. Parents indicated that: (1) the information received was valuable; (2) the themes discussed were helpful to help their children; and, (3) the presenters were well prepared and made interesting presentations.

The seminar and the practicum were the most fundamental training opportunities for staff development, what trainees would be doing as certified professionals. They offered anonymous open-ended evaluations for both the seminar and the practicum. They believed that: (1) these two core courses were worthy; (2) the experiences were time consuming but worthwhile opportunities to develop their skills as staff development specialists; (3) there was a good sense of groupness and cooperation to present a good workshop; (4) the LEA and the IHE needed to be more involved in the scheduling of staff development delivery; (4) the selection of workshop content areas met their expectations as staff developers; (5) the instructor helped and oriented them very well, was supportive, and gave them a lot of security and stimulation; and, (6) they felt they could give workshops alone in the future.

## Conclusion

The benefits seem to be mutual for the IHE and the LEAs. Both have strengthened their bilingual programs. Twenty staff development specialists, program graduates, have been promoted in their districts from bilingual teachers to either resource specialists, curriculum specialists, staff developers, assistant bilingual directors, vice principals, principals, reading specialists, and mentoring coordinators. All of them remain teaching, serving language minority students. Fourteen of them are pursuing a doctorate at this or at other IHEs. For the IHE, it has been very rewarding. The institutionalization of professional development centers at each of the six LEAs shows commitment. Also committed is the Dean of the School of Education who has been spending one day a week at a center for the last five years. The addition of a third bilingual faculty member is also a benefit to add to this effort. The program's accomplishments have also been reflected in the annual report of the vice president and provost ranking the bilingual program as one of the most noteworthy in the School of Education.

This staff development partnership can serve as an example of mutual benefit for the IHE and the LEAs. Staff development specialists can be empowered with the knowledge of pedagogical and linguistic research. It can also be an example of reflective and cooperative professional development in which trainees become more and more responsible of their own professional development. It is one holistic approach to staff development. While one of the outcomes has been the development of competencies for dealing with the transition LEP students, its main focus has been on training staff developers who are tuned in into their in-service training, able to make informed decisions which reflect sound theory,

and able to create solutions to learning problems that go beyond solutions offered in training textbooks.

At the heart of this program are the LEP students. They can be served better through educational partnerships between and among LEAs and IHEs to be empowered with properly implemented schooling.

## References

Boe, E. (1990). Teacher supply and demand. In Proceedings of the First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues (pp. 23-83). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.

Calderón, M. (1987, March). The art of training and coaching: Multicultural teacher training institute/case studies project. Paper presented at the Eastern Conference on Improving the Educational Achievement of Limited-English Proficient Students, Baltimore, MD.

Calderón, M., & Marsh, D. (1988). Applying research on effective bilingual instruction in a multi-district in service teacher training program. NABE Journal, 12(2), 133-152.

Christian, D., Spanos, G., Crandall, J., Simich-Dudgeon, C., & Willets, K. (1990). Combining language and content for second-language students. In A. M. Padilla, H. H. Fairchild, & C. M. Valadez (Eds.), Bilingual Education: Issues and strategies (pp. 141-156). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Chu, H., & Levy, J. (1984). Institutionalizing a bilingual training program: Case study of George Mason University. NABE Journal, 8(3), 43-54.

Crandall, J., Dale, T. C., Rhodes, N. C., & Spanos, G. (1987). English language skills for basic algebra. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Cummins, J. (1984). Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy. San Diego, CA: College Hill Press.

Cummins, J. (1989). Empowering minority students. Sacramento, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education.

García, E. (1992). Teachers for Language Minority Students: Evaluating Professional Standards. In Proceedings of the Second National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Student Issues: Focus on Evaluation and Measurement (pp. 383-414). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.

García, E. (1993). Language, Culture and Education. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), Review of Research in Education (pp. 51-98). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Johnson, D. M., & Binkley, J. L. (1987). Management and organizational structure in university bilingual education programs: A national survey of Title VII. NABE Journal, 11(2), 95-115.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1988). Student achievement through staff development. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Kagan, S. (1986). Cooperative learning and sociocultural factors in schooling. In Beyond Language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students (pp. 231-290). Sacramento, CA: Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education.

Kagan, D. M., Dennis, M. B., Igou, M., Moore, P., & Sparks, K. (1993). The experience of being a teacher in residence. American Educational Research Association Journal, 30(2), 426-443.

Krashen, S. D. (1981). Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework (pp. 51-81). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Krashen, S.D. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman.

Krashen, S.D. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. The Modern Language Journal, 73, iv.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, I. (Eds.). (1991). Staff development for education in the 90's (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Macías, R. (1990). Teacher Supply and Demand. Discussant Comments. In Proceedings of the First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues (pp. 406-411). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.

Martínez, R. (1992). Staff development for improving teaching skills of mainstream teachers of limited English proficient (LEP) students. The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Education, 11, 163-174.

McGroarty, M. (1989). The benefits of cooperative learning arrangements in second language instruction. NABE Journal, 13(2), 127-143.

Mercado, C. I. (1985). Models of in service teacher training. Issues in English language development (pp. 107-114). Rosslyn, VA: InterAmerica Research Associates.

Mercado, C. I. (1993, April). Critical reflection on lived experience in a bilingual reading course. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association conference, Atlanta, GA.

National Center for Education Statistics. (1993). Projections of education statistics to 2003 (DHHS Publication No. NCES 93-861). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs. (1989). Colloquium to strengthen educational personnel training programs: Training educational personnel to work with language minority populations. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Ogbu, J.V., & Matute-Bianchi, M.E. (1986). Understanding sociocultural factors: Knowledge, identity and school adjustment. In Beyond language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students (pp. 73-142). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

RMC Research Corporation. (1981). A study of teacher training in bilingual education., Vol. I. Mountain View, CA: Author.

Romero, M. (1990). Teacher Training Models. Discussant Comments. In Proceedings of the First Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues (pp. 487-498). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.

Secada, W. (1992). Evaluating Mathematics Education of LEP Students in a Time of Educational Change. Proceedings of the Second National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues: Focus on Evaluation and Measurement (pp. 209-256). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.

Spanos, G., Rhodes, N. C., Dale, T. S., & Crandall, J. (1988). Linguistic features of mathematical problem solving: Insights and applications. In R. R. Cocking & J. P. Mestre (Eds.), Linguistic and cultural differences on learning mathematics (pp. 221-240). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Trueba, H. T. (1989). Raising silent voices. Educating the linguistic minorities for the 21st century. New York: Newbury House.

Villegas, A. M. (1993, April). Restructuring teacher education for diversity: The innovative curriculum. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association conference, Atlanta, GA.

Walsh, A. C. (1991). Pedagogy and the struggle for voice. New York: Bergin & Harney.

Wong Fillmore, L. (1993, February). The no-cost study revisited: Where do we go from here? Paper presented at the 22nd Annual International Bilingual/Multicultural Education Conference, Houston, TX.

# THE EMERGENCE OF THE FRAMEWORK FOR INTERVENTION

**Joan Wink**

**Abstract**

The purpose of this project was to study the affect of second language acquisition staff development through the use of cooperative learning and to provide parent training. The study focused specifically on the principal, bilingual staff, and parents of Spanish-dominant students at an elementary bilingual school. Naturalistic inquiry was used throughout the study to observe and document the specific training which served as an effective change agent for empowering the staff and parents.

The results of the study indicate that the Framework for Intervention (Cummins, 1989) emerged during the research. An ethnocentric approach changed to a pluralistic one. The staff development and parent training components served as the impetus for interaction and transformation. There were two ancillary findings. First, the data indicate that several monolingual members of the school community were particularly effective in the bilingual setting. Second, the team teaching model was an unexpected result of the interaction of the participants.

The results indicate that bilingual education needs to be viewed from the broader perspective of critical pedagogy.

## Introduction

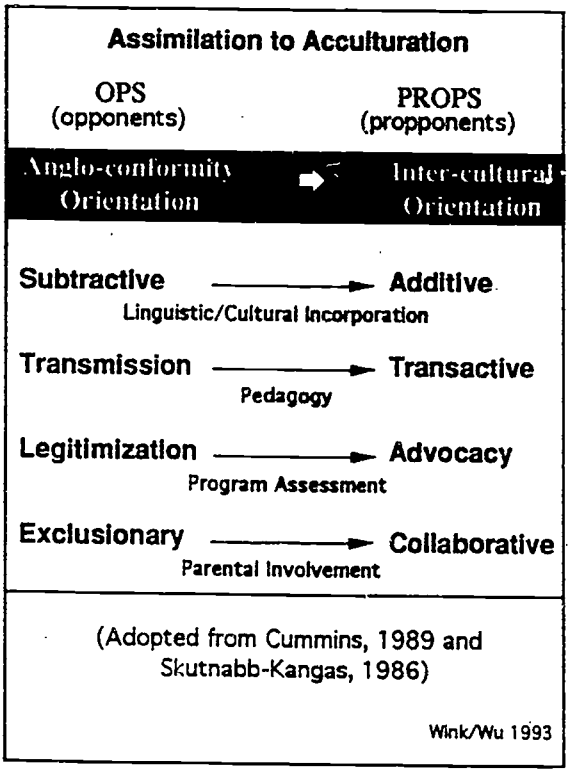
During the last fifteen years there has been a revolution in research related to second language acquisition, and by extension, bilingual education. Considerable research has been conducted on the impact of culture and societal status of language acquisition (Cortés, 1986; Díaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986; Fishman, 1977; Giroux, 1987; Hakuta, 1986; Heath, 1986; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986). However, in spite of this increase in knowledge, school districts continue to ask: What can we do to raise the achievement and self-concept of our bilingual students? The purpose of this qualitative study was to generate hypotheses which could serve as guidelines for that central question.

## Review of the Literature

The philosophical paradigm regarding language minority students has many names in the literature. For the purposes of this research, the dichotomy will be referred to as **PROPS**, or proponents, versus **OPS**, or opponents, (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986). **PROPS** is to mosaic, pluralism, acculturation, voluntary, enrichment, maintenance, and additive as **OPS** is to melting pot, ethnocentric, assimilation, obligatory, compensatory, transitional, and subtractive. This research is based on the theoretical framework which states that although the debate regarding bilingual education appears to be a controversy regarding methodology, it is founded on basic philosophical and political differences (Cummins,

1990; Hakuta, 1986; Hamers & Blanc, 1989; Romaine, 1989; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986 ). Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) refers to this as the pedago-political consequences.

Figure 1




The accumulation of knowledge regarding second language acquisition has been continuous. The review of literature, which is subdivided into (a) the linguistic context (b) the sociocultural context, and (3) the critical context, looked at the historical development of this knowledge base during the last three decades.

First, the work of Noam Chomsky is significant to second language acquisition research because his studies led the shift from the Behaviorist philosophy of language learning to an Rationalist/Cognitive paradigm. Although Chomsky often focused on the study of syntax, his results had great implications for the entire theoretical framework of language acquisition. Chomsky's challenge of Skinnerian theory and, indirectly, of most of the applications of behaviorism to second language teaching is perhaps his most important contribution to date (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 14). Chomsky hypothesized (1959) that the Behaviorist theory did not take into account the creativity and ambiguity of language. In his articulation (1965) of surface structure and deep structure, Chomsky conceptualized an abstract and ambiguous underlying structure with

hidden levels of meaning, creativity, and ambiguity. This was a fundamental paradigm shift because it placed the emphasis on the meaning and the interactional nature of thought and language. As noted by Bruner (1978), Chomsky's work challenged the Behaviorist presupposition of learning language in patterns as a stimulus-response mode of memorization and mimicry. Chomsky's view dramatically altered thinking about language. The work of Chomsky meets the two criteria of Kuhn's (1970) formulation of a paradigm shift: (a) the achievement was sufficiently unprecedented to attract an enduring group of adherents away from a competing mode of scientific activity; and (b) it was sufficiently open-ended to leave all sorts of problems for the redefined group of practitioners to resolve (Kuhn, 1970, p. 10). During the past two decades researchers have been working on those unresolved problems. Building on the work of Chomsky, other researchers (Fishman, 1977; Krashen, 1981, Krashen and Terrell, 1983; Cummins, 1981; Lambert, 1972; 1981) added to this knowledge base by conducting research which sought to understand exactly how one acquired a second language.

Second, as more information became available regarding how one acquires a language, it became apparent that language could not be seen in isolation from its social functions and context. Studies examined linguistic aspects, as well as sociocultural aspects of second language acquisition (Vygotsky, 1962; 1978; Heath, 1983; Díaz, et al., 1986; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi 1986; Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981; Ryan, 1972). It has been argued ( Hakuta, 1986, 1990; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Heath, 1986; Díaz, et al., 1986; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986) that in striving to meet the needs of language minority students, the educational success and failure should be understood as a product of the interaction of many factors: the student's language and cultural background, the educational setting, and the wider sociocultural influences.

Third, in the 1990s the concept of second language acquisition has continued to expand. Researchers (Poplin & Weeres 1993; Lucas, Henze, & Donato, 1990; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988; Cummins, 1989) are beginning to look critically at the entire linguistic, sociocultural, and political context of language and power. Given the vast amount of data available regarding the linguistic and sociocultural aspects of second language acquisition, why aren't programs being implemented which serve the needs of second language students? Cummins posits that minority students can become empowered only through interactions with educators who have critically examined and, where necessary, challenged the educational and social structure within which they operate (1989, p. 7). Recent literature (Giroux, 1988; Apple, 1986; McLaren, 1989; Freire, 1985; Cummins, 1989) places second language acquisition in an even larger cultural and political context where language minority issues are studied within a broader and more critical framework. Many in education (Wink, 1993; Darder, 1990; Beutel, 1990) increasingly are aware of a need for the synthesis between bilingual education and critical pedagogy.

## Methodology

Skutnabb-Kangas (1986) has encouraged the use of qualitative methodology for research in bilingual education. The methodology for this study was formulated on the naturalistic paradigm which inductively seeks understanding of multiple realities. This approach lends itself to bilingual education because it is highly appropriate to evaluate bilingual education within the societal context in which it is implemented (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986; Giroux, 1987; Hakuta, 1986; Fishman, 1977; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Díaz, et al., 1986; Heath, 1986). Theoretically and methodologically, this researcher sees experience as qualitative, complex, holistic, and interactive. No educational practice takes place in a vacuum, only in a real context -- historical, economic, political, and not necessarily identical to any other context (Freire, 1985, pp. 11-12). In any experience an unlimited, unpredictable, and dynamic process is continually evolving and being informed by the entire context. Eisner (1991) conceptualizes one's world view as the primacy of knowing. All empirical inquiry is referenced in qualities (Eisner, 1991, p. 27). This same approach can be used to learn more about another form of art -- like classrooms, schools, and teaching (Eisner, 1991, p. 3).

As a participant/observer throughout the 1990-1991 academic school year, the researcher focused on six bilingual classrooms: three kindergartens and three first grades. The informants included the parents of these students, their teachers, and all staff members who came in contact with the children in these classes. Formal staff development and parent training sessions took place monthly and were led by various bilingual professionals from school districts, the local university, and the state educational agency. The researcher was on-site two days per week to provide informal follow-up for students, teachers, and families. This type of research involves continuous compiling, monitoring, analyzing, summarizing, and interpreting of the data. The observations sought to document the effects of the staff development and parental involvement. The data were written, analyzed, and interpreted throughout the study.

## Data Analysis

Having established her world view, the researcher is called upon to transform her ways of knowing into signs and symbols which are meaningful to others. If phenomena are viewed as qualitative, complex, and holistic, they must be represented by methods which are complimentary to this way of knowing. These data were analyzed in a critical ethnography which tells the story of the changes which took place at this one elementary school. The ethnography is divided into five symbolic school days throughout the school year. Heath (1983) posits that "doin' ethnography" calls upon exactly such capacities, namely, the skill and judgment that enables all human beings to see examples as representative, to recognize general ideas in concrete, palatable form, in perceived objects and events, in remembered or envisaged scenes (Berthoff, 1990, p. 13). For example in the ethnography which accompanied this project, the on-going story of the interaction between the teacher, Carolina, and her students is presented to demonstrate how theory and practice are in a continuous process of construction and reconstruction. Carolina, who has been reading Freire since the early 1970s,

**knows** that she **knows,** which is what Freire meant when he used the word, conscientization. In Carolina's room, knowledge is never transmitted, it is always generated. In this room, each child is a part of the empowerment process by sharing, listening, reading, and writing. Each child takes risks and learns from the process. Each child interacts and generates. Each child has unlimited potential to move through the zone of proximal development because of the interaction with Carolina and with their peers. This is emancipatory literacy.

Ethnographic research allows for self-correction during the course of the inquiry, in that questions posed at the outset are changed as the inquiry unfolds, and topics that seemed essential at the outset are replaced as new topics emerge (Hymes, 1982). The validity of this observation was apparent throughout the data collection process. Initially, the focus was on second language acquisition, cooperative learning, staff development and parent training. Within the first few weeks of this project, the focus changed to the interaction and transformation which followed the trainings. The participants shifted the focus to questions which related to self and social transformation in bilingual education.

The following short excerpt from the ethnography is provided as an example of the data analysis. In this enthographic passage the transformation of Beatriz (and the Bilingual program) could never have happened without the daily interaction with Carolina, who shared her "ways of knowing" with her students and the entire community.

### A Monday in September

"Come see our bilingual reading texts which the state mandated that we order," she said as she proudly showed me the stack of beautiful, state-of-the-art Spanish reading texts gathering dust in a hidden corner of the book shelf. These were books that I knew; I had read almost every story in the entire kindergarten through sixth grade series. At another time and in another place, I had fought hard for the purchase of these texts, and I had seen the students and teachers grow to love the stories as much as I did.

"They can make us order them, but they can't make us use them," she said with a wink of the eye. It was at this moment that I decided what I would do for my research project. But that was early in September, and much has changed since then.

Alamo has been known as the bilingual school in the district. I could never understand why they called this little school the bilingual school. What was bilingual about it? The teachers had bilingual certificates, but they taught and spoke only in English. The materials were all in English. The curriculum was exactly the same for the English-only students and the Spanish-dominant students. Eighty-eight percent of the first-graders are non-native speakers of English; thirty-seven per cent of the K-5 students are classified as such. Quick-exit programs reduce the numbers of students to be served rapidly. It reminded me of Kenji Hakuta's question (1990, p. 2): What is bilingual about bilingual education? I knew that I would never have called this a bilingual program.

At Alamo School children were given English at the expense of their education. All content was taught in English although the children did not understand it. After a few years the children succeeded in speaking English,

but by then they were well behind their English-only peers in content knowledge and literacy. They were taught to assimilate, not to acculturate. The concept of the melting pot was held in high esteem: the language and the culture of the Mexican children had no value. The sooner the children spoke in English, the better. There was no cultural pride, only bicultural ambivalence: shame of the first language and anger towards the second. Even the little kindergarten children felt shame for speaking Spanish. They soon learned to say, "I speak English."

There had been no parent advisory committee for the families of these Spanish-dominant children. Parents have felt excluded from the educational process of their children. The children were seen as little vessels which needed to be filled with English and majority culture values. Alamo was a perfect example of Anglo-conformity orientation (Cummins, 1989). This bilingual program was bilingual in name only. It had been created, begrudgingly, to satisfy the state educational agency.

As I stood in the school corridor, I was suddenly jerked back to reality as I heard Beatriz calling my name. She is frustrated, confused, and overwhelmed. We know each other and like each other; she knows that she can be honest with me, even if we disagree on some fundamental philosophical principles. You have already met Beatriz; she is the bilingual teacher who winked and left the Spanish reading books untouched on the shelf.

"How are we going to teach these kids in Spanish this year, Joan? Do we have to teach everything twice? What is Renee going to do? She doesn't speak Spanish. And, we don't even know the other new teacher, Carolina. What are we going to do? All my materials are in English." Beatriz was intense, and discouraged. But, for me, it was a great Monday in September because in the last year, Beatriz had never asked me these kinds of questions. And, the types of questions we ask, will determine the answers we get.

Beatriz and I went into her room and sat in two of the little desks in front of the chalk board.

"How will we do this?" she asked me.

"What do the kids need?" I asked her.

"That's what I don't know," she groaned.

"Okay, then, let's just talk about one student. Are there any of these students that you know very well? Let's just talk about what might be best for that one student," I replied.

Beatriz grabbed a folder of one of the little children. I looked at the name: Evangelina. Beatriz indicated that this child's language proficiency and culture were similar to that of her other students. I took Evangelina's folder and asked Beatriz to make two columns on the chalk board: one for the first language (Spanish) and the other for the second language (English); I began to study the contents of the folder.

"Does Evangelina have more oral Spanish or more oral English?" I asked Beatriz.

"She only speaks Spanish."

"Okay, put a check under Spanish," I responded. "She needs to read in a language which she knows." Beatriz nods her head in agreement. On the chalk board, Beatriz places a check by reading in the Spanish column.

"Now, what about social studies? Can she learn the content in English?" I asked Beatriz.

"No," she answers.

"Does she need to know the content? I asked.

"Yes," she answers.

"Put a check by social studies under the column labeled, Spanish," I said.

"What about science? Can she learn those concepts in English? Is it hands-on, discovery, experiential learning?"

"No."

Another check goes under the first language column.

"Okay, now, what about math? The contents of the folder indicate that she learned her number concepts last year in English with Mary Rose. Are her math concepts stronger in English or Spanish?" I asked.

"English." Beatriz responded and immediately put the first check under the English column.

"Does the school provide music, PE, and art?" I asked.

"Yes, all three," Beatriz responded and automatically went and put more checks under the second language column.

| | English | Spanish |
|---|---|---|
| Oral Language | | x |
| Reading | | x |
| Social studies | | x |
| Science | | x |
| Math | x | |
| Music | x | |
| PE | x | |
| Art | x | |
| ESL | x | |

"Now, we know that Evangelina needs reading, language arts, social science, and science in Spanish. And, she needs math, music, PE, and art in English. And, she needs one good hour of oral English development every day. Are any of your other students dominant in English?"

"None."

"Are their needs all very similar to those of Evangelina?" I ask.

"Yes," she replied.

"Now, we know what the students need," I said.

During this intense interchange, I was aware of Beatriz's agony and also aware that I must not show her how much I valued this dialectical process. From my point of view, we were trying to reason correctly and to critically look at the needs of this students. The fact that we had previously approached this from different philosophical path was not a problem. We were now trying to learn from opposite views. We were questioning previously-held assumptions which were reflected in the practices of this school. This dialogic process was to become the most valuable part of the process for all of us during the year.

"But, what about the other two first grades? What will happen in those classes? Renee can't even speak Spanish. How will she do this?" Beatriz asked. There was tension in her voice. The questions continued to pour out of her. How? How? How? Beatriz's frustration mounted. My spirits soared. After one year, we were finally asking the right questions.

"Can Carolina teach the content in Spanish?" I asked.

"Yes."

"Can Renee teach Math and oral English?" I asked

"Yes," she responded.

"What about a team-teaching model?" I wondered. "What does Carolina do best?" I asked.

"She says that she likes reading and language arts best, and I like social studies and science best," Beatriz says.

"Sounds like you have everything you need," I said.

After this discussion, Beatriz immediately went to work to arrange a meeting of the first grade teachers, the principal, and the director from the district office. The purpose was to talk about the implementation of a team-teaching bilingual first grade program. I was invited, but made some excuse that I couldn't attend. Ownership was vital to this fragile concept. Within days, the program had been implemented. It didn't require a state mandate, nor a curriculum writing process, nor a penny extra. This significant change came about because those in the school community talked to each other and were not afraid to ask a fundamental question: What do our students need and how can we provide it?

## The Framework for Intervention

The data reflect the emergence of Cummins' Framework for Intervention (1989; p. 59) . **OPS** were changing to **PROPS** (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1986). On a continuum of change, subtractive was moving towards additive; exclusionary to inclusionary; transmission to transactive knowledge; legitimization towards advocacy. Not all the words in the data were the exact words of Cummins', but the concepts were the same. The staff development had triggered a process of interaction which was transforming the teachers and students. The teachers were becoming empowered through their interactions within their context; teachers were mediating their environment (Freire & Macedo, 1987). The Framework for Intervention of Cummins and the OPS /PROPS framework of Skutnabb-Kangas have been joined in order to encompass the knowledge generation of this project. (See FIGURE 1.) In answer to the original question of this study: What can we do to raise the achievement and self-concept of our bilingual students? One way for districts to affect meaningful and positive change is to follow the guidelines

provided by Cummins and Skutnabb-Kangas theoretical frameworks which have been joined in Figure 1.

In the Framework for Intervention, Cummins (1989) posits that educational equity for language minority students will become a reality only when educators and families acknowledge the subtle (and, not so subtle) forms of discrimination which exist in society and which are reflected in the schools. Overt racism of the past has become covert institutionalized racism of today, and, it is this process of subjugation which prevents language minority students from succeeding at the same level as their English-only peers. This institutionalized racism is reflected daily in the interactions of students and teachers. Educators need to acknowledge such racism and see bilingual education in a broader framework of anti-racist education (Cummins, 1989).

The intervention framework portrays a process of change from an Anglo-conformity orientation to an inter-cultural orientation. Cummins' theoretical framework posits that this change process takes place simultaneously on four different fronts: (a) the cultural and linguistic incorporation needs to move from subtractive to additive; (b) the community participation needs to shift from exclusionary to collaborative; (c) the pedagogy must change from transmission to interactive and experiential; and (d) assessment of the program abandons a legitimization-orientation and moves towards an advocacy-orientation. The students empower themselves within a more critical and supportive framework.

Throughout the process, the data reveal that staff development, per se, was having a very limited effect; however, it was obvious that the staff development triggered interaction, and the interaction led to transformation. The transformation which took place was the Framework for Intervention.

## Conclusions

It can be concluded that Alamo Elementary reflects a shift from assimilation to acculturation; from an ethnocentric approach to a pluralistic approach; from bicultural ambivalence to cultural pride; from the melting pot to mosaic. The data indicate that the changes did not happen in a linear and isolated manner as unexpected paths developed from the interaction.

The data indicate that bilingual education needs to be viewed from the broader perspective of critical pedagogy. The conclusions of this research project go well beyond the confines of second language acquisition and cooperative learning. In this context, students were better served because the school community created an anti-racist and critical approach to education. The school community followed the guidelines established by the Cummins' Framework for Intervention and the Skutnabb-Kangas OPS/PROPS Framework.

During the course of the data collection, several findings were completely unexpected. The first ancillary finding was that several monolingual English staff members were particularly effective because they were not afraid to challenge their long-held assumptions, and they were not afraid of change. They became actively involved in changing the status quo so that bilingual students could be served in their primary language. The second ancillary finding was that the team-teaching model, which was not planned for in the original ethodology,

grew naturally from the context. The data indicate that the teachers consistently felt that they could change their environment.

## Recommendations

The recommendations from this study are that more research needs to be conducted (a) to conceptualize and articulate the relationship between bilingual education and critical pedagogy; (b) to articulate the criteria which are part of being an effective bilingual administrator; (c) to find ways to more effectively include all teachers (monolingual and bilingual) within bilingual education; (c) to articulate specific ways that districts can implement Cummins' and Skutnabb-Kangas' shared framework.

Update: December 1993

After this research project, the school was closed, and the children and teachers were scattered to various schools sites within the district. Many of these schools provided no bilingual support. Since that time, the principal, has continued to exert strong leadership in the district and is gradually pulling the teachers, the students, and the families into her new school community. Beatriz has recently been nominated as the Outstanding Teacher in her school. Carolina was placed in a school where the principal feels that a teacher's worth is reflected in her ability to fill out all the forms correctly and turn them in on time -- never Carolina's strong suit. The last time I spoke with her, she told me she wanted to write. This is a story that needs to be told.

Some of the citations in the Review of Literature have been updated to include more recent voices which support the original concepts.

Those taking part in the presentation during the NABE Conference were:

Dr. Joan Wink, California State University, Stanislaus
Dr. Hermán S. García, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces
Rose Mary Neshyba, Principal, Bryan, Texas
Carmen Montalvo, Bilingual Teacher, Bryan, Texas
Renee Richards, ESL Teacher, Bryan, Texas

## References

Apple, M. (1986). Teachers and Text: A Political Economy of Class and Gender Relations in Education. New York: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Berthoff, A. (1990). Paulo Freire's liberation pedagogy. California Association for Bilingual Education Newsletter, 13(3), 6-15.

Beutel, C. (1990). To transform the world: All the rest is commentary. California Association for Bilingual Education Newsletter, 13(5), 3-13.

Bruner, J. (1978). The role of dialogue in language acquisition. In A. Sinclair, R. Javella, & W. Levet (Eds.), The child's conception of language (pp. 241-256). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Chomsky, N. (1959). Review of verbal behavior. Language, 35, 26-58.

Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

Cortés, C. (1986). The education of language minority students: A contextual interaction model. In Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students (pp. 3-34). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Cummins, J. (1989). Empowering Minority Students. Sacramento, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (1990, January). Empowerment and Critical Pedagogy in Bilingual Teacher Training Programs. Paper presented at the meeting of National Association for Bilingual Education, Tucson, AZ.

Darder, A. (1990). Critical bicultural pedagogy as a foundation for bilingual education. California Association for Bilingual Education Newsletter, 13(5), 12-14.

Díaz, S., Moll, L., & Mehan, H. (1986). Sociocultural resources in instruction: A context-specific approach. In Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students (pp. 187-230). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center,

California State University.

Eisner, E. (1991). The Enlightened Eye. New York: Macmillan.

Fishman, J. (1977). The social science perspective. In Bilingual Education: Current Perspectives, 1, (pp. 13-24). Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Freire, P. (1985). The Politics of Education. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Freire, P., & Macedo, D. (1987). Literacy: Reading the Word and the World. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Giroux, H. (1987). Critical literacy and students experience. Donald Graves' approach to literacy. Language Arts, 64(2), 175-181.

Giroux, H. (1988). Teachers As Intellectuals: Toward a Critical Pedagogy of Learning. New York: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Hamers, J., & Blanc, H. (1989). Bilinguality and Bilingualism. Cambridge, England: Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge.

Hakuta, K. (1986). Mirror of Language: The debate on bilingualism. New York: Basic Books.

Hakuta, K. (1990). Bilingualism and bilingual education: A research perspective. Focus, 1, 1-11.

Heath, S. (1983). Ways with Words: Language, Life, and Work in Communities and Classrooms. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Heath, S. (1986). Sociocultural contexts of language development. In Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students (pp. 143-186). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Hymes, D. (1982). What is ethnography? In P. Gilmore and A. Glatthorn (Eds.), Ethnography and Education: Children In and Out of School (pp. 3-11). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, S. (1981). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework (pp. 51-82). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. (1983). The Natural Approach. New York: Pergamon Press.

Kuhn, T. (1970). The Structure of Scientific Revolutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lambert, W. (1972). Language, Psychology and Culture: Essays by Wallace E. Lambert. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Lambert, W. (1981). Bilingualism and second language acquisition. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 379, 9-22.

Lucas, T., Henze, R., & Donato, R. (1990). Promoting the success of Latino language-minority students: An exploratory study of six high schools. Harvard Educational Review, 60(3), 315-340.

McLaren, P. (1989). Life in Schools: An Introduction to Critical Pedagogy in the Foundations of Education. New York: Longman.

Ogbu, J., & Matute-Bianchi, M. E. (1986). Understanding sociocultural factors: Knowledge, identity, and school adjustment. In Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students (pp. 73-142). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Poplin, M., & Weeres J. (1993). Voices From The Inside. Claremont, CA: The Institute for Education in Transformation at The Claremont Graduate School.

Richard-Amato, P. (1988). Making It Happen: interaction in the second language classroom: from theory to practice. New York: Longman.

Romaine, S. (1989). Bilingualism. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Ryan, W. (1972). Blaming the Victim. New York: Random House.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). Bilingualism or Not. Avon, England: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1986). Who wants to change what and why conflicting paradigms in minority education research. In B. Spolsky (Ed.), Language and Education in Multilingual Settings (pp. 153-181). Avon, England: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Cummins, J. (Eds.). (1988). Minority Education: From Shame to Struggle. Avon, England: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Vygotsky, L. (1962). Thought and Language. Cambridge, MA: The Cambridge Press.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind and Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wink, J. (1993). Critical Pedagogy: What in the World is It? CABE Newsletter. 16(3), 5-26.

# EFFECTIVE BILINGUAL AND ESL TEACHERS: CHARACTERISTICS AND THE ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVELS OF THEIR STUDENTS

**Lilliam M. Malavé**

**ABSTRACT**

This paper presents a study that examined the characteristics of early childhood teachers of limited English proficient (LEP) students and the oral language proficiency of students who participated in the classrooms of identified effective bilingual and English as a second language (ESL) teachers. It surveyed parents, teachers and administrators to identify effective instruction characteristics of bilingual and ESL teachers of kindergarten, first and second grade LEP children. In addition, it determined the English and Spanish oral language proficiency levels of the students in relation to their participation in effective or very effective classrooms. District wide data were collected about the characteristics of effective bilingual and ESL teachers. Oral language proficiency data were collected from twelve classrooms with K-2 LEP students of six schools in a Western New York urban school district. The results indicate the while the students made statistically significant gains in the two languages, there were no statistically significant gains associated with participation in very effective vs effective classrooms.

## Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine effective instruction characteristics of bilingual and ESL teachers and the level of oral language proficiency of limited-English proficient students participating in the bilingual and ESL classrooms of selected effective teachers. Specifically, the study surveyed parents, teachers and administrators to determine what were the perceived effective instruction characteristics of K-12 teachers of LEP students. In addition, the study identified effective teachers through nominations and classified them as effective or very effective to examine the oral language proficiency level of their students. Two research questions were stated.

Research Questions

1) According to parents, teachers, and administrators; what are the effective instruction characteristics of bilingual and ESL teachers of LEP students ?

2) Is there a significant difference between the oral language performance of LEP students participating in effective classrooms and the performance of those participating in very effective classrooms?

Review of the Literature

During the last two decades much emphasis has been placed in the study of effective schools. Research in bilingual, ESL and early childhood education reflects the evolution of recent findings in the field of effective classroom instruction. The conceptualizations of many studies in effective bilingual- early childhood instruction include frameworks established in the respective fields of second language acquisition, early childhood and effective schools. The literature has demonstrated that effective bilingual and ESL instruction shared many of the characteristics of effective instruction but that at the same time there are characteristics unique to bilingual and ESL instruction (Borich, 1979; Tikunoff, Ward, Lash, Dunbar, & Rounds, 1980). Troisi (1983) cites characteristics of effective teachers related to instruction in bilingual and ESL settings: personal, context related, process oriented, and product specific. Brisk et al. (1990) states that effective bilingual teachers: demonstrate a strong sense of commitment and advocacy, do work that goes beyond teaching, care about their students, have a good understanding of the students background, have high expectations, and focus instruction on learning and on learning a second language. Soto (1990) states that ESL teachers at the elementary level possess collective knowledge and skills or intuition Additional characteristics of successful bilingual teachers include: using the native language to mediate instruction, creating an environment where students have social contact with native speakers of the other language, using the native language and other transmittals of the native culture, demonstrating high quality of the instructional language, and enriching the nature of the linguistic material from which the child construes English (Fillmore, 1991; Tikunoff et al., 1980; Olesini, 1971; Plante, 1976; Mace-Matluck, 1990). Pease-Alvarez, García, & Espinosa (1991) focuses on the characteristics of effective bilingual early childhood teachers. He states that these teachers: are bilingual-biliterate in the two languages of the child; upgrade their skills continually and serve as mentors to other teachers; are responsive to changes and new developments; use practices that reflect the culture and language of the child; use a holistic approach to teaching; encourage cooperation among students; establish trusting and caring relationships in the classrooms; share a commitment to bilingualism, biliteracy, and cultural integration.

Bredekamp (1989) discusses integrated components of developmentally appropriate practices for early childhood. The discussion includes: the use of a curriculum that integrates content learning through projects, learning centers, playful activities, and that reflects the interests of students; an environment for children to learn through active involvement with each other, adults and older children; a classroom that promotes cooperation among children; settings that provide concrete learning materials; adults who promote pro-social behavior, industry and independence by providing stimulating and motivating experiences; a view of parents as educational partners; ability to assess progress through observations and recorded behaviors; availability of classroom space with an adult ratio regulated; and personnel appropriately trained to work with young children.

The study presented in this paper examines to the extent that the characteristics cited in the literature are reflected in the selection of effective bilingual and ESL teachers. It also investigates the oral language performance of limited-English proficient students who participated in selected effective classrooms.

## Methodology

Instruments and Procedures

For the first part of the study a questionnaire (see Appendix A) was developed to investigate the characteristics of effective teachers of limited-English proficient students. It included three questions used for this study: 1) What is an effective teacher?, 2) Which are the particular characteristics that effective bilingual and/or ESL teachers have?, and 3) Can you identify no more than five very effective k-2 bilingual and/or ESL teachers in your school? (A fourth question for another study was also included.) Thirty-two questionnaires were administered to four groups: 1) eight parents who visited the schools during the two months the data were collected, 2) eight bilingual teachers, 3) eight administrators responsible for ESL and bilingual programs, and 4) eight ESL teachers.

The Language Assessment Scale (LAS), an instrument approved by the NY. State Education Department to identify the oral language proficiency of LEP children, was used to determine the oral language proficiency scores of the students participating in K-2 classrooms where bilingual and ESL teachers had been nominated as effective.

Sample

To identify the sample population it became necessary to follow several steps. First, the pre and post-test scores on the LAS of all the K-2 children in bilingual or ESL programs in the district were identified. The scores of 487 students in 28 self contained classrooms (with 25 bilingual teachers or tutors and 15 ESL teachers) were collected (see Appendix B). Second, since the majority of the students received services from both bilingual and ESL teachers, all the groups (except one) who were serviced only by tutors or one ESL or one bilingual teacher were excluded from the study. Third, since there were no pre-test scores for kindergarten and in addition, some kindergarten groups had no ESL teachers, students in kindergarten were also eliminated for the second part of the study. Fourth, the groups in which the ESL or bilingual teachers were not nominated as effective; i.e., received zero nominations, were eliminated. This process resulted in the selection of six schools to participate in the second part of the study. In these six schools all the LEP students had been pre and post-tested with the English LAS and all were participating in classes with ESL and bilingual teachers nominated as effective (See Table 1).

Table 1

| SCHOOL | #STNTS | BIL | NOM | ESL | NOM | T1 | T1 MEAN | T2 | T2 MEAN | GAIN | MEAN GAIN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SCHOOL BB | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 24 | C | 3 | EC | 5 | 436 | 18.17 | 1111 | 46.29 | 675 | 28.13 |
| GRADE 2 | 17 | D | 4 | EC | 5 | 430 | 25.30 | 879 | 51.70 | 449 | 26.41 |
| TOTAL | 41 | | | | | 866 | 16.98 | 1990 | 39.02 | 1124 | 27.41 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| SCHOOL CC | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 35 | F | 1 | ED | 1 | 2159 | 61.69 | 2598 | 74.23 | 439 | 12.54 |
| GRADE 2 | 18 | | | EE | 1 | 1293 | 71.83 | 1489 | 82.72 | 196 | 10.89 |
| TOTAL | 53 | | | | | 3452 | 65.13 | 4087 | 77.11 | 635 | 11.98 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| SCHOOL DD | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 13 | I | 2 | EG | 2 | 693 | 53.31 | 919 | 70.69 | 226 | 17.38 |
| GRADE 2 | 13 | J | 4 | EH | 1 | 667 | 51.31 | 1036 | 79.69 | 369 | 28.38 |
| TOTAL | 26 | | | | | 1360 | 52.31 | 1955 | 75.19 | 595 | 22.88 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| SCHOOL EE | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 24 | M | 3 | EI | 4 | 1376 | 57.33 | 1680 | 70.00 | 304 | 12.67 |
| GRADE 2 | 13 | P | 1 | EJ | 1 | 903 | 69.46 | 1065 | 81.92 | 162 | 12.46 |
| TOTAL | 37 | | | | | 2279 | 61.59 | 2745 | 74.19 | 466 | 12.59 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| SCHOOL FF | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 22 | R | 1 | EK | 2 | 728 | 33.09 | 1279 | 58.14 | 551 | 25.05 |
| GRADE 2 | 20 | S | 3 | EK | 2 | 688 | 34.40 | 1102 | 55.10 | 414 | 20.70 |
| TOTAL | 42 | | | | | 1416 | 33.71 | 2381 | 56.69 | 965 | 22.98 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| SCHOOL HH | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRADE 1 | 37 | X | 4 | EN | 5 | 2198 | 59.41 | 2756 | 74.49 | 558 | 15.08 |
| GRADE 2 | 31 | Y | 3 | EO | 7 | 2113 | 68.16 | 2428 | 78.32 | 315 | 10.16 |
| TOTAL | 68 | | | | | 4311 | 63.40 | 5184 | 76.24 | 873 | 12.84 |

The six schools used in the second part of the study included twelve classrooms (6 first and 6 second grades), 11 bilingual and 10 ESL teachers, and 267 LEP students. Since all but one of the groups received instruction from both a bilingual and an ESL teacher (to have enough second graders one group with only an ESL teacher was included), the groups were ranked according to the number of nominations that the ESL/bilingual team received in the questionnaires. Two categories of effective teachers were also created: effective (4 nominations or less for the team) and very effective (7 to 10 nominations). Two teams of second grade teachers and their students were not used for the purpose of determining the relationship between these two categories and the language proficiency of the children. The two teams eliminated were nominated five times and therefore were considered a midpoint category and could not be placed in either group, effective or very effective (see Table 2).

Table 2

| BT/ET | GR | SCH | TOTAL | NOMS # STNTS | PRETEST | POSTTEST | GAIN | MEAN GAIN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | GROUP E | | | | |
| /EE | 2 | CC | 1 | 18 | 1293 | 1489 | 196 | 10.89 |
| F/ED | 1 | CC | 2 | 35 | 2159 | 2598 | 439 | 12.54 |
| P/EJ | 2b | EE | 2 | 13 | 903 | 1065 | 162 | 12.46 |
| R/EK | 1 | FF | 3 | 22 | 728 | 1279 | 551 | 25.05 |
| I/EG | 1 | DD | 4 | 13 | 693 | 919 | 226 | 17.38 |
| | | | | REJECTED | | | | |
| J/EH | 2 | DD | 5 | 13 | 667 | 1036 | 369 | 28.38 |
| S/EK | 2 | FF | 5 | 20 | 688 | 1102 | 414 | 20.70 |
| | | | | GROUP VE | | | | |
| M/EI | 1a | EE | 7 | 24 | 1376 | 1680 | 304 | 12.67 |
| C/EC | 1 | BB | 8 | 24 | 436 | 1111 | 675 | 28.13 |
| X/EN | 1 | HH | 9 | 37 | 2198 | 2756 | 558 | 15.08 |
| D/EC | 2 | BB | 9 | 17 | 430 | 879 | 449 | 26.41 |
| Y/EO | 2 | HH | 10 | 31 | 2113 | 2428 | 315 | 10.16 |

## Results

The results were organized to answer the two research questions. The first question addresses the characteristics of effective bilingual and ESL teachers. The questionnaire generated information related to the characteristics of effective teachers in general, and of effective bilingual and ESL teachers in particular. There were two type of responses: professional and personal characteristics. Table 3 illustrates that overall on the professional indicator the respondents answered that an effective teacher must be aware of techniques and strategies of teaching (37.5%). On the personal indicators the respondents emphasized caring about the students (18.75%). The administrators and the bilingual teachers felt that an effective teacher must be aware (50%) and consider (37.5%) the needs of the students, while the parents emphasized knowledge of both languages and motivation (25%).There was more consensus on the perceptions of the ESL teachers than in the perceptions of the other respondents. ESL teachers reflected the results of the overall responses: knowledge of correct strategies (75%) in the professional indicators, and caring about the students (62.5%) in the personal indicator. Administrators indicated that both to be organized (25%) and to care (25%) are important personal characteristics. In addition bilingual teachers also mentioned personal characteristics such as to be sensitive, loving, dedicated, patient, gentle, kind, compassionate, and organized. Parents, like bilingual teachers, added to the personal characteristics to be organized and patient. They also included to have good manners and a good personality, to be aware of the students emotional needs, and to be helpful.

The questionnaire also provided information about the particular characteristics of effective bilingual or ESL teachers. The overall responses on the professional indicator show that awareness of the students cultural background (53.1%) and understanding the children (18.8) were the most frequent responses. When the four groups of respondents were considered individually they also reflected a concern for the cultural background of the students (administrators, 50%; bilingual teachers, 50%; ESL teachers, 75%; parents, 37.5%). In addition, the parents and

the bilingual teachers added language as an important characteristics. On the personal characteristics the overall answers dealt with understanding the children (18.8), with the ESL teachers also reflecting this particular perception (50%). On the personal characteristics the administrators expressed dedication and determination ( 25%), while bilingual teachers and parents provided 14 different answers. The bilingual teachers, just as the ESL teachers, mentioned understanding the children, and as the parents, they mentioned to be responsible. While bilingual teachers added that effective bilingual and ESL teachers must be respectful, parents added the they must: have good manners and communication skills; be polite, organized, patient and gentle; and like teaching.

The second research question explores the relationship between nomination as effective bilingual and ESL teachers and the oral language proficiency of the limited-English proficient students. To answer this question the oral language proficiency pre and post test ( LAS) scores of all the first and second grade LEP in six schools were collected. There were 267 students, 11 bilingual teachers and 10 ESL teachers. Eleven teams of a bilingual and ESL teacher and a one ESL teacher team were ranked according to the number of nominations they received on the questionnaire. The ranking ranges from 1 to 10 nominations. Two categories of effective and very effective teachers were established. Teams with four or less nominations were classified as effective and those with seven or more were classified as very effective. Two teams with five nominations each were not included to establish a clear distinction between the two categories, assuming that a score of five or six represented a midpoint category (see Table 2).

Table 3

EFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF ANY TEACHER

| FROM: | PROFESSIONAL | % OF ANSWERS | PERSONAL | % OF ANSWERS |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALL QUESTIONNAIRES | Aware of techniques and strategies | 37.5 | Cares about students | 18.75 |
| ADMINISTRATORS | Aware of students needs | 50 | Organized, Caring | 25 |
| BIL TEACHERS | Considers individual needs | 37.5 | *(8 given) | 12.5 ea. |
| ESL TEACHERS | Select correct strategies | 75 | Cares about students | 82.5 |
| PARENTS | knowledge of both languages/ Motivation | 25 | **(6 given) | 12.5 ea. |

*The eight given are sensitive, loving, dedicated, patient, gentle, kind, compassionate, organized
**The six given are organized, good manners, good personality, aware of students' emotional needs, patient, helpful

EFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF BIL/ESL TEACHERS

| FROM: | PROFESSIONAL | % OF ANSWERS | PERSONAL | % OF ANSWERS |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALL QUESTIONNAIRES | Aware of students cultural background | 55.13 | Understands children | 18.75 |
| ADMINISTRATORS | Aware of cultural background | 50 | Dedicated/Determination | 25 |
| BIL TEACHERS | Understand culture and language | 50 | *(3 given) | 25 ea. |
| ESL TEACHERS | Culturally sensitive | 75 | Understand students | 50 |
| PARENTS | Understand culture/both languages | 37.5 | **(11 given) | 12.5 ea. |

*The three given are understand children, responsible, respectful
**The eleven given are responsible, dynamic, organized, likes teaching, good manners, polite, gentle, good communication with parents good listener, loves children, and patient

Table four illustrates the t-test conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between gains in the pre and post-test scores of each group and the number of nominations teachers received in each group, VE and E. The gains for the groups with very effective (VE) teams of teachers were

found to be significant at p<.01. The gain for the groups with the effective (E) teams of teachers was significant at lower level, p<.02. A Spearman correlation analysis between the number of nominations compared to the total gains of each class was conducted and a moderate positive correlation of .68 was found. However, since group VE had more students than group E, 133 vs 101, further analysis was required to explore the effect of the difference in sample size. A Spearman rho was calculated using the mean gains for each group, rather than raw scores, and the number of nominations for the teams. A very low correlation coefficient of .25 was found. To determine how different the groups were, a t-test for related groups was conducted using mean gains rather than the total gains. No significant difference was found between the means of both groups, VE and E (t=1.66, p< .05). Using an analysis of variance, ANOVA, no significance difference between the two groups (F(1,8)=.28, p<.05). An F-test was calculated and the value obtained ( F=1.87, df=4/4) was not equal to or greater than the table F values. It seems that there was no significant difference between mean gains of groups VE and E.

Table 4

t-TEST FOR GROUP VE N= 5 df=4

| BT/ET | SCH | TOT NOM | X values | Y values | DIFF | Sq DIFF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| M/EI | EE | 7 | 1376.00 | 1680.00 | 304 | -1376 |
| C/EC | BB | 8 | 436.00 | 1111.00 | 675 | -436 |
| X/EN | HH | 9 | 2198.00 | 2756.00 | 558 | -2198 |
| D/EC | BB | 9 | 430.00 | 879.00 | 449 | -430 |
| Y/EO | HH | 10 | 2113.00 | 2428.00 | 315 | -2113 |
| | | Σ= | 6553.00 | 8854.00 | 2301 | 1160231 |
| | | MEANS= | 1310.60 | 1770.80 | 460.20 | |
| | | (ΣD)sq = | 5294601 | | | |
| | | StErr= | 71.17 | | | |
| | | **t= | 6.47 | | | |
| | | t(4), p .01 | 4.6 | | | |

t-TEST FOR GROUP E N= 5 df=4

| BT/ET | SCH | TOT NOM | X values | Y values | DIFF | Sq DIFF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| EE* | CC | 1 | 1293.00 | 1489.00 | 196 | 38416 |
| F/ED | CC | 2 | 2159.00 | 2598.00 | 439 | 192721 |
| P/EJ | EE | 2 | 903.00 | 1065.00 | 162 | 26244 |
| R/EK | FF | 3 | 728.00 | 1279.00 | 551 | 303601 |
| I/EG | DD | 4 | 693.00 | 919.00 | 226 | 51076 |
| | | Σ= | 5776.00 | 7350.00 | 1574 | 612058 |
| | | MEANS= | 1155.20 | 1470.00 | 314.80 | |
| | | (ΣD)sq= | 2477476 | | | |
| | | StErr= | 76.34 | | | |
| | | **t= | 4.12 | | | |
| | | t(4),p.01= | 4.60 | | | |

*ESL TEACHER ONLY
** sigificant at p .01
*** not sigificant at p .01

The data in Table 5 illustrate that in each grade the group of students (teams N/EI and O/EJ) who scored lower(51.66 and 51.38) in the pre-test had higher mean gains (19.90 and 18.05) in the post test. The students (teams M/EI and P/EJ) who scored more in the pre-test (57.33 and 69.46) had fewer mean gains (12.67 and 12.46). Graph 4 illustrates a comparison of the pre-test mean and the mean gain. For example, the team (Y/EO) with the largest number of nominations (10) and the second highest pre-test mean(68.16) have the smallest mean gain (10.16). A Spearman rho correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the mean gain and the pre-test scores. A correlation coefficient of -.95 was found, indicating a strong negative relationship. As the mean pre-test LAS scores went up, the mean gain scores went down. (see Graph 4). Another set of results that support this negative relationship are illustrated in the analysis of the mean gains when the schools are categorized by low or high LAS pre-test mean scores.

Table 5

| Grade | Teachers | Noms. | # of Stnts | T1 | T1 Mean | T2 | T2 Mean | Mean Gain |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | M/EI | 32935 | 24 | 1376 | 57.33 | 1680 | 70.00 | 12.67 |
| 1 | N/EI | 0/4 | 21 | 1085 | 51.66 | 1503 | 71.57 | 19.90 |
| 2 | P/EJ | 32873 | 13 | 903 | 69.46 | 1065 | 81.92 | 12.46 |
| 2 | O/EJ | 0/1 | 21 | 1079 | 51.38 | 1458 | 69.43 | 18.05 |

Graph 4:

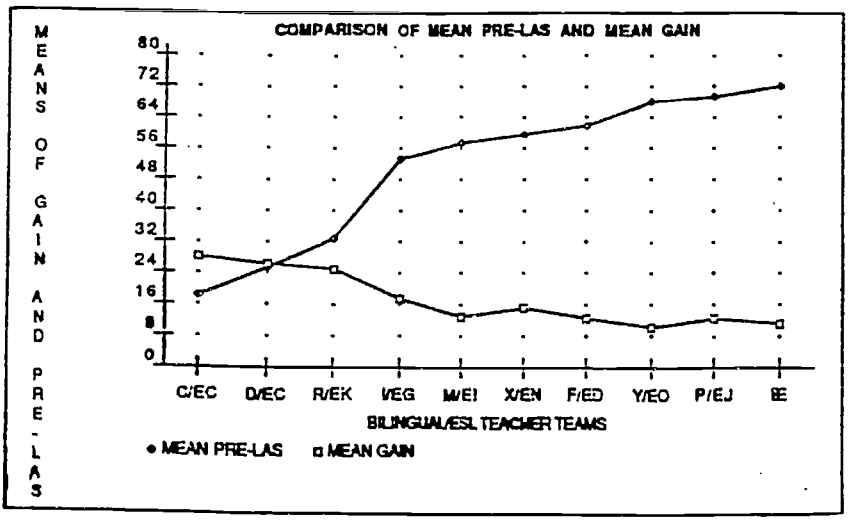



Table 6 illustrates the schools categorized by those in which the mean of the pre-test scores were less than 55 and those in which the means were more than 55. There were the same number of schools (6) and the same number of grades (3 first and 3 second) in each group. A related group t-test was calculated on the dif-

ference between matched pairs of means of the pre-test scores . There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of schools, $t(5)=5.20$, $p < .01$.

Table 6

| Group BDF | | | Group CEH | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School/ Grade | Mean Pretest | % of Gain* | School/ Grade | Mean Pretest | % of Gain* | Difference of Means | Diff. Squared |
| BB/1 | 18.17 | 155% | EE/1 | 57.33 | 22% | 39.16 | 1533.51 |
| BB/2 | 25.30 | 104% | EE/2 | 69.46 | 18% | 44.16 | 1950.11 |
| FF/1 | 33.09 | 76% | CC/1 | 59.41 | 20% | 26.32 | 692.74 |
| FF/2 | 34.40 | 60% | CC/2 | 68.16 | 15% | 33.76 | 1139.74 |
| DD/1 | 53.31 | 33% | HH/1 | 61.69 | 25% | 8.38 | 70.22 |
| DD/2 | 51.31 | 55% | HH/2 | 71.83 | 15% | 18.52 | 342.99 |
| | | | | | Totals | 170.30 | 5729.31 |

$\Sigma D = 170.30$ $(\Sigma D)^2 = 29002.09$ $\Sigma D^2 = 5729.31$ $\bar{D} = 23.38$

$N = 6$ $df = 5$

$t = 5.20$ $t(5),\ p < .01 = 4.03$

* % over mean pretest score

Another element considered was the comparison of mean grade scores across grade levels. Graph 1 illustrates that grade one students received higher mean gain scores in every school but one (DD). T-tests(see Table 7) indicated that both first and second grades made significant gains ($t(5)=6.63$, $p<.01$ and $t(5)=6.66$, $p<.01$ respectively). A Spearman rho analysis did not show a significant relationship between the number of nominations the teachers received and the mean gains for the grades. Spearman rho of .o4 and .02 for first and second grade respectively were calculated. Graphs 2 and 3 illustrate comparisons of the mean gains per grade in relation to the number of nominations the team of effective teachers received. Since LEP first graders are generally expected to score lower than LEP second graders, the results concur with previous results that indicate that the lower the scores in the LAS the students receive, the higher the mean gains they will obtained.

Graph 1

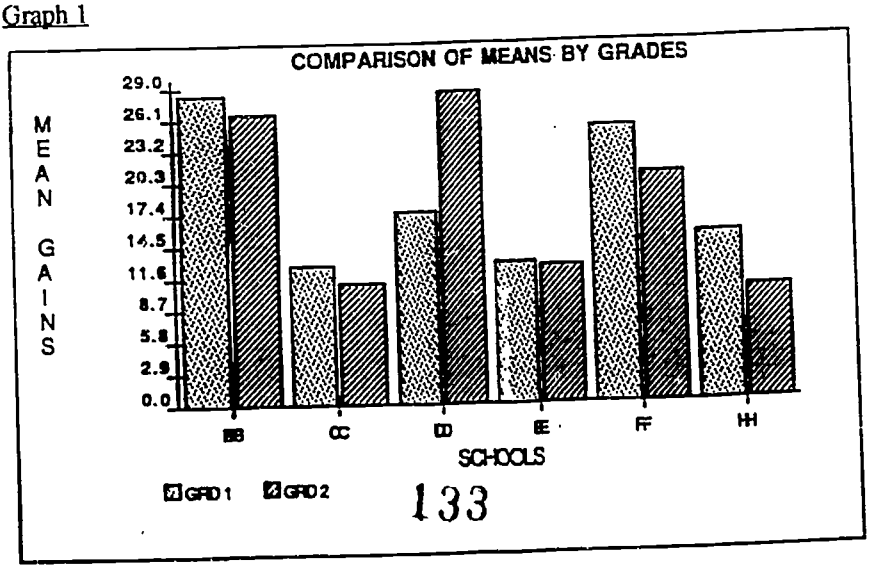


Table 7:

t-TEST FOR FIRST GRADES N= 6 df=5

| SCH | BT/ET | BT/NOM | ET/NOM | PRE-LAS | POST-LAS | DIFF | Sq DIFF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BB | C/EC | 3 | 5 | 436.00 | 1111.00 | 675 | 455625 |
| CC | F/ED | 1 | 1 | 2159.00 | 2598.00 | 439 | 192721 |
| DD | I/EG | 2 | 2 | 693.00 | 919.00 | 226 | 51076 |
| EE | M/EI | 3 | 4 | 1376.00 | 1680.00 | 304 | 92416 |
| FF | R/EK | 1 | 2 | 728.00 | 1279.00 | 551 | 303601 |
| HH | X/EN | 4 | 5 | 2198.00 | 2756.00 | 558 | 311364 |
| | | | Σ= | 7590.00 | 10343.00 | 2753 | 1406803 |
| | | | MEANS= | 1265.00 | 1723.83 | 458.83 | |
| | | | (ΣD)sq = | 7579009 | | | |
| | | | St.Err= | 69.19 | | | |
| | | | **t= | 6.63 | | | |
| | | | t(5), p .01 = | 4.03 | | | |

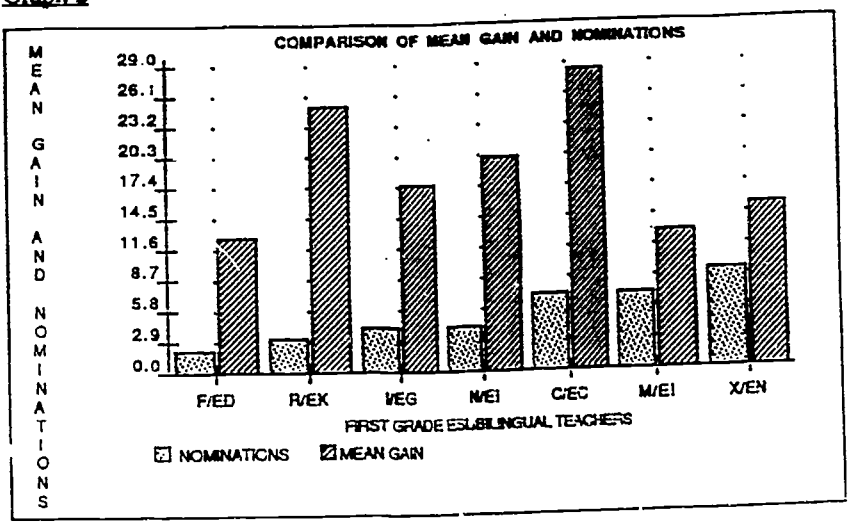
** t value significant at p < .01

t-TEST FOR SECOND GRADES N= 6 df=5

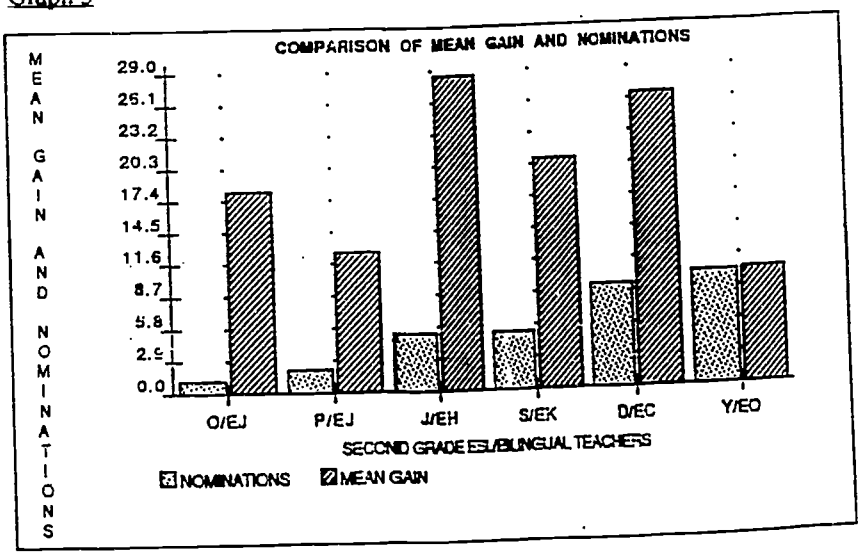
| SCH | BT/ET | BT/NOM | ET/NOM | PRE-LAS | POST-LAS | DIFF | Sq DIFF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BB | D/EC | 4 | 5 | 430.00 | 879.00 | 449 | 201601 |
| CC | /EE* | N/A | 1 | 1293.00 | 1489.00 | 196 | 38416 |
| DD | J/EH | 4 | 1 | 667.00 | 1036.00 | 369 | 136161 |
| EE | P/EJ | 1 | 1 | 903.00 | 1065.00 | 162 | 26244 |
| FF | S/EK | 3 | 2 | 688.00 | 1102.00 | 414 | 171396 |
| HH | Y/EO | 3 | 7 | 2113.00 | 2428.00 | 315 | 99225 |
| | | | Σ= | 6094.00 | 7999.00 | 1905 | 673043 |
| | | | MEANS= | 1015.67 | 1333.17 | 317.50 | |
| | | | (ΣD)sq= | 3629025 | | | |
| | | | St.Err= | 47.68 | | | |
| | | | **t= | 6.66 | | | |
| | | | t(5), p. 01= | 4.03 | | | |

** t value significant at p < .01

Graph 2




Graph 3




## Discussion

Findings

The findings of the first research question indicate that overall the respondents identify that an effective teacher must be aware of instructional techniques and strategies, have knowledge of the needs of the students, and must be motivated. Parents felt that an effective teacher must know English and the native language of the students. The findings indicate that the most unique professional

characteristics of an effective bilingual or ESL teacher are to have knowledge of the students culture and to speak English and the native language of the students. For both teacher categories, effective and effective bilingual and ESL, caring and understanding the children were the most important characteristics.

The findings of the second research question indicate that the students attained significant gains in English oral language performance. Statistically significant correlations were found between the number of nominations and the performance of the students. The more nominations received the stronger the correlation. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the performance of students participating in effective classrooms when compared with students that were participating in very effective classrooms.

The following example presents a possible explanation for the lack of differences between the students participating effective and very effective nominated classrooms. Table 5 illustrates four teams of teachers from the same school (see Appendix B) and the oral language performance of the students. Each team included the same ESL teacher but different bilingual teachers. The ESL teacher of each team was nominated as very effective however, only one of the bilingual teachers in each team was nominated as very effective. M, a first grade bilingual teacher, received 3 nominations and EI, an ESL teacher, received 4, for a total of 7 nominations. Their group's mean gain was 12.67. However, another first grade bilingual teacher, N, received 0 nominations but since EI had 4, their total was 4. Their group's mean gain was 19.90. For second grade, bilingual teacher P had 1 nomination and EJ, an ESL teacher, also had one nomination, for a total of 2. Their students' mean gain was 12.46. EJ's other team member, O, had no nominations. Their students' mean gain was 18.05. In both cases, the students with the team of teachers with fewer nominations had higher mean gains than those with teacher teams with more nominations and vice versa.

The results indicate that there was a negative significant correlation between the pre-test scores and the mean gains. However, the results also concur with the previous findings that in both grades the students made significant gains. It was then speculated that it is possible that the LAS does not measure gains as well for the students at the upper levels as it does for the students of lower level of language proficiency. It is also possible that the students at the lower levels are increasing their scores faster because ESL and bilingual instruction is geared toward their needs at the expense of the more advanced level LEP students. The possibility of a language proficiency plateau must be considered. Student can be reaching a language proficiency level difficult to surpass. As students language proficiency increases measurable gains are more difficult to achieve.

Conclusions and Implication

Many of the effective characteristics cited in literature were not identified by the respondents, although those identified were indeed cited in the literature. For the bilingual and ESL teachers, many of the characteristics cited in the literature were not identified. For example, the use of developmentally and culturally appropriate curriculum, materials and techniques were not mentioned. Nor were the use of cultural carriers like stories to transmit cultural information or the use of instructional practices congruent with the cultural background of language minority students (Tikunoff, et al., 1980). No respondent mentioned any of the appropriate instructional practices cited in the literature of young children. No

group of respondent addressed issues such as knowledge of developmentally appropriate curriculum and practices; use of age appropriate material, knowledge of developmental progress of young children; ability to create an environment that encourages active exploration and interaction with others; ability to created student centered learning activities and communication opportunities; ability to relate to the parents and home; knowledge of assessment of young children's progress; is qualified to provide guidance of social-emotional development; and has knowledge of motivation practices for young children (Pease-Alvarez et al., 1991; Bredekamp, 1989; Spodek, 1985).

This study supports the findings of a previous study which concluded that the effective instruction characteristics recognized by those who are directly involved in the implementation of early childhood bilingual and ESL programs do not in general reflect an extensive representation of the literature in effective schools, early childhood or effective bilingual instruction (Malavé, 1992). However, the few characteristics identified have been frequently cited in the literature. Díaz (1985) cites teaching techniques, Brisk et al. (1990) states that good teachers care about their students, Milk (1985; 1990), Oster (1989) and Vázquez (1989) refer to the importance of teachers to be sensitive to the students' needs and Watson, Northcutt & Rydell (1989) discuss organization when they refer to planning instruction. The need to be culturally sensitive has been established by authors such as Saville-Troike (1978), Kendall (1983)and Tikunoff (1981).

Future research needs to examine to the extent to which teachers do exhibit unique effective instruction characteristics impact on the educational performance of limited-English proficient students. There is also a need to investigate what are the unique characteristics of early childhood bilingual and ESL teachers and to what extent these translate into effective instruction which impacts the performance of students.

The results of this investigation also support the finding that LEP students gained mean score points in the oral part of the LAS. In addition, it illustrates that there was a positive relationship between the number of nominations that the effective bilingual and ESL teachers received and the mean gains of the students. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the oral language performance of students in classrooms of teachers categorized as effective vs the students in the classrooms of teachers categorized as very effective.

To explain the above findings several issues were examined. 1)It was speculated that since all the teachers were nominated as effective and the students in both groups attained significant gains, the important factor was to be in an effective classroom regardless if the teachers received many or just a few nominations. 2) It was considered that the process used to select the teachers resulted in the nominations of teachers "perceived as effective" rather than of teachers with " actual measurable degrees of effectiveness". 3) It was speculated that differences in the degrees of effectiveness of teachers' performance are reflected more in areas other than in English oral language. 4) It was also contemplated that ESL teachers could influence more ESL acquisition since the bilingual teacher could impact more other content areas. 5) It was considered that the nomination process does not result in the selection of effective teachers that actually impact their students differently from non-nominated teachers, and 6) It was realized that the categories of effective and very effective teachers could be artificial in relation to measuring the achievement level of the students' oral language performance.

A specific example was used to reinforce the issue of the selection of effective teachers in relation to "perceived" rather than actual "degrees of measurable effectiveness performance" as determined by the oral language mean gains of the students. The illustration brought to light other issues: 1) Does the LAS measure the mean gains of advanced ESL students as accurately as it measures the mean gains of beginning level students? In other words, does this instrument measure gains related to the basic communication skills often emphasized in beginning ESL classes rather than the cognitive and academic skills necessary for content area activities? 2) Are teachers emphasizing instruction for lower level students at the expense of upper level students? 3) Are teachers emphasizing basic communication skills at the expense of cognitive and academic language skills related to advanced ESL test questions?

The findings also demonstrate that there was a strong negative relationship between pre-tests scores and mean gains. The lower the initial scores of the students were, the higher their mean gains resulted. Even when schools were categorized using their low or high initial scores the results were consistent. There were statistically significant differences between the schools with low and those with high mean scores. When the scores were analyzed by grades, while both first and second grade achieved significant gains, grade one obtained higher mean gains. This finding seems consistent with the above finding that a low initial score correlates negatively with high mean gains. LEP first graders generally score lower in language tests than second graders. Therefore, it is consistent with the prior findings that the smaller the pre-test score the larger the gain. Future studies need to control for this factor to examine the impact that other variables such as effectiveness have on language acquisition.

Further research is needed to explain the relationship between leaning a second language and factors such as the ones discussed in this study. Among the ones discussed are: the relation between second language acquisition and teacher's characteristics; the possible effect of a language proficiency plateau; the impact of the initial level of language proficiency on language performance; the validity of language assessment instruments to measure different levels of ESL ; the identification process of effective teachers and the relation of their characteristics to the language performance of the students.

## References

Borich, G. D., et al. (1979). What the teacher effectiveness research has to say about teaching practices and student performance (R&D Report No. 105069). Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Bredekamp, S. (Ed.). (1989). Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age 8. (Expanded edition). Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Brisk, M.E. & others. (1990). The many voices of education for bilingual students in Massachusetts. Quincy, MA: Massachusetts State Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 327 606).

Díaz, R. M. (1985). Bilingual cognitive development: Addressing three gaps in current research. The Society for Research in Child Development, 56, 1376-1388.

Fillmore, L. W. (1991). When learning a second language means losing the first. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 6(3), 323-346.

Kendall, F. E. (1983). Diversity in the classroom: A multicultural approach to the education of young children. New York: Teachers College Press.

Mace-Mutluck, B. J. (1990). The Effective Schools Movement: Implications for Title VII and Bilingual Education Projects. In L. Malavé (Ed.). NABE Annual Conference Journal '88-'89. Washington, DC: National Association for Bilingual Education.

Malavé, L. (1992). Evaluating the Needs and Growth of ESL LEP Students in the Content Areas. SABE Journal, 8(1), 44.

Milk, R.D. (1990). Integrating language and content in the preparation of bilingual teachers. In L. Malavé (Ed.). NABE Annual Conference Journal '88-'89. (pp. 57-70). Washington, DC: National Association for Bilingual Education.

Milk, R.D. (1985). The changing role of ESL in bilingual education. TESOL Quarterly Journal, 19(4), 657-672.

Olesini, J. (1971). The effect of bilingual instruction on the achievement of elementary pupils. Doctoral dissertation, East Texas State University.

Oster, J. (1989). Seeing with different eyes: Another view of literature in the ESL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 23(1), 85-103.

Plante, A. J. (1976). A study of the effectiveness of the Connecticut "pairing" model of bilingual -bicultural education. Hamden, CT: Connecticut Staff Development Cooperative.

Pease-Alvarez, L., Garciá, E., & Espinosa, P. (1991). Effective Instruction for Language Minority Students: An Early Childhood Case Study. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 6(3), 347-361.

Savilla-Troike, M. (1978). A guide to culture in the classroom. Rosslyn, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Soto, W. (1990, April). Method, philosophy, or what? Some reflections on teaching EFL at the primary school. Paper presented at the World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Thessaloniki, Greece.

Spodek. B. (1985). Teaching in the early years. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Tikonuff, W. J. (1981). Second quarter report for significant bilingual instructional features study. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Tikonuff, W. J., Ward, B. A., Lash, A. A., Dunbar, C. R., & Rounds, T. S. (1980). A study of allocations and utilization of teaching-learning time in fourth grade mathematics: Student participation styles in instructional work activity. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Troisi, Nicholas F. (1983). Effective Teaching and student achievement. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Vásquez, J. A. (1989). Building instructional strategies from students' traits. NABE Journal, 13(2), 145-160.

Watson, D. I., Northcutt, L., & Rydell, L. (1989). Teaching bilingual students successfully. Educational Leadership, 46, 25-30.

Appendix A

Questionnaire

Name: (optional) _____ Date: _____

Position: _____

1. What is an effective teacher?

2. Which are the particular characteristics that every effective Bilingual or ESL teacher should have?

3. Are these the same characteristics the Department of Education consider to evaluate teachers?

4. Can you identify no more than five very effective Bilingual and/or ESL teachers in your school from grades K to 2nd?
(Note) You can name teachers who worked under your supervision last year and no longer work with you.

| Bilingual | ESL |
|---|---|
| A._____ | A._____ |
| B._____ | B._____ |
| C._____ | C._____ |
| D._____ | D._____ |
| E._____ | E._____ |

# Appendix B

| SCHOOLS | STUDENTS | BIL TCHER | BIL NOMS | ESL TCHER | ESL NOMS | T1 | T2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SCHOOL AA | | | | | | | |
| K | 21 | A | 3 | | | 1225.50 | 1478.50 |
| 1 | 21 | | | EA | 2 | 1440.00 | 1725.00 |
| 2 | 14 | | | EB | 2 | 1060.00 | 1301.00 |
| TOTAL | 56 | | | | | 3745.50 | 4504.50 |
| SCHOOL BB | | | | | | | |
| K | 10 | B | 2 | EC* | 5 | 258.00 | 463.00 |
| 1 | 24 | C | 3 | EC* | 5 | 436.00 | 1111.00 |
| 2 | 17 | D | 4 | EC* | 5 | 430.00 | 879.00 |
| TOTAL | 51 | | | | | 1124.00 | 2453.00 |
| SCHOOL CC | | | | | | | |
| K | | E | 0 | | | *** | *** |
| 1 | 35 | F | 1 | ED | 1 | 2159.00 | 2598.00 |
| 2 | 18 | | | EE | 1 | 1293.00 | 1489.00 |
| TOTAL | 53 | | | | | 3452.00 | 4087.00 |
| SCHOOL DD | | | | | | | |
| K | | G | 0 | | | *** | *** |
| K | | H | 1 | EF | 1 | *** | *** |
| 1 | 13 | I | 2 | EG | 2 | 693.00 | 919.00 |
| 2 | 13 | J | 4 | EH | 1 | 667.00 | 1036.00 |
| TOTAL | 26 | | | | | 1360.00 | 1955.00 |
| SCHOOL EE | | | | | | | |
| K-a | 13 | K | 3 | | | 347.00 | 431.00 |
| K-b | 24 | L | 0 | | | 692.00 | 1113.00 |
| SUBTOTAL | 37 | | | | | 1039.00 | 1544.00 |
| 1-a | 24 | M | 3 | EI* | 4 | 1376.00 | 1680.00 |
| 1-b | 21 | N | 0 | EI* | 4 | 1085.00 | 1503.00 |
| SUBTOTAL | 45 | | | | | 2461.00 | 3183.00 |
| 2-a | 21 | O | 0 | EJ* | 1 | 1079.00 | 1458.00 |
| 2-b | 13 | P | 1 | EJ* | 1 | 903.00 | 1065.00 |
| SUBTOTAL | 34 | | | | | 1982.00 | 2523.00 |
| SCH. TOTAL | 116 | | | | | 5482.00 | 7250.00 |
| SCHOOL FF | | | | | | | |
| K | 9 | Q | 1 | EK* | 2 | 238.00 | 519.00 |
| 1 | 22 | R | 1 | EK* | 2 | 728.00 | 1279.00 |
| 2 | 20 | S | 3 | EK* | 2 | 688.00 | 1102.00 |
| TOTAL | 51 | | | | | 1654.00 | 2900.00 |
| SCHOOL GG | | | | | | | |
| LAO | 8 | T** | 1 | EL | 2 | 274.00 | 602.00 |
| VIETNAMESE | 16 | U** | 2 | EM | 3 | 155.00 | 824.00 |
| RUSSIAN | 23 | V** | 0 | | | 163.00 | 1239.00 |
| TOTAL | 47 | | | | | 592.00 | 2665.00 |
| SCHOOL HH | | | | | | | |
| K | 19 | W | 1 | | | 816.00 | 949.00 |
| 1 | 37 | X | 4 | EN | 5 | 2198.00 | 2756.00 |
| 2 | 31 | Y | 3 | EO | 7 | 2113.00 | 2428.00 |
| TOTAL | 87 | | | | | 5127.00 | 6123.00 |

* taught more than 1 class ** bilingual tutor *** no LAS offered


1250 I STREET, N.W.
SUITE 500
WASHINGTON, D.C.
20005-4013

# END

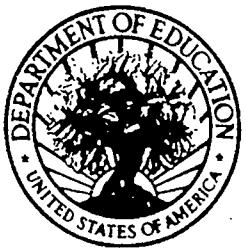
## U.S. Dept. of Education

Office of Educational
Research and Improvement (OERI)

# ERIC

## Date Filmed
## December 13, 1994

FL022341




U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

ERIC

# NOTICE

## REPRODUCTION BASIS

☐ This document is covered by a signed "Reproduction Release (Blanket)" form (on file within the ERIC system), encompassing all or classes of documents from its source organization and, therefore, does not require a "Specific Document" Release form.

☐ This document is Federally funded, or carries its own permission to reproduce, or is otherwise in the public domain and, therefore, may be reproduced by ERIC without a signed Reproduction Release form (either "Specific Document" or "Blanket").