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The bilingual special educator : preparation and implementation of the role in Massachusetts.

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THE BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATOR:
PREPARATION AND IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE ROLE IN MASSACHUSETTS

A Dissertation Presented

by

Patricia Medeiros Landurand

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

February, 1987

School of Education

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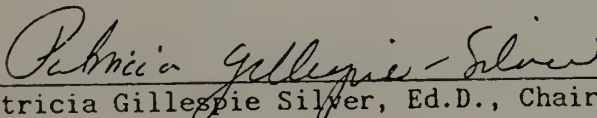
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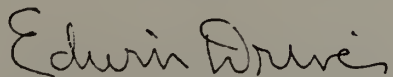
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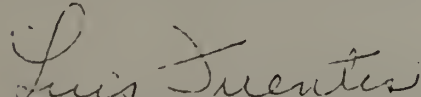
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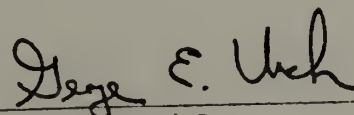
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My childhood experiences came from participation in a regular special education program where I was one of a handful of Spanish monolingual children. From the beginning I was faced with conflicting expectations. The English-speaking dominant culture of the school often vividly contrasted with my home culture. As a handicapped individual, I was caught between two value systems and fought desperately for acceptance in both. My family and I struggled to retain my Spanish identity while I was also trying to meet the success standards at a school set up by a culture totally foreign to me. This precarious position placed heavy demands on me as a child. A handicapped youngster must have extraordinary coping abilities in such a situation.

Hiram Zayas
Project Access, 1980

Hiram Zayas is a professional colleague of this researcher. Mr. Zayas, an outstanding vocational rehabilitation administrator, is a quadraplegic victim of Thalidomide.

D E D I C A T I O N

This study is dedicated to both my mother and my son who, together, have helped me better understand the pulse of individuals with exceptional needs. From my mother, a courageous victim of muscular dystrophy since birth, I have learned about courage, patience, and the need to create new avenues for those individuals with disabilities. From my son I have learned not only about the pain and struggle of a child with exceptional needs, but the ecstasy and joy of his success when having reached "the eye of the tiger".

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

I would like to express my love and appreciation to my husband, Bob, for his patience and endless hours of support throughout this study. To my two children, Kristen Lee and Michael Scott, many thanks for the cooperation and sharing of tasks.

I wish especially to thank my chairperson, Dr. Patricia Gillespie-Silver, for her patience and her encouragement which helped me utilize my experiences to explore new avenues.

I am also grateful to my two committee members, Dr. Luis Fuentes and Dr. Edwin Driver, for their cooperation and advice.

Also, I am particularly indebted to one professional colleague, Dr. Maria deLourdes Serpa, for her recommendations and support. A special thanks is extended to Dr. Dick Willard and Ewa Pytowska for their assistance, recommendations and helpful criticisms. The enthusiasm and guidance of these three professional colleagues have contributed to my growth as a bilingual special educator and has encouraged me throughout this study.

A B S T R A C T

The Problem

The increase in the number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students in special education, the lack of trained specialists, and the nonexistence of certification standards in Massachusetts in Bilingual Special Education prompted this investigator to study the preparation trainees received in three bilingual special education graduate programs and to describe the roles of the bilingual special educator that emerged.

Procedures

The Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire was designed and administered to the eighty trainees who had completed a program in one of the three colleges funded by the state to deliver Bilingual Special Education training. The questionnaire focused on three areas: (1) the respondents' backgrounds, (2) trainees' perceptions of the quality of training received relative to their work, (3) descriptions of Bilingual Special Educator roles. ANOVA, T-test, and Content Analysis were used to analyze the data.

Findings

There was no statistically significant difference in trainees' ratings of training they received in eight of the nine identified competency areas among the three colleges. However, in all nine areas, there was a statistically significant difference between trainees' mean ratings of preparation in each area and their view of the importance of each area in their work. Areas involving direct instruction showed most significant differences.

A Content Analysis of responses revealed that Bilingual Special Educators performed many tasks for which they were untrained. They noted a lack of coordination between Bilingual and Special Education Departments and felt they were receiving little administrative support. Because of staff resentment and lack of understanding of bilingual education, they perceived a negative working environment.

Recommendations

Recommendations for (1) training include:
(a) create an integrated bilingual special education training model, (b) employ bilingual specialists as faculty and consultants to existing faculty,

(c) include needed additional courses identified by trainees; (2) research include: (a) investigate classroom practices with LEP students, (b) explore school working conditions, (c) conduct a national survey for integrative bilingual special education training models; (3) local policy include: (a) mandate systemwide bilingual/intercultural and English-As-A-Second-Language training, (b) require that the Special Education Evaluation TEAM determine language(s) of instruction for LEP students with special needs, (c) institute a plan for coordination between Bilingual and Special Education Departments.

T A B L E O F C O N T E N T S

DEDICATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
ABSTRACT	vii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL MANDATES	14
Legislative Mandates	14
Executive Mandates	23
Judicial Mandate	25
III. AN HISTORICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL VIEW OF THE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION MANDATE IN MASSACHUSETTS	29
Enactment of Chapter 71A: Students and Programs.	29
Rationale	31
Pedagogical Issues in Implementation.	34
Summary of the Bilingual Mandate in Massachusetts	42
IV. AN HISTORICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL OVERVIEW OF SPECIAL EDUCATION WITH ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS.	45
Enactment of Chapter 766	45
Pedagogical Rationale	46
Milestones in Implementation.	49
Limited English Proficient Students and Special Education	50
Summary	59
V. OVERVIEW OF BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING	63
A National Overview	63
A Massachusetts Overview.	73
Three Training Program Designs in Massachusetts .	74

VI. METHODOLOGY	80
Setting and Sample.	82
Data Collecting Instrument.	83
Validation of Instrument.	84
Data Collecting Procedure	85
Research Design	88
Data Analysis	89
Limitations of Study.	90
Delimiters of Study	91
VII. RESULTS	92
Questions Nos. 1-9.	92
Questions Nos. 10-18.	104
Characteristics of Sample	116
Trainees' Summary Responses to Training Programs.	120
Characteristics of Trainees' Local Positions.	128
Trainees' Perceptions of Difficulties in Role	135
Trainees' Perceptions of Most Rewarding Aspects of Their Role	139
Trainees' Willingness to Recommend the Role to Others	140
Summary of Observations of Teacher Weekly Logs.	142
VIII. DISCUSSION.	147
Differences Among Colleges.	148
Difference Between Trainees' Ratings and Importance.	150
Trainees' Program Ratings	152
Trainees' Local Positions	154
Training Recommendations.	159
Research Recommendations.	163
Local School Policy Recommendations	165
The Future of Bilingual Special Education Preservice Training	169
BIBLIOGRAPHY	172

APPENDICES

A.	STUDENTS IDENTIFIED AS LEP IN MASSACHUSETTS (1979-1980)	183
B.	SELECTED RESEARCH SUMMARIES	185
C.	BRIEFING PAPER ON CHAPTER 71A, THE STATE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION LAW	188
D.	SPECIAL EDUCATION PROTOTYPES IN MASSACHUSETTS 766 REGULATIONS.	194
E.	BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TRAINEE QUESTIONNAIRE (BSETQ).	196

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
4.1	Percentage of Graduate Trainee's Responses by College	87
6.1	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Language Acquisition Preparation by College	94
6.2	Analysis of Variance	94
6.3	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Child Development by Colleges.	95
6.4	Analysis of Variance	95
6.5	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Classroom Management Preparation by Colleges.	96
6.6	Analysis of Variance	96
6.7	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Nondiscriminatory Assessment by Colleges	97
6.8	Analysis of Variance	97
6.9	Trainees' Mean Ratings of IEP Preparation by Colleges	98
6.10	Analysis of Variance	98
6.11	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Consultation by Colleges	99
6.12	Analysis of Variance	99
6.13	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Mainstreaming by Colleges	100
6.14	Analysis of Variance	100
6.15	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Advocacy by Colleges	101
6.16	Analysis of Variance	101

6.17	Trainees' Mean Ratings of Methods and Materials by Colleges.	102
6.18	Analysis of Variance	102
6.19	Summary of Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation in Nine Competency Areas	103
6.20	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in First and Second Language Acquisition	105
6.21	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Child Development	106
6.22	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Classroom Management	107
6.23	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Non-Discriminatory Assessment	108
6.24	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Individual Educational Planning	109
6.25	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Consultation	110
6.26	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Mainstreaming.	111
6.27	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Advocacy	112
6.28	Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Methods and Materials	113
6.29	Summary of Differences in Trainees' Mean Ratings of Preparation and Importance in Nine Competency Areas	115
6.30	Teacher Trainees' Current Certification.	116
6.31	Teacher Trainees' Language Certification	117

6.32	Bilingual Special Education Trainee Positions	118
6.33	Trainees' Satisfaction with Training Program	119
6.34	Trainees' Perceptions of Preparedness by College.	120
6.35	Suggestions for Additional Courses	122
6.36	Trainees' Perceptions of Areas of Weakness in Training.	124
6.37	Trainees' Perceptions of Areas of Strength of Training Programs	126
6.38	Language Groups Served by Trainees	128
6.39	Language of Instruction Used With LEP Students With Disabilities	130
6.40	Policies and Procedures Determining Language of Instruction	133
6.41	Trainees' Percentage Ratings of Administrative Support.	134
6.42	Difficulties Encountered in the Role of Bilingual Special Educator	137

L I S T O F F I G U R E S

FIGURES	PAGE
2.0 Historical Overview of Federal Legislative Mandate	17
3.0 The "Dual Iceberg" Representation of Bilingual Proficiency	41

C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

Bilingual education and special education have been recognized as independent disciplines within teacher training for several years. However, bilingual special education as an integrated field has only begun to be recognized by teacher training institutions. Requiring much more than the borrowing of courses from each of the parent disciplines, bilingual special education requires a carefully articulated and planned convergence of these two disciplines which results in a new and unique body of knowledge.

The recognition of the need for bilingual special education and programs to train these educators was an outgrowth of the Civil Rights Movement of the 60's and the growing number of non-English dominant students in the U.S. Since the 60's, the rights of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students have been established by the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of the government, thus bringing to focus the needs of this unserved and underserved population. Notwithstanding, LEP students continue to be misclassified and misplaced in special education classes (Baca, 1984; Jones, 1976; Oakland, 1977; Cummins, 1984).

Furthermore, the number of LEP students continues to increase dramatically while the number of bilingual special

education personnel throughout Massachusetts as well as in the United States remains very small (Access, 1982, Task Force on Crosscultural Assessment, 1980).

For these reasons, in order to address the pressing needs in the education of Limited English Proficient (LEP) minorities with exceptional needs, training programs in bilingual special education were quickly developed by special educators with the encouragement of federal and state funds. Although these programs were designed to address bilingual issues, they, in fact, prepared teachers for special education certification since there is no certification specific to this area in Massachusetts.

The Context of the Problem

Baca (1984), in reference to Dewey's famous dictum that what the best and wisest of parents want for their children, the state should want for all its children, contends that the word all holds special significance today. According to Baca (1984), by the word all educators mean Anglo, Asian, Hispanic, Native American, Black, the poor, the rich, the disabled, and all other linguistic, ethnic, cultural, and socioeconomic groups in the United States. The plight of one special group of students, the Limited English Proficient students with exceptional needs, has only recently begun to be recognized by educators.

The increasing numbers of LEP students in the U.S. have made educators aware of the pressing need to appropriately

serve these students. According to data from the 1980 census, 4,529,000 children between 5 and 17 years old in the United States--9.7% of all children in that age group--speak a language other than English at home (NABE News, Vol. V, no. 3, June, 1982). In the 1984-85 school year, the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education estimated that there were 35 million Limited English Proficient (LEP) children, 1.8 million of them Hispanic, in the nation's schools (Waggoner, 1984). The Office of Special Education (1982) estimated that 12% of all students will need special education services (Brown, 1983). Figures for LEP students are woefully lacking. No accurate figures exist for the nation as a whole, although Baca (1982) has recently estimated that approximately one-half million students age 5-12 years have special needs and come from non-English language backgrounds.

The growth of minority students has been steady since the first wave of immigrants in the early 1900's. Although the rate of the Black American population has decreased, the Hispanic population has increased by 60% over the last ten years (Report of Annual National Association of School Boards Conference, November, 1985, Education Week, p. 2), making the Hispanic population the largest among the language minority groups in the U.S.

Although the exact number of racial and linguistic minority students in the U.S. is not known, according to the

Carnegie Report (1979) recent statistics indicate that there are approximately 16 million Hispanics in the U.S. This figure represents 7% of the population in the U.S. Yet, Hispanics, the nation's largest language minority group, represent only one third of all legal immigrants entering the U.S. since 1965 (Pifer, 1979). Legal immigration to the United States in 1984 was reported as 547,000. This figure represents the highest legal immigration since the 1920's. Illegal immigrants are estimated to be as high as 500,000 (Education Week, May 14, 1986, pg. 18).

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were used as here defined.

1. Bilingual Education - a transitional regular education program of instruction for non-English dominant students who are limited English proficient that uses both the native language of the student and English as a Second Language.
2. Special Education - specially designed instruction in English to meet the individual needs of students with special needs in an English only curriculum.
3. Bilingual Special Education - providing special education services to linguistic minority students in their native language, or in English and their native language.

4. Limited English Proficient Students (LEP) - all students who are native speakers of a language other than English and whose English language skills are not adequate for them to perform ordinary classwork in English.
5. Limited English Proficient Students with Special Needs - all students who are Limited English proficient and who also have special educational needs.
6. Bilingual Student with Special Needs - all students who have fluency in two or more languages and who also have special educational needs.
7. Bilingual Special Education Trainee - a teacher who graduated from one of the three specially designed bilingual special education state-funded programs in Massachusetts between 1978 and 1982.
8. Bilingual Special Education Training Programs - three specially designed bilingual special education pilot graduate training programs in Massachusetts funded by the Division of Special Education, Massachusetts State Department of Education.
9. Bilingual Special Educator Role - trainee graduates of one of the three bilingual special education training programs in Massachusetts who

work directly or indirectly with Limited English Proficient students with special needs.

10. Bilingual Special Educator - a teacher who is certified both in bilingual education and in moderate or generic special needs.

11. Bilingual Certification - Massachusetts state provisions specifying that certified teachers pass an exam demonstrating a speaking and reading ability in a language other than English and understanding of the history and culture of the country where that language is spoken. In addition, the individual must demonstrate communication skills in English.

12. Moderate Special Education Certification - Massachusetts state provisions specifying requirements and standards that teachers must meet in moderate special education in order to be certified in various areas of special education, including a Massachusetts classroom teaching certificate, 30 semester hours of course work and a pre-practicum.

13. Generic Special Education Certification - Massachusetts state provisions specifying requirements and standards that teachers must meet in generic special education, including a Massachusetts classroom teaching certificate, 30 semester

hours of course work, a pre-practicum, and two years previous teaching experience.

Statement of Problem

Since the initiation and implementation in 1978 of state funded model bilingual special education graduate training programs addressing the pressing needs of limited English proficient students with special needs in Massachusetts, no published follow-up exists to determine such information as (1) how many of the trainees became certified as special education teachers, (2) how many are employed as special education teachers who are serving Limited English Proficient students (LEP and bilingual students with special needs), and (3) how have school systems throughout Massachusetts defined the role of the bilingual special educator. If teacher training institutions in Massachusetts are to develop programs to address the continuing statewide shortage of special education personnel trained in this area, then they need information as to what is happening in bilingual special education at a local level. By understanding what skills, competencies, and other issues the bilingual special educators view as most important in their difficult role of serving Limited English Proficient (LEP) students with special needs, college personnel can design appropriate training programs in this area. At present there is no certification standard for bilingual special educators and

the population of 80 trainees represents the only certified special educators trained in a program in Massachusetts that was especially designed to address the issues of Limited English Proficient students with special needs.

The purpose of this study was to investigate both (1) the preparation the trainees received in three state sponsored bilingual special education training programs in terms of their role and (2) the way in which the role of the bilingual special education trainees is being implemented in public schools in Massachusetts.

The study focused on eighteen research questions. ✓ Research questions 1-9 were designed to determine if there was a difference in the trainees' ratings of their training in each of the nine areas among the colleges. The following are the specific research questions:

1. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in First and Second Language Acquisition?

2. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Child Development?

3. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Classroom Management?

4. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Nondiscriminatory Assessment?

5. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Individual Educational Programming?

6. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Consultation?

7. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Mainstreaming?

8. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Advocacy?

9. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Methods and Materials?

Research questions 10-18 were designed to determine the difference between the trainees' ratings of how important the skill area was to their work and the level of preparation they received in that area. The following are the specific research questions:

10. What is the difference between the trainees ratings of the training they received in First and Second Language

Acquisition and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

11. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Child Development and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

12. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Classroom Management and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

13. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Nondiscriminatory Assessment and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

14. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Individual Educational Programming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

15. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Consultation and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

16. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Mainstreaming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

17. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Advocacy and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

18. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Methods and Materials and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators?

Justification of Study

This study was conducted for the following important reasons:

1. Since the 60's, the rights of LEP students have been established by the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of our government, thus bringing to focus the needs of this unserved and underserved population. However, LEP students continue to be misclassified and misplaced in special education classes (Baca, 1984; Jones, 1976; Mercer, 1977; Oakland, 1977; Cummins, 1984). This misclassification and misplacement has raised the important issue of lack of qualified bilingual professionals to assess and instruct LEP students. It further raised the issue of having all educators trained in bilingual/bicultural issues.

2. Although the number of LEP students continues to dramatically increase, the number of bilingual special education personnel throughout Massachusetts as well as in

the United States remains very small (Access, 1982, Task Force on Crosscultural Assessment, 1980).

Given the important needs in this area and the fact that there are no state certification standards in Massachusetts in Bilingual Special Education or state standards for regular bilingual education degree programs, this investigation is crucial in order to ascertain important information necessary to design or redesign realistic and appropriate training that, in fact, prepares special education teachers to work with Limited English Proficient students with exceptional needs.

This study is designed to investigate special education teacher training in three Massachusetts colleges. Since the bilingual special education trainees were the first receivers of the pilot training programs and are the first experimenters at a local level with the new role of bilingual special educator, for which there is no specific state certification, they are the most knowledgeable source of information. This knowledge is vital to teacher trainers in institutions of higher education faced with the responsibility of designing and delivering appropriate and meaningful training in this area.

Teacher training institutions, in general, need to be better prepared to address the training issues in this new area from an integrated perspective and are being asked by local, state, and federal institutions, including the

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), to respond in a leadership fashion and address the needs of this changing population of students. Thus, the problem of preparing quality teachers and teacher trainers and other leadership personnel in this specialized area still remains a momentous task facing teacher training institutions throughout the United States (Martinez, 1981; Cummins, 1984; Bergin, 1980).

C H A P T E R I I

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL MANDATES

This chapter presents an overview of the key federal, executive, legislative and judicial mandates that protect the rights of Limited English Proficient students in public educational programs. All of the mandates discussed have occurred since the Civil Rights Movement of the sixties and address both the linguistic as well as specialized learning needs of students in public schools.

Legislative Mandates

The Civil Rights Act (1964)

The rights of linguistic minority students have been nationally addressed by the legislative, judicial and executive branches of the government since the 60's with the Civil Rights Movement bringing to focus the plight of minorities throughout the United States. As a result of the movement, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 addressed the issue of educational practices in schools. Title VI, Section 601, of the Act stated that "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Pub. L. 88-352, Title VI, 601, July 2, 1964, 78 Stat. 252).

The purpose of this provision was to ensure that all individuals have equal access to federally sponsored programs. Since many school districts were recipients of federal funds, this provision obliged districts to submit documentation showing that their programs were, in fact, nondiscriminatory. According to Title VI, a school system is mandated to address Limited English Proficient students' linguistic and cultural needs in school settings. (See Figure 2.0, pg. 17.)

The Bilingual Education Act (1968)

Four years later, the first Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was passed. Specifically, section 702 of the Act stated that:

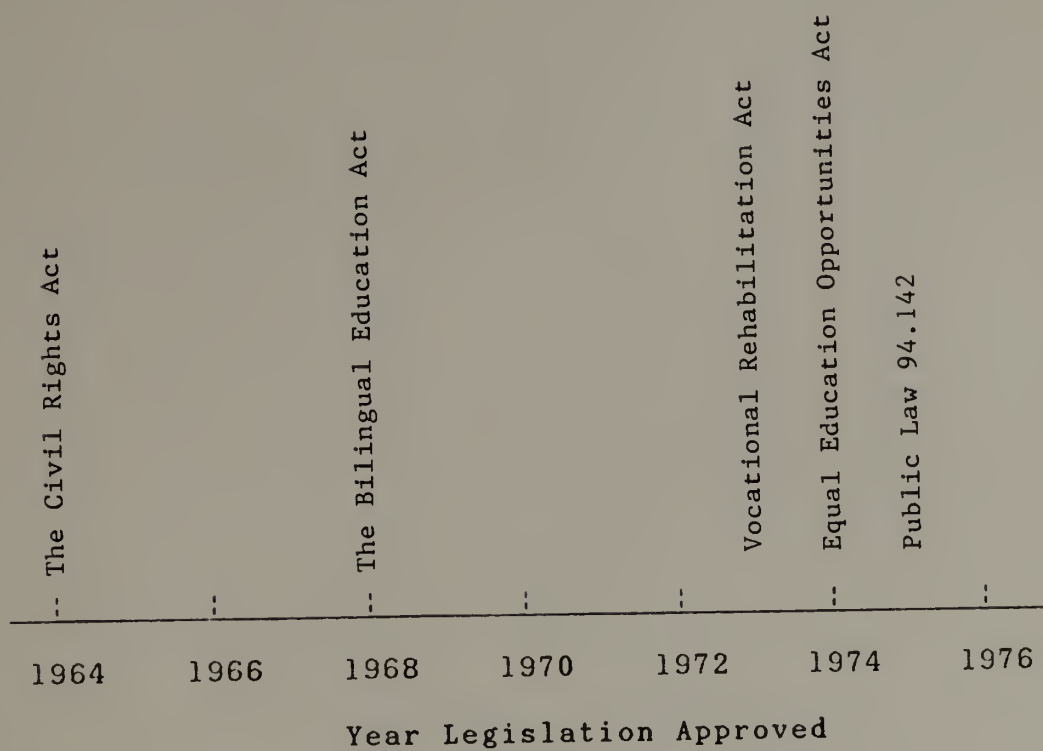
In recognition of the special education needs of the large numbers of children of limited English speaking ability in the United States, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance and imaginative elementary and secondary programs designed to meet these special educational needs. For the purposes of this title, "children of limited English speaking ability" means those who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English ([20 V.s.c. 880b] P.L. 90-247, Title VII, Sec. 702, 81 Stat. 816).

With the Bilingual Education Act, federal funds were provided for the establishment of bilingual instructional programs, development of bilingual curriculum and materials, and bilingual teacher training. Such funds provided legal inducement for school districts to develop alternative regular educational programs for minority language children

in recognition of the fact that the linguistic and cultural needs of children need to be addressed in order for effective learning to take place. The bilingual education programs supported under the Bilingual Act of 1968 were designed to meet the educational needs of students from 3 to 18 years of age who have limited English proficiency and who come from homes where the dominant language is other than English. The intention of the Federal legislation is for students in this target group to develop greater competence in English, to become more proficient in the use of two languages, and to gain from increased educational opportunity. According to Title VII, the student's home language is to be used as the main medium of instruction while the student is gaining command of English. In this way, the Limited English Proficient student continues to learn important skills and knowledge through his/her first language while learning English. This approach, endorsed by Title VII legislation, was designed to prevent students from becoming educationally deprived. Therefore, bilingual education, according to this legislation, is instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum. Study of the history and culture of the student's home language is also considered an integral part of bilingual education (Anderson; Boyer, 1969).

Figure 2.0

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL LEGISLATIVE MANDATES



The Vocational Rehabilitation Act, Section 504
(1973)

Section 504, essentially a civil rights law,
specifies that:

"No otherwise qualified handicapped individual in the United States shall, solely by the reason of his handicap, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under programs or activities receiving federal financial assistance (Rehabilitation Act of 1973, 29, U.S.C. 701 et seq.).

The regulations adopted following the Act mandated that districts receiving Federal financial assistance provide a free public education to all students with special needs.

The Equal Education Opportunities Act (1974)

In the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974, Congress, relying upon Title VI, addressed the matter of discrimination against Limited English Proficient students. The Act stated that:

No state shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by . . . the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs (Pub.L. 93-380, Title II, 204, Aug. 21, 1974, 80 Stat. 515).

According to this act, Limited English Proficient students should not be denied participation because of language barriers and by implication, these students are entitled to special education services in a language they understand. They therefore have the right, as would any individual

denied an equal educational opportunity as defined by Title VI, to bring a civil action in an appropriate district court against any party that has denied them their equal rights under law.

Public Law 94.142 (1975)

The education of students with exceptional needs has been an issue of importance within the past 50 years. A major landmark in this movement has been the passage of P.L. 94-142, The Education For All Handicapped Children's Act of 1975. According to Section 602 of P.L. 94-142, students in need of special education services are:

...mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or other health impaired children, or children with specific learning disabilities who by reason thereof require special education and related services (Education for All Handicapped Children's Act, 20 U.S.C. 1401 et seq.).

This federal legislation mandated a free, appropriate education for all children and youth with exceptional needs between the ages of 3 and 21. Furthermore, programs that are available for all children must also be made available to the child with exceptional needs. According to P.L. 94-142, special education refers to specifically designed instruction at public expense to meet the individual needs of a handicapped child, classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions. In order to provide these

services, local education agencies must conduct nondiscriminatory evaluations and determine eligibility for placement in special education programs. P.L. 94-142 clearly states that students have the right to tests that are not culturally discriminatory and have the right to a multi-dimensional assessment (P.L. 94-142, Section 612). Thus, students from non-English backgrounds must be tested in their most proficient language by a multidisciplinary team of qualified professionals using valid tests (Ambert, Dew, 1982, p.12).

A further critical feature of this law is that after a non-discriminatory assessment, there is a requirement of an Individual Education Program (I.E.P.) tailored to meet the unique needs and abilities of each child with a handicap. According to P.L. 94-142, the Individual Education Program means:

...a written statement for each handicapped child developed in any meeting by a representative of the local educational agency or an intermediate education unit who shall be qualified to provide, or supervise the provision of, specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children, the teacher, the parents or guardian of such child, and, whenever appropriate, such child; which statement shall include (a) a statement of the present levels of educational performance of such child; (b) a statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objectives; (c) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to such child and the extent to which such child will be able to participate in regular educational programs; and (d) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services, and appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved (P.L. 94-142, 1975).

The evaluation team has the responsibility and right to decide the student's placement and individual educational program based on the student's needs. According to the law, Limited English Proficient students are not, by the sole reason of their lack of English proficiency, to be considered handicapped and are not to be placed in special education classes for the sole reason that they have not attained English language skills.

Furthermore, the Act requires the placement of children with disabilities in the least restrictive environment, which means placement of the child whenever appropriate in classes with students without disabilities. This is interpreted to mean that, in fact, non-English background students should only receive special services if they have received a nondiscriminatory assessment in their most proficient language and have been found to be "handicapped" according to the definition of handicapped stipulated by P.L. 94-142. Students who do not yet have the necessary English language skills to do their classwork in English are not to be considered handicapped and are not to be placed in special education classes. Furthermore, students who are limited in English and are also handicapped as defined by P.L. 94-142 must be placed in the least restrictive environment. They must not be given more restrictive placement solely because they are lacking English skills.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was the first major legislative act addressing the issue of equal treatment in public education. Specifically, the Act was designed to protect racial and national origin minorities. Following the Civil Rights Act, Congress passed the Bilingual Education Act of 1968. This Act specifically addressed the inequities faced by many Limited English Proficient students who were being denied an education because they did not speak the language used in the schools where they attended. To address these inequities, The Bilingual Education Act encouraged instruction in both languages of the student while supporting the teaching of English as a second language. Following the Bilingual Education Act came a major legislative act, The Vocational Rehabilitation Act, protecting the rights of the handicapped. A year after the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, in 1974, Congress passed the Equal Educational Opportunity Mandate which, like the Civil Rights Act, served in a broad manner to protect the rights of all minorities in educational settings. The last major legislative mandate protecting the rights of any students with handicaps, including language minority students with handicaps, was Public Law 94-142. This most recent mandate protects students with special needs and specifically contains safeguards to ensure nondiscriminatory treatment of minority students. Thus, with the passage of P.L. 94-142, the legislative branch of the government set the stage for

later action on the part of the executive and judicial branches.

Executive Mandates

May 25th Memorandum

The famous May 25th Memorandum (1970), also called the OCR Memorandum because it was issued by J. Stanley Pottinger, then Director of the Office of Civil Rights, addressed the discrimination in the assignment of children to special education classes for the mentally retarded. The Memorandum stipulated:

During the past few years it has come to our attention that in many local educational agencies a substantially higher percentage of minority children have been assigned to special education classes for the mentally retarded than the minority student population of the district would normally indicate.

Our reviews of many local educational agencies lead us to believe that in many instances the racial and ethnic isolation of minority children in such classes which has occurred has in turn resulted from a failure by local educational agencies to utilize non-discriminatory evaluation and assignment standards and procedures with respect to minority children. In addition to creating over-representation of minority children in special education classes for the mentally retarded, this failure to utilize evaluation techniques for minority children which are as effective or appropriate as those used for non-minority children has resulted in a higher incidence of improper placement or improper non-placement of minority children in such classes than of non-minority children (Pottinger, U.S. Department of H.E.W., May 18, 1970 Memorandum).

In conclusion, the memorandum clearly stated that language minority students can not be assigned to classes for the

mentally retarded on the basis of testing that essentially measures a student's English language skills.

The Lau Remedies (1975)

The 1974 Lau vs. Nichols case became a landmark decision on behalf of Limited English Proficient children. In this case, the United States Supreme Court unanimously found that the San Francisco school system's failure to provide appropriate language instruction to Chinese American students violated their rights under Section 601 of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. In 1975, H.E.W.'s Office of Civil Rights established a Task Force to set up proper assessment and placement procedures for Limited English Proficient students. Their report (The Lau Remedies) outlined approaches which would constitute affirmative steps for such students and require school districts to systematize procedures. Bergin (1980) explains that, according to the Lau Remedies, school districts need to:

1. Identify the numbers of limited English speaking students within the system.
2. Assess the relative language dominance of those students in both English and their native language.
3. Provide an appropriate instructional program which would ensure an equal educational opportunity (Bergin, p.8).

Since the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Executive Branch of the government has specifically, in two instances, executed its powers on behalf of language minority students. The first was the famous May 25th Memorandum (1970) dealing with illegal assignment of language minority students to classes for the retarded based on discriminatory instruments which erroneously mislabel students who lack English proficiency. The second executive mandate, the Lau Remedies, outlined guidelines for school districts to follow in order to ensure the rights of any language minority student to an appropriate educational program.

Judicial Mandates

At the judicial level, the issue of misclassification of minority students as "handicapped" has resulted in numerous court cases involving linguistic minorities. (See Ambert and Dew, 1982; Baca, 1984; Bilingual-Bicultural Education: A Handbook for All Attorneys and Community Workers, 1977). For the purposes of this study, however, the review will focus on a few selected cases. The first important case was Diana vs. State of California in 1970. This case involved misclassification of Mexican Americans and Chinese speaking children into classes for the mentally retarded. An out-of-court settlement of the case called for a revision of placement procedures to include testing of the non English background students in their most proficient language. The principle that students' linguistic or

cultural differences cannot be construed as evidence of an educationally handicapping condition was clearly established in this case.

The second major case was Lora v. Board of Education of the City of New York, 465 F. Supp. 1211 (1977). In this case the court affirmed the principle that the overrepresentation of minority students in special education constituted a violation of the students' rights. The key issue of this case was an alleged lack of facilities in the New York public schools which resulted in racially and culturally segregated special education programs for students with emotional problems. Not only did the court judge the special day school facilities to be inadequate but also found that Black and Hispanic students were disproportionately assigned to these classes and were being discriminated against on the basis of race.

A third case, Jose P. et al v. Gordon M. Ambach et al (New York, 1979) concerned the appropriate educational placement for culturally and linguistically diverse students in New York. In this case, the court addressed major aspects of special education in New York City. Issues of identification of students with special needs; appropriate evaluation procedures, personnel, and testing instruments; and appropriate programs in the least restrictive environment were areas that the court mandated that the school system address.

A fourth key case in bilingual special education was Covarrubias v. San Diego Unified School District (1971).

The case was very important in that it further raised the issue of the inappropriate use of standardized intelligence tests to place children in classes for the mentally retarded.

While initial litigation focused on revised administrative procedures and programs aimed at ensuring equality of educational opportunity, the cases of Stewart vs. Phillips (1970) and Covarrubias vs. San Diego Unified School District (1971) initiated the concept of awarding damages to students who were judged to suffer irreparable harm because of unfair labeling. Thus, public awareness of a school district's liability was stimulated, and within the last decade, the judicial system of government took a major lead in protecting the rights of non-English background students in school systems throughout the country. /

Summary of Federal Mandates

Since the Civil Rights Movement of the sixties, Limited English Proficient students' needs have been addressed by the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government. Their rights have been protected legislatively by the Civil Rights Act (1964), the Bilingual Education Act (1968), the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, Section 504 (1973), and Public Law 94-142 (1975). Furthermore, two major executive mandates, the May 25th Memorandum (1970) and

the Lau Remedies (1975) served as an added protection against inappropriate labeling and assigning minority students to classes for the handicapped and assuring Limited English Proficient students instruction in a language they comprehend. Ultimately, the judicial branch of the U.S. government has taken a prominent role as defender of the rights of language minority students. The growing number of class action suits on behalf of these students who have been erroneously labeled as handicapped and inappropriately placed in special education classes continues to be a major issue for the judicial branch of the U.S. government.

C H A P T E R I I I
AN HISTORICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL VIEW
OF THE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION MANDATE
IN MASSACHUSETTS

Since the bilingual public education laws only came into existence during the last two decades, this chapter focuses on the historical and pedagogical issues underlying the development, implementation, and effects of an important state law in Massachusetts which occurred between the mid-sixties and the present: the Bilingual Education Act (Chapter 71A). With the passage of this law, Massachusetts became the first state in the nation to enact an important piece of legislation in bilingual education. This legislative act not only greatly influenced the kinds of services Limited English Proficient students were to receive in Massachusetts but provided the groundwork for recognition of the need these students had for bilingual special education services.

Enactment of Chapter 71A: Students and Programs

Massachusetts Transitional Bilingual Education Act (TBE) was passed on November 4, 1971, and enacted February 4, 1972. The Act was the result of several years of combined efforts of legislative leaders, advocates, educators, civic and community groups, and parents. This widespread concern was spearheaded by Sister Frances Georgia

(Alex Rodriguez, 1982), who found that many Limited English Proficient school-age children in Boston were not registered or attending school. Sister Georgia and other advocates, aware that students of limited English proficiency were not receiving adequate educational services, encouraged the Great and General Court to respond and become the first legislative body in the nation to require that public schools provide for the linguistic and cultural differences of the students they serve. With the passage of Chapter 71A, Massachusetts became the first state in the nation to pass state legislation mandating Bilingual Education.

In the 1972-73 school year, the first year of implementation of the law, 10,542 students or .90% of the state's total enrollment were identified as LEP and unable to perform ordinary classwork in English. In school year 1979-80, during the implementation of the first two state-supported bilingual special education programs, 19,037 students (see Appendix A for breakdown by language group) or 1.83% of the state's total school enrollment were identified as LEP. The number of identified children and percentage of state total enrollment of these students had doubled during that eight year period. The 1984-85 LEP population enrolled in TBE programs throughout Massachusetts now totaled 21,000, representing a 100% jump from the 1972-73 statistics (Mazzone, 1985).

Since 1972, the number of bilingual educational programs has increased to 50 programs and the number of students has increased from 10,542 to 21,000 (Carballo, 1986). However, of the number of programs that call themselves bilingual, this investigator has observed that there is a wide discrepancy in definition. Some programs are predominantly, if not exclusively, English as a Second Language programs. Students are taught their required courses in English and are pulled out of regular English classes for tutorial help in English as a Second Language. Most programs, in fact, do adhere to the transitional model where the students are taught in their native languages in required course areas and gradually move to English instruction throughout their three year transition period. Within these three years, they received English as a Second Language instruction as part of the Transitional Bilingual Program.

Rationale

The Massachusetts TBE Act, similar to the Federal Bilingual Education Laws of 1968 and 1974, maintains the rationale that the best medium for the initial stages of learning, where such learning relies mainly on aural and verbal communications, is the child's dominant language (Galarza, 1977). Furthermore, the child can be psychologically hampered rather than enhanced by instruction presented in a language that s/he does not understand

(Galarza, 1977; Giles, 1977; McClure et al, 1975). Because language is a basic manifestation of the self, if a child's native language is consciously or unconsciously rejected by teachers, the student's concept of parents, home and self will be seriously affected (Alexander and Nava, 1976; Christian, 1976). Furthermore, language carries the child's own reality and therefore influences content, idea development, and how the student sees relationships (Guskin, 1976; Thonis, 1977). In other words, "language is inexorably tied to the image of the self" (Modiano, 1968, p. 187).

The advantages of bilingual/bicultural education are well summarized by Ballesteros (1977):

Bilingual/bicultural schooling serves five positive purposes:

1. It reduces "retardation" through the use of the mother tongue in teaching, thus allowing a child to learn immediately.
2. It reinforces the relations of the school and the home through a common bond.
3. It projects the individual into an atmosphere of personal identification, self-worth, and achievement.
4. It gives the student a base for success in the field of work.
5. It preserves and enriches the culture and human resources of people (Ballesteros, 1977, pp 1-2).

When the Bilingual Education Act in 1968 and the Massachusetts TBE Act in 1971 were initiated, there was little research in the U.S. to support them other than the encouragement of a number of linguists, language specialists, and most importantly, advocates. Today, there exists a body of research both within and outside of the

U.S. supporting the notion that quality bilingual programs can help Limited English Proficient students achieve and learn effectively in two languages (For an overview of research in bilingualism, see Taylor, 1970; Troike, 1978; Cummins, 1984; Seidner, 1981; Dulay and Burt, 1975.) For purposes of this study, however, two research studies conducted in the U.S. will be discussed. (See Appendix B for brief overview of other pertinent studies.)

The first study is the San Diego Spanish-English Language "immersion" program. This demonstration project conducted in 1975 involved 60% Spanish and 40% English students. From preschool to grade three, instruction was given predominantly in Spanish. After grade 3, approximately half the instruction was given in Spanish and half was given in English. Specifically, 20 minutes of English instruction was given in preschool, 30 minutes in kindergarten and first grade, and 60 minutes in grades two and three. This project was voluntary and was implemented in a lower middleclass area.

The project evaluation outcomes showed that, although the students in this demonstration project lagged behind in both Spanish and English reading skills, by grade six they were performing above grade norms in both languages. Math achievement was also above grade norms (San Diego City Schools, 1982).

A second important study for purposes of this research is the Carpenteria Spanish Language Pre-School Program. In the Spanish-only preschool program of the Carpenteria School District near Santa Barbara, California, Spanish is the exclusive language of instruction. There is a strong community involvement component and the program has a comprehensive philosophy of promoting conceptual development through meaningful linguistic interaction. Spanish kindergarten students participating in this Spanish-only program far out performed Spanish students who had English pre-school instruction. Although Spanish students in the experimental Spanish-only program were exposed to less total English, they were better able to understand English because of their enhanced first language skill and concept knowledge (Cummins, 1986).

Pedagogical Issues in Implementation

A first important educational issue that affects the implementation of bilingual education in Massachusetts is lack of understanding among educators as to the importance of having students taught in the first language. The widely accepted erroneous premise is that Limited English Proficient students will learn English more efficiently if they are made to learn in English. However, according to Chapter 71A, whenever twenty or more students of one language group from K-12 are identified in a school system, a Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) program is

implemented in that district. The TBE program is like any regular education program with the major difference being two languages are used as mediums of instruction. Programs are located in regular public schools and Limited English Proficient students participate with English background students in classes which do not require extensive verbalization, such as art, music and physical education. According to the TBE Law, Limited English Proficient students are to be given full opportunity to participate in extra-curricular activities.

A program in Transitional Bilingual Education, according to the law (Chapter 71A, 1971, Ch. 1005, sect. 2), is:

...a fulltime program of instruction (1) in all those courses or subjects which a child is required by law to receive and which are required by the child's school committee which shall be given in the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability who are enrolled in the program and also in English, (2) in the reading and writing of the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability who are enrolled in the program and in the oral comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing of English, and (3) in the history and culture of the country, territory, or geographic area which is the native land of the parents of children of limited English-speaking ability who are enrolled in the programs and in the history and culture of the United States.

Yet, despite the sound pedagogical rationale for bilingual/bicultural education, school district personnel in Massachusetts do not understand the need for Limited English Proficient students to receive instruction in any language other than English. Furthermore, some leaders fear that

native language instruction mandated by bilingual programs may lead to an anti-democratic, separationist and dangerous society (Cardenas, 1986). Because of these unsubstantiated fears and lack of pedagogical understanding of the rationale for bilingual education, arguments such as "my grandfather never spoke English and he did all right in school without a bilingual program" are heard in conversations throughout Massachusetts and the United States. Those who make these comments have disregarded findings of research conducted over the past ten years that have documented the successes of the bilingual approach. (See Appendix B for Overview of Selected Research Findings.)

These attitudes and misconceptions within communities and school districts where bilingual programs are being implemented lead to negative socio-cultural factors that Lambert (1975) refers to as "Subtractive Bilingualism". According to Lambert, "Subtractive Bilingualism" occurs when there is a belief that the student's language is a hindrance and should be replaced as quickly as possible with the dominant group's language which is, in this case, English. The fact that there exists an interdependence between both the student's first language and his/her second language is not recognized nor understood (See Cummins, 1984). In contrast, Lambert describes the French Canadian experience concept of "Additive Bilingualism" where the student's own language, English, is seen as important and prestigious;

consequently, positive attitudes and conditions are established in order to enhance the acquisition of a second language, French. For example, middle class English dominant students in Montreal who are selected and who also self-select themselves to participate in French immersion programs, experience "Additive Bilingualism". Their own language is accorded prestige and they are not seen as deficient and needing compensatory education. The positive conditions for language learning are in place and they learn French successfully. In contrast, "Subtractive Bilingualism" discourages language acquisition in both native languages and English. This ultimately leads to retarded cognitive development and performance on the part of Limited English Proficient students (Lambert, Tucker, 1972). Inevitably, many Limited English Proficient students, experiencing an environment where their own language is accorded less prestige than English, perform poorly on academic tasks. Eventually these students, experiencing what Lambert calls "Subtractive Bilingualism", are referred to special education and oftentimes are erroneously labeled as learning disabled or educationally retarded.

A second important pedagogical issue is that if LEP students are not allowed to expand their first language to their threshold level, then they will be limited in both languages and in their cognitive development. In the

implementation of Chapter 71A there is the misconception surrounding the three year recommendation in the legislation. The regulations accompanying Chapter 71A state the following:

Every school-age child of limited English-speaking ability not enrolled in existing private school systems shall be enrolled and participate in the program in Transitional Bilingual Education for a period of three years or until such time as he achieves a level of English language skills which will enable him to perform successfully in classes in which instruction is given only in English, whichever shall first occur. A child of limited English speaking ability enrolled in a program in Transitional Bilingual Education may, at the discretion of the school committee and subject to the approval of the child's parent or legal guardian, be continued in that program for a period longer than three years (Bilingual / Bicultural Education, A Handbook for Attorneys and Community Workers, 1977, p. 258).

Although the three year guideline established in Massachusetts was a political compromise between educational proponents of the Bill asking for five years and legislators desiring one year, the three years have been misunderstood by many districts who have misinterpreted this to be the maximum time any student may or should remain in the program (Alex Rodriguez, Mass. Advisory Council Presentation, November, 1979).

In view of the three year guidelines being strictly followed in many school districts with TBE programs throughout Massachusetts, the research of Dr. Jim Cummins (1979) and others (Duncan and DeAvila, 1979) have clearly shown that language minority students need approximately five to seven years to achieve the level of language needed to succeed in academic areas in school. Cummins term for this level of language is Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). In contrast, Dr. Cummins points out that within two years, most students achieve Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) that allow them to use everyday conversations and demonstrate their ability in English by their use of verbal expressions, basic vocabulary, and pronunciation skills.

Often because some of these language minority students appear to be fluent in English and have mastered the BICS level of interpersonal conversation, they are transferred out of bilingual classrooms and into English only classrooms. This was documented in 1980 by Mr. Mazzone, Director of Bilingual Educational Programs, when he indicated that 68.5% left the TBE program during the 1979-80 school year after only two years. (See Appendix C)

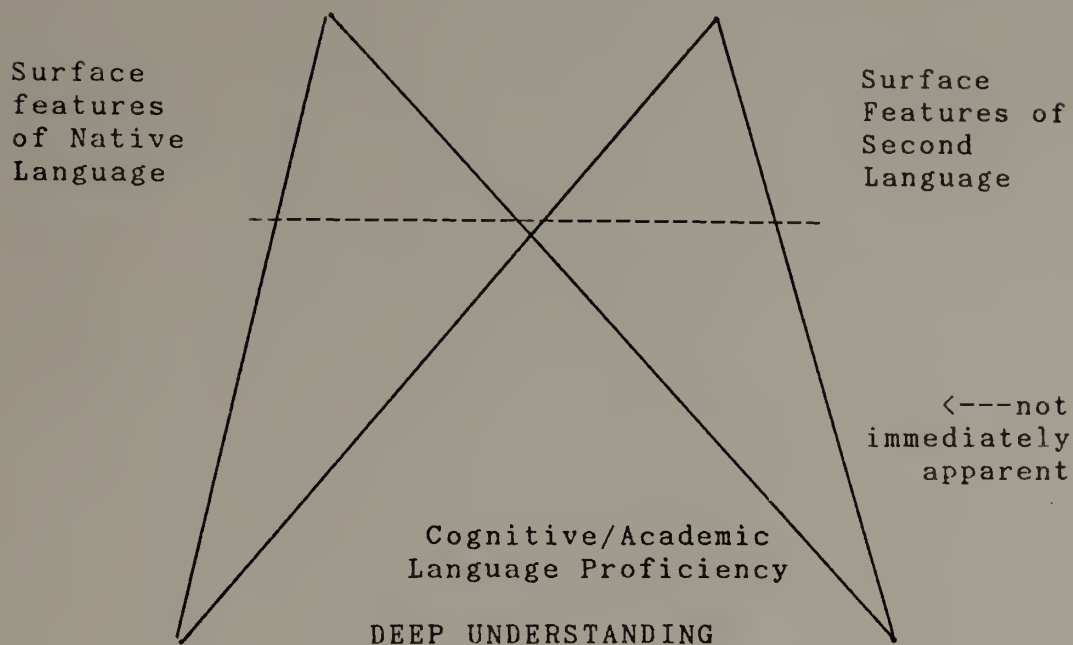
Most students who have attained only a basic interpersonal level of English that is not cognitively demanding are often transferred to English programs and consequently, all their formal instruction in their first

language ceases. Their level of English is what Cummins (1979) refers to as the tip of the iceberg. A serious problem with the bilingual programs in Massachusetts and throughout the nation, according to Cummins (1979), Burt and Dulay (1978), and other linguistic researchers is the fact that students are transferred to English programs within three years and need five to seven years to achieve a sufficient level of English to function in a competitive academic environment. They therefore became limited in both languages and perform poorly in academic areas. A survey conducted with 54 bilingual teachers from diverse districts throughout Massachusetts by Landurand and Serpa, 1985, indicated that bilingual teachers felt three years was not an adequate amount of time for the LEP students to master the level of English needed to perform ordinary academic classwork in English.

In contrast, students who achieve a Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) level in English will be able to analyze and synthesize language and use complex language to learn academic tasks and evaluate information. CALP is considered to be an underlying understanding of language which is cognitively demanding. CALP, then, is the base of the iceberg and the foundation for academic learning.

The diagram below represents the dual-iceberg of bilingual language proficiency.

FIGURE 3.0

THE "DUAL ICEBERG" REPRESENTATION OF
BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

(Source: Adapted from James Cummins. Empirical and Theoretical Underpinnings of Bilingual Education. The Boston University Journal of Education. Winter, 1981.)

Students who have achieved a CALP level in English, which is represented as the base of the iceberg and involves a deep understanding of the language, have not only learned English but are now ready to learn in English. It is often forgotten that learning a language and learning through a language are not the same (Fichgrund, 1982). Students with a CALP level in their first language are therefore able to transfer concepts easily from their first language to English. The problem facing LEP students in TBE programs is that they are often transferred to English speaking classrooms prior to five years and many, therefore, never achieve the level of English competence needed to learn successfully in the various academic content areas (Thonis, 1981; Serpa, 1983). Consequently, the cognitive development of the non- English background student who is transferred to English classes prior to having attained the level of English necessary to perform academic tasks is arrested. This situation causes the linguistic minority student to display poor cognitive functioning which often ultimately leads to referral to special education.

Summary of the Bilingual Mandate in Massachusetts

Limited English Proficient students are, according to Chapter 71A (1971), entitled to a bilingual and English as a Second Language program in order to learn to their full capacity. According to Chapter 71A, a LEP student who resides in a community where twenty or more students speak

the same language is entitled to a program of instruction in his/her native language as well as English as a Second Language instruction. LEP students who have less than twenty students who speak their language in their school system are entitled, according to the Lau Remedies, to receive an individual program in a language they understand.

The rationale underlying the Transitional Bilingual Education Law in Massachusetts is the belief that language is the primary means that students have for learning all other subject matter and that proficiency in the native language is the basis upon which a student learns a second language. The selected research presented demonstrated that students who are allowed to reach a high level of language proficiency in their first language are able to transfer these skills to their second language. Thus first language acquisition and proficiency enhances second language acquisition.

Consequently, two major pedagogical issues confronting educators involved in implementating bilingual education in Massachusetts are to create "additive", positive climates for language learning and to allow an adequate duration of time (5 to 7 years) for students to achieve a cognitive academic language proficiency in English. Limited English Proficient students will experience successful learning only when the positive conditions for language learning are in place and the necessary time allowed for learning their

first and second language is appropriated in order that transfer of concepts can occur from the students first language to the second language.

C H A P T E R I V

AN HISTORICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION WITH ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

This chapter presents an historical overview of the Special Education Act (Chapter 766) in Massachusetts. The enactment of Chapter 766 and the pedagogical rationale underlying the legislation is discussed with particular emphasis on the implementation of Chapter 766 with Limited English Proficient students.

Enactment of Chapter 766

Chapter 766 was passed in July 1972 as a result of widespread parent and community movements. The law was to take effect in September 1974 (Weatherby, Lipsky, 1977). This Special Education Act guarantees that every Massachusetts student with special needs from 3 through 21 has the right to a free, appropriate education designed to meet the individual student's special educational needs at public expense. Specifically, a student with special needs is one who:

. . .because of temporary or more permanent adjustment difficulties or attributes arising from intellectual, sensory, emotional , or physical factors, cerebral dysfunction, perceptual factors, or other specific learning impairments, or any combination thereof, is unable to progress effectively in a regular education program and requires special education. Children ages three and four shall qualify as children in need of special education if they have a substantial disability in one or more of the areas listed above. (Regulation 766, Massachusetts Department of Education, 1978, p. 1)

Chapter 766 (like section 504 and P.L. 94.142) requires that (1) handicapped persons between the ages of three and twenty-two be provided a free, appropriate public education, (2) handicapped students be educated with non-handicapped students to the extent appropriate, (3) educational agencies identify and locate all unserved handicapped children, (4) evaluation procedures be adopted to ensure appropriate educational services, (5) parents have a substantial role in the consent and approval of evaluation and placement, and (6) procedural safeguards are established (Lindahl, 1978). Specifically, Chapter 766 contains the following important provisions:

1. right to a free evaluation
2. right to an Individual Educational Plan to fit the student's particular needs
3. early identification of special needs for students entering kindergarten and 3 and 4 year olds
4. mainstreaming - integrated into regular school programs to the maximum possible and not labeled according to disability
5. parental involvement in all decisions made during the evaluation process and rights to appeal decisions
6. quarterly progress reports and annual writing of the educational plan

Pedagogical Rationale

According to the Huron Institute's Evaluation Study of Chapter 766 (1982), four major premises formed the basis of Chapter 766:

1. The concepts of mainstreaming and least restrictive placement assured that students must be integrated and mainstreamed into the appropriate regular school programs to the maximum extent possible, thus ensuring each student a least restrictive environment. This concept did, in fact, enable many students to be taught in the regular program. Yet students who moved from private placements to their own communities did not receive, for the most part, special education with regular education students, but rather in collaboratives or separate programs. A second area where the mainstreaming concept has been difficult to implement is in secondary education. The gaps in services and the fragmentation due to departmentalization increases the isolation of students in special education.

2. Chapter 766 ushered in the era of non-categorical special education in Massachusetts. Students were not to be labeled categorically by disabilities. Each student with special needs, according to Chapter 766, was to receive an individual educational program designed to meet those needs described in the educational profile section of the individual educational plan. Whether a student's needs were determined to be mild, moderate, or severe depended upon the extent to which a student was able to function in the regular classroom. (See Appendix D for Description of Special Education Prototypes.) However, the use of labels persisted at the local level for two reasons: federal

requirements under Public Law 94.142 contradicted Chapter 766 and demanded the continuation of the use of labels for reimbursement purposes and many local service providers, educated in an era when diagnosis ended with the assignment of a label, continued to use labels (Weatherby and Lipsky, 1977).

3. According to Chapter 766, each student was to receive a multi-faceted evaluation by a multidisciplinary team. The evaluation team was to be comprised of different educators as well as the parents of the student and had the responsibility and right to decide the student's placement and individual program after completion of a comprehensive and non-discriminatory evaluation. The individual educational plans developed by the teams were found to be unrealistic and impractical (Huron Institute, 1982).

4. A major provision of Chapter 766 was to involve parents in all decisions made during the evaluation process and individual educational plan. Chapter 766, through considerable time and energy, has brought about increased parent participation.

In conclusion, 95% of the educational groups surveyed by Gallup agree with the concepts of Chapter 766 that students with disabilities have as much right to a public school education as any student. The educators surveyed further felt that Chapter 766 has accomplished its major objective, making a range of appropriate special education

services available to all students with disabilities (Huron Institute, 1982).

Milestones in Implementation

Chapter 766 has precipitated major changes in education. The emphasis on parent and student involvement, the focus on individual programming, and the demand for accountability have dramatically affected how school staff view their roles and organize their tasks. Despite opposition of staff members who view Chapter 766 as an intrusion on their rights of local control, the Massachusetts Department of Education through their program audit, their appeal system, and their court cases, has continued to monitor and enforce the law. Thus, accountability for providing special education services to students with disabilities continues to permeate regular education as well as special education.

In 1974, many educators feared that Chapter 766 would result in placement in regular classrooms of many students who did not belong there. This fear was not realized. Although students with serious disabilities have been removed from substandard facilities, these students, because of Chapter 766, have received more quality services. New programs have been developed to address the needs of students with behavioral disorders, developmental delays, and learning disabilities (Mass. Dept. of Education, Executive Summary, 1981). In addition, new preschool and

secondary level programs were formed. All of these new and expanded services serve to benefit regular education staff. According to the Massachusetts Department of Education's Executive Summary Report (1981), in the Gallup poll survey conducted, 84% of principals and 86% of regular education teachers believed that the quality of special education was better than it had been ten years before.

Despite the support for Chapter 766 on the part of regular education staff, the distinction between regular education and special education is still sharp in most systems. Most school districts have assigned particular special education staff to serve as boundary crossers and to bridge the gap between special and regular education. These boundary crossers are the evaluation chairpersons, generic special educators, consultants, and others whose task is to coordinate programs for students with special needs and give practical assistance to classroom teachers. However, despite the number of staff assigned as boundary crossers, the gap still remains (Executive Summary Report, 1982).

Limited English Proficient Students and Special Education

Factors Contributing to Recognition of Needs

There are two major factors that most influenced special education services for LEP students in Massachusetts. The first was the Bilingual Special Education Project (BISEP). A year prior to the beginning of the national focus on bilingual special education, the

Massachusetts Division of Special Education became the first in the nation to create a Bilingual Special Education Project. The BISEP project was initiated because of the Department of Education's concern for the lack of appropriate services for Limited English Proficient students with special needs.

In the 1978 BISEP study it was estimated that approximately 5,200 Limited English Proficient students statewide would require special education services. Yet, according to the approximate figures that the Project compiled using a voluntary survey (52% return rate) completed by local special education directors in Massachusetts, only 1,955 children (4.5%) of the total LEP population, had either been placed in special education programs or had been identified as students potentially needing special services (BISEP Report, 1978).

A second major factor was the Double Jeopardy Report. Shortly following the inception of the Bilingual Special Education Project, the Double Jeopardy report was released by the Massachusetts Advocacy Center in 1978 as part of a total effort to address and remediate the problems of continuing racial discrimination in special and regular education in Massachusetts.

According to Pytowska (1979), the Double Jeopardy report extensively documented prima facie evidence that indicated that Chapter 766 was not being fully implemented

for many racial and linguistic minority students throughout Massachusetts. Specifically the report charged that:

1. Minority students in certain school districts were enrolled in special education programs at rates that were very different from the corresponding enrollment rates of non-minority students.
2. Minority students were disproportionately placed in the most restrictive in-school programs compared to non-minority students. While in some school districts Hispanic students were underenrolled in special education, overall, in comparison to the enrollment rate for their non-minority counterparts, they were, nevertheless, comparatively overplaced in the most restrictive in-school programs.
3. Students classified as Hispanic were disproportionately placed in special education overall and in restrictive in-school programs compared to students who were classified as Hispanic White.
4. Minority students were underrepresented in special day and residential schools.
(Double Jeopardy, 1978, p.1)

The Report further emphasized that the above situations appeared to be true despite specific protections for minority children written into Chapter 766, Massachusetts Special Education Act, at the time of its conception.

Six years after the enactment of Chapter 766, and four years after its implementation date, Black and Spanish-speaking children still faced major obstacles in obtaining the free, appropriate education guaranteed to them by law (Pytowska, 1979).

Implementation of Chapter 766 with LEP Students

There are nine major issues affecting the implementation of Chapter 766 for Limited English Proficient students.

1. Limited English Proficient students have been both underidentified and overidentified in special educational programs. According to a statewide survey conducted by Landurand and Noriega (1980), overidentification occurs when LEP students are in the English regular education programs. Because these students do not have the necessary English skills to function academically in the regular classroom, teachers refer them to special education. In contrast, LEP students in bilingual programs are underreferred to special education. Bilingual teachers interviewed indicated that they were reluctant to refer students to special education because of the lack of qualified bilingual specialists available within the districts to assess and teach the LEP

students. A national survey conducted by Nuttall and Landurand (1983) documented a similar response by the bilingual teachers surveyed. ✓

2. Discriminatory assessments are being conducted despite safeguards in the legislation. The use of biased instruments, lack of qualified bilingual bicultural assessors, and inappropriate evaluation procedures still continue in many school districts in Massachusetts as well as throughout the United States (Couloupoulos, DeGeorge Study, 1982; Cummins, 1986; Nuttall and Landurand, 1984). The most commonly used battery of tests normed on white, middle class individuals and often inappropriate for the particular LEP student, is routinely administered with minor modifications and interpreted accordingly. Cummins (1986) analysis of more than four hundred psychological assessments of minority students revealed that, although no diagnostic conclusions were logically possible, in the majority of assessments, psychologists were unwilling to admit this. Discriminatory assessments were being conducted by well meaning psychologists and special educators who, rather than challenge a socio-educational system that encourages the disabling of minority students, instead choose to carry out the roles and perpetuate discriminating assessments.

3. Evaluation Teams representing LEP students often don't include a bilingual professional who can represent the student's linguistic and cultural issues. Although there is

no research in this area, ideally the team should include a representative who has training and experience in both special education and bilingual education (Ortiz, 1984). This individual can provide insight into linguistic and cultural factors which influence student achievement and can suggest teaching strategies and materials which can be used in the individual educational program

4. Parental legislative safeguards do not work effectively for minority parents, who often lack education, English Language skills, and understanding of the educational process. Chapter 766 provides for parents to participate as members of the evaluation team. Parents are to be provided information and assistance in their own language to ensure that they understand the 766 process and their rights under the law. In practice, minority parents in Massachusetts and throughout the U.S. have simply given blanket consent for their children to receive whatever special education services were deemed appropriate by school personnel serving on evaluation teams (Rathmill, Sepulveda, 1980; Marion, 1980).

5. Although the language of instruction is to be determined by the TEAM and be based on the student's linguistic, academic, and social needs, this is often not the case. According to Ortiz (1983), a common misconception at the TEAM meetings is that because handicapped children are likely to experience difficulty in learning language

skills, the language of instruction should be English to ensure that the LEP student will be able to communicate in the language of this country.

Literature and research in language acquisition and bilingual education (Skutnabb-Kangus and Turkoma, 1977; Cummins, 1979; Troike, 1978) does not support the rationale of an English-only language of instruction policy. In contrast, studies such as the Carpenteria study (Cummins, 1986) showed that students made further gains in English when they were first taught exclusively in Spanish, their first language. The argument that children who are deficient in English need instruction in English only assumes that proficiency in a second language is separate from proficiency in the native language. The theory of linguistic interdependence (Cummins, 1979) affirms that instruction in the child's native language does not simply promote the child's understanding of his native language: it also helps to promote the higher-level cognitive and academic skills needed to develop literacy in both languages. Development of proficiency in the student's native and second language are interdependent because they both rely on understanding language structure and function (Dannenburg, 1983).

6. English as a Second Language instructional techniques and materials in special education are sorely lacking (Dew, 1984; Ortiz, 1984; Nuttall and Landurand,

1986). LEP students cannot receive the same English approach to instruction as English dominant students in either special education or regular education. These students need an English as a Second Language (E.S.L.) approach and E.S.L. materials adapted to their special needs. Knowledge of E.S.L. and its application in special education settings is very lacking.

7. The need for culturally responsive instructional programming is not being addressed in special education. Instructional strategies and materials stipulated in the I.E.P. do not address the cultural needs and cognitive styles of the LEP students (Almanza, 1980). The curriculum and material should reflect the student's experiences and the instructional strategies should reflect the student's cognitive and interactional styles and multinational variables influenced by the student's structure (Wong and Filmore, 1983). According to the national mainstreaming study conducted by Nuttall and Landurand (1983), the area of culture is the most neglected aspect of the Individual Educational Program.

- The Kamehameha Early Education Program in Hawaii provides strong support for the importance of designing culturally responsive instruction. When reading instruction was changed to permit students to collaborate in discussing and interpreting the stories, the students showed marked improvements in both reading and verbal abilities (Au and

Jordan, 1981). Research shows that the extent to which a student's language and culture are incorporated into the school program predicts academic success (Campus and Keating, 1984; Cummins, 1983).

8. There is great resistance to incorporation of languages and cultures in education. Traditionally, regular educators and special educators have resisted incorporating languages and cultures of the students they serve in the programs in which they teach. Cummins (1986) hypothesizes that the reason for this resistance is that the incorporation would confer status and power to these minority groups in terms of employment, for example. Yet because the democratic philosophy in the U.S. is one of equality, it becomes necessary to develop rationalizations for resistance to designing culturally and linguistically appropriate instruction. The rationalization often used, therefore, is the insufficient exposure hypothesis, which states that the problem is that the student has not had enough exposure to English. If the student is exposed to enough English, the problem will be solved. According to Serpa (1983), if English could cure special education problems, then we should not find any English dominant students with special needs.

Cummins (1986) points out that in cases where the actual teaching of the minority language may not be possible, educators can still incorporate the importance of

the language to the student and the parents within the context of the school and the community.

9. Because of widespread intergroup power relations, Limited English Proficient students meet with academic failure. According to Ogbu (1978), minority groups characterized by widespread failure tend to be in a dominated relationship to the majority group. This leads to a "caste" status of minorities who fail because of economic and social discrimination combined with an inferior status relegated to them by the dominant group. Feuerstein (1979) explains the failure of particular groups by noting that members of that group lack what he calls "mediated learning". Cultural learning is not transmitted from one generation to another because of the alienation the group members experience for their own culture. Cummins (1984) calls this lack of cultural identification "bicultural ambivalence", the feelings students experience when there are conflicts between the home and school cultures. In all cases, students who do not experience alienation from their own culture by domination by a majority culture and resultant feelings of inferiority often do not experience the failures that inevitably lead to a special education status (Cummins, 1986).

Summary

As a result of guaranteed rights mandated under Chapter 766, culturally and linguistically diverse students in both

regular as well as special programs need to receive instruction in a language they can comprehend. Limited English Proficient students are guaranteed English as a Second Language instruction and, in most cases, instruction in their most proficient language. Therefore, students who are found to have disabilities and who are also Limited English Proficient, have a legal right to receive instructional services in their most proficient language whenever feasible.

In addition, as a result of guaranteed rights of Chapter 766, Limited English Proficient Students are to receive a comprehensive nondiscriminatory assessment in their most proficient language. Instruments used are to be nonbiased and administered by a qualified assessor who speaks the language of the student and is knowledgeable of the culture of the student. Communication with parents is to be in their dominant language.

Limited English Proficient Students are not to be placed in special education for no other reason than they are lacking in English language skills. If the LEP student is found, in fact, to have a disability, then the individualized educational program of the student must reflect the linguistic and cultural needs of the student.

LEP students with special needs, like any student with special needs, are guaranteed under Chapter 766 to receive least restrictive placements and be mainstreamed in the

regular bilingual or monolingual programs to the maximum degree feasible.

Although the above rights are guaranteed to all students under Chapter 766, there remain many problem areas and serious considerations in Massachusetts and the U.S. in implementing special education evaluations and programs for culturally and linguistically diverse students. The issue of conducting nondiscriminatory evaluations still remains unresolved for many communities. Lack of appropriate assessors, instruments and procedures continue in many districts throughout Massachusetts. The Evaluation Team is given the important responsibility to decide placement and develop individual educational programs for each child, including the important decision as to the language(s) of instruction to use with non-English background students. Yet, in many districts, the team members lack a bilingual special educator who can provide important linguistic and cultural knowledge that is necessary to develop an appropriate individual educational plan.

A further problem area is the political interferences that occur in programming for the linguistic and cultural components of the I.E.P. Cummins (1986) refers to this phenomenon as the societal commitment to maintaining the dominant/ dominated power relationships. In other words, political and economic reasons underly special educators' resistance to recognize and incorporate

a student's language and culture in the individual educational plan.

Disproportionate enrollment of minority students in many school districts in Massachusetts still occurs. This is evidenced in the several prima facie citations issued by the Division of Special Education to school districts whose enrollments of minority students in special education indicate potential discrimination. Factors such as discriminatory assessment procedures and instruments, evaluation teams without bilingual representation, lack of bilingual special educators, linguistically and culturally inappropriate I.E.P.s, and lack of E.S.L. trained special educators represent major educational issues that need to be resolved if Limited English Proficient students are to receive appropriate special education services.

Given the educational, economic, and political forces impacting on the kind and quality of services language minority students will receive in special education, committed special educators need to continue to advocate for minority students and deinstitution- alize the mechanisms within special education that serve to further disempower them (Bernal, 1985; Cummins, 1986).

C H A P T E R V

OVERVIEW OF BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING

This chapter will present an historical overview of bilingual special education teacher training from both a national and statewide perspective. In addition, research conducted in the area of bilingual special education teacher training competencies will be discussed. Finally, the three training program designs in Massachusetts will be described briefly.

A National Overview

In 1978, the Bureau for the Handicapped of the Department of Education, cognizant of the lack of qualified bilingual/bicultural personnel, took steps to correct the situation. Through its Hispanic initiative, which was later extended to other linguistically and culturally different groups, the Bureau encouraged the establishment of personnel preparation programs which would both recruit and train bilingual/bicultural professionals to work with Limited English Proficient students. In 1979 an initial group of 22 personnel preparation programs, which included two programs directed by this investigator, were funded under this initiative. In 1982, three years later, 30 bilingual education and/or multicultural special education teacher training projects were in existence nationwide (Baca, 1985).

Thus, while there were a few programs functioning prior to the initiative, in a real sense the preparation of personnel to work with LEP students began in 1979. And like any new field there remains a need to identify, define, and improve current practices.

This researcher, through her participation in the Hispanic Caucus of the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), the Special Education Special Interest Group (SIG) of the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), and as a member of several national planning committees in bilingual special education, has become acutely aware of the undeniable personnel training needs in this area. In cities like Boston, Chicago, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, Miami, Newark, Oakland, Philadelphia, Phoenix, San Francisco, San Jose, and Washington, D.C., system-wide needs exist to develop specialized competencies in special educators to appropriately serve linguistically and culturally diverse students. Specialized training for special educators serving language minority students is not readily available. In 1982, only 30 teacher training programs in this area were available nationwide (Baca, 1985). Because of the limited number of specialized programs, most special educators in the U.S., bilingual and otherwise, receive no specialized preservice or inservice training to enable them to work effectively with LEP students with handicaps. Therefore, while bilingual special

educators often have the necessary language skills and cultural sensitivity competencies to more effectively serve the target group, they lack the same knowledge and skills that monolingual service providers do with respect to the available specialized diagnostic and intervention skills necessary. The preparation of both groups has been equally neglected with regard to preservice training provided.

Competencies developed by ACCESS. (National Teacher Preparation Federal Project in Special Education)

In the Spring of 1980 and again in the Spring of 1981 professionals, including this investigator, engaged in preparing personnel to work with LEP students, met in the Washington, D.C. area for workshops sponsored by ACCESS, Inc., and funded by the United States Department of Education. Some of the purposes of the two workshops were to define the field, determine the competencies which should be required of both trainers and trainees, and share ideas about philosophies and methodology. One of the results of these workshops was an agreement to replace the term bilingual special education with the term "the education of culturally and linguistically different exceptional students", a term which emphasized cultural as well as linguistic differences. It was also agreed that persons preparing to work with such students needed to have the skills included in the field of bilingual/bicultural education, special education, and a third group of

cross-cultural "convergent" skills which were not found in either but are vital to working with this population. As a result of these workshops, ACCESS (1980) published a comprehensive list of competencies for bilingual special educators.

NCATE's multicultural policy.

Because of the publicized litigation in the area of minority special education in 1980, multicultural teacher training was formally institutionalized by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). This powerful accreditation agency adopted a multicultural education policy statement which mandates that a multicultural component be included in all teacher training programs across the United States in order for the programs to be NCATE accredited.

Its intention was to change the concept of a monocultural society and educational institution to a culturally pluralistic society that promotes cultural diversity. Yet, despite this action, and despite the fact that the need for multicultural training is recognized and endorsed by four accrediting and professional organizations for special educators (Grant, 1983), the mandated coursework universities deliver to promote competence in dealing with culturally diverse exceptional students differs widely. Some teacher preparation programs add specially-designed modules to existing courses, others attempt to infuse

multicultural concepts into all special education courses. However, two factors have tended to restrict the amount and quality of multicultural training provided at the preservice level. The first, that often faculty members themselves lack the competencies required to provide meaningful training about culturally diverse students (Fuchigami, 1980). The second, that existing textbooks contribute to trainees difficulties. Discussions of multicultural issues in introductory special education course textbooks represent only .6% - 7.8% of the text. Many special education texts neglect to mention any aspect of cultural difference or any issue related to ethnicity (Grant, 1983). Furthermore, special educators contend that even when adequate training is provided in courses, little opportunity is given to apply the concepts and skills they are learning in actual classroom situations (Marion, 1980; Fuchigami, 1980).

Ten years ago the Commission of Multicultural Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education also adopted an important policy statement. One of the paragraphs of this statement is particularly significant. It reads as follows:

To endorse cultural pluralism is to endorse the principle that there is no one model American. To endorse cultural pluralism is to understand and appreciate the differences that exist among the nation's citizens. It is to see these differences as a positive force in the continuing development of a society which professes a wholesome respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual. Cultural pluralism is more than a temporary concept that aims

toward a heightened sense of being and wholeness of the entire society based on the unique strength of each of its parts. (AACTE, 1973, p. 264)

As can be seen, multicultural education was not to be thought of as merely an addition of a course or unit of study on multiculturalism. Rather it is a philosophical orientation that permeates the entire curriculum (Baca, 1984).

Bilingual special education teacher training with a focus on both linguistic and cultural issues is an important step for preparing teachers to work with Limited English Proficient students in our schools. More importantly, it is an important effort designed to promote equal educational opportunity for Limited English Proficient students who also have exceptional needs. By providing students with special education teachers who speak their language and understand their culture, LEP students are offered the opportunity to learn.

McLean's competency research.

In the fall of 1981, Gary McLean in conjunction with the BUENO Center for Multicultural Education* conducted a national needs assessment related to bilingual special education. The study involved both special education directors and bilingual education directors in 222 randomly selected school districts funded through Title VII of the

* Bilingual Education Service Center funded by the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Affairs

Elementary and Secondary School Act (ESEA). The purpose of the study was to determine the extent of the need to develop bilingual special education programs in school districts receiving federal support for bilingual education programs.

The study determined that despite the positive endorsement given by the respondents to the concept of bilingual special education, only 32% of the school districts that received federal bilingual funds (Title VII) had or were planning bilingual special education programs that would be operational within two years. The one state, according to this study, that was exceptional was Massachusetts which was reported as being particularly responsive to the needs of Limited English Proficient handicapped children (McLean, 1981).

A second major finding was that the Special Education and Bilingual directors surveyed felt the training programs for bilingual special educators include the development of knowledge of and sensitivity toward the language group to be served and knowledge for dealing effectively with parents of LEP students with handicaps.

The ability of a program to deliver quality education for the LEP student with disabilities relies on the competence of its teachers. In general, certified teachers have been taught a common core of historical, philosophical, and psychological courses in education. In addition to

these foundation courses, they receive further skill courses in their area of specialization.

Collier's adaptation of Reynolds' competencies.

Reynolds (1980) suggests that a body of skills and knowledge be developed that will prepare teachers to carry forth social mandates such as Public Law 94-142. Dr. Reynolds (1980) stated ten "clusters of capabilities" in which teachers need to be trained. The first cluster was curriculum. Dr. Reynolds (1980) contends that all teachers should have a general knowledge of the school curriculum that is offered from K-12 and must be skilled in the preparation of individualized curricular plans for children based upon careful assessments of individual needs. His second cluster is teaching basic skills. He defines basic skills as literacy, life maintenance, and personal development. Literacy skills refers to reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, speaking and study. These clusters were adapted into twelve multiculturally focused competencies by Catherine Collier (1984). The following are sample Collier competencies:

1. All teachers need a general knowledge of curriculum development and its crosscultural adaptations.
2. All teachers need competencies in teaching the basic skills both in the native and second language content areas.
3. All teachers should be proficient in various classroom management techniques.
4. All teachers should exhibit consultations and communication skills in crosscultural settings.

5. All teachers need skills in working with minority families of disabled students.
6. All teachers need to make systematic cross cultural observations to provide data for programming for students.

Bergin's bilingual special education teacher competencies

Victoria Bergin (1980) further elaborated a list of teacher competencies in bilingual special education. This list was generated out of both her identification of school district needs in the area and bilingual special education teachers' responsibilities in their local positions.

In the area of assessments, Dr. Bergin listed the following sample competencies:

1. Knowledge of diagnostic process and ability to use the results.
2. Ability to provide special educational assessments based on observations of students' criterion-referenced tests, and conferences with referring teachers.
3. Knowledge of language assessment and language proficiency measures.

Additional sample competencies in the area of providing direct services to special needs LEP students felt to be important to Bergin are:

4. Knowledge of methodology for teaching students of different second language proficiency levels.
5. Ability to adequately use ready made materials; ability to adapt and design other materials according to the needs of LEP students.
6. Ability to communicate effectively with the students in their native language.
7. Familiarity with the regular bilingual curriculum.

Baca's description of teacher competencies.

Additional teacher competencies for working with bilingual exceptional students were described by Baca (1981). The following is a brief summary of these competencies:

1. In the area of language competence the teacher needs to be able to understand, speak, read, and write the student's native language and be able to teach in the native language as well as in English. Also, the teacher needs to be able to communicate with the parents in their native language.
2. In linguistic competence, the teacher needs to understand the process of first and second language acquisition, recognize interlanguage and language transfer, understand phonological, grammatical, and lexical characteristics of both languages and distinguish between local dialects and standard language.
3. For competence in the assessment area, the teacher needs to be able to administer a variety of language dominance/proficiency tests, carry out a nondiscriminatory comprehensive diagnostic assessment, and construct and use criterion measures.
4. In the instructional area, teachers need to prepare individual plans based on student needs, individualize instruction for small groups of students, adapt curriculum to meet the needs of LEP students with disabilities, select the proper bilingual instructional approach for each situation, assess readability levels of material in both languages, etcetera.
5. In the cultural area, teachers need to understand a variety of cultural backgrounds, understand the cultural significance of various exceptionalities, utilize community resources for bilingual exceptional children, advise parents on their due process rights and counsel them on aspects of their child's exceptionality.

Although the research of Baca, Bergin, and McLean represent the most up to date exploration in the area of bilingual special education competencies, none of these

studies, in fact, queried the most important source--the bilingual special educator. The only study that surveyed teachers in order to identify competencies was a survey conducted by Salend et al (1984). This study was conducted with teachers of migrant handicapped students and consisted of a questionnaire where the teachers rated the importance of specific competencies necessary for success in teaching migrant students with handicaps. However, the majority of the teachers surveyed worked with monolingual English-speaking migrant students.

A Massachusetts Overview

Bilingual special education graduate training program.

The Massachusetts Division of Special Education, upon the request of the Bilingual Special Education Project Director, agreed to fund and support three state initiated graduate training programs in Bilingual Special Education. Both the critical need for trained personnel which was documented in B.I.S.E.P.'s Needs Assessment Report (1978) and the important findings that linguistically, racially, and culturally diverse students are referred and placed in special education programs at disproportionate rates to non-minority students (Double Jeopardy Report, 1978), were two major factors that influenced the Division of Special Education to fund these state initiated graduate programs at

\$45,000 each for two programs in the Spring of 1979 and \$85,000 for the third in the Fall of 1981.

All three programs were designed to lead to certification of bilingual teachers in special education and were located in four different regions in Massachusetts in order to meet personnel needs in different geographical regions.

The two training models to be awarded funding were the Bilingual Teachers of Children with Moderate Special Needs (programs located at Fitchburg State College and at Bridgewater State College) and the Generic Bilingual Special Education Program (located at Fitchburg and Regis College). The funding of these programs formally marked the development of a new field of Bilingual Special Education in Massachusetts.

Three Training Program Designs in Massachusetts

The Fitchburg State College program designs.

The Fitchburg State College Training design in Bilingual Special Education was composed of two training programs, each housed at a different location.

1. The Generic Consultant Bilingual Education Program was located at Fitchburg State College and involved the trainees in course work which prepared them not only for direct service to students but to serve as consultants to other school personnel, parents and administration as well as diagnosticians to students. This program started with

twelve certified bilingual teachers and offered six three credit courses and a three credit supervised practicum.

2. The Bilingual Teacher of Children with Moderate Special Needs Program, located at Westfield State College, primarily trained teachers to work directly with students with moderate needs. The program began with fourteen certified teachers and offered a total of six three credit courses and a three credit supervised practicum.

All bilingual teacher trainees enrolled in the Fitchburg program at both sites were required to participate in a full day workshop per month. These workshops coordinated by the Program Coordinator for the Training Program were designed to focus on the linguistic and cultural aspects of the core courses and were conducted by an interdisciplinary team of consultants.

In addition, all bilingual teacher trainees participated in a practicum which involved 180 hours of documented work in the field.

Organizationally, the Fitchburg Program was administered by the Special Education Department Head with the assistance of a Program Coordinator, who was a bilingual special education practitioner hired from a local district for the duration of the program. The Program Coordinator was responsible for the coordination of all aspects of the program, the practicum supervision of all students, and the ongoing coordination between the two campuses.

The Regis College design.

The Regis College design, entitled the Bilingual/Generic Special Teacher, was designed to prepare the trainees to serve in three roles: consultant teachers to other staff and parents, diagnosticians of students, and direct service providers to students.

The training model used at Regis was a Bilingual Special Education Model which had been field tested previously with twelve bilingual trainees in an Office of Education sponsored training grant. The model consisted of certain courses specially designed to infuse bilingual/bicultural issues in special education curriculum. These courses were taught by bilingual special education practitioners hired by Regis as temporary (adjunct) professors. Other courses were taught by Regis' permanent graduate faculty staff.

The practicum of the Regis program was an intensive period of fieldwork with a hands-on approach. The practicum supervisor visited the students at their practicum sites and held group seminars to discuss issues and strategies based on practicum experiences.

The Regis program originally accepted 22 certified bilingual teachers and extended through the two year period from 1979-1981 with a total funding of \$45,000 for the two years.

Unlike the Fitchburg model, Regis did not hire a full time Bilingual Special Education Coordinator, but rather was administered totally by the Graduate School Director with the assistance of the practicum Supervisor, who was a bilingual specialist hired during the second program year and given the responsibility to act as liaison as well as practicum supervisor. The program involved the trainees in 36 credit hours spread throughout eleven courses. At the end of the two year program, twelve teachers had completed the program and ten teachers, many of whom had entered the program at a later date to fill a vacancy, were still in need of course work necessary to complete their program.

The Bridgewater State College training design.

The Bridgewater State College training design was a part-time, two year Bilingual Special Education program designed to license bilingual and English as a Second Language teachers as Teachers of School Age Children with Moderate Special Needs. Forty bilingual teachers were to be trained to provide instructional services to students with moderate disabilities.

The program offered eight graduate courses plus a practicum experience spanning from November 1980 until December 1982. All courses were taught at the Bridgewater site, which received the grant award of \$85,000 for the two year duration.

The Bridgewater design was administered by the Chairperson of the Special Education Department with the assistance of a full time Bilingual Special Education Program Coordinator, who was responsible for many aspects of the program. In addition, a bilingual special education practicum supervisor was hired part time and bilingual specialists were recruited to teach particular courses. Program courses were taught either by full time Special Education staff at Bridgewater or by outside specialists who were recruited to teach the course. At the end of the two years, 21 teachers had completed the program.

State process review of two programs.

A Process Review and Assessment of the Fitchburg State College and Regis College Certification Program in Bilingual Special Education was initiated in 1981 by the Division of Special Education. The study affirmed that the trainees shared the career goal of receiving a master's degree and becoming certified in bilingual special education. However, some trainees asserted that they wished to continue as bilingual regular teachers. Some desired administrative positions and some, in fact, wished to work as bilingual specialists. In addition, the learning goals differed among the trainees. The following statement was quoted by the evaluation researcher to reflect the breadth of the trainees' learning goals:

"I want to learn about the Transitional Bilingual Education and Massachusetts Chapter 766 laws, to master the theoretical and practical diagnostic, prescriptive, and treatment skills necessary to serve bilingual/culturally diverse children with special needs and to develop the necessary consultation skills to work with other educators, parents and community people" (Comnenou, unpublished study, 1982).

As of the Fall of 1984, this investigator ascertained from the Assistant Associate Commissioner, Division of Special Education, that the final draft of this Process Review was not available and there is no immediate date targeted for its publication.

Summary

The Massachusetts State Department's Division of Special Education took a leadership position in initiating newly created Bilingual Special Education Teacher Training Programs throughout the state. A year following this initiative, the Federal Government, through the Office of Special Education, began to address the personnel shortages in this area and encouraged personnel preparation program applications in bilingual special education. However, teacher training programs in bilingual special education remain limited and personnel shortages in this area continue to increase as the population of linguistically and culturally diverse students continues to grow.

C H A P T E R V I

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology employed to examine bilingual special education teacher training in Massachusetts. Specifically, the methodology is designed to address the following eighteen research questions.

1. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in First and Second Language Acquisition?

2. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Child Development?

3. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Classroom Management?

4. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Nondiscriminatory Assessment?

5. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Individual Educational Programming?

6. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Consultation?

7. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Mainstreaming?

8. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Advocacy?

9. Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Methods and Materials?

10. What is the difference between the trainees ratings of the training they received in First and Second Language Acquisition and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

11. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Child Development and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

12. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Classroom Management and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

13. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Nondiscriminatory Assessment and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

14. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Individual Educational Programming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

15. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Consultation and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

16. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Mainstreaming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

17. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Advocacy and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

18. What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Methods and Materials and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

The methodology section includes descriptions of the setting and sample, variables of study, instruments used to collect data and the statistical analysis.

Setting and Sample

The sample included the total population of 80 bilingual special education trainees who had completed a

special education licensure program in one of the three college institutions awarded funding to conduct bilingual special education training in Massachusetts. These 80 trainees participated in the training programs during the years 1978-1983, and represent five of the six educational regions in Massachusetts: Greater Boston, Northeast, Southeast, Greater Worcester, and Greater Springfield. The only educational region not represented in the training programs was the Pittsfield region, which was not selected as a site by the State Department because of the small number of minority students in the region.

Data Collecting Instrument

The Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire was used to investigate the role of the bilingual special education trainees in public schools in Massachusetts and the preparation they received for the role. The Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire (BSETQ) was designed by this investigator and is composed of twenty-six questions (see Appendix E) in three major areas: respondent's training, respondent's position in local school districts, and the respondent's background. In the area of the respondent's training, the respondents are asked to share their perceptions of their training programs in relation to how their roles are being operationally defined in their work settings. This questionnaire, which was used with all the bilingual special education trainees who completed a

licensure program, consisted of Likert-type scale and open-ended questions.

Validation of Instrument

The Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire was validated using face validity and content validity. Face validity refers to whether the instrument "looks like it measures what it claims to measure" (Chase, 1978, p. 59). It was established by a panel of three bilingual specialists* who reviewed the instrument, particularly for format, clarity of content, and linguistic and cultural bias. For example, as a result of the panelists suggestions, several changes were made in spacing and format. Additional space was provided for written answers, the word "note" was changed to "check", the categorical label of multiply-handicapped was added to question #12 in the questionnaire, and questions 20.0 and 20.1 asking the trainees to state the area(s) in which they received their undergraduate and graduate training were expanded to include the country where they acquired the degree.

Content validity refers to "the adequacy with which a test covers a representative sample of behavior or information to be assessed" (Wallace and Larsen, 1978, p. 47).

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Content validity was established by reviewing the competencies in terms of the courses offered in the training programs. In addition, the instrument was reviewed by five bilingual special educators who had received training in programs other than at those colleges in the study.

Data Collecting Procedure

This investigation took place in Massachusetts where training in bilingual special education occurred in three colleges supported by state and federal funding. The names and addresses of the bilingual special education trainees who had completed the licensure programs in special education were provided by either college personnel or state department of education personnel. A total of eighty teachers received the initial mailing which included a cover letter and the questionnaire. Twenty-one teachers from College A, fifteen teachers from College B, and forty-four teachers from College C comprised the total of 80 participants. Of the total of 80 participants who were sent a cover letter and questionnaire, four participant questionnaires were returned with no forwarding address and two participants returned the questionnaire and indicated that they had, in fact, never completed the program. Several unsuccessful attempts were made to locate the four participants who left no forwarding address.

The respondents were asked to return the questionnaire anonymously in the stamped self-addressed envelope within a three week period.

Within this first deadline, 21 respondents of the available population of 74 (28%) completed and returned the questionnaire.

The second approach followed was to send all participants a postcard reminding them to return their questionnaire. As a result of the reminder, 11 more returns were received, totaling 32 questionnaires (43%).

The final attempt, two weeks after the postcards were sent, was to call every participant and personally ask them to respond if they had not already done so. As a result of the direct telephone requests, 20 additional trainees responded (6 from college A, 2 from College B, and 12 from College C) making a total response rate of 52 out of the 74 or a 68% response rate.

School B had graduated fifteen trainees. Twelve of the fifteen trainees were located and sent the questionnaire. Three of the trainees had left Massachusetts and their addresses remained unknown. There was a 50% return rate of trainees' questionnaires for School B. College A had twenty-one trainees who completed the program and all were sent the questionnaire. College A had a 62% response rate. Forty-four participants were sent the questionnaire from College C and thirty-two responded, indicating a return rate

of 73%. Overall there was a 68% response rate on the total number of questionnaires. Table 4.1 summarizes this information.

TABLE 4.1

PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATE TRAINEES' RESPONSES BY COLLEGES

Colleges	# of Grads.	Grads.Reached	% Grads Respond.
College A	21	21	62%
College B	15	12	50%
College C	44	44	73%

N = 80

Each of the trainee participants recieved a form to sign and mail back separately stating that they understood the information to be confidential and that they could withdraw from participation in the study at any time. On the form they also were to indicate if they wished to receive a summary of the results.

Research Design

In this descriptive research study, the trainee graduates were asked to respond to the Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire which included questions on: (1) the trainee's perceptions of how good the training was in relation to how important they felt the area was for their position, (2) information about how the trainees viewed their positions, and (3) demographic data on the trainee.

The independent variables in this research study are the three college programs and the perceptions of their roles by the bilingual special education trainees in their present positions. The dependent variables are the teacher trainees' ratings on the Bilingual Special Education Trainee Questionnaire.

Research questions 1-9 involved whether the college sites differed in the trainees' ratings of the quality of training in each of the nine content areas. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used. The mean responses from each group of college participants was compared.

Research question 10-18 involved the trainees' ratings of the training they received in each of the nine content areas and the ratings of the importance of the content areas in their present roles as bilingual special educators. These questions were analyzed using a difference score. Specifically the respondent's importance rating in each area

was subtracted from the respondent's adequacy rating of training in that area. In this way, the number of respondents who felt that the adequacy of their training in the content area matched the importance on the job could be compared to either the number of respondents who felt that the adequacy of their training in the content area did not measure up to its importance or compared to those respondents who felt that the adequacy of their training in the content area failed substantially to measure up to its importance. A .05 significance level using a t test was used.

In addition, four trainees representing different regions and working with different levels of students were asked to keep a daily journal of their activities for a full week. The journals were read by the researcher and two bilingual specialists and observations recorded accordingly.

Data Analysis

The questionnaires were analyzed using SYSTAT (The System for Statistics). All responses requiring a rating response were recorded and coded.

Research questions 10-18 used a T test to determine the differences in the trainees' mean ratings of preparation they received in each area in comparison to their ratings of the importance in each area. The independent variables in this research study are the three college programs and the roles played by the bilingual special education trainees in

their local school districts. The dependent variables are the teacher trainees' ratings on the BSETQ questionnaire. Research questions 1-9 employed analyses of variance with a .05 level of significance in order to compare the mean responses from the participants in each college program.

Questions requiring open-ended responses were analyzed using content analysis and grouped by the researcher into named categories. In order to validate the grouping of these individual responses into named categories, two bilingual specialists agreed to conduct the content analysis, read the responses independently, and place them in the named categories provided. Whenever the specialist was not certain in which category to place a response, the response was set aside. After individually placing each response in the given categories or in the unknown category, the two specialists met with the researcher and each response was reviewed. In only three instances was there a discrepancy in the placement of the response in a particular category. After discussion, consensus was reached in all three instances.

Limitations of Study

1. Although the 52 trainees represented 68% of the total population of 76 bilingual special education trainees who graduated from one of the three programs and received the questionnaire, College B had only six trainees responding.

The data from College B are subject to Type II error because of the very limited sample.

2. The instrument used was a questionnaire. The researcher selected an anonymous questionnaire in order to encourage trainees to respond freely. It was felt that because many trainees knew the researcher's involvement in bilingual special education, they might be inhibited in giving negative responses in a telephone or face to face interview situation. It was felt that trainees from particular cultural groups would find it difficult to be critical in those circumstances.

3. The researcher called every participant to personally ask them to respond if they had not already done so. Those respondents who had responded prior to the call are, in a pure sense, a different sample than the ones who responded after the call.

Delimiters of the Study

1. Information about the role of the bilingual special educators was limited to their perceptions. Further ethnographic research is needed in this area to expand this knowledge.

2. A written questionnaire approach is always limited in that the respondent may have misinterpreted the question or misrepresented the response.

C H A P T E R V I I

RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of this research that focused on bilingual special educators and their preparation and implementation of their roles in Massachusetts.

Questions Nos. 1 - 9

Research question # 1 employed analysis of variance with a .05 level of significance.

In the analysis of questions one through nine, the analysis of variance was used to compare mean responses from the participants in each college program. Because the colleges differed in enrollments, the numbers of respondents from each college differed as well. In fact, College B had fewer respondents (6) than did the other colleges and in particular instances only four respondents chose to answer certain questions. The six respondents did represent 50% of the total bilingual special education graduate trainees from that college. However, this small number of respondents does have the effect of reducing the statistical power of the analysis of variance. Consequently, the analyses may be subject to Type II error, failing to identify significant differences when they do exist.

Teachers may note that the standard deviation of the responses are themselves quite large when compared to a

range of four on a Likert type scale. This means that respondents differed among themselves in their ratings, but has no direct bearing upon the analyses. The analysis of variance involves the ratio of differences among group means divided by functions of the standard deviations within groups. Because the ratio is used in the analysis, the magnitudes of either numerator or denominator are important only as they compare to the others.

For Research questions 1-9, at times fewer than six College B respondents answered. When this occurred, an asterisk placed next to the recorded number of College B respondents will indicate the actual number of responses to that specific question.

Research question No. 1 asks: Is the college that the trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in First and Second Language Acquisition?

Analysis of variance conducted indicated that there was no significant difference in the trainees' ratings of the training they received in this area among the three colleges. However, College C trainees indicated they were less prepared although the difference did not reach statistical significance.

Table 6.1 presents the descriptive data and Table 6.2 the analysis of variance.

Table 6.1

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION PREPARATION
BY COLLEGES

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.96	.602
College B	5*	3.70	.958
College C	29	3.34	.830

* Only five trainees from College B answered this question

Table 6.2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	56.552	2	28.276	2.845	.069
Within	437.320	44	9.939		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research Question No. 2 asks: Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings after training in Child Development? No significant difference was found when an analysis of variance was conducted as shown in Table 6.4. The trainees in College C, however, felt less prepared than College A and B as shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.692	0.947
College B	6	3.833	1.472
College C	30	3.300	1.080

Table 6.4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	2.302	2	1.151		
				.947	.395
Within	55.903	46	1.215		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question No. 3 asks: Is the college that trainees attended associated with differences in their ratings of their training in Classroom Management? The analysis of variance conducted indicate there is no significant difference. Table 6.5 and Table 6.6 summarize the findings.

Table 6.5

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PREPARATION
BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.54	.811
College B	6	3.22	1.560
College C	28	3.49	.914

Table 6.6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	3.945	2	1.972		
Within	383.375	44	8.713	.226	.798

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question four dealt with the trainees ratings in the area of Nondiscriminatory Assessment.

Table 6.7 and Table 6.8 describe the results. Analysis of variance indicated there was no significant difference in the ratings in this area among the colleges.

Table 6.7

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF NONDISCRIMINATORY ASSESSMENT
PREPARATION BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.88	.609
College B	6	4.00	.922
College C	29	3.77	.616

Table 6.8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	5.220	2	2.610	.380	.686
Within	309.093	45	6.869		

* $p < 0.05$ level

The fifth research question had the trainees rate their training in the area of Individual Educational Programming (IEP). In this area analysis of variance showed there was a statistically significant difference in the trainees' ratings among the colleges. Refer to Table 6.10. College A trainees indicated that they felt less prepared than trainees from Colleges B and C as seen in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF IEP PREPARATION BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.23	.985
College B	6	4.30	.548
College C	30	4.07	.750

Table 6.10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	79.339	2	39.669	6.884	.002
Within	265.069	46	5.769		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question No. 6 asked the trainees to rate their training in the area of Consultation. Analysis of variance showed there was no significant difference in the trainees' ratings in this area among the colleges. Table 6.11 and Table 6.12 summarize the results.

Table 6.11

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF CONSULTATION PREPARATION BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.42	1.020
College B	6	4.08	.801
College C	30	3.48	.969

Table 6.12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	8.181	2	4.091	1.097	.342
Within	171.492	46	3.728		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question No. 7 asked the trainees to rate their training in the area of Mainstreaming. Analysis of variance showed there was no significant difference in the trainee's ratings in this area among the three colleges. Table 6.13 and Table 6.14 describe these findings.

Table 6.13

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF MAINSTREAMING PREPARATION BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	12	3.29	1.230
College B	6	3.17	1.600
College C	30	3.06	.920

Table 6.14

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	1.500	2	.750		
				.156	.856
Within	216.417	45	4.809		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question No. 8 dealt with the trainee's perception of the training they received in the area of Advocacy. Analysis of variance indicates no significant difference as described in table 6.16 and College A trainees indicated they felt more prepared in this area as indicated in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF ADVOCACY PREPARATION BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	4.231	1.013
College B	6	3.500	1.225
College C	29	3.828	1.104

Table 6.16

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	2.534	2	1.267	1.057	.356
Within	53.946	45	1.199		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Research question No. 9 asks the trainees to rate their preparation in the area of Methods and Materials. This area received the lowest mean score which seems to indicate that the trainees in each of the three colleges did not feel they were adequately prepared in this area. College C had the lowest mean rating. However, analysis of variance indicates there was no significant difference in the trainees ratings among the three colleges. Tables 6.17 and Table 6.18 review these findings.

Table 6.17

TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF METHODS AND MATERIALS PREPARATION
BY COLLEGE

	N	Mean	St. Dev.
College A	13	3.10	.736
College B	4*	3.25	1.210
College C	28	2.95	.814

Table 6.18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between Groups	51,358	2	25.679		
				.309	.736
Within	3487.442	42	83.034		

* $p < 0.05$ level

Having established that there was no significant difference between the colleges, except in one case, it becomes important to look at the total trainees' mean ratings in each area. Table 6.19 reviews these results. The trainees gave the area of Nondiscriminatory Assessment the highest mean rating, indicating they felt most prepared in this area. In contrast, the three areas that received the lowest mean ratings were Classroom Management, Mainstreaming, and Methods and Materials. All three areas involve direct practical teaching skills and strategies that the trainees are called upon to use in their daily teaching. The lowest rating was given to Methods and Materials.

Table 6.19

SUMMARY OF TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION IN NINE
COMPETENCY AREAS

<u>Areas</u>	<u>Mean Ratings of Trainees</u>
Nondiscriminatory Assessment	3.88
Individual Educational Programming	3.86
Advocacy	3.85
First & Second Language Acquisition	3.66
Consultation	3.66
Child Development	3.60
Classroom Management	3.41
Mainstreaming	3.17
Methods and Materials	3.10

Questions No. 10 - 18

Research questions 10 through 18 ask: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in each of the nine areas and their ratings of the importance of each of the nine areas in their roles as bilingual special educators?

Tables 6.19 through 6.27 describe differences in the trainees' mean ratings of preparation they received in each area. In addition to the total difference score for all three colleges, the tables further describe the ratings for each college individually.

For each of these analyses one or two colleges with significant differences can be responsible for significance with the total differences. Thus, the significant total difference could be merely a reflection of the one or two colleges and thereby add no additional meaning.

The differences by college are least important. When trainees from a college rated their training high, the difference is likely not to be significant because they consistently rated the importance of the area high. College B had few respondents and because of possible Type II errors, significance was difficult to determine.

Research question 10 asks what is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in First and Second Language Acquisition and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators.

The trainees from Colleges B and C and the overall ratings of trainees from all three colleges indicated there was a significant difference as revealed by t tests in the training they received in the area of First and Second Language Acquisition and the importance of this area in their work. They rated the importance of this area significantly higher than their mean preparation rating. There was no significant difference in College A trainees' ratings of difference between importance and preparation they received in that area, in part because the trainees rated their preparation relatively high. Table 6.20 describes the total difference score for all three colleges and further describes the ratings for each college individually.

Table 6.20

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND IMPORTANCE IN FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.96	4.08	-.12	.658	.66
College B	5*	3.70	4.40	-.70	.778	2.01*
College C	29	3.34	4.22	-.88	1.010	4.69*
All Coll.	47	3.55	4.20	-.65	.948	4.70*

* significant at .05 level

Research Question No. 11 asks what is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Child Development and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators. In total, the trainees rated the importance of this area significantly higher than the mean preparation rating in Child Development. Unlike Colleges A and C, however, College B indicated results that were not significant according to the T-Test. However, because of the small sample, possible Type II error exists. Table 6.21 summarizes these findings.

Table 6.21

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.69	4.23	-.34	.660	2.95*
College B	6	3.83	4.83	-1.00	1.549	1.58
College C	30	3.30	4.07	-.77	1.165	3.62*
All Coll.	49	3.47	4.20	-.73	1.095	4.67*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 12 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' rating of the training they received in Classroom Management and their ratings of their importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? The trainees in total as revealed by T-tests indicated that the preparation they received in Classroom Management differed significantly from the importance of this area in their work. Colleges A and C indicated significance; College B, however, indicated no significant difference. Table 6.22 describes the results.

Table 6.22

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.54	4.36	-.82	.835	3.54*
College B	6	3.22	4.56	-1.33	1.838	1.77
College C	28	3.49	4.23	-.74	1.055	3.71*
All Coll.	47	3.47	4.30	-.83	1.114	5.11*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 13 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Non-discriminatory Assessment and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators. In total, the trainees' ratings indicated they felt less prepared in this area in contrast to the importance of the area in their job. However, it was the high difference in College C that contributed to significance in the total score. Table 6.23 shows the results. College A and College B trainees indicated no significant difference as revealed by T-tests in contrast to College C trainees who indicated that they were significantly less prepared in this area than they needed to be.

Table 6.23

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN NON-DISCRIMINATORY ASSESSMENT

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.88	3.94	-.06	.588	3.37
College B	6	4.00	4.62	-.62	.771	1.97
College C	29	3.77	4.49	-.72	.720	5.23*
All Coll.	48	3.83	4.36	-.53	.741	4.96*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 14 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Individual Educational Programming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? The total number of trainees indicated by their ratings that there was a significant difference in the preparation they received in this area and the importance of the area. Colleges A and B trainees indicated a significant difference. College B actually rated their preparation above the importance of the area. College C, however, showed no significant difference between their ratings of the importance in the area and the preparation they received. Table 6.24 summarizes the results.

Table 6.24

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN INDIVIDUAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMING

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp. Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.23	4.23	-1.00	1.326	2.72*
College B	6	4.50	4.06	-.44	.502	2.15*
College C	30	4.07	4.33	-.26	.948	1.50
All Coll.	49	3.90	4.27	-.37	1.098	2.36*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 15 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Consultation and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? The total number of trainees as well as the group of trainees in Colleges A, B, and C indicated a consistent significant difference as indicated by T-tests between the preparation they received in this area and the importance of the area in their work. The data reflects the trainees' needs for more preparation in this area. Table 6.25 indicates the results.

Table 6.25

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN CONSULTATION

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.42	4.23	-.81	1.588	1.84*
College B	6	4.08	4.83	-.75	.758	2.42*
College C	30	3.48	4.33	-.85	1.294	3.60
All Coll.	49	3.54	4.37	-.83	1.305	4.45*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 16 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Mainstreaming and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? In total, the trainees indicated that there was a significant difference in the preparation they received in this area and the importance of Mainstreaming in their work. College C, with the largest number of trainees, showed a need to receive better preparation in this area to meet work demands. College A and B trainees showed no significant difference. Table 6.26 summarizes the results.

Table 6.26

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN MAINSTREAMING

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	12	3.29	4.12	-.83	2.015	1.43
College B	6	3.17	4.33	-1.16	2.228	1.28
College C	30	3.08	3.93	-.85	1.340	3.47*
All Coll.	48	3.15	4.03	-.88	1.612	3.78*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 17 asks: What is the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in Advocacy and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? In total, the trainees indicated a difference between preparation they received in the area of Advocacy and the importance of this area in their work, thus reflecting a need for more training in this area. However, both College A and B trainees, according to T-tests, did not, in contrast to College C, show a significant difference. Table 6.27 describes the results.

Table 6.27

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN ADVOCACY

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp.Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	4.23	4.46	-.23	1.536	.54
College B	6	3.50	4.33	-.83	1.329	1.53
College C	29	3.83	4.38	-.55	1.549	1.91*
All Coll.	48	3.90	4.40	-.50	1.502	2.31*

* significant at .05 level

Research question No. 18 asks: What is the difference between the trainees; ratings of the training they received in Methods and Materials and their ratings of the importance of this area in their roles as bilingual special educators? In total, the trainees' ratings reflected a difference in T-Tests between preparation and importance in the area of Methods and Materials. College B trainees, probably because there were only four responding, showed no significant difference between their perception of how well they were prepared in this area and how important the area was in their work. Table 6.28 depicts the findings.

Table 6.28

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF PREPARATION AND
IMPORTANCE IN METHODS AND MATERIALS

	N	Mean Prep Rating	Mean Imp. Rat.	Mean Diff.	St.Dev. Diff.	t
College A	13	3.10	3.99	-.89	.895	3.59*
College B	4	3.25	4.34	-1.09	1.068	2.04
College C	28	2.95	3.92	-.97	1.034	4.96*
All Coll.	45	3.02	3.98	-.96	.977	6.59*

* significant at .05 level

In all nine areas, trainees in the total column indicated, as revealed by T-Tests, a significant difference between their mean ratings of preparation in each area and the importance of the area in their work. In all cases they rated the importance of this area significantly higher than their mean preparation rating. Table 6.29 summarizes these findings as indicated by the T-Tests.

Methods and Materials was the area where they indicated they were less prepared in relation to the importance of this area in their work. This area was the same area, using analysis of variance, where the trainees stated they received least preparation (See Table 6.19).

The second area, classroom management, according to the t scores, was the next area where trainees felt least prepared in relation to the demands of this area in their work. Again, this finding correlates with the summary table for research questions 1 - 9 in Table 6.19. Classroom management was one of the three lowest ranked competency areas. The trainees' responses, using analysis of variance, indicated that they felt they had not received adequate preparation in this area.

The third area, Non-discriminatory Assessment, however, ranked third in Table 6.29. This showed that after Methods and Materials and Classroom Management, Non-discriminatory Assessment was the third area where the trainees felt there was the greatest difference between their preparation and

the importance of this area in their work. In contrast, in questions 1 - 9, using analysis of variance (ANOVA), the trainees assigned Non-discriminatory assessment the highest mean ratings, indicating they felt most prepared in this area. The findings seem to indicate that, although they felt well prepared, there are demands made on them in this area that are greater than the preparation they received. Table 6.29 summarizes questions 10 - 18 and describes the differences in trainees' mean ratings of preparation and importance for each of the nine areas.

Table 6.29

SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' MEAN RATINGS OF
PREPARATION AND IMPORTANCE IN NINE COMPETENCY AREAS

Competency Areas	Total t Score
Methods and Materials	6.59
Classroom Management	5.11
Non-discriminatory Assessment	4.96
First and Second Language Acquisition	4.70
Child Development	4.67
Consultation	4.45
Mainstreaming	3.78
Individual Educational Programming	2.36
Advocacy	2.31

Characteristics of Sample

Teaching certification areas

Of the trainees who had completed the two years of the licensure program, Table 6.30 describes them according to the areas of certification they hold. The Table reflects that the majority of trainees who completed the licensure program (93%) were, in fact, awarded certification in one of the three areas of the training program's concentration.

TABLE 6.30

TEACHER TRAINEES' CURRENT CERTIFICATIONS

<u>Areas of Certification</u>	<u>% of Trainees Certified</u>
(N-9) Moderate Special Needs*	53%
(5-12) Moderate Special Needs*	20%
Teacher of Young Children with Special Needs	6%
Generic Special Needs Teacher*	20%
Severe Special Needs	0%
Bilingual Teacher	65%
Elementary Teacher	61%
Secondary Teacher	55%

* Trainees participated in one of the three training programs designed to license teachers in moderate special needs (N-9) and (5-12) and Generic Special Needs.

Language certifications

Table 6.31 shows the percentage of trainees certified in each language. The Table shows that the largest number of bilingually certified teachers speak Spanish, followed by Portuguese as the second largest language group in which trainees are certified. Of the sample, 81% are certified in a second language. Of those, 41% of the trainees have a first language other than English in comparison to 59% whose first language is English. Furthermore, 92% of the trainees had received an undergraduate degree in the United States with only 8% receiving an undergraduate degree outside of the U.S. In regard to the three programs funded to prepare teacher trainees for special education certification, 71% of the trainee subjects completed the requirements in a masters degree in the Special Education training program they attended.

TABLE 6.31
TEACHER TRAINEES' LANGUAGE CERTIFICATION

Language	% of Trainees Certified
Chinese	0%
French	4%
Italian	8%
Greek	0%
Portuguese	18%
Spanish	49%
Vietnamese	0%
Other	8%

Present position

Of the trainees who participated in this study, 26 or 53% indicated that they were presently employed as special education teachers in public schools in Massachusetts. The remaining 47% were employed in a variety of educational positions, including bilingual teachers, English-as-second-language teachers, diagnosticians, administrators, Title I teachers, etc. However, all of the trainee graduates at the time of this survey were serving Limited English Proficient students with special needs.

Table 6.32 identifies the positions held by the trainees in education and the number of trainees in each position.

TABLE 6.32

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TRAINEE POSITIONS

<u>Positions</u>	<u># of Trainees Holding Position</u>
Bilingual Special Education	21
Regular Bilingual Teacher	8
English as a Second Language Teacher	6
Monolingual English Special Education	4
Monolingual English Regular Teacher	3
Reading Teacher	2
Administrator (Assistant Principal and Bilingual Coordinator)	2
Chapter I Teacher	1

Program Satisfaction

Table 6.33 summarizes the Trainees' degrees of satisfaction with the training programs in the following areas: quality of teaching, content of courses, administration of program, field experience and practicum, course sequence, quality of readings, texts, and quality of student advising. For each of the seven areas, 79% or greater indicated general satisfaction with the program. In none of these areas did the trainees show that they were less than satisfied to any great degree. Table 6.33 describes the data according to area.

TABLE 6.33
TRAINEES' SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING PROGRAM

Area	Very	+Than	Satis	-Than	Dissat
Quality of Teaching	17%	31%	37%	13%	2%
Content of Courses	15%	17%	51%	15%	2%
Admin. of Program	32%	20%	32%	8%	2%
Exper. & Practicum	27%	27%	32%	12%	2%
Course Sequence	14%	27%	43%	14%	2%
Qual.Texts/Readings	18%	35%	37%	4%	6%
Qual.Stud't.Advising	20%	27%	32%	15%	6%

Trainees' Summary Responses to Training Programs

Preparedness for their role

The trainees were asked to check how well their training program prepared them for the position of bilingual special educator. In general, 45% of the trainees stated they were prepared; 47% felt moderately prepared, and only 2% indicated they were not prepared. College A trainees felt most prepared followed by College B, then College C. No trainee in Colleges A and B stated they were not prepared and only one student (3%) from College C reflected s/he was not prepared. The data indicate that, although trainees indicated they felt less prepared in the nine competency areas in relation to how important those areas were to their work, they did, overall, feel the college prepared them for the role. Table 6.34 shows the trainees overall perceptions of their preparedness by colleges.

TABLE 6.34

TRAINEES' PERCEPTIONS OF PREPAREDNESS BY COLLEGE

	Well Prep.	Mod. Prep	Not Prep.	No Resp.
College A	54%	38%	0%	8%
College B	50%	50%	0%	0%
College C	41%	50%	3%	6%

Suggestions for Course Additions

In response to the question asking the participants to share any suggestions they may have for courses or areas of study that should be included, thirty trainees (61%) responded. The most frequent course requested by the trainees was a reading methods course. The trainees stated that this course needed to address the issue of teaching reading from both a first and second language perspective. The second most frequent suggestion made was to have a cross cultural course that taught cross cultural group management and child rearing. The third most frequent suggestion was for a methods course dealing with specific techniques for teaching students with learning disabilities, grouping, and material selection.

A course on Strategies and Techniques for Mainstreaming was considered important by 10% of the trainees. The trainees felt that the mainstreaming course needed to address the pertinent issue of how to mainstream the bilingual child with disabilities and should include strategies for mainstreaming children to work in both their first and second language. A fifth suggestion made by 13% of the trainees was for a more intensive assessment course. These trainees especially felt that the course should address the issue of how to determine a second language difference from a language disorder and should be nondiscriminatory in focus. Other suggested courses less

frequently suggested were: English as a Second Language, Grant Writing, a Practical IEP Course, Curriculum and Materials, Techniques for Change and Student Advocacy, Behavioral Modification and Strategies for Teaching Content Area Courses in Student's First and Second Language. One trainee suggested the importance of having all courses related to bilingualism and not just special education. A further suggestion made by one participant was that more flexibility in thesis topic selection needed to be given for those teachers in bilingual special education. Table 6.35 lists the five most widely recommended course selections.

TABLE 6.35
SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL COURSES

Course Recommended	Percentage of Trainees
Reading Methods in L1 & L2	27%
Cross Cultural Course on Group and Individual Management	14%
Methods Course for Special Education	15%
Nondiscriminatory Assessment Course Focusing on Language Assessment	13%
Strategies and Techniques for Mainstreaming	10%

Perceptions of Program Weaknesses

Eighty-six percent of trainees answered the question asking them to list the three most significant weaknesses of their training program. Of a possible 126 responses (assuming each of the 42 trainees responding listed three weaknesses), 102 responses were given. The 102 individual responses grouped in the following categories were selected a minimum of five times each: poor administration of the program, too heavy a course load in a restricted period of time, lack of bilingual emphasis, lack of experienced bilingual/cross-cultural professors, lack of practical courses, poor quality of instructors, lack of special education emphasis, lack of instruction in teaching reading in a student's first and second language. It is important to note that 25 individual responses referred to the lack of a sufficient amount of bilingual/bicultural emphasis in the program. This number is arrived at by grouping the lack of bilingual emphasis category with the categories of lack of experienced bilingual/cross-cultural professors and with teaching reading in the student's first and second language. All three areas were selected a total of 25 times and represent bilingual issues.

Table 6.36 lists the eight most widely selected areas of weakness and the number of times each was selected.

Table 6.36

TRAINEES' PERCEPTIONS OF AREAS OF WEAKNESS
IN TRAINING PROGRAMS

Areas	Number of Times Selected
Poor Administration	17
Course Offerings (Limited, Unavailable, Overlap)	10
Too Heavy a Course Load in a Restricted Period of Time	9
Lack of Bilingual Emphasis	8
Lack of Experienced Bilingual/ Cross-Cultural Professors	8
Lack of Practical Courses	7
Poor Quality of Instructors	7
Lack of Special Educ. Emphasis	6
Lack of Instruction in Teaching Reading in Student's First and Second Language	5

Other problem areas less frequently selected were: the lack of a practical IEP course, poorly conducted student teaching seminar, lack of instruction in how to effectively mainstream students, poorly taught language course, rigidity in thesis topic selection, over-emphasis on bilingual issues, lack of field experiences in bilingual special education classroom, lack of English as a Second Language methodology course, need for preparation for doing research, and need for a course on selecting and adapting material for language minority students with special needs.

Perception of Program Strengths

Participants were asked to list the three most significant strengths of their training programs. Ninety-two percent responded to this question. Of a total of 135 possible responses (if all 45 teachers listed 3 strengths), 112 responses were given. The individual responses were grouped into the following ten different strength categories: the availability of multiple human and material resources, the supportive atmosphere created by the teaching and administrative staff, the quality of instruction, the content of the courses in general, the peer support group of fellow teacher trainees, field experience in the practicum, overall administration of the program, supplementary bilingual special education workshops offered, listing of particular courses offered, and the overall development of sensitivity to issues. The category most selected by the trainees was Particular Courses. Trainees, in fact, often responded to this question by naming courses that they felt strengthened the overall program. The second area most selected was the trainees' peer support group. In all three programs, the trainees remained together as they continued throughout the program. Because of program issues and budget constraints, administration in all three colleges considered this to be the most feasible approach to delivering the program within the two years allotted. An outcome of this decision was that the trainees interpersonal

relationships were strengthened and they served as supports to one another. Several trainees commented that they would not have completed the program if it were not for the support they received from their peers. One example is a small study group of trainees in one college that operated to help each other throughout the two year duration.

Table 6.37 depicts the number of times the trainees selected each area.

TABLE 6.37

TRAINEES' PERCEPTIONS OF AREAS OF STRENGTH
OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

Areas	Number of Times Selected
Particular Courses	35
Trainee's Peer Support Group	18
Availability of Multiple Material & Human Resources	14
Content of Courses	10
Quality of Instruction	9
Supportive Atmosphere Created by Staff	7
Experience of Practicum	5
Overall Administration	5
Development of Sensitivity to Issues	5
Supplementary Bilingual Special Education Workshops/Seminars	4
TOTAL RESPONSE	112

An area cited less frequently as a strength was the Supplementary Bilingual Special Education Workshops and Seminars. All three colleges ran additional supplementary workshops in bilingual issues throughout the duration of each program. These workshops were intended to cover bilingual topics not covered in the courses. Although four trainees cited these workshops as a strength, several trainees indicated that they were a burden because they were in addition to the regular courses. Others were concerned that they did not receive credit for these seminars although it was mandated that they attend and the sessions were often held on Saturdays. Other trainees indicated that the workshops dealt with important bilingual issues that were not being covered in many of the courses and should have been offered, at minimum, as a separate mandated course with credit or, preferably, the topics should have been integrated into other courses.

Characteristics of Trainees' Local Positions

Language groups of students taught

Table 6.38 reflects the percentage of trainees serving students of particular language groups.

Table 6.38

LANGUAGE GROUPS SERVED BY TRAINEES

<u>Language Groups</u>	<u>% of Trainees Serving Group*</u>
Chinese	10%
Creole (Cape Verdean)	12%
Creole (Haitian)	8%
Greek	6%
Haitian French	6%
Italian	4%
Portuguese	29%
Spanish	53%
Vietnamese	8%
Other	18%

The highest percentage of bilingual teacher trainees were serving Spanish speaking students followed by Portuguese speaking students. Furthermore, the trainees were serving diverse language groups even though they did not speak the languages. For example, although no trainee was certified in Chinese, 10% of the trainees served Chinese speaking students. Similarly, there were no Vietnamese certified trainees, yet 8% of the trainees stated they served Vietnamese speaking students.

When asked if they provided English as a second language instruction to their students, fifty-seven percent of all trainees stated that they provided E.S.L. instruction to their students while twenty-four percent stated they did not. Nineteen percent didn't indicate a response. In light of the high percentage of trainees teaching E.S.L., it is important to note that E.S.L. was not one of the courses taught in any of the three training programs.

Language of instruction used;

A total of 28 of the 51 trainees (55 %) holding teaching and/or administrative positions stated that they were serving Limited English Proficient Students with disabilities exclusively in special education settings. Of this number, 29% indicated they used the student's first language exclusively as the teaching medium, while 11% used only English as a Second Language. In contrast, 61% indicated they used both English and the student's first language in teaching their students.

Table 6.39

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION USED WITH LEP STUDENTS
WITH DISABILITIES

<u>Language(s) of Instruction</u>	<u>% of Trainees</u>
Used Students' First Language Only (L1)	29%
Used English as a Second Language Only (ESL)	11%
Used ESL and L1	61%

The bilingual special educators were asked if they had a bilingual class in their building and a bilingual program in their system. Seventy-three percent of them indicated that there was a bilingual class in their building for the language group of students they taught while 82% stated there was a bilingual program in their system for those students. In contrast, 18% stated no bilingual class

existed in their building for their language group of students, while 10% said there was no bilingual program in the system for their group of students. It appears that those educators working in systems that do not have a bilingual program for Limited English Proficient students whom they serve are limited in the language of instruction they select for their students. According to Chapter 766, the language(s) of instruction in the individual educational plan for a student with special needs is to be determined by the evaluation team, yet the data indicates that 18% of the bilingual special education trainees stated there were no bilingual classes in their building. The lack of bilingual programs in these buildings raises a serious question as to whether the language of instruction for LEP students with special needs is being determined by availability of programs rather than student's linguistic needs.

Local school policies affecting language of
instruction selected

The trainees were asked what policies and procedures in their system helped determine what language to use for instruction with a particular non-English background student. Forty-three trainees (83%) responded and nine teachers left the answer blank. The responses were grouped into the following nine categories:

1. Language dominance testing (which includes oral testing of the two languages)
2. Language proficiency testing (which includes both oral reading and written testing of the languages)
3. The Lau testing (which is conducted by a "Lau Team" and includes language dominance testing but may or may not include language proficiency testing)
4. Teacher decisions
5. Evaluation team decisions
6. Policy always English
7. No official policy
8. Bilingual Department Guidelines (student is allowed three years in native language program)
9. Multiple measures (variety of assessments, teacher input, and parent input)

Table 6.40 indicates the frequency of response in each category.

Table 6.40

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES DETERMINING LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

Area	% Of Times Selected
Multiple measures	20%
Teacher decisions	15%
Language Dominance testing	13%
Language Proficiency testing	13%
"Lau Team" testing	13%
Policy always English	8%
No official policy	8%
Bilingual Department guidelines	8%
Evaluation Team decision	2%

Table 6.40 showed that the evaluation team decision was used only 2% of the time to determine the language of instruction for a particular student. Yet, according to Chapter 766, Massachusetts Special Education law, the evaluation team has the right and responsibility to determine the language of instruction in the individual educational program for each limited English proficient student with special needs.

Trainees' Perceptions of Administrative Support

The trainees were asked to indicate how supportive they felt the administrators were in terms of their position. The data reflects that only 27% of the trainee subjects felt their principals were very interested and supportive of them

in their work. Only 25% felt Special Education Directors were very interested, only 20% felt Bilingual Directors were, and only 14% felt other administrators showed a great deal of interest and support. The data further shows that, in contrast to the building principal, the Special Education Director and the Bilingual Director, both central office positions, were least supportive as shown by the fact that they received the highest percentage (18%) in the area of no indication of support.

Table 6.41 describes the trainees' perceptions of the support they felt they received from key administrators.

Table 6.41

TRAINEES PERCENTAGE RATINGS OF ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

Admin.	Very Int.	Somewhat Inter.	Somewhat Opposed	Opp.	No Int.	No Ans.
Principal	27%	41%	8%	4%	8%	12%
Special Ed. Director	25%	33%	6%	2%	18%	31%
Bilingual Director	20%	23%	6%	2%	18%	31%
Other Admin.	14%	2%	2%	0%	4%	78%

It is important to note that the majority of bilingual special education trainees were or still are working as bilingual teachers who are serving Limited English Proficient students with special needs. The LEP student with special needs is legally the responsibility of both the Bilingual Department and the Special Education Department in Massachusetts. Yet these teachers serving LEP students with special needs felt they received least support from their Bilingual Directors. Furthermore, although the majority of them report directly to the Special Education Director, they also received little support from their Special Education Department.

Trainees' Perceptions of Difficulties in Role

The trainees were asked to describe what was the most difficult part of their role as bilingual special educators. Of the 52 respondents, fourteen trainees or 27% did not respond and eight trainees or 15% stated that the question was not applicable. The responses received from the remaining 58% of the trainees were grouped in the following eight categories:

1. Lack of understanding and resentment of monolingual staff to Bilingual programs and staff.
2. Lack of support from Special Education administration and isolation from Bilingual Department
3. Lack of success with students because of other factors (i.e., bureaucracy, parents, etc.
4. Need for appropriate testing and instructional materials
5. Teaching in two languages
6. Wide variety of students
7. Serving as a student advocate
8. Inappropriate placement of large numbers of students

Table 6.42 lists the frequency of choice in each category.

Table 6.42

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN THE ROLE OF BILINGUAL SPECIAL
EDUCATOR

Area of Difficulty	% of Times Selected
Lack of understanding and resentment of monolingual English staff to Bilingual personnel and programs	30%
Wide variety of students	23%
Lack of support from Special Education and isolation from Bilingual Department	23%
Lack of success with students because of other factors (i.e., bureaucracy, parents)	10%
Need for appropriate testing and instructional materials	6%
Teaching in two languages	6%
Serving as a student advocate	1%
Inappropriate placement of large numbers of students	1%

The most frequent problem response cited by bilingual special educators was the general lack of understanding and resentment of monolingual English staff to bilingual personnel and programs. The following are sample comments:

"Resentment from other special education teachers"

"Dealing with general ignorance of cultural diversity"

"As a bilingual ETL, the most difficult part of my role is dealing with the total opposition from regular education teachers. They do not want the kids mainstreamed at all and use academics as an excuse to get them out of their classrooms when it truly is a behavior or personality problem."

"To sensitize other school personnel to the needs of bilingual students"

"That students do not always come first--the prejudices--having bilingual students labeled as slow--feeling that the only reason some teachers think I was hired was because I speak Portuguese."

A second area that received the greatest number of responses was the difficulty the bilingual special educators had in serving such a wide variety of students. The following sample responses were given:

"Trying to adequately service the bilingual special needs children. I had too many children from many levels. I was responsible for servicing children from K-8."

"Variety of students--too much of a hodge podge."

"Individualizing with so many different styles of learning and so many different problems in both languages"

Because of the small number of bilingual special education trainees per school district and, in many cases, the bilingual special educator being the only one filling that role in the entire district, these educators were serving multiple language groups (See Table 6.38, p. 130), age levels, and varieties of disabilities. Furthermore, because of the shortage of bilingual special educators in school districts, these educators were performing roles beyond the scope of the special educator role for which they trained. (See Observation of Teacher Logs, p.144)

The third most frequently cited problem was the lack of support from Special Education and the isolation of the Bilingual Department from the Special Education Department. The following are representative comments:

"Feeling of isolation is a possibility because the Bilingual Department shifts responsibilities to the Special Education Department, and vice versa."

"Bilingual and Special Education Departments are separate--very little communication. If a child requires special education services in the first language, there are no programs."

Trainees Perceptions of Most Rewarding Aspects of Their Role

In contrast to their most difficult problem areas, the participants were asked to describe the most rewarding parts of their role as bilingual special educators. Thirty-one trainees (60%) responded, fifteen teachers or 29% left this answer blank, and seven teachers or 13% indicated that the question was not applicable to them because they were not working in the role of bilingual special educators. Of the

trainees who responded, all indicated that their most rewarding experience was working with the children themselves, and seeing them achieve and grow. The following are representative comments:

"The personal, affectionate, pleasant interaction with the students. Their willingness to cooperate, their respect, and their concern is comforting."

"Being able to give the students, who otherwise would never make it, a sign of hope and feelings of security and love."

"To see bilingual students learning and getting excited themselves that they can do it. To see their self-esteem grow!"

"Working with children from different ethnic backgrounds and giving them the opportunity to share their cultures with other students."

Trainees Willingness to Recommend the Role to Others

The participants were asked if they would recommend that others enter the field of bilingual special education. Forty-five of the 52 subjects (86%) answered this question. Eighty-one percent replied yes, 9% answered no, and 4% stated maybe. Of the trainees who answered "no", responses given included:

"It is too frustrating. Teaching in general is too frustrating.:

"The job is difficult, and no matter what you say, your opinion does not always matter. We are seen as second class teachers."

"Because there are not too many teachers in this role, your level of effectiveness is quite small. Little attention is given to your opinions and recommendations."

"It seems to me to be one of the worst professions to establish some recognition in in the teaching field."

The trainees who replied with "maybe" shared these thoughts:

"Dependent on their determination, dedication, love for children, patience, endurance, competency, and so forth."

"Yes, if strongly motivated to work in this area and to work with parents as well as the community."

"Yes, if money is not a motivating factor for entering this field.:

Of the 81% of the trainee subjects who replied "yes", the following are sample responses:

"There is a great need for trained bilingual educators"

"Only if they are truly dedicated not only to teaching but to bilingual students. Special education is a demanding field, but it's even more so in Bilingual Special Education."

"There are many students not yet being serviced due to a lack of qualified personnel in the field. I also feel that in areas with large numbers of minority students, all special needs personnel should receive training in bilingual special education."

"I think it's a growing field with jobs in the future."

"Because the need is so great."

"There is a need for it. It is one of the fields where there is still opportunity in education."

"There is a real shortage in this area."

Summary of Observations of Teacher Weekly Logs

Four bilingual special education teachers from four district systems were asked to keep a daily journal or log of their work activities for a one week period. Two teachers worked in the Southeast region, one teacher in the Northeast region, and one teacher in the Greater Boston region. Two bilingual special education trainees served as itinerant city-wide teachers. One teacher worked in a middle school setting, and the fourth teacher worked in a high school setting.

The first trainee, Bilingual Special Educator A, had received her license as a Teacher of School Age Children with Moderate Special Needs. Her primary training in College A prepared her to provide direct services to students with moderate special needs. Yet, because of the lack of bilingual specialists in her system (she is the only teacher serving in that role) this trainee--who speaks both Spanish and Portuguese-- spent 100% of her time both evaluating LEP students, particularly in language related areas, and in consulting at evaluation team meetings. Bilingual Special Educator A provided no direct instructional service to students. Although 100% of her time was spent in assessment and consulting, College A, where she attended, offered only one assessment course and a component of one course dealing with consultation.

The second trainee, Bilingual Special Educator B, who is bilingual in Spanish, served as a city-wide bilingual specialist (50% time) and was the only bilingual specialist for that district. She served students from kindergarten through high school in schools throughout the city. Bilingual Special Educator B provided 8 1/2 hours of direct instructional services and 14 hours of assessing, consulting, and serving on evaluation meetings. This teacher attended College C and received her training in the area of moderate special needs, where the major focus was on direct services to students. In contrast, the majority of her time was spent in assessing students and consulting at evaluation meetings in spite of the fact that at College C she had received only one course in assessment and received little if any formal training in participation in evaluation meetings and in consultation.

The third trainee, Bilingual Special Educator C, worked as a middle school Bilingual Special Education teacher (Portuguese) in a large city in Southeastern Massachusetts. She provided direct service to twelve language minority students with special needs. Nine of these students had a 502.4 prototype and were with the teacher the greater part of the day. The other three students attended her resource room once a day for one subject. These three students were in a 502.2 placement. Bilingual Special Educator C attended College A, which specialized in Moderate Special Needs.

Although she was working in one school and was assigned students for direct instruction throughout the day, the log of this trainee in one week included a variety of other duties conducted during assigned instructional time with her students. The following are examples of activities she reported having done in her one week daily log: (a) met with guidance counselor about student, (b) conducted oral translation of an IEP for a minority parent, (c) consulted with speech therapist, (d) translated for mother in the principal's office, (e) administered the Key Math to a student, (f) conversed on the telephone with supervisor, (g) spoke with parent on the telephone, (h) attended student evaluation meeting, (i) consulted with school nurse, (j) telephoned oral surgeon to arrange root canal work for student, (k) consulted with bilingual/reading/ESL teacher about a student, (l) met with police officer concerning a student about whom the teacher would be required to testify in court, (m) consulted with bilingual psychiatrist, psychometrist, home/school coordinator and special education supervisor about a student, and (n) responded on two occasions to two special education teachers requesting materials and forms.

Bilingual Special Educator C's daily journal indicated that this subject spent a great amount of her time consulting with many individuals involved with her students despite the fact that little if any time had been allotted

by the administration to her during the regular work week to conduct such functions. She had been assigned the responsibility of direct instruction to students for 100% of her time.

Instruction to students had been interrupted frequently by outside telephone calls, requests from the office, and drop-in visitors. This teacher, who was the only bilingual specialist in the building and one of very few in the school system, was carrying out multiple roles that encompassed the responsibilities of a counselor, interpreter, social worker, coordinator, etcetera.

The fourth trainee, Bilingual Special Educator D, served as a Spanish Bilingual Special Education Resource Teacher and taught Spanish students placed in 502.2 and 502.3 prototypes. None of her students spent more than 60% of their time in the special education setting. Although Bilingual Special Educator D attended College C and received a Generic Teacher license, which prepared her to spend one third of her time in assessment, one third in consultation, and one third in direct instructional services to students, in fact she was functioning primarily as a Moderate Special Needs teacher who instructs students with special needs in a small group room setting.

Unlike the other bilingual special educators, this teacher's role was more in keeping with the defined role of a teacher of moderate special needs. Ironically, although

she was the only one of the four bilingual special educators who did not receive a moderate special needs certification but instead received generic training that was designed to prepare her for the role of diagnostician and consultation specialist, she was the only one who was carrying out the role of moderate special needs teacher as defined by both the Bureau of Certification, Massachusetts Department of Education, and the three college programs accredited to license teachers in that area.

C H A P T E R V I I I

DISCUSSION

Colleges involved in teacher education face the awesome challenge of preparing teachers to work with students who are more racially, linguistically, and culturally diverse than any previous generation in American history. Demographic data show that this population diversity, once considered a hallmark of American democracy, will become more pronounced (Hodgkinson, 1986). For this reason, it is important that teacher training institutions conduct and encourage research that will provide new insights and knowledge about what skills and competencies teachers need in order to serve today's diverse students. Specifically, in the area of bilingual special education competencies, the work of Baca (1984), Bergin (1979), and McLean (1982) represent the most up to date exploration. Yet, none of these studies queried the most important source, the bilingual special education teachers, in order to determine their perspective as to which competencies are most needed to perform the role competently. Therefore, this research is unique in its attempt to seek from the trained bilingual special educators practical information that is needed in order to develop quality preservice training in bilingual special education.

Major findings to be discussed are (1) differences among colleges in the nine competency areas taught, (2) differences in trainees' ratings of their training in each area in relation to their ratings of the importance of each area in their roles as bilingual special educators, and (3) trainees' perceptions of their roles as bilingual special educators. Recommendations will be made in terms of future training, needed research, and local school policies.

Differences Among Colleges

All three Massachusetts college programs offered adaptations of the state accredited special education graduate programs for Moderate Special Needs and Generic Special Needs. Therefore, they all shared common competencies required by the Massachusetts Bureau of Certification for licensing teachers for both areas. Of the nine competency areas investigated in this research, only one area, individual educational programming, showed a statistically significant difference in ratings of trainees associated with each of the colleges they had attended. Trainees from College A indicated that they felt far less prepared than trainees from College B or College C. Even though there were differences, there was no statistical difference in the trainees' ratings associated with the college they attended in the remaining eight competency areas: First and Second Language Acquisition, Child Development, Classroom Management, Nondiscriminatory

Assessment, Consultation, Mainstreaming, Advocacy, and Methods and Materials.

The mean average ratings of the trainees from all three colleges was lowest in the area of Methods and Materials. Of the nine competency areas, the trainees felt they received the least preparation in this area, a practical area regarded by Reynolds (1980) as the most important competency for special education teacher training.

Furthermore, when asked what additional courses they would suggest adding to the program, trainees most requested a reading methods course from both a first and second language perspective. It is important to note that the importance of first and second language reading instruction has been well documented throughout the literature by reading specialists, linguists, and researchers in bilingual education (Cummins, 1979; Duncan and DeAvila, 1979; Thonis, 1980).

The second course that was most frequently recommended by these trainees was, again, a methods course. The teachers indicated a need for a second course that dealt with specific techniques (including instructional grouping of students and materials selection) for teaching students with exceptional needs. Literature reviews in bilingual special education teacher competencies have revealed the importance of training teachers in special education methods (Reynolds, 1980; Collier, 1984; Bergin, 1979; McLean, 1981).

After reviewing the course requirements in all three colleges, this researcher found that none of the college programs offered a required Reading Methods Course, especially Reading Instruction for First and Second Language Teaching. In the area of Methods and Materials, College B and College C did not offer a separate course but rather indicated that methods and materials competencies might be integrated in other required courses. For example, College C attempted to integrate these competencies in their course on Individual Educational Programming. It is interesting to note that in College A, where trainees were required to take a separate Resources and Materials course, they still indicated they felt poorly prepared in this area.

The fact that there was no statistically significant difference in the trainees ratings in eight of the nine competency areas among the colleges may be attributed to the fact that all three programs shared similar special educational competencies as mandated by standards of the Massachusetts Bureau of Certification.

Differences Between Trainees Ratings and Importance

The second set of research questions dealt with the difference between the trainees' ratings of the training they received in each of the nine competencies and their ratings of the importance of each area in their role as bilingual special educators.

A statistically significant difference was found in all nine areas. In all cases, the trainees felt less prepared than they needed to be to perform their work.

In interpreting these findings, it is not clear how much of that feeling of unpreparedness was a result of inadequate training or the fact that, because trained bilingual specialists are at a premium, these trainees are asked to perform tasks which are beyond what is required of monolingual English special educators. (See Discussion of Teacher Logs, pgs. 142-146.)

It is important to note that the data from this second set of research questions again establishes the fact that the trainees felt they lacked preparation first in Methods and Materials in relation to how important that competency area was to their job. The second area was a need for Classroom Management, followed by Nondiscriminatory Assessment as the third area. Although teachers rated the competency area of Nondiscriminatory Assessment third, (See Table 6.29, p. 115) pointing out that they felt less prepared than their work demanded in this area, this finding did not correlate with the data from the first set of research questions on Table 6.19 (p. 108) which shows that in the first set of research questions, the trainees felt their training was most adequate in the area of Nondiscriminatory Assessment. This is explained by the recordings made by teachers in their daily logs. These

records showed that individual teachers were spending the greater part of their day conducting systemwide assessments for which they had not received adequate training.

Trainees' Program Ratings

In general, when asked to rate their preparation, approximately half the teachers in all three colleges felt "very prepared" and half felt "moderately prepared". Of the second group, it is not clear how much of that feeling is a result of inadequate training or a result of demands to perform tasks that they were not necessarily trained to do. Trainees in College B and College C indicated satisfaction with the quality of teaching received. However, approximately half of the trainees in College A displayed less than satisfaction in this area. Nevertheless, the trainees' low ratings of the quality of teaching they received in College A did not appear to influence their ratings of how prepared they felt to carry out their role. The same trainees also indicated the greatest degree of dissatisfaction with the content of their courses. They stated that their program lacked faculty knowledgeable about bilingual issues. They also felt that these courses failed to adequately address bilingual/bicultural issues and concerns in an integrated manner.

In general, for all three colleges there was a positive correlation between the trainees' ratings of content of their courses and the quality of teaching they received.

In contrast to the lower ratings College A trainees gave to quality of teaching and content of courses, they indicated, in general, a degree of satisfaction with the quality of administration of the program. College B similarly indicated satisfaction with this area in contrast to trainees at College C who indicated less satisfaction with the administration. Overall, the trainees indicated satisfaction with their preparedness for the role, the quality of the teaching they received, the content of the courses, and the administration of the program.

When asked to list the greatest strength of their program, many trainees named particular courses. A second most frequently cited strength was the peer support groups that the trainees formed as a result of having been required to remain with the same group throughout the duration of the two year programs. Several trainees cited these peer support groups as the most important factor that contributed to their completing the program. Because of cost and time limitations, the three programs were designed so as to have the trainees remain together for each of the courses. An unplanned outcome of this design shown by the comments made by the trainees in the BSETQ questionnaire was the formation of social groups and academic study groups that served to provide them with supports that were not readily available within their colleges and their local positions.

Trainees Local Positions

The trainees' perceptions of their roles in their local positions as shown by their responses on the BSETQ questionnaire raise four important policy issues that adversely effect services to Limited English Proficient students with special needs.

Language of instruction. The decision as to which language a LEP student with special needs should receive instruction in is not being decided by the Special Education Evaluation Team and is oftentimes not based on the student's educational, linguistic, and cultural needs. The Evaluation Team, as stipulated in Chapter 766, has the legal responsibility for determining the student's placement and program, including language of instruction to be used in teaching. Yet the trainees indicated that in only 2% of the cases did the Evaluation Team actually determine the language of instruction. (See Table 6.40, p. 133.) The decision as to which language a student should be taught is critical because learning is language-based. Yet the trainees reported that the unavailability of a regular bilingual class within a particular school or the lack of a bilingual special educator within the system became key factors in determining the language of instruction to be used with a LEP student with special needs. These illegal practices continue even though Chapter 766, P.L. 94-142 and Chapter 71A have safeguards stipulated to avoid such practices.

A second important issue involving language of instruction was the wide diversity of language groups represented by students in public schools. Bilingual special education teachers serve students who speak languages that the teachers, in fact, do not speak. Although these teachers may be bilingual in two languages, they, nevertheless, are unable to deliver bilingual special education services to those students whose languages they do not speak even though the LEP student may be more appropriately served in the native language. In these cases, English as a Second Language (E.S.L.) becomes, by necessity, the language of instruction. Yet, these trainees have received no training in English as a Second Language Methodology. This situation presents a serious problem for educators who are serving LEP students (Dew, 1982; Nuttall and Landurand, 1984; Ortiz, 1983).

Bilingual special educator roles. These educators are being asked to perform multiple roles beyond what they have received training to do. The weekly logs written by four randomly selected bilingual special educators showed that they were being asked to perform multiple roles and assume responsibilities beyond their preparation and training. For example, one teacher was both assessing students and serving on evaluation team meetings one hundred percent of her time. Having received only one course in assessment and little training in consultation, it appears that the demands of her

role far exceeded her training. Similarly, a second teacher was also being utilized on a systemwide basis as an educational evaluator and team meeting member even though this individual also received only one course in assessment. Both these examples helped clarify the apparent data contradiction that occurred when the trainees indicated on the one hand that they felt most prepared in Nondiscriminatory Assessment and yet on the other hand revealed that they felt a great discrepancy between their preparation in this area and its importance in their work.

A third trainee, who was assigned to a resource room one hundred percent of her time, spent an inordinate amount of her time consulting with a variety of staff on multiple issues. This trainee, like all others, received minimum training in the area of consultation skills. She had taken the required courses for a license as a Moderate Special Needs teacher. Yet, her account in her weekly log indicated that her daily round included many activities considered beyond the role of a typical monolingual English Moderate Special Needs teacher.

Overall, after reviewing the weekly logs kept by the bilingual special educators, this researcher believes that the teachers may have felt unprepared for their roles because they were being asked to perform in areas where they had received inadequate training for their unique roles as bilingual special educators.

Administrative support and coordination. Lack of administrative support and lack of coordination between Bilingual and Special Education Departments was found to be an important area of concern. In the area of support, only 25% of the teacher trainees felt their administrators showed interest in their work. In contrast, the remaining 75% felt their administrators gave little or negative support to their teaching. When asked to describe the main difficulties in their roles, the reason most frequently given by these trainees was the lack of support from the Special Education Administration as well as isolation from the Bilingual Department. Bilingual Special Education teachers indicated that they received least support from the Bilingual Directors in their systems. (See Table 6.41, p. 134.) Although LEP students with special needs are technically the legal responsibility of both the Bilingual and Special Education Departments, the trainees' comments revealed that they felt Bilingual Directors no longer viewed these students as their responsibility once they were referred for special education services.

This finding is supported by Nuttall and Landurand (1982) in their federally sponsored national research study on mainstreaming bilingual students with handicaps in regular programs. It was found that a major problem nationwide was the lack of coordination between the bilingual and special education departments. The same

conclusion was arrived at by a National Task Force on Assessment, of which this researcher was a member. In its publication A Time for Action (1980) the bilingual special education task force members unanimously agreed that a major problem in serving LEP students was the lack of coordination between Bilingual and Special Education departments.

Working environment. Bilingual Special Educators and the Limited English Proficient students with special needs whom they teach are working in disabling and subtractive environments. The trainees' most frequently cited complaint was the lack of understanding and resentment of the monolingual staff toward bilingual personnel and programs. This attitude perpetuated and continues to perpetuate a subtractive and negative environment (Lambert, 1978) where the teachers themselves experience disempowerment (Cummins, 1986). Cummins (1986) supports that, in order to reverse the pattern of widespread minority group educational failure, educators need to become advocates for minority students and need to redefine their roles within the classroom, the community, and society so as to empower rather than disable minority students. Minority students need to stop seeing themselves as inferior and must not feel alienated from their own values. Consequently, bilingual special educators need training in order to employ successful strategies to empower students in the present educational environment.

Recommendations

As an outcome of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

Training

1. Create a new integrated bilingual special education training program to meet not only special education state standards but dual language and cultural standards in special education. A very important area most frequently noted as a major weakness of these programs was the lack of a bilingual emphasis in the courses taught. Although all three training programs were designed to meet state certification standards in Moderate or Generic Special Needs, they were all state funded with the intention of providing seed money to create a new integrated bilingual special education training model. It appears that the described training programs, because they needed to be developed quickly to meet a personnel shortage, were not able to merge special educational competencies with bilingual/bicultural competencies. All three colleges often attempted to address the bilingual/bicultural issues by offering additional seminars in this area and mandating that all trainees attend them instead of developing an integrated bilingual special education model.

2. Hire qualified bilingual specialists as faculty and retrain special education faculty in bilingual/bicultural areas. A major consideration for colleges wishing to

develop bilingual special education training programs is to both recruit qualified bilingual specialists as both faculty and consultants to existing special education faculty in bilingual/bicultural issues. Because each special education course needs to be taught with a bilingual/bicultural focus in an integrated fashion, it becomes important that the existing faculty be retrained in these areas. In colleges where there already exist Bilingual Departments, English as a Second Language Departments, and Special Education Departments, it is imperative to coordinate and integrate these disciplines in order to deliver a comprehensive bilingual special education program.

3. Additional courses to be offered include:

- (a) Teaching Reading in First and Second Languages for Limited English Proficient Students With Special Needs,
- (b) Methods and Materials in Special Education Techniques,
- (c) Crosscultural Individual and Group Classroom Management,
- (d) Informal and Formal Bilingual Assessment Procedures and Instruments, and (e) English-As-A-Second Language Methods and Materials for LEP Students With Special Needs.

4. Allow trainees more than two years to complete graduate program state certification standards in special education. The bilingual special education trainees felt that a weakness of their programs was that they were forced to complete the program in two years. This time limitation created many difficulties for the trainees who managed to

complete the program. Graduate programs in special education that are required to meet state certification standards for special educators need to allow trainees more than two years to complete their thirty credit hours plus practicum experience. Given the fact that the majority of trainees were holding full time teaching positions during their two years in the program, the work load was very intense. Furthermore, according to the survey conducted by Comnenou (1982), the majority of the bilingual teachers who entered the program were working mothers from a variety of cultural backgrounds . This group represented the highest percentage of those trainees who dropped out of the program prior to completion. Part-time graduate programs in bilingual special education need to be flexibly designed to enable trainees, particularly minority women who are mothers, to successfully continue and complete the program in a reasonable amount of time while continuing to carry out their other responsibilities. Input from trainees should be sought in scheduling alternatives such as intensive weekend courses and summer courses.

5. Create conditions that form, enhance, and nurture the development of peer support groups in bilingual special education programs. Peer support groups were most frequently named by these trainees as the most successful aspect of the training programs. The groups emerged as a result of having them remain together throughout the duration of the two year

programs. Given the fact that many of the trainees represent cultures where styles of cooperation and group learning were predominant, they naturally formed study groups and helped one another in a variety of academic, social and emotional ways.

The development of peer support groups was a functionally unplanned consequence that emerged as a result of both financial and time constraints of having to keep the trainees together in all their coursework. However, the positive outcomes of this phenomenon make it an important ingredient to be considered in the design of future programs.

6. Colleges with bilingual special education programs wishing to recruit monolingual English speaking teachers need to make provisions within the program to enable these teachers to become bilingual, or, at minimum, provide these teachers with E.S.L. competencies. Eighty percent of the trainees recruited in the training program were certified in a second language. The remaining 20% were monolingual English speaking teachers, most of whom had replaced bilingual trainees who had dropped out of the program during the first year. Recruiting monolingual English speaking teachers in a bilingual special education program requires that the college address the training needs of the trainees in the areas of language competencies.

On the other hand, of the 80% of the trainees who were bilingual, a small percentage of these trainees needed to improve in English fluency. It is important that colleges continue to recruit trainees who, although they may need to improve in English, offer other valuable cultural and educational skills that LEP students need. However, colleges need to help these trainees improve their own English competencies as well as offer them courses in E.S.L. methodology and techniques to use with their students in their classrooms.

Research

1. Investigate the effectiveness at the local level of Bilingual Special Education models of delivering service to students. For example, how does the model of using a monolingual English special educator in cooperation with a bilingual paraprofessional compare to having a bilingual special educator deliver service to a LEP student? How effective is the service delivery model of having an English monolingual special education paraprofessional work in the regular bilingual classroom with the student?

2. Because sixty percent of the bilingual special educators stated that they used English as a Second Language (ESL) methodology with their students and the majority of them had never received training in E.S.L., qualitative research needs to be conducted in the classrooms in order to

determine what E.S.L. methodologies are being employed there.

3. Because bilingual specialists are being asked to conduct all kinds of formal and informal assessments for which they have received little if any training, further research needs to be conducted as to what assessments are being done by the bilingual special educators, how are they being conducted, and what percentage of their time is being allocated to assessing students.

4. Because poor administration was most frequently cited by the trainees from two colleges as the greatest weakness of their programs, further qualitative research needs to be conducted in order to determine which specific aspects of the administration of the training programs did the trainees feel were weak and which did they regard as strengths. These findings would be beneficial to the future development of training programs in this area.

5. Because a lack of coordination and support from the Bilingual and Special Education Directors was frequently cited as the greatest difficulty the trainees experienced in their roles, further research within school districts is needed to explore in what ways these Directors are being non-supportive as well as supportive to the bilingual special educators and in what areas and in what districts is coordination between these departments occurring.

6. Given that the bilingual special educators stated that the negative attitudes of monolingual English staff toward them and their students was the most serious difficulty they encountered in their roles as bilingual special educators, further ethnographic research needs to be conducted in exploring attitudes toward bilingual education and LEP students. This is important if viable strategies to counteract these attitudes are to be implemented..

Local School Policy

1. School districts assigning bilingual special educators to LEP students who do not speak any language spoken by the assigned teacher must assure that the teacher is trained in E.S.L. methodology. Research findings in this study showed that many bilingual special educators were serving LEP students who spoke languages that the bilingual special educators themselves did not speak. Because of the variety of low incidence language groups throughout Massachusetts, it was not always possible for local districts to find a bilingual special educator for every language spoken by a LEP student with special needs. In these cases, the bilingual special educator in the district, regardless of the language s/he spoke, was often assigned any LEP student with special needs.

Furthermore, given the fact that sixty percent of the bilingual special educators indicated that they used ESL approaches and had received little if any training in this

area, it is important that local school policies provide for E.S.L. training to all bilingual special educators who are teaching Limited English Proficient students.

2. The Special Education Evaluation Team should determine the language of instruction for LEP students with special needs. Although the evaluation team is, according to Chapter 766, legally responsible for determining placement and the individual educational program for each student, including the language of instruction for Limited English Proficient students, this is not occurring. Other factors such as whether or not there is a bilingual program in the building or a bilingual special educator in the system are often used as a basis for determining in which language a student should be taught.

3. Local Superintendents need to institute a plan to enable coordination to occur between Bilingual and Special Education Departments. The second most frequently cited problem identified by the trainees was the lack of support from Special Education and Bilingual Administrators and the isolation and lack of coordination between the Bilingual and Special Education Departments. Both the Bilingual Special Educators and the LEP students they serve suffer because of the gap between Bilingual and Special Education Departments. Both departments have legal rights as well as responsibilities for this group of students and yet clarification of these rights and responsibilities is needed.

Given this situation, programs in bilingual special education are oftentimes disjointed, fragmented, and poorly delivered. Because of this lack of shared understandings, responsibilities, and planned coordination between both departments, trainees experience feelings of alienation and suffer from a lack of genuine administrative support.

If Limited English Proficient students with special needs are to receive culturally and linguistically appropriate special education services, then coordination between Bilingual and Special Education Departments needs to occur. Furthermore, bilingual special educators need to feel supported by both Bilingual and Special Education Administrators and need to have their role clearly defined as they interface with both departments.

4. It is important that school district personnel be cognizant of when it is appropriate to call upon the bilingual special educator in their system and when it is necessary to seek other expertise within or outside of the system to address particular needs.

Another frequently cited area of concern among bilingual special educators is the wide variety of functions they perform as well as the wide variety of students they serve in terms of age levels, languages spoken, and severity of special needs. Because bilingual special educators are at a premium, they are often called upon to address any issue involving Limited English Proficient students

regardless of whether or not they have been trained in that area. Only when bilingual special educators are allowed to carry out their role as defined by state standards will Limited English Proficient students begin to receive the services they deserve. Until then, LEP students with special needs will continue to receive watered down, fragmented, and poor quality service.

5. Because the most frequently cited difficulty experienced by the bilingual special educators was the lack of understanding and resentment of monolingual English staff to both bilingual programs and bilingual staff working with Limited English Proficient students, school districts need to provide cultural and linguistic training to all school staff, including administration. Although the attitudinal area presents the most difficult training challenge, it is the most important area that needs to be recognized and addressed if school districts are to demonstrate both commitment to and respect for a student's language and culture. Without this cultural and linguistic understanding, respect, and commitment to develop bicultural and bilingual approaches for instruction, culturally and linguistically diverse students with exceptional needs will not have the equal opportunity for successful learning.

An important key to changing attitudes among staff and improving services to students is to target different levels of awareness, skill development and attitudinal change in

the training. Local school staff not only need to be made aware of important considerations in this area but need to be made to feel comfortable and non-threatened in order to achieve change. They must see themselves as contributors to the education of all students, regardless of race, culture, or language. Only when this attitude change occurs can an additive and positive environment be created within schools which will allow minority students to experience empowerment and success in learning.

The Future of Bilingual Special Education Preservice Training

Whether or not the leadership in training institutions in higher education becomes committed to developing and implementing quality teacher preparation programs to better serve Limited English Proficient as well as all culturally and linguistically diverse students with special needs is dependent upon both present and future socio-cultural, economic, and political contexts within this society. It is also dependent on their beliefs about the role and responsibility of higher education within the society. In September, 1986, 3.6 million children will begin their education in the United States. Twenty-five percent of these children will be from families who live in poverty (Hodgkinson, 1986). Many of these children live in our inner cities, which, in a sense, are like underdeveloped countries with forty million people, of whom the majority

are Non-White, illiterate, unemployed, poor, and largely dependent on the government for support (Miller, 1986). Demographic statistics show that by the turn of the century, one out of three Americans will be Non-White (Hodgkinson, 1985). These Non-White students represent the at risk generation. Data from the 1979 Census Bureau showed that 35 percent of Hispanics between 18 and 21 years of age had dropped out of school compared to 15.5 percent of all Whites of similar age (Education Week, May 14, 1986). Furthermore, Hispanics who graduate from high school are less likely than Whites to go to college. These statistics reflect the development in this country of haves and have-nots, with more have-nots who eventually will be left to run the country.

The conditions of those who represent diversity, especially those large numbers of diverse individuals who represent the underclass, are dependent upon the political structure in the United States. The political institution influences public policy that impacts on human behavior. Legislators may not be able to assure that all students learn, but they can allocate resources and make policies in such a way as to enhance or limit learning.

There are two philosophies about education. One is that education follows the culture and is only as good as the people in the culture. The other says that education should take a leadership role and should be better than the

society it represents. This researcher upholds the proposition that education needs to take a leadership role while recognizing that the greater problem of poverty is one that requires a comprehensive approach. The problems of the underclass involve many health, housing, employment, and educational issues within a broader socio-economic and political framework.

National and local leadership is necessary if the success of the school reform movement is to happen. The school system, the legislature, and the federal government must provide the resources necessary to help students who have long been neglected in their educational systems as well as in society to reach those standards. If standards are to be raised, then students of the underclass must be helped to meet them.

The question is whether professionals in education as well as in other areas of society have the will and imagination to apply the solutions and resources necessary to solve the problem. As educators and as citizens, Americans have the challenge of setting an international and historical example of being able to accept, respect, and educate our total, diverse student population (Smith, 1986). The question is, will they?

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A P P E N D I X A

Students Identified
As LEP in Massachusetts
(1979 - 1980)

Students Identified as LEP in Massachusetts 1979-1980
By Language Group

<u>Language</u>	<u>Pupils</u>	<u>% Tot. LEP Pop.</u>
Cape Verdean	593	3%
Chinese	773	4%
French	456	2%
Greek	456	2%
Italian	914	5%
Portuguese	3,606	19%
Spanish	10,265	54%
Other	1,974	11%
Total	19,037	100%

Source: Mazzone, 1981.

A P P E N D I X B

Selected Research Summaries

APPENDIX

SELECTED RESEARCH SUMMARIES

In Mexico, Modiano's study of the comparison of Spanish Direct Teaching and the Indian Language Approach in Chiapas, Mexico, demonstrated that after three years, students who had initially been taught in their native language and then in Spanish had better reading comprehension in Spanish than those students who had been taught in only Spanish (Modiano, 1968). Modiano's findings support the use of the child's first language for initial reading.

In Peru, Gudschinsky studied the Native Language Approach used in the mountains of Peru. The children in this program were taught in their native language, Quechua, for the first two years and then were transitioned into Spanish. The children in this program far exceeded those children who were taught in their second language initially. Gudschinsky's research also documented the finding that those children taught initially in their native language were more likely to remain in school and not drop out (Baca, 1980).

In Sweden, two Finnish researchers, Skutnabb-Kangus and Toukomas (1976, 1977) found that if Finnish children immigrated to Sweden when they were of pre-school or primary level age, they fell within the lower 10% of Swedish children in Swedish language skills. However, if they were 10 to 12 years of age when they immigrated and had five or more years of education in their native language in Finland, they approached the norms of Swedish students in language skills. Troike noted that similar observations have been made of Mexican student who immigrate to the U.S. from Mexico after grade six. They learn English easily and outperform Chicano children who have been here since earlier grades (Troike, 1980).

The Finnish research presents strong evidence suggesting that when children before age 10 are submerged in English instruction, they will be retarded in development of their language and cognitive organization and also will fail to acquire English fluency. This study indicates the importance of providing native language instruction to students throughout the first five grades as they are continuing to master their second language in order to continue to develop cognitive functioning in these students and prevent cognitive retardation.

Not only is there evidence of the effectiveness of bilingual education outside the U.S., but there is

documentation within the U.S. showing the positive effects of bilingual education.

One important study documenting the effectiveness of teaching children in two languages is the San Antonio, Texas bilingual study. This study was designed to test the effectiveness of intensive oral language instruction in English and Spanish. Assessments by Taylor (1969) found that children in fourth and fifth grade who had received intensive Spanish language instruction scored highest in English oral language. Assessments by Arnold (1969) found that these children also scored higher on reading retention as compared to Spanish children who were in the regular English monolingual education program.

Cohen's well-know longitudinal Redwood City, California Bilingual Program study (1975) proclaimed that Mexican-American children who are taught in the academic curriculum in Spanish and English for several years are as proficient in English language skills as Mexican-American children taught only in English. In addition, Mexican-American children, following a bilingual program, perform at least as well, and at one group level significantly better, in relation to a comparison group in measures of academic aptitude.

In summary, the above sample research studies indicate that promotion of the minority language entails no loss in the development of the second language. In other words, language minority students instructed through the minority language for all or part of the school day perform as well in English academic skills as comparable students who have received all their instruction in English. Furthermore, promotion of a student's language and culture serve to empower minority students. This feeling of empowerment is a key factor in minority students' achievement of academic success in schools (Cummins, 1986).

A P P E N D I X C

Briefing Paper on Chapter 71A,
The State Transitional Bilingual
Education Act



The Commonwealth of Massachusetts

Department of Education

31 St. James Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02116

Bureau of Transitional Bilingual Education

BRIEFING PAPER ON CHAPTER 71A THE STATE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION LAW

November 1, 1980

I. Background

The passage of Chapter 71A, the Massachusetts Transitional Bilingual Education Law, resulted over a period of several years from the combined efforts of legislative leaders, advocates, educators, civic and community groups and parents. It was clear to all concerned that children of limited English-speaking proficiency were not receiving adequate educational services, consequently, the Great and General Court responded by becoming the first legislative body in the nation to make the decision to require that the Commonwealth's public schools provide for the linguistic, cultural and other related differences of the children they serve. Thus, the passage of the nation's first state-mandated bilingual-bicultural education program aimed especially for children of non-English dominant linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

II. Children Receiving Transitional Bilingual Education Since Passage of Chapter 71A

	# of Limited English Identified	% of Total En- rollment in Mass.	# Entitled to Service by Law	# Served	% Served Per Legal Entitlement
1972-73	10,542	.90%	8,542	6,901	81%
1975-76	15,153	1.26%	16,653	12,017	88%
1977-78	17,902	1.30%	14,551	13,428	92%
1978-79	17,590	1.67%	15,524	13,127	85%
1979-80	19,037	1.83%	Data not available		

The claims of parents, advocates, and supporters of bilingual education that there continues to be a large number of limited English-speaking children in need of transitional bilingual education programs appears to be borne out by these statistics.

Page 2

<u>Language</u>	<u>Pupils</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Cape Verdean	593	3%
Chinese	773	4%
French	456	2%
Greek	456	2%
Italian	914	5%
Portuguese	3,606	19%
Spanish	10,265	54%
Other	1,974	11%
TOTAL	19,037	100%

In the 1972-73 school year, the first year of the law's implementation, 10,542 children or .90% of the state's total school enrollment were identified as limited English proficient and unable to perform ordinary classwork in English. In the school year, 1979-80, 19,037 children or 1.83% of the state's total school enrollment were identified as limited English proficient and unable to perform ordinary classwork in English. The number of identified children and the percentage of the state total enrollment of these children has doubled steadily over the last eight years.

It is estimated that nationally there are over 5 million children of limited English proficiency who are non-English dominant. New York and California account for approximately 58% of these children, while Massachusetts accounts for less than 1/2 of 1% of the total. While nationally less than 40% of the children needing bilingual education are receiving it, Massachusetts leads the nation in the percentage of children being served at a rate of over 92%.

Although there is a projected decline in overall school enrollments, it can be anticipated that the number of non-English dominant limited English proficiency children will continue to increase over the next five years.

III. Costs of Transitional Bilingual Education Since Chapter 71A

A. Total Costs

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total Children Served</u>	<u>State</u>	<u>Local</u>	<u>Total</u>
1971-72	1,499	438,165	1,299,633	1,737,798
1972-73	6,901	1,247,331	6,579,300	7,826,631
1973-74	7,074	2,021,110	7,420,626	9,441,736
1974-75	9,499	1,598,234	10,942,848	12,541,082
1975-76	12,017	3,813,011	16,571,443	20,384,454
1976-77	13,622	4,000,000	20,337,646	24,337,646
1977-78	13,428	4,000,000	22,814,172	26,814,172
1978-79	13,127	8,299,666	18,952,657	27,252,323

(In 1978-79, the federal Title VII program funded local bilingual education programs at \$1,510,278, bringing the state cost for bilingual education to \$28,762,601.)

B. Statewide Average Per Pupil Cost of Transitional Bilingual Education (State and Local Funds)

Year		Year	
1971-72	\$1,159	1975-76	1,696
1972-73	1,134	1976-77	1,786
1973-74	1,334	1977-78	1,996
1974-75	1,320	1978-79	2,069

The 1978-79 per pupil cost for regular students was \$1,755.

The statewide average excess per pupil cost of transitional bilingual education for 1978-79 was \$314.

C. Comments

Prior to the passage of Chapter 71A, there were virtually no bilingual education programs in Massachusetts. In 1971-72 the local share of transitional bilingual education costs was 75%, and the state share was 25%. In 1978-79, the local share was 66%, the state share was 29% and the federal share was 5%. The statewide per pupil cost of bilingual education 1978-79 including federal funds was \$2,191.

Statewide average per pupil costs of transitional bilingual education using state and local contributions have increased 74% since 1971-72. Statewide average per pupil costs for regular education has increased 64% since 1973-74. The cost of inflation has increased 51% in this same period.

Congressional authorization of federal aid to bilingual education is presently administered by the Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. Funds are distributed on a basis of competitive need. It is anticipated that by fiscal 1985 federal aid to bilingual education will be based on a formula grant to states based on student counts. It is not known at this time what the federal share might be.

IV. The Federal Mandate to Eliminate Educational Practices Which Deny Non-English Language Dominant Students Equal Educational Opportunity

The United States Office of Civil Rights' regulation on non-English language dominant students states that, "Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to students."

On January 21, 1974, the United States Supreme Court in Lau v. Nichols (414 U. S. 563) expressly upheld the Office of Civil Rights' regulation prohibiting educational practices by "which students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education."

Even if Chapter 71A were repealed today, Massachusetts school districts would have to continue providing basically the same transitional bilingual education programs because of this federal law.

To implement this mandate, the Office of Civil Rights requires that whenever there is a non-English language dominant student in a school district, any one or combination of the following programs are acceptable.

- A. Transitional Bilingual Education Program (TBE)
- B. Bilingual/Bicultural Program
- C. Multilingual/Multicultural Program

In the case of transitional bilingual education, the district must provide predictive data which show that such student(s) are ready to make the transition into English and will succeed educationally in content areas and in the educational program(s) in which he/she is to be placed. This is necessary so the district will not prematurely place the linguistically/culturally different student who is not ready to participate effectively in an English language curriculum in the regular school program (conducted exclusively in English.)

Because an English as a second language program does not consider the affective nor cognitive development of students in this category and time and maturation variables are different here than for students at the secondary level, an English as a second language program is not appropriate.

The implications of this federal law bear directly on the Massachusetts Transitional Bilingual Education law on two essential issues. Chapter 71A requires that a local school district provide transitional bilingual education wherever there are 20 or more children of limited English-speaking ability in any one language classification. The federal law requires the implementation of any one of the three options cited above whenever there is one non-English dominant child enrolled in a school district.

The Massachusetts Transitional Bilingual Education Act requires the local school district to provide transitional bilingual education for a period of three years or until such time as a child achieves a level of English language skills which will enable him to perform successfully in classes in which instruction is given only in English, whichever comes first. The federal law puts no limit on the amount of time a child should spend in a transitional bilingual education program. The length of time spent in transitional bilingual education then is contingent on the child's readiness to make the transition into an all English curriculum.

Many people are concerned that too many children are being kept in the transitional bilingual education program too long and that they should not be kept in a transitional bilingual education program for more than three years. In view of the federal law, however, an a priori limit of three years' stay in a program would be illegal.

In the 1978-79 enrollment survey of transitional bilingual education programs, it was found that on a statewide average, 41.5% of the enrolled children have been in a transitional bilingual education program for one year, 27% for two years, 18% for three years, and 13.5% for four years or more. These statistics dispel the claim that too many children are being kept in the transitional bilingual education program for more than three years. In fact, the data shows that the majority of students, 68.5%, leave the program at the end of two years. Whether this is a positive sign needs to be examined more closely with follow-up research.

V. General Comments

A. During the first years of the implementation of Chapter 71A, there was no major problem with the appropriations for state aid to transitional bilingual education. Since transitional bilingual education expenditures were reimbursed "off the top" of Chapter 70, and appropriations were fixed at \$4 million in the fourth and subsequent years of the program's implementation, the major problem area in fiscal 1977 occurred when the total excess cost entitlements to local school districts exceeded the cap by \$2,014,945. This meant that excess cost entitlements had to be prorated at the rate of 33%. Criticism that the excess costs of Chapter 71A were not fully funded in fiscal years 1977 and 1978 therefore were legitimate. This is the result of funding decisions, however, rather than a fault of the law. Enactment of the Boverini-Collins bill in 1978 now places bilingual education on equal footing with regular education under the new Chapter 70 and added \$155 million to the Chapter 70 distribution for fiscal year 1979.

B. From the beginning of the implementation of Chapter 71A, the gap between the number of children needing transitional bilingual education services and those actually enrolled in transitional bilingual education programs has closed significantly.

Additionally, it was reported in Boston that the dropout rate of students who were in transitional bilingual education was 7.6% of the total dropout rate in the city in 1977-78, and that the aggregate dropout rate for transitional bilingual education students were 3.1% as compared to 3.5% for regular program students with respect to the number of students enrolled in transitional bilingual education and the total school population respectively.

A P P E N D I X D

Special Education Prototypes

In Massachusetts: 766 Regulations

D. Program Alternatives

Special education programs have been divided into program prototypes as follows:

- 502.1 Regular classroom placement with consultation service, materials, equipment provided for the teacher by special education specialists.
- 502.2 Regular classroom placement with 25% or less of class time in a resource room where child will receive special instruction in accordance with the individualized educational plan.
- 502.3 The child is removed from the regular classroom for more than 25% but less than 60% of the time to receive special services in a resource room.
- 502.4 A special educational program which is substantially separate from the regular school program. The students are placed in these programs for more than 60% of the time. The total number of students in a substantially separate class may not exceed eight unless the teacher has an instructional aide. In that case, the maximum number of students is 12. Integration, if feasible, can be attained during lunch, physical education, music and/or art.
- 502.5 Placement in a private day school program, if the school system does not have a program which will be appropriate for a student's particular needs.
- 502.6 Placement in a residential school program when the child's educational needs require that he/she live at a separate school.
- 502.7 Home or hospital program for children whose illnesses may prevent them from attending school for 14 days or more. A home or hospital tutor is sent to provide services.
- 502.8 Parent-child instruction. An after-school program in which the child and his/her parents work together to achieve determined educational goals.
- 502.9 A diagnostic program for children whose learning problems are not clear. Placement in a diagnostic program cannot exceed eight weeks.
- 502.10 Special programs for youngsters between the ages of 16 and 21.

In addition to these program alternatives, if the evaluations indicate that a child requires medical, psychological or psychiatric treatment, or if the child's parents require social services related to the child's special needs, this treatment and/or services must be provided.

In the cases of children of limited English proficiency, all evaluations must be performed by qualified bilingual professionals who speak the child's native language and are familiar with appropriate assessment instruments in use for linguistic minorities. All parental notifications must be sent in the native language and the individualized educational plan must be translated into the parent's native language prior to approval. The parent also has a right to a translator and/or an advocate at the evaluation meetings.

A P P E N D I X E

Bilingual Special Education Trainee
Questionnaire

Dear Colleague,

I am conducting a research survey for my doctoral dissertation at University of Massachusetts on the role of the bilingual special education teachers in public schools in Massachusetts and the preparation they received in the state and federally sponsored bilingual special education training programs for that role. This questionnaire, which is part of my research survey, is being sent to all the bilingual special education trainees who participated in the training programs either at Bridgewater State College, Fitchburg State College, or Regis College. My purpose in conducting this research survey is to ascertain important information needed to help teacher trainees design and deliver realistic and appropriate training that, in fact, prepares teachers to work with culturally and linguistically diverse students with exceptional needs.

Because you are the most knowledgeable person about the needs in this area and about your role as a bilingual special educator, your contribution in answering this survey and returning it within two weeks in the stamped addressed envelope provided is very important.

This information, as you know, is confidential and you are free to withdraw from participating in this study at any time. However, the results of the general study will be made available to participants and colleges in Massachusetts. Please indicate in the attached sheet that you understand your right to confidentiality and your right to withdraw by signing your name below and returning this form in the envelope provided.

As you know we are pioneering a new field and our joint commitment is crucial if we are to improve the quality of services our linguistically and culturally diverse students with exceptional needs and their families are to receive.

Thank you again, my colleagues, for your support.

Sincerely,

Patricia Medeiros Landurand

Patricia Medeiros Landurand
Doctoral Candidate
School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts

I understand that this information is confidential and that I am free to withdraw from participating in this study at any time.

Name

_____ I wish to receive a summary of the results of this study.

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TRAINEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: Respondent's Training

1. Please check the bilingual special education training program you attended. Beside the program, please indicate the dates of your attendance.

	From 19____	To ____
1.1____ Bridgewater State College	____	____
1.2____ Fitchburg State College	____	____
- at Fitchburg site	____	____
- at Westfield site	____	____
1.3____ Regis College	____	____

2. Please check how well your training program prepared you for the position of bilingual special educator:

____ Well Prepared ____ Moderately Prepared ____ Not Prepared
Comments:

3. This question involves two ratings. In each area/skill listed below, please circle the number (in the left-hand column) that indicates how well you feel your training program prepared you. Then circle the number (in the right hand column) that indicates how important (how often you use it) the skill is to your position.

	<u>PREPARATION RECEIVED</u>					<u>IMPORTANCE</u>				
	Not Pre- pared	Moderately Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared			Not Impor- tant	Moderately Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant		
3.1 Applying Knowledge of First Language Acquisition	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2 Applying Knowledge of Second Language Acquisition	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.3 Applying Research in Bilingualism	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>PREPARATION RECEIVED</u>					<u>IMPORTANCE</u>				
	Not Pre- pared	Moderately Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Not Impor- tant	Moderately Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant
3.4 Differentiating a Language Difference From A Language Disorder	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.5 Conducting Informal Nondiscriminatory Assessment and Evaluation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.6 Conducting Formal Non- Discriminatory Assessment	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.7 Determining Language Dominance and Language Proficiency	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.8 Applying Task Analysis To Assessment	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.9 Participating In Team Meetings	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.10 Setting Goals And Objectives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.11 Writing Individual Educational Plans	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.12 Determining the Language of Instruction For Maximum Learning	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.13 Applying Task Analysis To Teaching	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.14 Developing and Adapting Curriculum For first Language (L1)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>PREPARATION RECEIVED</u>					<u>IMPORTANCE</u>				
	Not Pre- pared		Moderately Pre- pared		Well Pre- pared	Not Impor- tant		Moderately Impor- tant		Very Impor- tant
3.15 Developing and Adapting Curriculum For Second Language (L2)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.16 Selecting Materials in L1	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.17 Selecting Materials in L2	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.18 Conducting Math Instruction in L1	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.19 Conducting Math Instruction in L2	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.20 Conducting Reading Instruction in L1	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.21 Conducting Reading Instruction in L2	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.22 Conducting Ongoing Evaluation of your Student's Program	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.23 Applying Knowledge of Culturally Diverse Child Rearing Practices	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.24 Organizing A Classroom Conducive to Needs of Culturally Diverse Students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>PREPARATION RECEIVED</u>					<u>IMPORTANCE</u>				
	Not Pre- pared	Moderately Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Well Pre- pared	Not Impor- tant	Moderately Impor- tant	Moderately Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant	Very Impor- tant
3.25 Managing Individual Behaviors in a culturally responsive manner	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.26 Managing Cross Cultural Groups in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.27 Consulting With Classroom Teachers	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.28 Consulting With Parents	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.29 Mainstreaming Students to bilingual regular education programs	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.30 Mainstreaming Students to monolingual regular education programs	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.31 Advocating For Students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
General Comments:										

4. Share any suggestions for courses or areas of study that should be included in future training programs:

5. Please rate the degree of your satisfaction with your training program in each of the areas listed below:

	<u>Dissatisfied</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Very Satisfied</u>
5.1 Quality of Teaching	1	2	3 4 5
5.2 Content of Courses	1	2	3 4 5
5.3 The Sequence of Courses	1	2	3 4 5
5.4 Quality of Field Experience (Practicum)	1	2	3 4 5
5.5 Quality of Assigned Readings, Texts	1	2	3 4 5
5.6 Quality of Student Advising	1	2	3 4 5
5.7 Quality of Overall Administration of the Program	1	2	3 4 5

Comments:

6. List the three most significant strengths of your training program: -

7. List the three most significant weaknesses of your training program:

8. Please include any additional suggestions you may have apart from courses and areas of study that could improve future training programs for bilingual special educators.

Part II: Respondent's Position in Local School District

Please check (in the left hand column) the statement that best describes how you currently teach. Indicate (in the right hand column) the number of years you have held this position and your official job title in your school system.

	<u>Years</u>	<u>Job Title</u>
9.1_____ I work with native English speaking students with disabilities exclusively)	_____	_____
9.2_____ I work with limited English proficient students with disabilities and use native language for instruction.	_____	_____
9.3_____ I work with limited English proficient students with disabilities and use E.S.L. teaching approach with no native language instruction.	_____	_____
9.4_____ I work with limited English proficient students with disabilities and use an English approach (non-ESL) with limited explanations in the students first language.	_____	_____
9.5_____ I work with limited English proficient students with disabilities and an E.S.L. approach with limited native language support.	_____	_____
9.6_____ Other:	_____	_____

Comments:

10. What policies/procedures in your system help determine what language to use for instruction with a particular non English background student?

11. If you are presently teaching, please check approximately what percentage of time you are instructing in L1 and in L2 .

		<u>L1</u>	<u>L2</u>
11.1	-----	0%	100%
11.2	-----	25%	75%
11.3	-----	50%	50%
11.4	-----	75%	25%
11.5	-----	100%	0%

12. Of all the students you serve who currently have an I.E.P., roughly what percentage would fit into the following categories on the basis of what you would consider their primary special need?

12.1 Learning Disability	-----%
12.2 Emotional/Behavioral Problems	-----%
12.3 Developmental Disability	-----%
12.4 Physical Disability	-----%
12.5 Multi handicapped (Please Describe)	-----%
12.6 Other (Please Describe)	-----%

13. Approximately what percentage of your work time do you spend doing each of the following tasks:

13.1 Assessing Students	____%	13.7 Advocating for Students	____%
13.2 Teaching Students	____%	13.8 Interpreting	____%
13.3 Consulting with		13.9 Doing Paperwork	____%
Classroom Teachers	____%	13.10 Translating Forms	____%
13.4 Mainstreaming	____%	13.11 Teaching E.S.L.	____%
Students		13.12 Other (Explain)	____%
13.5 Attending Meetings	____%		
13.6 Working with Parents	____%		

14. How much support do you feel you have received from the following administrators in your system?

	No Indica- tion of Interest	Opposed	Some- what Opposed	Somewhat Interested/ Supportive	Very Interested/ Supportive
14.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5
14.2 Special Education Director	1	2	3	4	5
14.3 Bilingual Director	1	2	3	4	5
14.4 Other (Please Indicate Role Position)	1	2	3	4	5

15.1 What is the most difficult part of your role as a bilingual special educator?

15.2 What is the most rewarding part of your role as a bilingual special educator?

16. Would you recommend that others enter bilingual special education?

_____yes

_____no

Please Explain:

Part III: Respondent's Background

To assist in compiling a profile of respondents to this survey, your responses to the following items would be greatly appreciated.

17. Please check any current certification(s) you now hold.

- _____ (N-9) Moderate Special Needs
 _____ (5-12) Moderate Special Needs
 _____ Teacher of Young Children With Special Needs
 _____ Generic Special Needs Teacher
 _____ Severe Special Needs
 _____ Bilingual Teacher - List Languages:

- _____ Elementary Teacher
 _____ Secondary Teacher - List Subject(s):

_____ Other (Please Explain)

18. Please check any language(s) in which you are certified:

18.1 _____ Chinese
 18.2 _____ French
 18.3 _____ Italian
 18.4 _____ Greek

18.5 _____ Portuguese
 18.6 _____ Spanish
 18.7 _____ Vietnamese
 18.8 _____ Other (Please Specify)

19. Is your home language other than English?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, name language _____

20.0 Undergraduate Degree:

Subject Area _____ Acquired In _____
 (name of country)

20.1 Graduate Degree(s):

Subject Area _____ Acquired In _____
 (name of country)

20.2 Have you completed your Masters degree in the Special Education Training program you attended?

_____ Yes _____ No Date Completed _____

21.0 Does your school have bilingual classes in your building for the language group(s) of students you serve?

_____ Yes _____ No

22.0 Is there a bilingual program for the language group(s) of students you serve in your system?

_____ Yes _____ No

23.0 What level do you teach?

23.1 _____ Preschool
 23.2 _____ Elementary
 23.3 _____ Middle/Junior High School
 23.4 _____ High School

24.0 What language group(s) do you currently serve?

24.1 _____ Chinese	24.6 _____ Portuguese
24.2 _____ Creole (Cape Verdean)	24.7 _____ Spanish
24.3 _____ Creole (Haitian)	24.8 _____ Haitian French
24.4 _____ Italian	24.9 _____ Vietnamese
24.5 _____ Greek	24.10 _____ Other

25.0 Do you provide E.S.L. instruction to your students?

_____ Yes _____ No Please Explain:

26.0 Please check the program prototypes that you currently serve and indicate the number of students you serve in each prototype:

	<u>Prototype</u> _____	<u>Number of Students</u> _____
26.1	_____ 502.1	_____
26.2	_____ 502.2	_____
26.3	_____ 502.3	_____
26.4	_____ 502.4	_____

THANK YOU AGAIN!

Patricia Medeiros Landurand

