Celebrating 35 Years of Promoting Equity and Effective Practices for English Learners

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The Multilingual Educator

The California Association for Bilingual Education (CABE) is celebrating its 35th Anniversary. As with other types of anniversaries, when the event arrives you find yourself reflecting on the past and focusing on memorable moments. CABE started as an organization that provided a conference to fill the void for professional development for educators and materials needed for bilingual instructional programs. The most important goal for CABE, at the time, was also to “be at the table” when legislation and policies were being developed back in the late 70s. This was needed because we had, in California, a rapidly expanding number of students who came to our schools speaking a non-English language and there was limited expertise as to how their educational needs were to be met. CABE filled that niche and is today, alongside our partners in Californians Together, a force that remains constant and vigilant to the rights of ELs and their families, while still being the premier source of professional development for administrators, teachers, para-educators, and parents.

As with other organizations CABE has made its mark and is a vibrant, highly respected organization that is known for its advocacy, professional development and leadership. The annual conference grew from a few hundred attendees to thousands. Each year the conference brings together not only attendees that learn and share best and effective practices from noted experts, but also an advocacy agenda. The annual conference is a place where like minded individuals feel respected and valued for their expertise and for being champions for English Learners and in this way the tradition, established in 1976, continues and is resilient. While there are economic issues that are presently impacting all organizations and families, the spirit of its founders and the urgency of the advocacy is no less 35 years later. It is exactly these things that will maintain an organization as its leadership evolves and new and better ways of doing things are developed. The true character of CABE, however, remains and will be there through many more years.

This 2010 issue of the Multilingual Educator brings together articles that highlight the importance of parental engagement and the impact this has on their children’s schooling and in making schools better through their collaboration with schools and by being resources for schools, especially ones, that enroll a high number of English Learners and other language minority students. We know that as educators we teach ELs, but it is the parents who are the ones that are the first teachers and have high aspirations for their children. We have seen that when we share jointly in this task we have success and these stories highlight the family-school-community partnerships that are so vital to the education of our future leaders and to our global society.
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*By J. David Ramirez, Ph.D*

*Independent Researcher and Evaluator*

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*By Edward M. Olivos & Marcela Mendoza*

*University of Oregon*

The current anti-immigrant sentiment manifested in the political arena and the media has had a significant effect on the public school system and the relationship between school officials and immigrant families and communities. This article highlights the historic Plyler v Doe (1982) ruling which protects the rights of (undocumented) immigrant children in our public schools.

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When Dora the Explorer opens her mouth to speak, American viewers know that words will come out. But in what language? Sometimes English; sometimes Spanish; always joyous in either language. Because Dora is bilingual, proudly so. She is truly America’s pre-school champion of bilingualism.

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By Candace Kelly-Hodge, Ph.D and Adelina Alegria, Ph.D

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Engaging Families to Improve Achievement: Advice from the Research
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Educational Reform: Unmet Need

Educational reform literature identifies six areas in which classrooms, schools, and districts need to change if all children are to be provided with optimal learning opportunities, especially those children who are traditionally underserved and/or underperforming. These key elements of educational reform include: Curriculum (what is taught); Pedagogy (how to teach; and how children learn); Assessment (how learning is measured); Roles and Responsibilities (how school personnel work together); Aligning School Resources to support school improvement plans; and School-Home-Community Collaboration (how parents, school personnel, and members of the community collaborate to support student learning at home, school, and/or in the community). Substantial progress has been made in understanding what is needed to develop and sustain quality in five of the core reform elements, the exception is Family-School-Community Collaboration. While parent involvement activities have been required in federally-funded and most state-funded educational programs since the 1960’s, it is still the least understood or implemented of the key elements of educational reform: What is the nature of this collaboration between the home and school? More often than not this collaboration is referred to as a “relationship” between families and school, and community, suggesting something far more intensive, substantive and significant than a simple coordination of activities. What is this relationship? How does it develop? What is needed to sustain it? How do we assess the quality of this relationship over time? How do we assess its impact upon maximizing learning opportunities for and academic achievement of every child at home, school, and community? Nonetheless, great strides over the last 5-6 years have been made to begin to operationally define and examine efforts to develop effective Family-School-Community collaborations/relationships. One such effort is Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Development Program, developed and implemented by CABE and its partners.
CABE, as the lead agency received funding to create and implement a Parent Information Resource Center (PIRC-1) to increase parent involvement in supporting their child’s learning throughout California. The CA State PIRC-1 is a collaborative partnership among the California Association for Bilingual Education-CABE, San Bernardino County Superintendent of Schools (Southern California), and Alameda County Office of Education (Northern California).

Project INSPIRE Goals

1) To increase parents’ knowledge of high quality schooling options for their children (especially those traditionally underserved and/or attending Program Improvement schools) and the leadership skills to take action to ensure their children have high quality educational opportunities;

2) To build the capacity of schools and districts serving disadvantaged students for maintaining high quality parent education and leadership programs; and

3) To increase the knowledge and ability of parent leaders to provide parent leadership development to other parents and to effectively participate in local school, district, county and statewide educational reform efforts.

Innovative Project Design

The CABE Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Development Program was designed to provide three levels of parental engagement opportunities. All three levels share the same objective and goal: To increase parental engagement in their child’s learning at home, school, and/or community; and thereby increasing their child’s rate and level of academic achievement.

A critical component of PIRC-1, Project INSPIRE, is a randomized research study to assess the relative effectiveness of three alternative levels of parent education and leadership development to increase the number and frequency of parents actively supporting their child’s learning at home, school, and/or in their community, AND thereby raising the rate and level of academic achievement realized by their child.

The California State PIRC-1 also successfully developed a Trainer of Trainers (T-O-T) leadership development program for community liaisons from school districts or from community-based organiz

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CABE Parent Leadership Development Program

All three Parent Leadership Training Levels are designed to provide parents with a strong awareness of California's school accountability system, academic content and performance standards, standards-based report cards, assessment, public school choice options, and supplemental service providers (Sec. 5563(b)(11)) in addition to addressing topics identified by parents themselves (e.g., home learning activities, early childhood education, beyond high school opportunities, goal setting and financial planning for college). Each of the levels differs markedly in its approach, strategies, methods, activities, and outcomes for parents and their children.

Level 1 - Awareness Level (comprised of 12 modules and available to all schools and districts) — This level provides strong coverage of basic content and skill development delivered through traditional presenter-centered workshop format. Parents can attend as many of the modules that are available and of interest to them. Parents need not attend all 12 Level 1 modules. The intermediary outcome is increased parent knowledge with increased student achievement as a final goal and outcome.

Level 2 – Mastery Level (comprised of 12 modules and at the present time available only to schools and districts participating in the research study) - In contrast to Level 1, Level 2 leadership services are participant-centered and significantly more intensive in terms of content (deeper coverage), time, and effort. Parents are required to complete all 12 training modules, for a total of 36 hours of face-to-face project based learning activities with other parents and facilitated by Parent Educators who are fully credentialed multi-lingual educators. Level 2 training is provided with on-going follow-up coaching and mentoring to accomplish two things: first, to help parents, teachers and administrators from the same school apply what they are learning to develop and implement individual action plans; and, second, to help parents, teachers, and administrators in the same school develop the skills needed to work together as an effective Family-School-Community collaboration team [a.k.a., Joyce Epstein’s Action Team for Partnerships Model (ATP)]. The school collaboration team will use what they are learning to design, implement, evaluate, and revise not only their school’s parent involvement policies and parent involvement compact, but the parental component of their School’s Single Plan for Student Achievement. All of these efforts are clearly linked to specific student academic performance standards.

Level 3 – Expert Level (comprised of 16 modules and available to the randomly selected Treatment schools and districts participating in the research study). Level 3 is a Trainer of Trainers parent leadership development effort that, builds upon the knowledge and skills developed in Level 2 training in two ways: more in-depth coverage of the topics and issues covered; and, development of specific diversity-responsive leadership skills, e.g., outreach, group process and facilitation skills to work with diverse communities, as well as to engage diverse communities in collaborative strategic planning processes to provide each child with quality teaching and learning at home, school, and in the community. Level 3-Expert Level provides parents with optimal on-going coaching and feedback as well as opportunities to “practice” teaching of the program modules to other parents and, importantly, to pursue action goals and objectives in areas that consist of: inclusive parent recruitment, action team leadership development, strategic planning, action implementation, and assessment of educational reform efforts at home, classroom, school, district, and/or state levels.
Leadership Development Program is a randomized, quasi-experimental. Schools do not receive this intensive parent leadership development (Levels 2 and 3) in each Treatment School. Matched Control participating in the study. The Project's Parent Specialists provide 18 Matched Control Schools were selected for a total of 36 schools were randomly selected from the pool of Program Improvement achievement. A Treatment School and a Matched Control School turn, positively affecting parent involvement and student academic engagement on student achievement. This will be realized by meaningfully engage all parents in their children's learning, school performance and achievement.

While Project INSPIRE describes these three training offerings as “Levels” this is not meant to imply that parent participants move progressively from one level to the next. Rather, Project INSPIRE’s design is that Level 1 training is primarily informational and provides key awareness training for large numbers of parents. Participation in Level 2 training within treatment schools (for study purposes) does not require, nor does it imply, prior participation in Level 1 training. Rather Level 2 training stands separately from Level 1 and is a more intensive approach to training that includes the key informational content of Level 1 but incorporates deeper leadership, group process and school-home-community collaboration knowledge, disposition and skill development (it is a hypothesis of Project INSPIRE that this is a key level of training to offer to a critical mass of parents in order to have significant impact on student achievement in a school community and, thus, is a focus of treatment schools in the study described below). Level 3 is designed to follow from Level 2 training for a subset of parents who have completed Level 2 and are identified as having key communication and organizing skills as well as further leadership potential and a desire themselves to pursue deeper involvement as parent leaders. Thus, we find three conditions within Project INSPIRE worthy of examination for relative effectiveness: (1) parent participation in Level 1 training; (2) parent participation in Level 2 training; and (3) parent participation in first Level 2 and then Level 3 training. The study described below seeks to describe the overall effectiveness of Project INSPIRE’s training and leadership development and to learn more about the relative value and effectiveness of these three conditions.

**Randomized Quasi-experimental Research Study**

A critical component of Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Development Program is a randomized, quasi-experimental research study designed to examine the impact of parental engagement on student achievement. This will be realized by assessing the overall effectiveness of Project INSPIRE and the relative effectiveness of three conditions of Project INSPIRE’s parent leadership development (described above) in increasing the type, frequency, and intensity of parent involvement, and, in turn, positively affecting parent involvement and student academic achievement. A Treatment School and a Matched Control School were randomly selected from the pool of Program Improvement schools in participating school districts. In all, 18 Treatment and 18 Matched Control Schools were selected for a total of 36 schools participating in the study. The Project's Parent Specialists provide the intensive Parent Leadership Development Program (Level 2 or Levels 2 and 3) in each Treatment School. Matched Control Schools do not receive this intensive parent leadership development.

The purpose of the CABE Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Development Program is to have a positive impact on each of the mediating forces listed below and thereby to create optimal teaching and learning opportunities for parents, teachers, principals and community members to become involved in maximizing high quality learning opportunities for every child. The design of the research study allows for comparisons of Program Improvement Schools (Treatment Schools and Matched Controls) using descriptive statistics to identify student and parent characteristics and Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) to examine differences in the rate and level of academic achievement, and attendance for students and schools, within and between the three treatment conditions of Project INSPIRE (versus Control or Non-Treatment conditions).

**Project INSPIRE's research study posits four factors that are critical for improving or blocking parent involvement and, thus, supporting or hindering the rate and level of student learning. These are:**

- **Types of Parent Involvement** (what types of engagement and the extent to which parents are: introduced to each type of engagement at home, school, and within the community; and, provided with opportunities to “practice” each type of engagement);
- **Frequency of Involvement** (i.e., how often parents are provided opportunities to learn, practice, and reflect on each type, as well as, once learned, the opportunities they are provided to implement each type of involvement);
- **Intensity of Involvement** (amount of time parents spend learning, practicing, and reflecting on each Type of involvement, and, once learned, the duration and strength of opportunities they have to implement each type); and
- **Teaching and Learning Strategies** (drawing from Learning Sciences, Critical Pedagogy, Multicultural Education, Language Development, Second Language Acquisition, and Community Learning Theory to help each parent learn, practice, and reflect on how they can support their child’s learning at home, school, and in the community as well as how to work with other parents, teachers, school administrators and community members to engage in on-going team activities that include outreach, preparing meeting, agendas, facilitating groups, using learned processes to create active participant-centered and inclusive meetings, and participating in effective strategic planning and implementation activities for effective family-school-community collaboration.)

**Research-Based Parent Leadership Program Design**

The Parent Leadership Program is grounded in Community Learning Theory’ (CLT) originally theorized by Roberto Vargas and Francisco Hernandez. CLT not only provides a framework for operationally defining the nature of diversity-responsive “relation-
ships” of individuals within, among, and between the home, school and community, but also addresses how these relationships develop and are sustained over time. Simply, the CLT framework is useful for identifying, implementing, and assessing diversity-responsive strategies that build on the life experiences both of people as well as of formal and informal organizations that impact the teaching and learning experiences of children (e.g., parents, teachers, school administrators, other educational personnel, community-based organizations supporting student learning and relevant members of the school community). CLT recognizes parents as the primary teachers of their children and maintains the perspective that the process of empowerment begins with the recognition that each of us possesses the knowledge needed to address challenges that arise. Through the strategic use of diversity-responsive approaches to identifying and sharing this wealth of individual and collective knowledge we not only are able to realize our individual goals of increased academic achievement of our own child, but that of all children in our school and community.

Diversity-responsive processes, strategies, and activities are essential for developing the critical relationships that provide the foundation for individual and community empowerment, action, and change. Acknowledging and building on existing cultural “funds of knowledge” not only increases the likelihood of success in training, but also is a critical link to improving student achievement. This approach goes far beyond the provision of culturally-responsive training, although cultural responsiveness and providing services through culturally-competent personnel are key components. The design template for all modules used throughout the Parent Leadership Program are carefully structured to create inclusive and diversity-responsive relationships and collaborations within, among, and between parents, teachers, school administrators, community-based organizations and personnel (e.g., sharing what each knows about the topic at hand, and what each would like to learn about the topic; at the end of the session, sharing a significant learning and plans for incorporating it into one’s individual Action Plan; opportunities for individual reflection on the module’s topic; facilitation of the Parent Specialist who constantly takes opportunities to highlight shared knowledge and experiences and support the creation of a “sense of community.”).

Research in adult learning and professional development clearly indicate that successful adult learning opportunities must minimally provide opportunities for adults:
1) to learn and understand the underlying research and theory; 2) to observe how these understandings are implemented; 3) to practice implementing these understandings frequently and across several different contexts; 4) to receive on-going coaching and mentoring; and 5) to participate in on-going study/working groups with colleagues to share and discuss one's learning, new insights, successes, and challenges. The extensive use of on-going coaching and technical assistance as a capacity-building strategy has a strong research base. The design template for each training module includes each of these learning opportunities.

Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Development Program incorporates Joyce Epstein's six types of parent involvement (parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making and collaborating with community) as user-friendly categories to organize the many different ways in which parents can support their child’s learning at home, school, and within the community. These categories are initially introduced and discussed within the first and/or second Parent Leadership Development Program module regarding parent responsibilities in their child’s teaching and learning at home, school, and/or in the community. As training progresses Parent Specialists begin to use specific group processes and facilitation activities to prompt participating parents to expand their List of Parent Involvement Activities.

Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Development Program staff work in collaboration with the California Department of Education and will be the pilot sites for their new statewide parent involvement initiative, i.e., using the Action Team for Partnerships (ATP) model. The ATP will be used in Program Improvement Schools, particularly those where students persistently fail to meet state grade level academic content standards. The ATP delineates the steps in which parents must be involved, collaborating with other parents, teachers, and school administrators to develop, implement, monitor and evaluate their School’s Single Plan for Student Achievement. Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Development Program provides the diversity-responsive processes (i.e., strategies and activities) to be used to ensure meaningful collaborative relationships within and among parents, teachers, school administrators, and community agencies and individuals in completing each step of the ATP process.

There is no question that the preponderance of the research indicates that programs that reach out to families and engage families in supporting their children’s learning at home are linked to higher student academic achievement. However, even higher levels of student academic achievement are linked to sustained parent involvement in advocacy, decision-making, and oversight roles, as well as in the primary role of home teacher. For English Learners and socio-economically disadvantaged students, understanding and addressing cultural, linguistic, social, economic, and political barriers in parent training and outreach programs is the key to unlocking high levels of achievement for students. All of this research supports the diversity-responsive approach used in CABE’s Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Development Program, as well as the effort to build future capacity within schools by providing on-going leadership development through a self-renewing cadre of parent leaders at the school and district levels. Finally, research has validated the use of technology as a tool to support collaboration as well as learning. Similarly, these strategies and activities have been demonstrated to effectively support educational reform.

Program Impact: Parent Engagement

Several indicators suggest significant changes in parental involvement among parents participating in the Parent Leadership Development Program than among non-participating parents. Individual Interview and Focus Group data from parents, teachers, and school principals and teachers in every Treatment School overwhelmingly report significant differences in the type, frequency, and intensity of interactions they have with participating parents.

Parents were asked to reflect on their participation in the Parent Leadership Development Program, to share a significant learning, and the impact if any of this learning. Parent focus group and individual interview data consistently pointed out that they had minimally learned the following: the significant role that parents have in American schools and in their child’s learning; how the state’s accountability system is comprised of content standards, performance standards, and the assessment process to identify not only how each child is learning, but how well each school is successfully helping the majority of students to meet or exceed grade level student performance standards; the range of ancillary services that might be available to support student learning; and, when and how parents can exercise their rights under School Choice. During the last three years of the project, on average, 95% of the parents (over 12,500 served in 2008-2009) rated the program for content, skills/knowledge gained, and presentation as above average to outstanding.

The most significant change identified by every parent focus group and almost every individual parent interview was that each parent realized for the first time that they were not alone, that other parents shared similar dreams for and encountered similar challenges to their children’s success.
each group of participating parents in turn began to transform into an emerging sense of community and collaboration with one another to support student learning.

Participating parents who joined school and district level committees eloquently spoke of what they are learning from parents from other schools in their district, and the important and urgent needs of students and their parents across their school district community. These initial findings suggest the effectiveness of the Parent Leadership Development Program in helping parents learn what they need to know about the educational services their child needs as compared to what they receive, how their child is progressing academically, and alternative action the parent can take to secure ancillary services or alternative schooling options for their child. Secondly, these tentative findings suggest that the Parent Leadership Development Program is effectively fostering the development of a sense of community by facilitating and supporting the development of relationships within each group of participating parents, that is slowly including teachers and school administrators.

Teachers report a change in the content and quality of questions and discussions initiated by parents, especially during Parent/Teacher Conferences: rather than only asking if their child is behaving and respectful, parents are now asking relevant and detailed questions regarding the grade level content standards that their child is to meet, assessment tools used to monitor their child’s progress, their child’s current level of academic development, what and how classroom learning activities are directed towards improving their child’s academic progress, the availability of ancillary services to support their child’s learning (e.g., after-school tutoring) and what specific activities the parent can do at home, school, and/or in the community to support their child’s learning.

Principals similarly report a significant increase in parent-initiated appointments by participating parents specifically to review their child’s cumulative record, to learn its purpose, the information recorded, by whom, when and how it is used. This has almost never occurred before, with any parents. Treatment School principals report a sudden increase in the number of participating parents joining school site committees and the PTA and/or at district level committees, e.g., District English Language Acquisition Committee. This is evidence of increased parental engagement and involvement in their children’s schooling.
A primary study goal is to examine the relationship of Project-catalyzed parent involvement to student academic achievement. Tentative findings indicate that students from Program Improvement schools whose parents did not participate in CABE’s Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Development Program (i.e., Matched Control Schools) on average improved their English Language Arts scores by 4.9 points and Math scores by 3.2 points. In contrast, preliminary findings indicate that students in Program Improvement Schools whose parents are participating in the CABE Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Program not only matched the 4.9 point increase in English Language Arts and 3.2 point score increase in Math realized by their Matched Controls, but they dramatically exceeded their rate and level of English Language Arts by an additional 12.8 score points and Math achievement score by an additional 18.5 points as compared to their peers in Control Schools whose parents did not participate in Project INSPIRE’s Parent Leadership Program. While the increased achievement among the children of participating parents is statistically significant and consistent across all grade levels, they are preliminary. We await to see if these initial differences between students of parents participating in the Parent Leadership Development Program as compared to the achievement of students whose parents did not participate are sustained in Year 4 and Year 5. Cautious considerations of these tentative results indicate that students realize significant gains in both the rate and level of English Language Arts and Math achievement when their parents participate in CABE’s Project INSPIRE Parent Leadership Development Program.

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(Endnotes)

6. Ibid.
Protecting Immigrant Students’ Right to Feel Safe in California’s Public Schools

By Edward M. Olivos & Marcela Mendoza, University of Oregon

The current anti-immigrant sentiment manifested in the political arena and the media has had a significant effect on the public school system and the relationship between school officials and immigrant families and communities. In this article, we highlight the historic Plyler v Doe (1982) ruling which protects the rights of (undocumented) immigrant children in our public schools, and review policies that school districts in the U.S. are instituting to deal with the increasingly real possibility that federal immigration enforcement operations may disrupt the family life and educational experience of immigrant students or students from immigrant families (Olivas, 2007). We also make recommendations about protocols that school districts could implement to deal with the consequences of enforcement operations on school grounds and in communities served by those schools.

Immigrant Children in U.S. Public Schools

In California public schools, and elsewhere in the country, English Learners (EL) are likely to be immigrants or the children of immigrants. The families of these students often also have a complex structure consisting of members who are of “mixed” immigration status. For example, an adult may be a citizen, permanent resident, documented immigrant, or undocumented immigrant, while the children themselves can be either native-born citizens or immigrants (documented or undocumented) like their parents (Morse & Ludovina, 1999). The U.S. Census Bureau reports that in 2002, 19 percent of all children in the U.S. (or 14 million) lived with at least one foreign-born parent (Fields, 2003). And, recent estimates suggest that about 3 million children in the U.S. are native-born citizens with undocumented immigrant parents and another 1.6 million children under the age of 18 are undocumented immigrants themselves (Passel, Capps, & Fix, 2004).

As the most populous and ethnically diverse state, California holds a unique position in the nation. It is ranked #1 in the size of its foreign-born population as well as in the percentage of the state’s population that is foreign-born (Migrant Policy Institute, 2009). Furthermore, the Migrant Policy Institute (2009) estimates that 27% of all undocumented immigrants in the nation reside in California. In 2006, the top three countries of origin of these new Californians were Mexico (44 percent), the Philippines (7.6 percent), and China (6.7 percent).

The presence of so many immigrant families has changed how schools do business, from offering increased levels of support to acquaint immigrant families about the functioning of U.S. schools to providing their children with a meaningful education which takes into account their native cultures and languages (Flannery, 2009). Thus, for immigrant children and children of immigrants to be successful in U.S. schools, policies and practices must be in place that not only support their academic development but also nurture their social needs as well. For some of these children, social support involves feeling safe—a sense that the students and their family members are protected from the threat of deportation while they are in school (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). However,
recent increase of enforcement efforts (also called “raids”) by U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) have left many children (whether immigrants or not) living in uncertainty, thus negatively affecting their educational experiences. In one of the most infamous cases to date, ICE officers raided a meatpacking plant in Pottsville, Iowa on May 12, 2008 which resulted in the disruption to students in the local school district. On that day, many Latino students in local schools were summoned to their principals’ offices to be “informed that one or, in some cases, both of their parents would not be coming home because they had been taken into custody by federal law enforcement officers” (Wright Edelman, 2008, ¶1). As a result, many children from immigrant families were left at school while their parents were in custody and most of the school system’s Latino children were absent the day after the raid, though many later returned to the schools (Zehr, 2008a).

The Plyler Ruling

Undocumented immigrant students are legally obligated, as are all other students, to attend school until they reach the age mandated by state law; and parents (regardless of their own immigration status) are legally required to send their children to school. At the same time, every child—regardless of their immigration status or the immigration status of their parents—has the right to a free public education in a safe and supportive environment (Borkowski, 2009; National Education Association, 2007). This right has been maintained since the Plyler v Doe (1982) Supreme Court decision which established that undocumented immigrant children should be treated in all respects the same as other students, and that school districts can not question students or their parents about immigration status.

The Plyler vs. Doe decision overturned a Texas law that allowed the state to withhold funds from any school district that enrolled undocumented immigrant children. In its opinion, the Court said the state law had violated the equal protection clause of the 14th amendment of the United States Constitution because the Texas statute imposed “a lifetime hardship on a discrete class of children not accountable for their disabling status.” For immigrant students in U.S. public schools, this decision has been a civil rights’ milestone as much as Brown vs. the Board of Education (1954) has been for school desegregation.

As a result of the Plyler ruling, some professional associations and school districts around the country have proactively put forth policies that maintain the spirit of this law in protecting the right to educational equality of undocumented immigrant students. The Washington (state) Office of the Superintendent of Public Schools, for example, advises that its public schools may not:

- Deny admission to a student during initial enrollment or at any other time on the basis of undocumented status.
- Treat a student differently to determine residency.
- Engage in any practices to “chill” the right of access to school.
- Require students or parents to disclose or document their immigration status.
- Make inquiries of students or parents that may expose their undocumented status.
- Require social security numbers from students, as this may expose undocumented status.

Regardless of the availability of specific policies, school personnel should be aware that they are under no legal obligation to enforce U.S. immigration laws (Borkowski, 2009). School districts can discourage communication to immigration enforcement officers initiated by school personnel concerning the real or perceived immigration status of the students or the students’ parents. All requests by immigration officials for consent to enter a school to search for information or to seize students could initially be denied, and immediately communicated to the school principal and the superintendent’s office (Wilshire Carrera, 1989). The steps already taken by states like Washington, therefore, are a useful barometer with which to gauge existing practices in California school districts and individual schools.

...federal immigration officials in local communities has a chilling psychological effect on immigrant parents and children’s perceptions of their protected access to public education.
Federal enforcement of immigration laws has become a priority for ICE. However, ICE’s guidelines discourage arresting fugitives at schools, hospitals, or places of worship, unless the suspect poses an immediate threat to national security or to the community. The agency encourages the release of nursing mothers, and individuals who are the primary caregivers of children with medical conditions or the elderly, although these guidelines are discretionary. The agency’s guidelines also stipulate that immigration agents shouldn’t take into custody a child who is a legal permanent resident or U.S. citizen.

Immigration enforcement operations are portrayed by the Department of Homeland Security as a means by which to deter undocumented immigrants from seeking employment and willing employers from knowingly hiring them and not as a tool to punish families or children. Immigration enforcement agents are more interested in arresting individuals that could be guilty of immigration violations and identity-theft than going after minors. Nevertheless, workplace arrests inevitably affect a large number of children and the increased presence of federal immigration officials in local communities has a chilling psychological effect on immigrant parents and children’s perceptions of their protected access to public education (Capps, Castañeda, Chaudry, & Santos, 2007; Gorman, 2008).

In March 2007, for example, students and staff at San Pedro Elementary School were disturbed by an immigration raid in San Rafael, California. For three days following this ICE operation, teachers rode buses to ensure that children were delivered safely to homes, time that could have been spent by teachers preparing lessons. The after-school program at San Pedro turned into counseling sessions, absentee rates soared, and test scores dropped. Students who did make it to school remained distracted as they worried about whether their families would be at home when they returned (Coile, 2008). Another ICE raid in June 2007 on a Fresh Del Monte Produce Inc. food processing plant in Portland, Oregon ended in the arrests of 147 immigrant workers, tearing apart families and unsettling local employers. This plant is located in an economically disadvantaged area of Multnomah County, Oregon that is home to a high concentration on Latino residents—a fact indicated by the enrollment of Latino students in the elementary schools (Manning, Loose, & Petty, 2009).

Likewise, the National Coalition of Advocates for Students (2002) recommends that school personnel should not cooperate with immigration enforcement officers in any manner that jeopardizes immigrant students and their right of access to education. In a situation in which ICE agents come to a school searching for a student, the school principal should meet with the immigration enforcement officers in the front office with a credible witness present...
and request to see a legal warrant. If a warrant is presented, the principal should determine that it (a) lists the school by its correct name and address; (b) lists students by name; (c) is signed by a judge; (d) is less than ten days old; and (e) is served by an immigration enforcement officer with proper identification. To protect other students in the school, the principal should bring the officials to the office and request that they remain there while the named student(s) is brought to them. The principal should immediately inform the District Superintendent and the District Legal Counsel.

The privacy rights of undocumented immigrant children and the children of undocumented immigrant parents are also protected by the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (1974). This statute prohibits school districts from disclosing the education records of any student without parental permission. “Education records” are broadly defined to include records dealing with a child’s academic performance and personal information about the child and the child’s family. The only exception to this prohibition is if the school district is served a lawfully-issue subpoena.3

Conclusion

Immigrant parents send their children to school while contributing in many ways to the economy and the culture of our country. In turn, educators and school personnel should proactively work to assure that schools continue to be institutions of equal opportunity, where all students can develop their own potential. These efforts include maintaining a welcoming environment for immigrant students and their families and being sensitive to the concerns of immigrant parents about issues surrounding their children’s right to an education, which includes privacy concerns (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1998). To provide a safe and supportive environment, the schools need to assure the privacy of the students and their families by avoiding the disclosure of educational records and any personal records without parental permission. This protection of privacy will foster mutual trust between the families and the school personnel.

The presence of federal immigration officials in local communities has a harmful emotional effect not only on parents, but on children as well, and put these students’ right to an education in jeopardy. In this anti-immigrant climate, educators should only expect that ICE will step-up its operations and conservative sectors of society will continue to increase their efforts in attempts to pass laws to demonize and harm immigrants and their children (Laglagaron, Rodriguez, Silver, & Thanasombat, 2008). These actions will inevitably affect large numbers of children in our public schools. While there are those who would advocate ignoring the needs of these children, well-meaning educators have an opportunity to develop policies and practices that will assure children’s wellbeing. And while there are definitely legal uncertainties as to how educators should respond to the presence of immigration enforcement operations on school grounds and local communities, one thing that is certain is that California schools must be proactive in devising plans to deal with students who may have a parent or a family member arrested for deportation (Borkowski, 2009).

The privacy rights of undocumented immigrant children and the children of undocumented immigrant parents are also protected by the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (1974).

About the Authors

Edward M. Olivos
Department of Education Studies
College of Education

Edward is an assistant professor of Education Studies at the University of Oregon, specializing in bilingual education and bicultural parent involvement. His research focuses on the relationship between bicultural parents and schools as well as the development of bilingual educators. He is the author of The Power of Parents: A Critical Perspective of Bicultural Parent Involvement in Public Schools.

Marcela Mendoza
Department of Anthropology

Marcela is a courtesy research associate in the Department of Anthropology at the University of Oregon. She has published extensively on issues of indigenous peoples in South America and Latin American immigrants in the United States. Her current research focuses on immigrant integration, and Mexican immigration in Oregon.
Selected References


Endnotes

1 The guidelines for the Migrant and Bilingual Education Program recommend that students without social security numbers be assigned a number generated by the school. Adults without social security numbers who are applying for a free lunch and/or breakfast program on behalf of a student need only indicate on the application that they do not have a social security number. See Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Migrant and Bilingual Education Programs, Washington, available at http://www.k12.wa.us/Migrant.

2 For every two adults arrested, there is on average one child affected, and two-thirds of these children are American-born citizens (Capps, et al., 2007).

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Long Beach, California
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18th Annual National Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Summer Conference

July 5–8, 2010
San Diego, California
The best walking book I possessed as a child was called Papi. He was an endearing book that I was able to hold and touch and keep real close to my heart. I never tired from his long work shifts, for I knew Papi’s arrival would bring an amazing story. Around ten a clock his grumbling tummy would not prevent him from yelling, “Ya llego su Padre.” I always enjoyed watching his facial expressions as he tried to cleverly answer some of my never ending questions. I can still smell his tiredness in his white dirty collared shirt. I can also see his wrinkly eyes that were red from the outside dirt. I can yet still feel his yawning hugs. Most importantly, I can still hear his breathtaking stories:

“Papi, today on Cristina they talked about immigration. I don’t get it, why do we have to have papers to live here?” “Well mi’ja, it is very complicated to say. But YOU don’t have to have papers, because you were born in Montclair.” “Papi, why would immigration want to deport you and the people that I love so much? You are such a hard worker; mami is always cleaning and taking care of us. And Maricela and Jose behave well- they really do?” “Did you know that the world is divided by continents?” “Oh yes I do, the word is divided into two continents, Mexico and the United States.” “Ay Dios mio, what are they teaching you at school?” “To read daddy, I read at school.” I can still feel my dad’s arms as they wrapped my little body and I can still hear his sweet voice as he asked Mami to serve him his eleven p.m. dinner.

I remember my mortified feeling the next day when I read about continents. I was going to clarify everything to Papi when he came home that night. Yet, instead of verbally discussing geography, Papi took me on a trip. He and I went to Tijuana to buy Maricela’s seizure medicine. “Papi, tell me, why do we have to have paper to live here?” “You know, mi’ja, it is like entering someone’s home. To enter you have to have a key to open the door. Well, papers are the key people who were not born here need.” It made sense, yet the Tijuana streets made the eyes of my heart wonder. My heart saw gloomy- hungry children with dirty pale faces. It also saw shoeless mothers begging for money or food, and it smelled like shirtless filthy fathers as they worked by selling what I considered worthless garbage. I couldn’t help but wonder why there wasn’t a key available for everyone.

I still remember the day when my family and I were eating a watermelon. It seemed like our whole body was sticky from the sweet juice of that mouth-watering watermelon. As we ate, a dressy salesman walked by trying to sell Papi a one thousand dollar encyclopedia set. Remembering our continent conversation he really wanted to buy one, but all he had was twenty dollars that were needed for milk and tortillas. Hours passed and the dressy gentlemen not only ate watermelon with us, but also joined us for dinner. The salesman was very convincing and even though my father really wanted to buy those encyclopedias framed in gold, he knew it was impossible. The salesman finally convinced Papi to give him his twenty dollars and pay the rest in monthly payments. Leaving behind no address to send the money to, the salesman gave us a warm look and vanished. Mother was enraged. She exclaimed to Papi, ”Ok Viejo, for the next four days if your children get hungry or thirsty, have them take a bite and a drink out of those books!”

On the first day of school Mrs. Pixton said, “Anyone read something interesting this summer?” I wanted to raise my hand but I could not think of a single book that I read. I had no books at home and thumbing through the encyclopedia or reading from our bible was not exactly what she meant. I remember that I also read the apartment contract and explained it thoroughly to Papi so
he understood our living conditions. I also took five ladies, including my mother, job hunting. I read and filled out work applications. I also read at the grocery stores the daily specials to Mami and helped her shop. And I was sure that studying maps was not considered book reading either. But no, I did not read a book. However, I wanted to raise my hand and tell Mrs. Pixton about the conversations I had had with Papi—but I didn’t!

Communicating with teachers was difficult for me. Teachers were pleasant but their literacy world was different from my own. During conferences they would inform Papi of the importance of reading. My father always felt proud because he knew that reading was an important key to our success. I always felt, however, as if my Papi and my teacher were reflexively agreeing on two different subjects.

I was so excited when our school librarian was having a used book sale. Papi gave me a whole dollar to buy any book that I wanted. I bought, Double Trouble on Vacation, by Michael J. Pellowski. My usual thirty minute walk from school to my house turned into a one hour walk as I slowly read on my way home that day. I had finally read my very own chapter book about a story that did not pertain to my world. However, I owned a book—just what my teachers wanted.

It took me many years to understand that I did come from a rich literature culture. My literacy came from different sources and many times it was not book bounded, yet literacy was in my childhood. I regret feeling embarrassed as a twelve year old when teachers asked about literature. I was too young to explain to adults my literacy world. As an adult I now feel blessed for those memorable moments that I shared with my family where books were spoken through the experiences of the adults that surrounded me.

Growing up Chicana in Southern California had many challenges. Papi was a hard worker who illegally immigrated to work the fields of California. His education ended in third grade after his dad was assassinated. Mami, an illiterate woman, also came as a child illegally to also work the fields of California. My parents’ marriage began with lessons from Papi to Mami on life surviving skills, like reading a clock. I remember Papi’s pride every time he heard me read. He also enjoyed watching me solve difficult division problems. Most importantly, he was proud of my skills to translate documents at such a young age—twelve! He always talked about the importance of school. His most repetitive phrase was, “Study, because when you grow-up, you want to work in a nice in-door, air-conditioned place like McDonalds. I don’t want mi’ja to dehydrate in the fields.” Yet, I would go to school and listen to teachers associate McDonald’s employees as underachievers.

At a young age I learned to listen between the lines of spoken words. I grew up indulging two worlds. One world was occupied by teachers who used brain-powering words. I knew they were mentoring me with notable advice. They wanted my reading skills to continually advance so that I could become a successful adult. However, I was a sound thinking Chicana who questioned the world. I wanted to live in a fair world! I was aware of the power of books; they were like keys that would open many doors. Unfortunately, I realized that many individuals would never be given keys because books were not a possibility in their page-less lives. Papi’s verbal stories that were told with heart taught me to question life. His stories developed my literacy skills toward a humanistic pedagogical path. At a very young age I understood that reading would transport me to unimaginable places. The majority of my learning, however, I could have accomplished with my eyes closed by keeping the window of my heart open.

The literacy that I learned from Papi enlightened my world. Papi’s schooling was tied with the worthiness of learning to read life. Therefore, I learned to take hold of the opportunities that life offered. Most importantly, the face of poverty and injustice was revealed through the discussions I had with Papi. As a child walking the Tijuana streets I grew to recognize that skin dressed in filth was the least of the worries of those who breathed poverty. Their suffrage lies in starving bellies that sleep in sickness and live in daily panic. Their fears are in believing that the pages of books are unreachable. Consequently, I learned to take advantage of the pages of books that were in my grasp. Furthermore, through Papi’s stories, I learned that the face of literate is also spoken.

“Mi’ja, no trates de tapar el sol con un dedo. Learn to live life and never let life live you.” These illustrious words were spoken constantly by Papi throughout my upbringing. I always strive to understand the profound message of these words that echo into my essence. I recognize the worth of my complex Chicana world. I’ve learned that books offer adventures, guidance, and understanding. To live life plentifully, I also continue to listen with my heart, for in every spoken story there lies an imperative message.
Confirmation of the Power of Reading

The claim has been made that self-selected reading for pleasure, with no or very little accountability, is the major source of our reading ability, our ability to write with acceptable style and accuracy, much of our spelling ability, our vocabulary knowledge beyond the basics, and our ability to use and understand complex grammatical structures (Krashen, 2004). The evidence for these claims comes from case studies, correlational studies, and studies of in-school self-selected reading, known as sustained silent reading. The last decade has added confirming research in all three categories.

Case history: Reading and the TOEFL

Mason (2006) described six second language acquirers in Japan who agreed to engage in a recreational reading program to prepare for the TOEFL, a test of English taken by students interested in studying at American universities. Each read different material, according to their own interests, with favorite authors including Sidney Sheldon, Paulo Coelho, and Judy Blume. In addition, several read graded readers. Subjects read for different lengths of time, between one to four months, and took alternate forms of the TOEFL test before and after doing the reading. The average gain was 3.5 points per week on the overall test, and improvement was seen on all three components, listening, grammar, and reading. This gain is about the same as one sees with a full time TOEFL preparation class given in the United States and is consistent with studies showing that reading is an excellent predictor of TOEFL performance (Gradman and Hanania, 1991; Constantino, Lee, Cho and Krashen, 1997).

Correlational studies

S.Y. Lee (2005a) used structural equation modeling to see which of several activities was the best predictor of scores on a test of English writing for university students in Taiwan. Lee examined the amount of free reading in English the students said they did, the amount of English writing they said they did outside of school, and how intently they believed that reading and writing instruction was helpful. Reading was the clear winner. In fact, it was the only significant predictor of writing scores. Witten-Davies (2006) used multiple regression to see which were the best predictors of English reading and writing for college freshmen in Taiwan. The amount of reading students reported having done was a significant predictor for both measures.

Sustained silent reading

Since 2000, the efficacy of sustained silent reading (SSR) has been confirmed in Korea, using children studying EFL (Cho and H. Kim, 2004; Cho and H.J. Kin, 2005), in Taiwan with vocational college students (Hsu and Lee, 2007), evening school college students (K. Smith, 2007), with students at prestige universities (Lee, 2005b, 2005c,
In Shin and Krashen (2007), sixth graders in California enrolled in a voluntary summer reading program did self-selected reading for two hours a day, had time to discuss books with peers, had individual conferences with teachers, and participated in group discussion of selected novels. Comparison children followed a standard language arts curriculum. The groups made equivalent gains over the summer on a vocabulary test, but the children in the reading group did far better on the reading comprehension measure, gaining well over one year after only five and a half weeks of reading. They also gained about five months on the Altos test of reading comprehension and vocabulary, while comparisons declined slightly. In addition, studies of EFL have shown that adding various kinds of “supplementary” activities (e.g. extra writing with or without correction) do not add to the power of reading (Mason, 2004; K. Smith, 2006).

Stimulating FVR

Despite the prevalence of rewarding children for reading, and claims made on behalf of reading management programs such as Accelerated Reader, the last decade has produced no evidence that they work or do not work. Krashen (2003, 2005) reviewed research on Accelerated Reader. No study looked specifically at whether the tests and prizes that are an integral part of accelerated reader add anything to the gains one would expect just from reading. We thus have no evidence one way or the other on the effectiveness of accelerated reader.

The last decade has, however, given us a better idea of what does work to encourage reading. Three small-scale studies confirmed Jim Trelease’s idea (Trelease, 2006) that one book, one positive reading experience (called a “home run” book), can create a reading habit (Von Spreckelsen, Kim, and Krashen, 2000; Kim and Krashen, 2000; Ujiie and Krashen, 2002). Research has also confirmed another Trelease idea, that read-alouds and free reading are “natural partners” in that read-alouds stimulate interest in independent reading, as well as provide some of the linguistic tools that make reading more comprehensible (Trelease, 2006).

Wang and Lee (2007) observed children in EFL classes in Taiwan who had clearly enjoyed hearing series books such as the Marvin Redford series read aloud. This led to an eagerness to read books from the same series on their own during SSR time. Lee, Hsieh and Wang (2009) examined the texts using in Wang and Lee and compared them to assigned pedagogical texts. The 65 storybooks the class used over four years provided a richer source of vocabulary than the textbooks did, including 2000 different words, with twice as many nouns and three times as many verbs and adjectives as the textbooks, suggesting that comprehensible authentic material may be much better for language acquisition and literacy development than traditional texts.

Replicating earlier research, Ujiie and Krashen (2006) reported that children do not typically value prize-winning books: Examination of library records showed that very few Newbury or Caldecott winners were among the children’s books most taken out of public library, even though the prize-winning books had slightly lower readability levels. Ujiie and Krashen (2002) also reported that few of the “home run” books children mentioned were prize-winners.

It’s the story

A case history by Christy Lao (Lao and Krashen, 2008) turned our attention to the power of story. Daniel, a 12-year-old heritage language speaker of Mandarin, was clearly not interested in the classroom activities of his summer Mandarin immersion class, nor did he show any special desire to improve his Mandarin. All this changed when the director of the program gave him a book from the Ah Fan Ti series to take home. Daniel loved the stories, which were too hard for him to read on his own. He made a deal with his mother: Daniel would do the dishes while his mother read him stories from the Ah Fan Ti series. Daniel’s Mandarin started to improve again, thanks to the stories, but this was irrelevant to him. He was only interested in the stories.
Access!!

The research of the last decade on the impact of libraries has repeatedly demonstrated the overwhelming importance of access to books, that more access to books results in more reading. Keith Curry Lance and colleagues, as well as others, have confirmed that better school libraries and staffing mean higher reading scores at the state level (Lance, 2004). At the national level, studies show that states with better school and public libraries have higher fourth grade reading scores on a national reading test, the NAEP. This was originally established in the 1990’s (McQuillan, 1998), and replicated recently (Krashen, Lee and McQuillan, 2008). Table 1, from Krashen, Lee and McQuillan (2008), shows that access to books (defined here as books per student in school libraries and per capita total circulation in public libraries in each state) was a significant predictor of fourth grade NAEP scores, even when poverty was controlled. A comparison of the betas shows that the effect of access is nearly as strong as the effect of poverty.

The r2 of .65 means that if we know the poverty level of a state and the status of school and public libraries, this amounts to 65% of the information we need to predict the state’s fourth grade NAEP scores. This is an astounding result. (To control for the impact of limited English proficiency we included only fluent English speakers in this analysis. This was not possible in earlier studies because separate scores for English learners and fluent English speakers were not available. Criteria for including English learners vary from state to state, and it is likely that many English learners who take the NAEP cannot show their full proficiency in reading on the test.)

Table 1: Predictors of NAEP Grade 4, 2007, 51 States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>-0.919</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r2 = .6468</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Fluent English proficient students only
From: Krashen, Lee and McQuillan (2008)

Perhaps even more astounding is an analysis of fourth grade reading scores in 40 countries, using data from PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study). Table 2 presents one analysis from Krashen, Lee and McQuillan (2008).

Table 2: Predictors of Grade 4 Reading Scores in 40 Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>-0.186</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

r2 = .63
From: Krashen, Lee and McQuillan (2008)

Table 2 tells us that poverty, as is always the case of studies of this kind, was a strong predictor of reading ability. SSR in Table 2 stands for the percentage of students in each country who participated in sustained silent reading programs in school: Students in countries that utilized more sustained silent reading tended to do better in reading. This result fell just short of the usual standard for statistical significance, but the positive relationship between SSR and reading proficiency is consistent with the results of in-school self-selected reading programs discussed earlier.

“Library” in Table 2 means the percentage of schools in each country with school libraries containing more than 500 books. “Library” is a very strong predictor of reading scores, nearly as strong as the effect of poverty (compare the betas). This is remarkable. Not only is the effect of libraries in this study consistent with other reports, it is once again independent of the effect of poverty. It is well-established that children of poverty have less access to books at home and in their communities (Krashen, 2004). The results of our analysis suggest that good libraries can help alleviate at least some of the problems caused by poverty.

The final predictor is the amount of formal instruction in reading that children receive in each country. The beta is negative: More time devoted to instruction is associated with lower fourth grade reading scores. This predictor fell just short of statistical significance. My hunch is that a little reading instruction is beneficial, but after a point it is ineffective and counterproductive. The r2 is .63, nearly exactly the same as the r2 for the US study in Table 1. Thus, if we know the level of poverty of a country, the percentage of children who are in sustained silent reading programs, the percentage of schools with libraries with more than 500 volumes, and the amount of time devoted to formal reading instruction, we have 63% of the information we need to predict that country’s grade four reading scores. This is impressive.

Once again, reading is the clear winner in predicting reading test scores: High poverty means less access to reading material outside of school, SSR means of course more reading, which also encourages reading outside of school, and a good school library means more access to books.
Conclusion

Self-selected free voluntary reading appears to work for everybody, for children, teenagers and adults, and for first and second language acquirers. Self-selected reading is, in my view, the missing element in ESL/bilingual programs. It can contribute powerfully in all stages.

It is widely acknowledged that literacy transfers across languages, that developing literacy in the child’s first language provides a shortcut to developing literacy in the second language. The evidence for this consists of case histories of children as well as studies showing positive correlations between reading ability in the first and second languages. These correlations, however, were done with reading scores in the same grade. What we really want to know is if better reading in the first language in early years results in better reading in the second language later on. This was demonstrated by Dow, Krashen and Tinajero (in press). Children who read better in Spanish in grade 2 read better in English in grade 6 (r = .52).

As argued elsewhere, free reading has a powerful role to play in heritage language development as well (see especially Tse, 2001). The problem we face is that so many of the children in ESL and bilingual programs are children of poverty. According to the most recent census, about 60% of language minority children are classified as “poor” or “near poor,” compared to about 37% of non-language minority children (National Center for Educational Statistics, http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/2009/section1/indicator08.asp; See table A-8-2). As noted earlier, children of poverty have access to few books in their communities and at home (Krashen, 2004) and their access to books in the primary language is especially poor (Pucci, 1994). This means that it is crucially important that these children are given access to a wide range of reading material, in both languages. For children of poverty, school libraries and classroom libraries are often the only places this can happen.

An important caveat

Free voluntary reading will not be enough to bring most readers to the highest level of academic language competence. Rather, it is the missing link, the bridge between conversational language and academic language (for a review of linguistic evidence, see Krashen, 2004): It will bring readers to the point where they can begin to understand more challenging, difficult texts. A high school freshman who has read dozens of the Sweet Valley High novels, the Twilight series, and a few of the Fearless novels will have a much easier time understanding a world history text than a freshman who has not done this reading. To be sure, academic prose and fiction are different styles, but there is considerable overlap, enough for “light reading” to make a profound contribution to the development of academic language.

For the acquisition of academic language, free reading needs to be supplemented, but not with more grammar or writing activities (see Mason, 2004, K. Smith, 2006, cited above, and arguments against the grammar and output options in Krashen (2003). It needs to be supplemented with additional reading.
Selected References


Progress Monitoring for California English Learners

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- Proficiency: Assessments provide an ELD proficiency level (1-5) to help monitor progress
- Instruction: Instructional Guidance provides lessons and intervention activities tailored for ELs

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Dear CABE Voting Members:

We would like to inform you that CABE has gone “green” for all board elections. The CABE Board approved the full transition to electronic balloting effective with the 2010 election. All voting members with emails on file will be casting votes electronically. As you know CABE has a two step process: nominations and then election. You will be receiving an e-mail invitation to execute your electronic nomination and election ballots. The e-ballot notification messages will include a hyperlink to your personalized ballot and you can submit your nominations and then your votes for the candidates electronically. Each candidate’s name on the ballot will have a hyperlink to the candidate’s biographical statement. This information will also be posted on the CABE website at www.bilingualeducation.org. The e-mail notification will be sent by VoteNet, CABE’s independent election agent.

If you do not have an email address or cannot participate electronically, please contact CABE e-mail at info@bilingualeducation.org or by phone at (626) 814-4441. A special printed ballot will be prepared for eligible members who do not have an email address on file with CABE headquarters. Remember you must be a member in good standing by February 28, 2010 to participate in board member elections in 2010 and any candidate running for office must be nominated by a minimum of five members in good standing to be placed on the ballot.

CABE Election Calendar 2010

February 28, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections-Members in good standing with dues current as of this date are eligible to nominate candidates and/or vote.

March 22, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections – Nomination ballots are emailed/mailed to all members in good standing.

April 5, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections – Due date for all nomination ballots.

April 12, 2010  Nomination Ballots Counted and candidates are notified accordingly.

April 21, 2010  Candidate Statements due to Headquarters to be included in Ballot.

May 10, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections – Election ballots are emailed/mailed to members in good standing.

May 24, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections – Due date for all election ballots.

June 1, 2010  CABE Executive Board Elections – Ballots are counted and all candidates are notified accordingly.

June 26, 2010  CABE Board Installation and Transitional Board Meeting.
Dora the Explorer: America’s Bilingual Role Model

By Mariana Diaz-Wionczek, Director of Research and Development, Valeria Lovelace, Research and Curriculum Development Consultant, and Carlos Cortés, Creative and Cultural Advisor, for Dora the Explorer and Go, Diego, Go!
When Dora the Explorer opens her mouth to speak, American viewers know that words will come out. But in what language? Sometimes English; sometimes Spanish; always joyous in either language. Because Dora is bilingual, proudly so. She is truly America’s pre-school champion of bilingualism. From its August 14, 2000, television debut on Nickelodeon, Dora the Explorer has become one of the most-watched pre-school television shows in the United States and wildly popular around the world. A true social phenomenon, Dora graced the cover of the November 11, 2002, issue of Newsweek. “Dora the Explorer Live,” which opened in 2003, became the Radio City Music Hall’s all-time highest-grossing family show. When Dora appeared in the 2005 Macy’s Thanksgiving Day Parade, she represented its first Latina character. Beyond this, Dora has received numerous awards, including the Peabody, Gracie Allen, ALMA, Imagen, Latino Spirit, and NAACP Image awards. Reflecting Dora’s penetration into popular culture, she even earned being parodied on Saturday Night Live.

**The Development of Dora**

Dora may have gained her greatest renown as America’s pre-school Spanish teacher and emissary of bilingualism. However, the show is far more than a series with a bilingual Latina hero. In fact, it is a highly complex show that seamlessly combines entertainment with education. Dora was developed through an intensive multi-year process involving both creative and research teams. These teams considered various program concepts and developed a pre-school curriculum based on Howard Gardner’s multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993).

Throughout each season’s development and production process, the research team conducts systematic investigation and testing with pre-school children from varied racial, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds, with the creative team making program changes based on their responses. In addition, the project continuously incorporates the advice of educational, language, cultural, music, and other types of consultants.

**Program Structure**

Central to Dora is its narrative structure. To capture and hold viewer attention, each episode involves a high-stakes adventure. Throughout the adventure, viewers are asked to help Dora overcome a series of structured challenges in order to reach her ultimate goal. As explained by co-creator and co-executive producer Chris Gifford, “We wanted to create a show that teaches little kids problem-solving skills...strategies like stopping to think, asking for help, and using what you know are modeled in every Dora show” (Nick Jr., 2000).

Central to the show’s success, of course, is the charm and vivacity of its inquisitive, active, determined, bilingual, problem-solving female lead character, seven-year-old Dora Marquez (named in honor of Colombian author Gabriel Garcia Márquez). Encouraged by her familia, she models the importance of dedicating yourself to the task at hand. Moreover, she addresses challenges with careful observation, clear logic, and evidence-based decision-making, while encouraging viewers to join her in her adventures. The paucity of strong female role models on children’s television, particularly Latina role models, has helped make Dora a welcome addition. One recent textual analysis concluded that Dora is changing the face of children’s television while empowering preschoolers, girls, and Latinas in particular. Not only does she encourage them to use her “magic” Spanish words to save the day, but she also uses her gaze and pleas for viewer help to involve her fans (Ryan, in press).

**The Use of Spanish**

English serves as the show’s primary language. Yet what has made the series linguistically notable is that it also encourages and facilitates the learning of Spanish. While the Spanish-teaching dimension of the show benefits children of all backgrounds, it provides a special source of identity for our nation’s growing Latino population. (For a sociolinguistic analysis, see Masi de Casanova, 2007).

The use of Spanish in Dora did not come about accidentally. Rather it developed through a serious consideration of options, the weighing of different perspectives, and a set of decisions that reflected both pedagogical and social concerns. According to Valeria Lovelace, Dora’s Research and Curriculum Development Consultant, “In the initial stages of script development, Dora’s main role was to translate for monolingual Spanish-speaking characters. Based on advice from consultants, her role was dramatically expanded so that she used her bilingualism in more multidimensional ways and as an assertion of pride in being Latina (Lovelace, 2009).”

In a magical world inhabited mainly by monolinguals, Dora became the embodiment of the value of speaking more than one language. As such, she became the series’ linguistic and cultural bridge builder between English and Spanish monolingual characters, as well as an implicit role model of cultural pride (for all people), respect for diversity, and the richness of living in a multicultural world.

In developing Dora’s approach to Spanish, at least four major questions had to be addressed:

1. How can Spanish be integrated to establish the general tone of the series?
2. How can the principle of social equity be maintained in the use of languages — both Spanish and English — throughout the series?
3. What pedagogical strategies can be used to most effectively heighten viewer learning of Spanish?
4. How can the show continuously deliver its underlying message, “It’s good to be bilingual”?

“We wanted to create a show that teaches little kids problem-solving skills...strategies like stopping to think, asking for help, and using what you know are modeled in every Dora show” (Nick Jr., 2000).
**Tone: How can Spanish be integrated to establish the general tone of the series?**

*Dora’s* high-stakes adventure takes place in a magical world replete with Latino touches -- Spanish language, Latino-themed music, dichos (Latino sayings and proverbs), *Dora’s* warm, embracing Latino extended familia, and Latino settings with people who reflect Latin America’s racial and ethnic diversity. The series highlights *Dora* as pan-Latino rather than emphasizing a specific Latino national origin (Harewood & Valdivia, 2005). Moreover, it emphasizes universal Spanish words and expressions rather than those reflecting only a specific national origin. Language consultant Argentina Ziegler has insured that the Spanish used in the series is appropriate for all Latino cultures. For example, “Claro que sí” and “Por supuesto” are used rather than expressions such as “Seguro,” which can be interpreted as meaning secure, safe, or sure.

Spanish is used in two ways. First, certain words and expressions are targeted in the Spanish-language curriculum developed for each season. They are explicitly taught and repeated across episodes.

Second, some words and expressions (such as greetings, casual responses, conversational words, and expressions exchanged between characters) are used but not explicitly taught. Sometimes they are repeated from episode to episode. Such words and phrases include “vámonos,” “qué lindo,” “hola,” “hasta luego,” and “salud.” “Vámonos” even became a central part of *Dora*’s daily travel song. While these words are not specifically included in the curriculum, it is felt that they might become part of viewers working Spanish vocabulary through repeated hearing and usage. Viewers might informally learn some of those expressions through repetition and, equally important, they should become more comfortable being around languages that they do not fully comprehend.

**Equity: How can the principle of social equity be maintained in the use of languages — both Spanish and English — throughout the series?**

Spanish and English are presented in a way that affirms both languages as rich systems of communication. When the same word is spoken in both Spanish and English, Spanish is sometimes used first, while at other times English is used first. This indicates that both languages are valuable and worthy of respect. Spanish is not presented as a translation of English. Rather it is rightfully treated as a language that refers directly to the viewer’s world. Carlos Cortés, *Dora*’s Creative and Cultural Advisor, remembers the extended discussion about language equity. “We decided to avoid such expressions as ‘Dos is the Spanish word for two.’ Instead, ‘dos’ and ‘two’ are both used to refer directly to a number or to a pair of items on screen, while ‘azul’ and ‘rojo’ always refer directly to on-screen colors rather than to the words, ‘blue’ and ‘red’ (Cortés, 2009).”

**Pedagogy: What pedagogical strategies can be used to most effectively heighten viewer learning of Spanish?**

For each year’s series, an underlying Spanish curriculum is developed — target words and phrases intended for viewers to learn, practice, and become comfortable in using. To provide reinforcement across episodes, the series emphasizes the repetition of selected words and expressions. As the series has progressed, there has been an increased teaching of longer expressions rather than just single words and the addition of action-related words like “ayúdenme,” “salta” and “sube.”

In every episode, viewers are asked to draw upon their linguistic intelligence by saying a word or phrase in Spanish to help *Dora* solve a problem. Usually this occurs in a high-stakes situation that requires *Dora* to use her Spanish-language abilities and motivates children to say (or attempt to say) the new word or phrase with her or immediately after her. In some cases Spanish becomes one of the driving forces for the entire episode, such as “The Chocolate Tree,” in which viewers learn to sing “bate, bate, chocolate.”

As a fluent bilingual character, *Dora* can communicate with both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking monolingual characters and serve as a linguistic bridge between the situation and the viewer. Then she proceeds to teach viewers the Spanish word or phrase required to solve the problem and asks them to say the phrase with her or after her. With the help of viewers’ responding in Spanish, the situation is resolved and the adventure continues. *Dora* thanks the viewer and reinforces their success by lauding them, “Great speaking Spanish.”
Some characters, most obviously Dora, are Spanish-English bilinguals; some only speak English (for example, Boots and Benny) and some only speak Spanish (for example, Tico). While the series champions the value of being bilingual, it also demonstrates that monolinguals can learn other languages. The series places special emphasis on the natural learning of language, such as by showing Spanish-speaking Tico learning to speak a bit of English and English-speaking Boots learning to speak a bit of Spanish, thereby encouraging viewers of both language backgrounds. In strengthening this dimension of the series, experienced dual language educators were consulted.

At times Spanish is used without presenting the same idea in English. Those untranslated interjections come in various forms: for example, greetings (buenos días); instructions (corran); exclamations (qué grande, qué divertido, qué día tan chistoso); and expressions of endearment (mis lindos bebés). In this way, the series encourages viewers to try to make sense of Spanish by observing both the context in which the language is used and the things to which words refer. This approach also helps viewers develop greater comfort in everyday life when hearing a language they do not fully understand.

Our internal research as well as letters from parents have revealed a rewarding trend. Over time Dora watchers have become more comfortable about hearing and using a second language. One mother related a story about trying to explain to her Spanish-speaking babysitter to get a salad bowl from the bottom drawer. When the babysitter opened the second to last drawer and the mother’s “no, lower” drew no response, her Dora-watching little son interjected, “Just say ‘más abajo.’” Misión cumplida.

**The Value of Bilingualism: How can the show continuously deliver its underlying message, “It’s good to be bilingual”?**

Dora does not merely teach some Spanish to young viewers. The series also sends a continuous message of 21st-century empowerment — that it’s good to be bilingual. The shows create situations in which Spanish becomes necessary. At such times Dora and viewers must use Spanish to overcome obstacles and meet challenges. In other circumstances, Dora needs both Spanish and English to facilitate communication between monolingual English and Spanish speakers.

Bilingual and cross-culturally flexible, Dora draws upon her knowledge of both Spanish and English to overcome challenges and foster communication among monolingual characters. As a cross-cultural bridge-builder, she fosters teamwork among her diverse compatriots. Through her actions, Dora personifies models, and reinforces a basic message of the series — you will have more opportunities in life if you learn to speak more than one language and develop an understanding of different cultures.

**Dora: A Symbol of the Future**

There has been growing global recognition of the value of knowing more than one language. Globalization has increasingly brought together people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, putting a premium on bilingual skills and cross-cultural abilities. When shown in non-English-speaking countries, Dora primarily speaks the language of that nation and secondarily speaks English. By personifying and exemplifying bilingual facility and cross-cultural leadership, Dora has touched a chord among young viewers, who seem to have intuitively grasped the excitement and value of learning to speak more than one language.

Some episodes place special emphasis on Dora’s cross-cultural Interpersonal intelligence, as she meets young friends of different cultural backgrounds. In the process, she learns cultural knowledge, skills, and practices from her friends. And she also applies this new learning to solving problems that confront her, illustrating the importance of intercultural understanding.

As Mariana Diaz-Wionczek, Director of Research and Development for *Dora* and *Diego*, recalls, “We wanted Dora to embody respectful curiosity for other cultures. Dora has moved beyond being a problem solver in her own magical land to becoming an ambassador to the world (Diaz-Wionczek, 2008).”

Globalization has increasingly brought together people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, putting a premium on bilingual skills and cross-cultural abilities.

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The growth in immigrant communities in the U.S. is evidenced by the increased enrollment of children whose primary language is other than English. California serves the most diverse and largest immigrant communities in the United States, with almost one out of four children enrolled in grades K-12 coming from immigrant families. Immigrant parents also face the loss of language and culture within their homes as their children assimilate the American culture and language. To combat this loss, parents seek educational opportunities within their own communities that promote their family’s primary language and culture.

Immigrant parents tend to congregate in small communities within large cities across the country. These communities act as sanctuaries for immigrant culture and language. When stepping outside these sanctuaries, immigrants face the difficult task of acclimating to a different culture and language. For many immigrant parents, acclimating is a daily routine as they go from home to work and home again. For their children, some U.S. born, their ethnic communities also may be their primary sanctuary. As they learn more about the American culture and the English language, they may move away, leaving the older generation to maintain the stability of their communities. These communities, however, can collapse if the children move away and do not return to strengthen them.

Some communities offer language and cultural programs after school or on the weekends. These itinerant programs provide instruction to children who do not know the parent’s primary language adequately or are bilingual and need first-language maintenance. Where there is no quality public program, parents who are financially able enroll their children in private schools that offer intensive language programs. In these settings immigrant parents become advocates of language programs and enthusiastic fundraisers. Through this fundraising, they help ensure the longevity and success of these primary language programs that benefit their children. Within public education, the program model that attracts parents across ethnicities, including English-dominant parents, is the dual-language immersion (DLI) program. DLI programs provide a structure where children, who speak the program’s target language, interact alongside children who are English dominant as they learn each other’s language side-by-side.
Successful DLI programs report high levels of parent involvement, including immigrant parents. This is important information for schools struggling to find ways to teach large numbers of non-English speakers. Promoting increased immigrant parent involvement creates winners: student achievement increases, staff satisfaction increases, and parent satisfaction increases. Immigrant parents are strong partners. When visiting a successful DLI program, one quickly notices large numbers of parent volunteers serving in a variety of roles at the school. These parents support daily instruction, provide advocacy for the DLI program at the school and district levels, and invest their time and resources in ensuring that the program is successful. As regular volunteers, parents help teachers, students, and other parents improve the quality of the DLI program. As advocates, they assist the school and the district with decisions that impact the program. These decisions may include assisting with selecting high-quality instructional materials; assisting administrators with recruiting bilingual teachers and maintaining teacher quality; and influencing school and district governance and policy by participating on site councils (SSC), site English Language Advisory Councils (ELAC), District Advisory Councils (DAC), and serving on the Board of Trustees in some cases.

Immigrant Parent Involvement

A review of the literature revealed an extensive body of research on parent involvement in schools. The research conducted by Joyce Epstein in the 1980's and '90's was especially important in raising schools’ awareness that there were levels of parent involvement as well as indicators of involvement at each level. These levels included parenting, communication, volunteering, home support, advocacy, and community involvement. Subsequently, the Epstein research led to the creation of The Center on Schools, Family and Community Partnerships at Johns Hopkins University, and the National Network of Partnership Schools. There is also ample research on Hispanic parent involvement, mostly in bilingual and Structured English Immersion programs, but there are few studies that focus on Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parent involvement in DLI programs.
A 2009 study, conducted by the author, of three successful K-5 DLI programs located in northern California identified significant factors that promote or prevent immigrant parents from becoming involved in their children's schools. The study looked at the types of involvement by immigrant parents in the optimal settings of a DLI program. Prior to this study, it was unclear why Korean, Chinese, and Hispanic, parents enrolled their children in DLI programs. It was also unclear how Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents chose to communicate with staff, what factors affected their degree of involvement, and what factors affected their level of leadership. One unknown was how English-dominant parent involvement influenced immigrant parent involvement. Another unknown was the choices Chinese, Korean and Hispanic parents made as to: type of involvement in DLI programs; how they communicated with staff; how they helped with program and resources; and how they advocated for the program.

The purpose of this study was to identify similarities and differences in the frequency and type of parent involvement by Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents and the English-dominant parents at each site. Additionally, the study looked for significant differences between the three immigrant parent groups in frequency and type of parent involvement they chose to provide at their schools. Both case study and causal-comparative (ex post facto) methodologies were used to gather data. Chinese, Korean, Hispanic and English-dominant parents completed questionnaires and participated in focus group interviews. Questionnaires were available in the parents' primary languages. Interviews were conducted in the parent’s primary language to allow clear communication. English-dominant parents were interviewed separately. This allowed immigrant parents more freedom to express themselves in their own interviews. Additionally, school newsletters, parent organizational records, Site Council and English Language parent Advisory Committee meetings provided supporting data.

**Enrollment and Program Expectations**

Although Chinese, Korean and Hispanic parents felt that their DLI program was the best program for their children, they differed in their reasons for enrollment. Korean parents were more likely to rely on their friends’ opinions of DLI programs more than on their family’s opinions. All three immigrant parent groups had high expectations that their children would be more successful as a result of becoming bilingual, but Korean and Chinese parents placed more emphasis on bilingual success than Hispanic parents, who placed more value on family communications. Chinese parents placed the highest expectations on the program’s ability to prepare their children for the workplace with an edge over children who are not bilingual.

**Communication and Involvement at School**

The three immigrant parent groups in this study exhibited lower levels of communication with school staff than the English-dominant parents at their site. Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents avoided using four communication choices commonly used by parents in U.S. schools. such as calling on the phone, writing a
note or visiting the classroom. There were differences, however, in the type of communication each group preferred regardless of frequency.

Korean parents preferred to write notes to the school. Hispanic parents preferred asking for face-to-face meetings with the teacher. Chinese parents showed lower levels of communication regardless of type than any of the other parent groups. Immigrant parents in this study; however, did attend school events such as Back to School Night, Open House, bi-annual parent-teacher conferences, student-parent events, and parent workshops, but not as frequently as English-dominant parents. Yet, Chinese and Hispanic parents were more likely to attend Back to School Night, Open House, student-parent events, and parent workshops compared to Korean parents. Hispanic parents reported the highest level of attendance at parent workshops, even higher than English-dominant parents.

Volunteering and Becoming Leaders

In all cultures, there are leaders and followers. Even within immigrant communities, there are parents who seize opportunity and take risks to increase their own and their children’s capacity to succeed in the new culture and there are those who don’t. This study found that Chinese parents were the least likely to help teachers in the classroom. English-dominant parents were most likely to help teachers in the classroom. Korean parents reported the highest rate of student assistance, but focused on helping students learn the Korean language and culture. Hispanic parents liked to take direction from the teacher when helping. Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents reported lower rates of involvement in helping with school-based parent activities than English-dominant parents. Korean parents, though, were more willing to interact with their English-dominant counterparts than Chinese and Hispanic parents. They were proud to provide Korean cooking lessons to English-dominant parents at their site. Hispanic parents participated on school governance teams such as Site Council and ELAC significantly less than the other three parent groups in this study.

Factors that Impact Immigrant Parent Involvement

Of twelve factors assessed by this study, there were six that Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents identified as significant barriers to parent involvement. Hispanic parents reported that they had more difficulty taking time off work than Chinese, Korean, and English-dominant parents. Korean parents reported that taking time to volunteer at school was also difficult. Many Korean families helped run a small business and volunteering in school may create a financial impact.4

One would expect high levels of cultural awareness and sensitivity by the staff of a DLI program. However, Chinese, Korean, and Hispanic parents reported lower levels of feeling welcomed at school than English-dominant parents in this study. Chinese parents also reported lower rates of satisfaction than their English dominant peers that school staff valued their culture. The three immigrant parent groups reported that school staff sought their involvement, including attending parent events and workshops, less frequently than English-dominant parents. Korean parents reported the lowest rate of satisfaction.

The Importance of Cultural Competency

Some of the barriers to involvement identified by immigrant parents in this study point to lower levels of staff cultural competency than expected in a DLI program. This may help explain the differences found between the three immigrant parent groups and their English-dominant counterparts in this study. It was surprising to find that Spanish-dominant parents reported the lowest satisfaction rate for feeling welcomed at the Spanish-English DLI program site where teachers, some office staff, and the principal are bilingual.
This finding indicates that there may be other reasons than language affecting their responses. When conducting research, paying attention to cultural differences is important. Some research studies reviewed by this study grouped Chinese and Korean parents together, assuming that these two ethnic minority parent groups have interchangeable characteristics and presuming that as "Asian" they were synonymous. This study, however, looked at the Korean- and Cantonese-dominant parents as two separate and distinct groups just as they are different from English-dominant parents. Although their cultures may share distant roots, they have evolved separately over time and developed sharp differences in their roles as parents and as first teachers for their children.

As China increases its influence in global markets, one might presume that American parents would want to enroll their children in a Chinese language program to provide them with lucrative career and bilingual opportunities. This study, however, found that this was not a factor influencing English-dominant parents enrolling their children in the Cantonese-English DLI program. Instead, they reported that they enrolled their children in the DLI program to help them develop an appreciation for the Chinese culture.

Conclusion

The three DLI programs in this study have shown various degrees of success in helping their immigrant parents’ access opportunities to volunteer, build leadership capacity, and become DLI program advocates. DLI programs that hope to reach high levels of achievement and parent involvement would do well to study effective practices that involve immigrant parents as found in the DLI programs in this study. DLI programs should evaluate and revise their parent involvement programs to provide opportunities for parent involvement and leadership and achieve the best balance they can while maintaining cultural sensitivity to the needs of all parents.

Endnotes

1 http://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/


The Diminishing Returns of High Stakes Exit Exams for English Learners

By Candace Kelly-Hodge, Ph.D and Adelina Alegria, Ph.D.

For the last 90 years California has been home to the largest immigrant population in the country. This waned in the 1990’s (Bohn, 2009) for all new immigrants between 18 to 64 years old when the percentage choosing California as home declined from 34.9% (during 1985 to 1990) to 19.3% (during 2004 to 2007). However, within this decline an important trend has developed in that the proportion of new highly educated immigrants exceeded that of less educated immigrants for the first time in recent history (70% had at least a high school education of which 35% were college graduates). According to Bohn, “Changes in the educational composition of California’s immigrants may forecast changes in resource needs for the state, for example bilingual education (p. 18, 2009).” The author adds that education is just one of several characteristics of new immigrants. In sum, although the percent of new immigrants choosing California is declining, the number of California immigrants ebbs forward such that in 1990 there were 4,933,152 new immigrants compared to 8,083,580 in 2007 (Bohn, 2009).

For the California school age population enrollment declined in 2007-2008, driven by real estate foreclosures in many counties such as Riverside and San Bernardino where, “The slump in the housing market and the region’s high foreclosure rate are largely to blame” according to Riverside County Superintendent Kenn Young’s annual State of Education address last year (Parsavand, 2009). This decrease, interestingly enough, was preceded by a downward trend observed in 2005-2006, the initial year that the CASHEE took effect. Between 2003 and 2009, the change in the enrollment each year for ELs totaled -84,467, and the change in enrollment each year for all students totaled -70,110 from 2005 through 2009.

This article examines the change in the number of English Learners (ELs) matriculating through California schools during the recently enacted California High School Exit Exam or CAHSEE. Although high school exit exams or HSEEs are known to increase test scores, and API scores are higher when principals report that they develop strategies based on CAHSEE results (Adamson, Carnoy, Addy, Ricalde, & Rhodes, 2007) there are a number of negative consequences particularly for a state whose EL population reaches 95% in some of the biggest urban school districts in the United States.
Figure 1 shows that the annual change in enrollment for both groups decreased in 2005-2006. For the EL students, the decrease in annual enrollment was -21,101, and then along with the fiscal crisis there was a severe drop of -38,016. Similarly for all students, the annual enrollment decreased by -25,493 following the CAHSEE, and another decrease in annual enrollment of -23,438 occurred in 2008-2009.

In addition to the fluctuations due to children and group sizes, and the onslaught of the financial crisis, these researchers would like to suggest that the inception of the CAHSEE in 2005-2006 has affected the school age population, especially ELs. It is reasonable that the school population sustain losses to some extent because of it. In fact, underperforming students are held back as early as ninth grade in order to prepare for high school exit exams as cited by Hong & Youngs (2008, p. 9), and retention in 9th and 10th grade is reported to be a predictor of students who fail to graduate (News briefs, 2006). In addition, in certain large school systems, more than half the students drop out according to Thomas and Dale (Rycik, 2007) due to reform agendas. Other research on HSEEs found that there is a 2.1% lower rate of graduation when states adopt rigorous HSEEs (Warren, Jenkins, & Kulick, 2006, p. 146). The decrease in high school progression rates occurs at a higher rate for Hispanic students (Borg, Plumlee, & Stranahan, 2007), and it is extremely difficult for newly redesignated students seeking school gradation (Garcia & Gopal, 2003; Hong et al., 2008).

Since 1979 a growing number of states have required students to pass a High School Exit Exam (HSEE) before receiving a diploma. Initiated in New York in 1979, there were 23 states with an HSEE in place in 2006, and so nearly half of all American high school students face graduating exam requirements today (Warren et al. 2006). It is an open debate whether these exams pose greater harm or benefit (Hong et al. 2008). It has been estimated that approximately 42,000 U.S. students did not receive a diploma who otherwise would have a diploma had there not been an HSEE in place. Of these non-graduating students, 1,600 were estimated to have obtained a General Education Degree who otherwise would not have needed one (Warren et al., 2006). According to Garcia and Gopal (2003) “Anecdotal evidence suggests students who fail exit exams are redirected to other educational institutions such as adult school, community colleges or vocational schools (p. 137).” According to a Stanford economist specializing in education policy, Carnoy (2005) writes:

Whereas the results are weak, they do provide evidence that strong state accountability does not systematically raise graduation and progression rates, an important measure of the success of an education policy initiative. We observe states such as California, North Carolina, Maryland, and Texas, whose progression and graduation rates have risen substantially since the mid-1990s. They are all strong accountability states. But other strong accountability states, such as New Mexico and New York, have not realized improved rates (p. 29).

Carnoy’s results from his 2005 article are supported by the surge in drop-outs in California. Table 1 displays the number of dropouts for EL students and for all students. You can see that the number of EL dropouts rose and continues to rise after the CAHSEE took effect. This is also true for the number of dropouts for all students.

“...students who passed CAHSEE had wide variability in performance on the grade level California Standards Test, rendering CAHSEE achievement levels as unreliable indicators of increased achievement” (p. 136, Garcia et al., 2003).
Even more troublesome than the dropouts in California, is the change in the number of students classified as Fluent English Proficient or FEP. Figure 2 displays the difference in the number of FEP students annually. After the CAHSEE exam in 2005-06, there was a decline of 36% in students identified as fluent as shown by the change from 59,376 in 2005-06 to 37,533 in 2008-09. Less FEP students may be due, in part, to a decrease in the pool of EL students from which the FEP students originate.

What is more, according to a study of the relationship of the CAHSEE to state achievement tests, 54% of ELs scoring Advanced on the CELDT passed the English language arts portion of the CAHSEE; but only 17% of ELs scoring Advanced on the CELDT passed the math section of the CAHSEE. For ELs scoring at the Beginning level on the CELDT, 7% (4%) passed the English language arts (math) section. This study utilized data from 5,100 ninth graders in a diverse school district to report inconsistent passage rates on the CAHSEE within each language proficiency level stating that, “Yet students who passed CAHSEE had wide variability in performance on the grade level California Standards Test, rendering CAHSEE achievement levels as unreliable indicators of increased achievement” (p. 136, Garcia et al., 2003).

Table 1. California Dropouts by Year, Grades 9 -12

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EL Dropouts</td>
<td>17,089</td>
<td>16,066</td>
<td>22,234</td>
<td>27,294</td>
<td>25,316</td>
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<td>All Dropouts</td>
<td>60,043</td>
<td>57,918</td>
<td>65,690</td>
<td>109,011</td>
<td>98,420</td>
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Source: California Department of Education, Dataquest

Today therefore, our concerns are great. English Learners are one of the most vulnerable subgroups in high-stakes testing. With a growing number of school districts requiring HSEEs, many students will not graduate with a diploma this year, and disproportionately impact poor and linguistically diverse school populations. Yet research has given scant attention to ELs since the inception of HSEEs. The 2008 CAHSEE indicated that only 24% of ELs passed the math section, and only 21% passed the English language arts section. In addition, the passing rates for all students were not much higher, 31% and 30% respectively (Dataquest, 2008).
The CAHSEE is relatively new to California, and likewise HSEEs are relatively new to states across the nation. The number of EL students decreased by 83,460 since 2003, and nationally, EL students registered instable numbers, such as -30,822 in 2004 and -44,989 in 2006 (U.S. Department of Education, National Clearinghouse on English Language Acquisition). We view these shifts with suspicion because they occur in association with the advent of high school exit exams. It is a national issue recognized by the educational assessment field, where there is a call for research focusing on accommodations and modifications of high stakes tests for English Learners. The United States Government Accounting Office (2006) recommended that the Secretary of Education:

1. Support additional research on accommodations
2. Identify and provide additional technical support states need to ensure the validity and reliability of academic assessments for these students,
3. Publish more detailed guidance on assessing the English language proficiency of these students, and
4. Explore ways to provide additional flexibility with respect to measuring annual progress for these students (p. 6).

In conclusion, this article spotlights some of the issues that need to be positioned front and center to inform policy and to accurately interpret the hurdles English learners face with respect to HSEEs. If we are to increase the number and quality of high school graduates in California, we must more critically consider the consequences of HSEEs.

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Stephanie Gómez
Ganadora de la Beca RMHC™/HACER™ de $100,000
Estudiante de Odontología

“Quiero ser dentista porque quiero poner una sonrisa en la cara de las personas de mi comunidad. Y lo estoy logrando gracias a HACER®, el programa de becas universitarias para hispanos de Ronald McDonald House Charities® que, junto con el apoyo de McDonald’s®, ayudan a jóvenes como yo a cumplir nuestros sueños. Con una beca HACER de hasta 100,000 dólares, tú podrías ser el próximo”.

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According to *A New Wave of Evidence: The Impact of School, Family and Community Connections on Student Achievement*, a review of recent research published by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2002), students with involved parents are more likely to:

- Earn higher grades and test scores, and enroll in higher-level programs
- Be promoted, pass their classes and earn credits
- Attend school regularly
- Have better social skills, show improved behavior and adapt well to school
- Graduate and go on to post-secondary education

**Key Findings**

- **Families of all backgrounds are involved at home.** Several studies show that families of all income and education levels, and from all ethnic and cultural groups, are engaged in supporting their children’s learning at home. White, middle-class families, however, tend to be more involved at school. Supporting more involvement at school from all families may be an important strategy for addressing achievement gaps.

- **Programs and special efforts to engage families make a difference.** For example, teacher outreach to parents results in strong, consistent gains in student performance in both reading and math. Effective outreach practices include meeting face to face, sending learning materials home, and keeping in touch about progress. Workshops for parents on helping their children at home are linked to higher reading and math scores. Schools with highly rated partnership programs make greater gains on state tests than schools with lower-rated programs. Practices like these should be included in a school’s parent involvement policy and school-parent compact.

- **Higher-performing schools effectively involve families and community.** Schools that succeed in engaging families from diverse backgrounds share three key practices:
  - Focus on building trusting, collaborative relationships among teachers, families and community members
  - Recognize, respect and address families’ needs, as well as class and cultural differences
  - Embrace a philosophy of partnership where power and responsibility are shared
• **Link the school’s parent involvement efforts to student learning.** Ask how the program or activity will:
  - Help parents know more about what their children are learning?
  - Promote high standards for student work?
  - Help parents assist their children at home?
  - Promote discussion about improving student progress?

  - Include information on standards and exhibits of student work at open houses and back-to-school nights.
  - Engage parents and students in math and reading games at Family Nights. Explain where students’ skills need to be stronger. Use scoring guides while making craft projects, to let parents know how to use them.
  - Use the school newsletter to discuss test results and what students are doing to meet higher standards.
  - Use the annual school and district Report Cards as a chance to have focused conversations with parents and community members about each school’s strengths and weaknesses — and how teachers, parents and community members can work together to make improvements.

• **Match practices to grade levels.** Programs that lead to gains in children’s learning take children’s age and developmental needs into account.

1. **Families with young children:**

   - Home visits from trained parent educators with cultural backgrounds similar to their own, or with knowledge of their culture
   - Lending libraries that offer games and learning materials to build skills at home
   - Discussion groups with other families about children’s learning
   - Classes on how to stimulate their children’s mental, physical and emotional development

2. **Families of elementary and middle school students:**

   - Interactive homework that involves parents with their children’s learning
   - Workshops on topics that parents suggest, like building their children’s vocabulary, positive discipline strategies, and supporting children through crises
   - Regular calls from teachers, not just when there are problems, about how their children are doing in class
   - Learning packets in reading, science and math, with training in how to use them
   - Meetings with teachers to talk about their children’s progress and what they’re learning

3. **Families of high school students:**

   - Regular meetings with teachers and counselors to plan their children’s academic program
   - Information about program options, graduation requirements, test schedules, and post-secondary education options and how to plan for them
   - Information about where to find academic support, such as help with homework, tutoring, after-school programs, and special classes. Include subject areas covered and associated costs.
   - Explanations of courses students should take to be prepared for college or other post-secondary education
   - Information about costs of higher education and applying for financial aid
• **Facilitate transitions.** Children of all ages do better when they make a solid adjustment to school. By adjustment, we mean that students feel comfortable and respected, feel they belong at school, and feel supported by teachers. Here are some practices that research suggests help students adjust as they enter a new school:

  - Offer families and students tours of the school and opportunities to visit and observe in the classrooms.
  - Meet with students and families at the feeder schools or programs to introduce staff, explain the school’s programs, and answer questions.
  - Make home visits the summer before school starts to begin building a relationship with each family.
  - Work with families to prepare children for the next level and help them plan for postsecondary education and a career.

• **Develop families’ sense of confidence and power.** Researchers call this “efficacy.” When parents have a sense of confidence and power, their children do better in school. For example, we want parents to feel they can help their children do well in school, and be happy and safe. We also want parents to feel that they can overcome negative influences on their children (such as violence and drugs), and have a positive impact on the school and neighborhood. Many practices that help empower families, such as these listed here, are required by the No Child Left Behind law.

  - Engage families in planning how they would like to be involved at school.
  - Consult a representative sample of parents and families, not just the PTO leadership, about school policies and proposed actions.
  - Involve families in action research. Ask them to develop and conduct surveys of other families. Invite them to observe in the classroom, review books and materials, and visit other schools to gather ideas.
  - Make it easy for parents to meet and discuss concerns with the principal, talk to teachers and guidance counselors, and examine their children’s school records.
  - Invite families to attend staff development sessions and faculty meetings.
  - Facilitate families’ connections with youth groups and programs for young people.
  - Work with families to help them monitor their children’s activities. Create a school directory, so they can contact other parents.
  - Offer workshops on communicating with their children, about topics they suggest, such as talking with children about drugs, dating, problems with friends or family, and values.

• **Support families’ efforts to improve the school and community.** When parents feel they have the power to change and control their circumstances, their children tend to do better in school. Their parents are also better equipped to help them. When schools work with families to develop their connections, families become powerful allies of the school and advocates for public education.

  - Give families information about how the education system (and local government) works. Make field trips to district offices and school board meetings.
  - Keep voter registration forms and information about local government agencies in the school office or family center. Develop a student-run voter registration drive.
  - Invite candidates for school board and other local offices to speak to families at the school.
  - Open the school to community meetings and collaborate with local organizations that can reach out to and organize parents and community members.
  - Go with families to press local officials about needed funding, programs or law enforcement.
  - Work with families to develop action research skills to document problems in the neighborhood.
  - Invite local banks and businesses to talk with families about their services, loan programs, and employment opportunities.

• **Develop the capacity of school staff to work with families and community members.** All school staff, from the principal to the custodian, can benefit from learning more about how to work effectively with parents and community members. Design educational opportunities for all school staff that:

  - Help staff recognize the advantages of school, family and community connections
  - Explore how to achieve trusting and respectful relationships with families and community members
  - Enhance school staff’s cultural competence to work with diverse families and understand their cultural backgrounds
  - Enable staff to make connections with community resources
  - Identify and train cultural brokers – people who can interpret and explain culture of families and school.
• Work with local after-school programs and supplemental service providers to link their content to what students are learning in class.

  • Form a partnership between after-school program staff and teachers. Encourage them to share ideas and knowledge about the students, observe each other at work, and attend staff development sessions to update and build their teaching skills.
  • Inform supplemental service providers about the school’s curriculum and learning programs (especially math and reading)
  • Share textbooks and other learning materials with program staff.
  • Give program staff information about students’ progress and academic needs

Looking For A Few Good Writers...

CABE’s goal for the Multilingual Educator is to provide CABE members and the wider community relevant, timely information about quality practices and programs for English Language Learners.

**SUBMISSION CRITERIA**

If you have written articles which you would be interested in sharing with our members and community, please consider submitting them for publication. The following are criteria for publication.

1. Submissions must be type written, double-spaced in a clear legible 12-point font (i.e. Arial, Times, Garamond). Please include an electronic copy of your submission saved as a Rich Text Format (RTF) file without tabs or formatting information.

2. Submissions may include, but are not limited to:
   - Current program practice descriptions
   - Parent/Teacher/Student/Community views and experiences (opinion)
   - Policy analysis/discussion
   - Teacher ideas, lessons, inquiry projects, etc.
   - Brief research reports

3. Submissions should be from 500 to 3,000 words in length, depending on the type of article and venue for publication.

4. Please provide pictures and/or other graphic material, when possible, and be sure to include identifying information on each picture/graphic item submitted along with any necessary permits and/or photo/graphic credits. All graphic material should be included at the end of your article or as a separate enclosure. CABE reserves the right to select which, if any, graphics are included in the article.

5. Submissions in languages other than English are encouraged, and should be submitted with English translation. If submitting articles in languages other than English or Spanish, please include all fonts used and contact information for at least two (2) additional persons who would be able to edit/proof final versions of the article.

   Upon receipt of your article you will receive notice of receipt. CABE reserves the right to make appropriate editorial changes to any article subject to author approval. CABE has the right to decide whether to publish any article, and in which issue the article will be placed. Upon selection for publication, you will receive notice of the date & issue in which your article will appear.

We thank you in advance for your submission and hope that you will consider enriching our publications with your research, stories or ideas.

The Multilingual Educator
California Association for Bilingual Education

CABE Headquarters
Attn: María S. Quezada
16033 E. San Bernardino Road Covina, CA 91722-3900
626.814.4441 phone  626.814.4640 fax
http://www.bilingualeducation.org
CABE Salutes
The Truckee/Tahoe Chapter #17

for their support of the courageous “Sierra Advocates for Bilingual Education” who testified before the State Board of Education to save the bilingual program for the children at their school.

• Maricruz Herrera, President of Truckee Elementary School ELAC and the Tahoe-Truckee USD DELAC
• María Elena Ruiz, Secretary of Truckee Elementary School ELAC and the Tahoe-Truckee USD DELAC
• Sandra Villarruel, ELAC member at Truckee Elementary School ELAC and the Tahoe-Truckee USD DELAC
• Sonia Sánchez, ELAC member at Truckee Elementary School
• Patricia Plascencia
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16033 E. San Bernardino Rd.
Covina, CA 91722-3900