This paper presents the reports of the National Task Forces on Urban, Rural, Migrant, Native American and Bicultural Education. The Task Forces were asked to pinpoint strategies for instructional and programmatic improvement in these areas. The focus of inquiry was on reading and mathematics instruction. Attention was also paid to elements that are seldom examined such as pupil needs, the concerns of parents and communities, and the problems of administration and the frustration of teachers. Although each task force was considered separately, several issues which were similar enough to be considered common to each group are treated together. The five areas that reflected mutual concern were: curriculum development, performance evaluation, personnel training, parent and community participation, and funding. Among the findings were the following: (1) each of the task forces indicated a need for a utilitarian-based education, reflecting the particular needs of pupils from disparate cultural backgrounds, (2) national standardized testing was criticized by all task forces for being a poor tool used to evaluate the performance of non-middle class and non-white pupil populations, (3) the task forces stressed that effective teachers were those sensitive to the unique needs of the community served by their school, and (4) all task forces stressed the urgent need for long-range planning to achieve sound program implementation. (Author/AM)
THE REPORT
to the
UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION
of the
NATIONAL TASK FORCES
on
INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES IN SCHOOLS WITH
HIGH CONCENTRATIONS OF LOW-INCOME PUPILS

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION
A decade ago, in 1965, Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Under its various titles, some $13 billion has been expended on children from predominantly low-income areas, for whom a wide variety of instructional programs have been provided. No claim has been made that all children eligible under the criteria of the Act's many programs have received services. No claim is made that all programs have been strictly "instructional"; in fact, any examination of program listings will confirm that some are directed at the maintenance of health or the provision of adequate nutrition. All programs, however, contribute to the Act's overriding aim: the provision of enhanced educational opportunity, through which poor children can be helped to fulfill their potential for education and personal development.

Many persons involved with and/or evaluating instructional programs--especially those programs specifically addressed to the poor--have noted that a critical point has been reached. Ten years have passed: much should have been learned from the experience and results to date; a second generation of children is entering the cycle; newly identified pupil needs must be met. Concurrently, the funding of education is under intensive scrutiny; budgets are being cut back; measurable results are increasingly required--programs must demonstrate definite, identifiable, and lasting benefits to participants.

Concerned critics have observed that the Federal Government took on--with an unprepared teacher force--a huge range of new tasks in education, to be achieved with pupil populations different from those of middle-class America, in schools bearing no resemblance to familiar models. Other critics hold that a school generation of a decade provides administrators the time needed to train traditional teachers in new and often non-traditional skills. They note that the success of programs for children from low-income areas depends upon the kind of resources available, the way they are used, the personal qualities of instructors, and the professional quality of the instruction they provide their pupils.
In view of the complexity and magnitude of this effort, the Commissioner of Education expressed his sincere wish to receive input from practitioners and consumers of education. This first effort was to focus on the input of the practitioner at various levels. With this charge in mind, the Office of Education's Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education saw the task as requiring an intensive inquiry into the effectiveness of instructional programs designed for poor children, linked to specific recommendations for defined improvement. It felt, however, that frontline program administrators, teachers in the communities served by these programs, and those involved in planning at the local level had much to contribute to any analysis. As a result of these and similar considerations, the Bureau appointed four task forces, divided into the following categories:

- Urban
- Rural and Migrant
- Native American
- Bilingual/Bicultural

The Office of Education appointed chairpersons of the task forces, together with Mr. Robert Wheeler, Deputy Commissioner of the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, and Dr. William L. Smith, Director of Teacher Corps—who was asked to be involved by Mr. Wheeler because of the Corp's focus on the same target populations—were to recruit members from the staffs of successful programs. Each task force, under the leadership of its chairperson, was to develop a field of inquiry and an agenda of three topics. The charge to the task forces is best described in broad terms under the following general heads:

1) Identification of successful strategies for improving the quality of reading and mathematics instruction

2) Identification of specific instructional techniques necessary for successful classroom performance

3) Identification of administration, curriculum development, and personnel training elements used in successful programs

The fine focus of inquiry was to be on reading and mathematics instruction, vital to success in almost all other academic areas, and of prime importance in adult life. Continuing attention was to be paid to elements that all too often are neglected, themselves negate programs.
Among these were pupils' needs, the concerns of parents and communities, the problems of administration and the frustrations of teachers.

No endorsement of OE policies was sought; rather, successful programs, strategies and techniques were to be examined in the light of positive results in the field. Only when success—often hard-won by dedicated field and classroom staff—is identified can needed lessons be learned and success be replicated elsewhere. In this context, task force chairpersons requested and received recent studies on compensatory education, and on the education of the poor.

In summary, the task forces were asked to pinpoint strategies for instructional and programmatic improvement. The recommendations of each task force, though they have an individual validity, will also be considered as a combined and cumulative information resource. The analyses and deliberations of the task forces will provide the Office of Education with information necessary for the formulation of new and more effective implementation strategies in education policies for children from low-income families.

Thus the task forces are not reporting to the Bureau only; rather, to the Office of Education and the education community as a whole, with the overriding purpose of ensuring the best possible use of program dollars in a time of financial stringency in which a new generation of poor children is entering the schools. The moral imperative to provide the children from predominantly low-income areas with the opportunity for productive education cannot be denied; nor can the benefit to the Nation be overestimated when the lives of its citizens are enhanced.
II.

USOE TASK FORCE REPORT
ON
URBAN INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
URBAN TASK FORCE PARTICIPANTS

Chairperson:
Dr. Joshua L. Smith
Dean, School of Education
The City College of New York
New York, New York

Task Force Consultants:
Dr. Juanita Carter
Assistant Professor
Department of Special Education
San Francisco State College
San Francisco, California

Dr. Edgar Epps
Marshall Field Professor
Department of Education
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

Mr. B. Barton Gallegos
Acting Coordinator
Department of Curriculum
Board of Education
Chicago, Illinois

Mrs. Fay Harbison
Title I Teacher
Newport Mesa Unified School District
Newport Beach, California

Dr. Gene Hensley
Assistant Director
Elementary and Secondary Education
Commission of the States
Denver, Colorado

Mr. Morris Houck
Teacher
Knolls, Elementary School
San Mateo Elementary District
San Mateo, California

Mrs. Lulu Johnson
Principal
Sherry Middle School District
Detroit, Michigan

Dr. M. Sylvester King
Administrator/Education Planner
New York City Public Schools
New York, New York

Dr. Daniel Levine
Professor
Department of Education
University of Missouri
Kansas City, Missouri

Ms. Imogene Lewis
Supervisor of Personnel
Board of Education
Kansas City, Missouri

Dr. John Mangieri
Reading Specialist
Department of Education
Ohio University
Athens, Ohio

Dr. John Nairus
Title I Coordinator
Board of Education
Cleveland Public Schools
Cleveland, Ohio
URBAN TASK FORCE (continued)

Dr. Lon Pikaart
Mathematics Specialist
Department of Education
Ohio University
Athens, Ohio

Dr. Robert Polk
Minister for Urban Affairs
Riverside Church
New York, New York

Mr. Alton Rison
Principal
Junior High School #117
Brooklyn, New York

Ms. Jimmie Marie Thomas
Teacher
Kansas City School District
Kansas City, Missouri

Mrs. Bettye Spann
Director
Project Conquest
East St. Louis School District
East St. Louis, Illinois

Ms. Jeane Stout
Teacher
Ponderosa Elementary School
Southern San Francisco, California

Dr. Matthew Trippe
Professor
Department of Education
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Mr. Michael Van Ryn
State Bureau Chief
State Department of Education
Albany, New York

Dr. Stanton Webster
Professor
School of Education
University of California
Berkley, California
The wide range of problems besetting urban education today includes low achievement, high dropout rates, institutional racism, and a pervasive mood of alienation. After a comprehensive examination of these problems, the USOE Task Force on Urban Education concluded that a national spotlight is needed to illuminate their gravity and interrelatedness.

Few of the issues and problems contributing to the failure of urban schools can be treated in isolation. Problems in curriculum, pre- and inservice teacher education, organizational structure, administrative leadership, and funding patterns must all be addressed in order to improve the services offered to children. Specific teacher training services are often required when new programs or program modifications are introduced to serve the unique needs of particular pupils. Few solutions are easily or universally applicable, but those involved in the search for increased effectiveness in urban education can learn much from the experiences of their colleagues who are tackling and finding solutions to similar problems.

A starting point for teachers is to remember that pupils in the same classroom, working with the same materials, bring with them differing learning styles and levels of motivation. Further, they differ in readiness to benefit from concrete vs. abstract instruction. Instructional approaches must therefore take these differences into account if pupils are to fulfill their potential to learn. Much more research and experimentation are needed to find ways to individualize instruction effectively, in accordance with pupil learning styles.

Improvement in instruction in mathematics and reading must be sought locally. Local school districts continue to exercise considerable control over instructional programs. Over the last decade, Federal legislation has tended to perpetuate this condition by granting funds to States which in turn allocate monies to local districts. This
program allows these districts to implement programs and pursue strategies that have been devised locally. Historically, State departments of education have not been organized or staffed well enough to monitor pupil outcomes effectively. Indeed, while some States are attempting to assess pupil progress at the local level, they frequently meet with opposition.

The quality of the teacher is of major importance. Resources are only as good and productive as the teacher who manages them. Teachers, therefore, must be thorough and demanding in the needs assessment phase of any program, whether in reading, mathematics or non-related fields; without this, program and instructional emphasis will be misplaced. All continuing programs and projects must be periodically reviewed, so that failing strategies can be discontinued, and successful strategies utilized and shared with the district.

In a particular State, the importance of dissemination was clearly demonstrated. Title I programs were as successful in non-Title I schools as in Title I schools. Concerned teachers who worked in non-Title I schools in that State demanded, borrowed, adapted, and implemented program strategies for their own classrooms. All compensatory and remedial programs (and supplementary services buttressing them) should, therefore, be integrated with the basic curriculum and receive support from it; special programs cannot be schedule-breaking, one-shot projects. Followup, and modification of the traditional curriculum, are essential program components if pupils are to maintain the gains they have already made.

A cautionary note should be added: some teachers find highly structured programs limiting to their classroom flexibility. Two solutions should be sought: (1) provide highly structured programs for teachers and pupils who are suited to them by temperament, and (2) provide more open, flexible programs. Both of these solutions should incorporate the creative abilities of teachers and pupils. Furthermore, better instruments must be developed to help identify teacher and pupil styles in this regard.

Primary among current needs is the improvement of basic skills in reading and mathematics. Experience, theory, and research support this. Several strategies and...
Techniques have been proposed for the improvement of instruction in remedial reading and mathematics. In order for improvement to be successful, planned goals must be attainable.

Schools have an obligation to meet the education needs of their pupils. To carry this out, they must be encouraged to structure urban programs and curriculums to be responsive to local needs. Yet, many urban school administrators tend to insist upon traditional curricular structure, even though this limits their ability to serve the pupil population effectively.

Many studies made during the last two decades point to the correlation between concentrations of poor economic conditions with frequency of learning problems and poor achievement. They conclude that poverty distorts, and to a great extent negates, normal education practices and programs: traditional models seldom succeed in school settings marked by poverty. Many teachers believe that working in areas of concentrated poverty militates against their success, a perception which reinforces already existing negative attitudes. Yet, poor urban pupils have the same need to master fundamental skills as all young people do, regardless of race, creed, sex, or socioeconomic background. If equal access to educational opportunity is to be achieved, the unique conditions of urban pupils from low-income areas must be addressed promptly.

Frequently overlooked factors tend to impede the progress and achievement levels of urban schools. The birth rate in the largely white, middle-class suburbs has fallen markedly. As a result, enrollment in suburban districts has declined, forcing a number of schools to close. Many teachers have taken jobs in urban schools, for which their previous experience has not prepared them. Lack of sensitivity to pupils' needs is strongly associated with the situation in which job locations are determined by labor market upheavals, rather than by deliberate choice and careful preparation. Improvement in the education of the urban pupil requires the development of a highly dedicated staff which is involved with parents, other teachers, and the larger school community. This suggests that real improvement is possible only through a school-by-school approach to reform, rather than merely distributing resources equally among a large number of schools.
High teacher turnover rates and outdated curriculum are major problems in urban schools. These conditions often disorient pupils. Urban educators should therefore plan and design programs that encourage stability. However, in many programs, particularly those under Title I, the funding recipient is denied the authority to expand successful programs and eliminate those that have failed. The grantee must be given this authority. On the other hand, poverty-targeted instructional programs, even when ineffective, continue to be supported by schools in poverty areas because they are a source of funds for schools with small financial bases.

The majority of poor urban pupils do not receive effective education. Too few staff members of urban school systems expect minority and poor children to do well. Institutional racism and middle-class values, reflected in instructional materials as well as in teachers' attitudes, have in part caused the urban public school to abandon its responsibility to mold human potential. Academic failure is pervasive in low-income areas. This problem has growing ramifications for all urban communities, and is producing what James Bryant Conant termed "social dynamite."

A number of surveys indicate that most teachers and administrators in communities with high concentrations of poor children believe these children cannot learn. All too often this has become a self-fulfilling prophecy. Teacher educators must stress that visible poverty should not determine teacher expectations. The need to create positive teacher attitudes about and responses to the learning styles and aptitudes of the urban pupil cannot be overemphasized. Research has shown that more often than not teachers' expectations help determine pupil achievement. A major aim of training and retraining programs, therefore, must be to change the attitudes of those teachers and administrators who believe that minority or poor children are unable to learn.

*Lygmalion In the Classroom*, a study by Rosenthal and Jacobsen, evaluates the effects of teacher expectations on the level and quality of pupils' achievement. Although elements of design in this study have been questioned, the findings have been corroborated in other research. Concomitant with maintaining positive expectations, teachers must set specific and reasonable goals for each pupil. It is the teacher's job to help
pupils attain these preset goals. Thus, urban schools must seek to change negative teaching attitudes. In some settings, sensitivity training workshops can prove effective.

In well designed workshop courses, community people, psychologists, psychiatrists, and school personnel can work together to change negative attitudes to positive ones. Attitudinal change, however, is not enough; it must be accompanied by behavioral change. Isolated workshops can leave a Hawthorne effect. Without follow-up this effect disappears. School leaders must therefore be involved personally in workshop activity, because ultimately workshops are the instruments for sustained change in a given school or school system.

Leadership in school systems generally determines the success or failure of instructional programs. To be effective, leadership must be expressed throughout the school hierarchy. A good administrator must, above all, have the ability to develop a working team. Such an administrator can build a stronger rapport both with teachers and with the community. To be productive, the urban school administrator must feel secure enough to experiment and take risks, have a distinct personal philosophy of education, and demonstrate personal concerns through his or her administrative style. Success occurs in an environment in which teachers are encouraged to become more self-directed. As a result, teachers become less dependent on leader-administrators for day-to-day guidance; the latter, in turn, become free to attack key problems.

If the principal in a school is well-regarded for working with the community, if there is evidence of cooperation and consistency, and if pupils show measurable growth and achievement in this kind of environment, then increased funds should be distributed throughout the system to support similar efforts. In the case of special programs, demonstrated success, based on pupil achievement, should be the chief determining factor in fund allocation. Funds must be concentrated in schools that have demonstrably successful programs, and in those schools where, in the past, administrators have made a strong commitment to Title I programs. Successful schools should become laboratories for schools that are less successful.

Research indicates that money is often funneled into schools
and areas that fail to meet pupil and community needs. Some studies have revealed that disproportionate numbers of poorly qualified teachers work in schools attended by the urban poor. If, however, funds are awarded only to successful programs, a severe dilemma would ensue: poorly run urban schools would have even fewer funds to help their pupils overcome adverse situations. Indeed, such schools require additional money in order to undertake basic restructuring. This could include relationships with universities, business, and the community. Restructuring should also include comprehensive staff development. School systems which most need money often demonstrate the least skill to use it effectively.

Some studies have indicated that urban schools in poverty communities are subject to an unusually high degree of teacher and administrator absenteeism. The problem is of such magnitude that this pattern has been characterized as "abandonment." This kind of teacher behavior not only adds to the instability of the school environment (and reduces the amount of education available); it also reflects the lack of concern for their pupils that many urban teachers frequently exhibit. Teacher absenteeism, coupled with attitudes which give rise to it, promotes pupil absenteeism. This is already a problem in many urban schools; as many pupils find much of the curriculum irrelevant. Furthermore, as low-income families relocate frequently, in their search for work or better housing, even the formal habit of regular attendance is disrupted. Certain strategies can be used to offset high absenteeism among urban teachers: for example, only actual hours worked could be recorded, and teachers could be paid only for these. Any improvement in teacher attendance will also promote better pupil attendance.

Urban school communities require substantial supportive services; unmet human needs preclude successful education. One way to help meet the needs of schools, parents, and pupils is to establish parent/child centers, such as the Human Resources Center in Pontiac, Michigan, which combines a school with health and welfare services. These centers enlist the services of a full-time teacher, a nurse, a doctor, a dentist, a nutrition expert, and other community people. Parents wishing to use the center may be asked to help plan and service the program, thus strengthening school-community ties. Schools can serve the community more effectively by establishing after-hours activities for pupils and residents. However, if
a full range of services is to be maintained in a program, Federal funding is almost certainly necessary.

Local universities frequently constitute untapped resources for schools and school systems. By establishing a partnership with them, schools can enhance the training of both new and experienced teachers. Teacher-training institutions can provide monitoring and assessment services to individual teachers, administrators, schools and school systems. These services, if properly drawn upon, will contribute to the improvement of the quality of urban education. In addition, teacher-training institutions must change their methods of operation, and understand that this is often difficult to do.

Teachers' organizations (unions and associations) should play a major support role within schools and school systems. Such participation would allow teachers a genuine opportunity to become fully acquainted with and active in all aspects of the educational process. If teachers' organizations are involved closely with community, parents, and pupils, the flow of information among these groups will do much to build greater mutual understanding. In addition, teacher support of school programs helps teachers' organizations to improve their image with parents and the general public.

In the past ten years, concern has been expressed regarding the validity of standardized achievement tests. These instruments must have a direct relation to the pupil's curriculum, and must cover what has been studied during the year. Tests must also diagnose pupil needs and identify specific obstacles to achievement. The value of criterion-referenced tests lies in their ability to identify pupil needs, and thus aid in the development of programs to meet such needs. This is significant, considering the importance to urban pupils of a curriculum based on survival skills. While most urban educators readily acknowledge the shortcomings of standardized testing instruments, they must recognize that these tests are not likely to be discarded in the immediate future. Recognizing this, and continuing to protest against inadequate tests, teachers in urban schools should continue teaching their pupils how to take these tests. These test scores remain essential to gain entry into college, into graduate and professional schools, and thus into many careers. The NAACP recently called on the testing industry to "assist school systems and other users in
understanding better the content and constraints of the examinations, and in helping them understand how to make optimal use of the results."
2. URBAN INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Unique Educational Needs of Urban Pupils

It is important that urban schools provide instruction in survival skills; that is, the ability to interact successfully with, or to modify, the urban environment; to deal with urban conditions and technology; and, to compete effectively in the job market. Needs will change however, as social and economic conditions vary.

One can question whether or not urban pupils' needs are basically different from those of other pupils, as fundamental education needs are in fact universal. Nevertheless there are environmental and socioeconomic factors which give rise to supplementary needs that call for special instructional approaches. Specific investigation of learning readiness in the urban setting, and how pupils can achieve this, tends to be based on the notion that urban schooling should include the following characteristics: (1) a nonpunitive atmosphere, (2) pupil-to-pupil tutoring, (3) pupil self-evaluation, (4) a range of choices, (5) a relevant-to-life curriculum, (6) criterion-referenced testing, and (7) an emphasis on creativity. It has been said that younger white teachers tend to support this instructional approach, while black teachers and older white teachers are more likely to stress the need for structure. These two instructional approaches are not, however, mutually exclusive. The differences might be settled by providing a structure and developing an independence that creates learning environments in which pupils can take more responsibility for themselves and make choices on their own behalf. Showing pupils how to make rational decisions would lead to successful decisionmaking later in life.

If educational authorities are not prepared or able to restructure current instructional programs, then at least they ought to add these necessary new services: (1) reduction of remedial class size, and (2) use of diagnosis and prescription to plan remedial programs. Furthermore, remedial programs should not be restricted to elementary-
level pupils, who have time on their side, but should be
extended to secondary school pupils, who do not. In the
regular classroom, skills-oriented programs are essential,
and the staff must be made accountable for pupil success.

Finally, there must be flexibility in the conception and
implementation of those programs intended to upgrade
pupil achievement. Appropriate, individualized instruc-
tion must be planned, with the understanding that this
requires a broader range of instructional materials.

The Role of Self-Concept

The 1970 Powell study on the psychological impact of
school desegregation on 7th-, 8th-, and 9th-graders in
a southern city is revealing. It found that black and
white pupils have different levels of self-esteem: blacks
scored significantly higher than whites on a self-concept
and sociofamilial questionnaire administered to 614 blacks
and whites in both segregated and desegregated schools.
This study indicates, as do others, that black pupils
concentrated in urban centers often show higher levels
of self-esteem when they attend predominantly black schools.
In addition, a study by Rosenberg and Simmons suggests that
blacks maintain considerable self-esteem, despite academic
failure. Black people have had to develop particular psy-
chological strengths in order to withstand the negative
elements which operate in their immediate environment.

The studies cited above indicate that it is the teacher's
responsibility to enhance all pupils' self-image and esteem
so that no matter what they hear, see, feel or otherwise ex-
perience, they can sustain a basic sense of self-worth.
If pupils are to develop as human beings, they must receive
warmth, affection, and support from their teachers.
Studies have shown that teachers who are naturally warm
and concerned are successful in generating confidence
and a sense of competence in their pupils. Further,
most educators believe that a causal relationship exists
between self-concept and academic achievement. However,
in developing pupils' self-esteem, teachers must ensure
that they nourish its connection to academic success;
otherwise, high academic self-concept might represent
only an inflated perception arising from low academic
standards in inner city schools.

Some white pupils with poor academic records manifest low
self-esteem because they associate academic failure with personal inadequacy. On the other hand, black pupils who fail academically often have as high a degree of self-esteem as those who do achieve. There appears to be a distinction, therefore, between general self-esteem—how a pupil evaluates him- or herself as an individual—and academic self-esteem. Since the urban school often fails to provide a positive learning environment, the pupil tends to seek reasons for self-esteem outside academic settings.

The lack of correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement on the part of some black urban pupils implies the existence of a psychological buffer that prevents academic failure from diminishing self-esteem. It also suggests an inherent determination in some urban black pupils to prevent environmental and educational circumstances from dictating their levels of self-esteem.

Minority communities are critical of an educational system that has traditionally developed and used textbooks that overlook minority presence in, and contribution to, American life. In addition, pedagogical theory, research, and training have failed to develop materials that reflect the presence of minority pupils in American schools.

Although the role of parents is highly influential, that of the classroom teacher is essential to pupil self-esteem, and to the prevention of any self-depreciation that might be caused by the school setting. Since teachers spend more than six and a half hours a day, five days a week, with their pupils, they must be aware of their influence on the development of their charges.

Researchers have found that teacher self-esteem often governs relations with pupils. Obviously the teachers themselves must have high self-esteem before they can foster personal growth in a class of young people. Teachers' classroom performances are directly affected by how they feel about themselves and their training. They must have strong self-images, positive attitudes about themselves, respect for instructional materials, a belief in what they are teaching, and—most important—the belief that their pupils can and will learn.

Parents must acquaint themselves with what has happened to their children during these crucial six and a half hours of daily contact with the adult authority figure—the "teacher." Some teachers may be insensitive to
the needs of the urban child, and may lack a clear philosophy or sense of purpose regarding the education of urban pupils.

Finally, parents must create a firm foundation for teachers to build upon if their children are to develop strong, positive characters, and achieve well in school. Since the parent's role in early learning is important, parents should begin their efforts to aid children in self-concept building as early as possible. Urban pupils, especially minority children, must receive support and praise from parents during the cognitive development stage; the period prior to preschool and the regular school years.

Basics and Diversity in Curriculum

Which curricular approaches have proved effective with urban pupils? It would seem that flexibility and variety are imperative for success. Realistic appraisal must be made of individual pupil achievement levels before any approach is adopted. Criterion-referenced testing is valuable; cognitive skills must be assessed in pre- and post-work unit tests.

The issues of school population size and diversity are of major importance since no single program can cover all needs. As additional programs are introduced, monitoring and data gathering needs grow. Management information systems, and the monitoring and reporting of program information, have become a necessity. Pertinent data, provided on a regular basis, can be used to update records, provide information for parents, pinpoint needs for teacher-parent meetings, indicate when materials are available for use in other instructional programs, and facilitate recordkeeping. However, a management information system is only a tool, not a solution. When failing programs and nonachieving pupils are identified, specific changes must be made.

At the same time, learning must be periodically evaluated to ascertain whether learning objectives are being met and gains have been achieved. Skills and interest areas of any program must be broken down by objective. With this done, and with learning units identified, appropriate persons can be engaged to write clearly focused materials.

In order to formulate a successful instructional approach,
informal, subliminal, and other nonclassroom learning must be considered. Streets, pool halls, gas stations, and supermarkets all constitute potential learning sites, often familiar ones.

A broad range of diagnostic-prescriptive and other remedial tools exist for the teaching of both mathematics and reading. Though there are no panaceas, well prepared teachers who use carefully selected tools, with rigor and consistency, should obtain improved results. In recasting a now famous dictum, the medium should not become the message. Instructional tools should be viewed only as a means of obtaining better pupil performance. Because new research and materials are appearing rapidly, school systems must create structures which enable teachers to be informed of current research and strategies.

Mathematics: Strategies and Techniques

Much comment has been made about the lack of successful mathematics teaching in many urban schools. It is not entirely clear, however, whether this is peculiar to the urban school, or simply an extreme manifestation of a more general lack of success in the teaching of this subject. Furthermore, failure to achieve in mathematics is compounded by the unique socioeconomic considerations of urban education.

Few, whether teachers or pupils, will deny that mathematics is an unpopular subject. However, some research indicates that if teachers were to work on achievement first and then on attitude, achievement levels would gain significantly, although pupils' attitudes would tend to worsen measurably. On the other hand, if teachers work on attitude first and then on achievement, pupils would more likely make positive gains. Attitudinal change is often initiated and strengthened by having done well, which in turn reinforces motivation. Teachers should, therefore, stress pupils' existing skills as well as prescribing remedies for skill deficiencies.

At an early age many urban pupils learn to "tune out" the world around them, perhaps in response to feelings of anonymity. The introduction of special equipment (e.g., hand-held calculators) often provides the excitement necessary to inspire motivation, interest and attention.
However, educators disagree as to whether calculators contribute to pupils' understanding of mathematical principles, or to the development of personal skills. Nevertheless, computers are useful for drills and practice, although pupil involvement in programming and problem-solving seldom occurs before the 5th grade.

The learning of mathematics has been broadly characterized as having four linked components: knowledge, skill, understanding, and problem solving. Teachers must address all of these components if pupils are to master the subject. Most mathematics educators agree that the use of traditional pupil worksheets produces poor results: minds wander, goals are unclear, and mathematics appears as something done on paper instead of in the head. Teachers have found that verbal games, practice sessions, and mental computation are much more valid approaches to teaching mathematics to young people than book-based approaches. Such approaches have done much to boost achievement and interest levels.

Discussions, demonstrations, and mathematics laboratories have been found to be much more effective than the use of worksheets. Teaching the physical embodiments of concepts (cubes, pyramids, cylinders, etc.) has been found to be a successful technique. For example, the commutative property can be taught by using Cuisenaire rods, balance scales, geoboards, inch cubes, and other such devices. Another promising approach for improving pupil performance in mathematics is the heuristic method, which involves constructing tables, and guessing, checking, and identifying wanted properties with given properties.

The curriculum reform of the 1950's and 60's with the shift toward helping pupils understand underlying mathematical principles appear to have reduced pupils computational and problem-solving skills. At the same time, stress on behavioral objectives has led to the development of simplistic materials with low-level cognitive content. More recently, the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics (UICSM) made promising advances in developing curriculum and instructional methods. One of its texts, Stretchers and Shrinkers, presents rational number arithmetic in comic-book format, thereby minimizing the handicaps experienced by poor readers. Most traditional texts serve teachers far better than pupils.
The use of educational equipment such as the "desk computer" strengthens achievement in mathematics. Pupils who hate the subject forego their lunch hours to wait in line to use the computer. Computers have also been found useful in drill and practice sessions on computational skills, and especially in aiding underachievers to make progress. Given the opportunity to use a computer, underachievers can tell a machine what to do. The machine, of course, obeys. The computer also has administrative functions as a record keeper, and analytic uses in diagnostic-prescriptive systems.

Reading: Strategies and Techniques

The statistics speak for themselves: over 8 million school-age children are not learning to read adequately; 16 percent of those enrolled in grades 1 through 12 require special reading instruction. There are over 3 million illiterate adults, many of whom dropped out of public school, as 700,000 youngsters annually now do; this compounds the need for revised strategies. Furthermore, the gloomy statistics indicate that almost all deficient readers live in poverty areas.

Several studies demonstrate that if pupils are given valid and acceptable reasons for learning to read, their comprehension increases. Thus, there is a clear need to develop a curriculum based on survival skills.

"Saturation" involves giving pupils a wide range of books and other reading material. This concept, along with that of diffusion, has served as the foundation of several successful reading methods conceived by Mr. Daniel Fades (author of Hooked on Books). All the books were chosen by the pupils themselves, and were therefore of particular interest to them. Other studies have also indicated that in an environment involving choice, reading proficiency tended to increase. Pupils learn more, and are more receptive to learning, when there is an element of self-determination in the curriculum, and when the teacher is flexible and responsive.

Many new reading programs, DISTAR among them, are highly structured. This is a potential source for two problems: (1) teachers might not be sufficiently flexible to meet the instructional demands of the programs; and (2) pupils might expect all their instruction to be structured. In fact, a change in behavior is called for in both teachers.
and pupils. Very highly structured programs frequently have only short-term results, yet are believed to be "failsafe" on account of their structure and specificity. Pupils need a basic introduction to the "hows" and "whys" of specialized programs, and efforts should be made to tie program vocabulary into familiar home and school contexts. There should be greater relevance, interest, attractiveness, and human concern in program content. Nothing so alienates pupils as psychologically correct content devoid of personal interest. Research has certainly reached the level where pupil interests can be more clearly identified.

If pupil interest is lost, failure is guaranteed. This applies to all subject areas. All teachers in a given school should be aware of reading programs and objectives. Each teacher has the means to assist pupils; to reinforce reading, writing, and speech skills. Furthermore, their reinforcement must tie learning to pupils' interests and their life experiences. The school, the schoolyard, and the school's mechanical equipment should not be neglected as settings for experimentation, and as potential sources of excitement. Many children love gadgets and enjoy making things happen. In addition, many learn through hands-on experience. Academic scores might not change immediately, but positive attitudes--essential for good scores--would be strengthened.

There is widespread criticism of teacher education programs which are designed to train teachers of reading. Critics contend that the methods of teaching reading are taught in a narrow and artificial framework, isolated from children and their learning situations. There has been very little information transfer from the methods course to the school classroom. College students, rather than practicing or transferring what they have recently learned, often teach just as they were taught in elementary school. If institutions of higher education are interested in producing better reading teachers, then the following practices should be adopted:

(1) More than one reading course must be offered in undergraduate programs for elementary school teachers. Reading is critical; teachers must have a thorough and diversified training.
Prospective secondary school teachers must be required to take at least one undergraduate reading course, differing from those offered to elementary school teachers in that it should provide them with the expertise necessary to teach reading as an integral part of subject matter.

Preferably, persons teaching undergraduate and graduate courses in reading at the higher education level should (a) have had public school experience in the teaching of reading and (b) possess (a n advanced degree(s) in the field of reading.

Institutions of higher education must determine the competencies which teachers must possess to teach reading effectively to children. After these competencies are ascertained, they must be incorporated into the undergraduate teacher-education programs.

By identifying these competencies, institutions of higher education would be able (1) to make their training programs in reading more sequential, (2) to eliminate the overlap among many course offerings, and (3) to minimize the omissions of teaching skills crucial for the successful teaching of reading.

A large portion of the undergraduate course in reading must be field-based.

Field-based activities enable the student to utilize reading methodologies in actual public school teaching experiences.

Graduate courses in reading should focus on the classroom teacher rather than the clinician.

Teachers should receive advanced training which would make them more proficient classroom teachers of reading and capable of better instruction.

If the teaching of reading to poor children is to improve,
then school districts must commit themselves to changing some of their current practices. Therefore:

(1) School districts must establish reading curriculums. Reading is a sequential process. The acquisition of a higher skill is often dependent upon the mastery of a lower one.

(2) Provisions must be made to accommodate the individual differences of children. Schools serving disadvantaged pupils would do well to consider organizational procedures (Joplin Plan, IGE, continuous progress, etc.) that allow for the most effective instruction possible.

(3) The practice of "covering" one grade level of reading material per year must abandoned. This impedes capable readers and forces less able ones to deal with materials requiring skills they have not mastered.

(4) Districts must consider differentiated staffing.

The individual learning styles of pupils must be recognized. Many teachers do not possess the array of teaching styles needed to meet these divergencies.

(5) Remedial subject matter and developmental reading programs must be made available at the secondary level.

(6) Principals--of elementary and secondary schools--must be actively involved in their school's reading programs. Strong leadership, not tacit support, is needed.

(7) School districts must continually assess their pupils' reading needs. Materials should be examined to determine their effectiveness; curricular and administrative practices should be scrutinized to ascertain if they are impeding or assisting reading. Instructional procedures should be assessed to establish their effectiveness (or ineffectiveness).
Schools must seek to produce pupils who not only can read, but also like to read. Many pupils have the skill to read, but not the will to read.

Staff competence in terms of teaching reading must be ascertained; periodic inservice programs must be designed to correct staff deficiencies and upgrade teachers' skills.

As noted earlier, teachers are the key agents of improving the quality of instruction in reading. Part of their competency lies in their ability to evaluate the pupils' reading skills. The competent teacher can thus better determine which skills the pupils need to practice. A teacher's ability to evaluate should be monitored and periodically reassessed.

If a local school board wishes to ensure teacher competency in the instruction of reading, it must be prepared to fund a complete staff development program in this subject. Furthermore, the board should be prepared to fund the teaming-up of reading specialists with regular classroom teachers.

Teachers must clarify their perspectives: reading instruction has become a political issue; reading materials an economic one. These factors, along with an avalanche of conflicting research findings, have tended to obscure the key role of the teacher, who must remain a concerned and learning individual in situations that often produce battle fatigue. The enhancement of teacher performance is, nevertheless, a consistent, crucial need: to ensure this, funds, support, plans, and districtwide participation must be obtained. Work done in reading programs, rather than in those offering additional academic credits, should bring teachers increased salaries.

Finally, those who design reading programs should recognize that the causes of reading failure often extend to other domains. The visual and audio aspects of programs should therefore not be neglected. Vision should be tested. The auditory discrimination of pupils can be tested via rhyming elements in stories and reading. In short, all pupils who appear to have learning difficulties should be examined neurologically, psychologically, and physiologically.
Program Funding and Program Management

Resource allocation is a key issue. Some educators think Federal and State programs should be decentralized, and believe that monies might be better spent if applied flexibly to local needs that are in keeping with local judgment. Others feel greater central control and stricter monitoring is needed; with discontinuation of funding of unsuccessful programs, and increased funding of successful ones. Performance, rather than method, should be the criterion. There must be greater flexibility for districts to adopt or expand programs of proven worth.

The current approach to fund allocation allows for seemingly arbitrary distribution. Some educators question the manner in which individuals within an identified recipient area are selected. Few criteria can be seen as universally desirable or applicable; however, of those in use, possibly the Aid to Dependent Children category is the best. No practical approach appears to have been developed to deal with intra- or interdistrict migration; funds and the pupils who need them often become separated.

Fund allocation and program evaluation are frequently fragmented, inconsistent, unscientific, and unworkable. School board options are limited, public input minimal. Services seldom follow needs; they fulfill bureaucratic objectives.

No single organization in education has sufficient power to demand or secure funds in amounts adequate to meet demonstrated nationwide needs. Schools can seldom count on any Federal program funding guarantee for more than three years—which virtually forces the school to make one-year job offers to needed staff. At least five years of continuous program activity is required before any substantive analysis can be made.

Role of the State Education Agency in Monitoring Local Systems

State education agencies generally have been lax in monitoring local school district performance, especially in terms of the effective use of Federal and State funds. As mentioned earlier, some educators favor the "exemplary program support" approach, in which additional funds go to schools whose programs have exhibited significant success. Others point out that such an approach might unduly
penalize the very schools whose needs are most acute, but whose financial and program management capabilities are poor. Schools therefore should be required to categorize the expenditure of program funds, detailing the percentage expended on overhead and administration, as opposed to that expended on teacher-pupil activity. Program profiles accumulated from this requirement should be compared with those of the best programs in operation. As a result, appropriations for expenditures by category could be established and used as norms. Further, the Office of Education should provide monitoring standards for the States, so that programs can be tightened up nationwide.

Although Federal efforts have begun to identify specific elements that contribute to program success, many States and local districts--secure in their concept of States' rights--continue to waste money on ill-advised programs.

The Role of the School Principal

The traditional principal/administrator/senior teacher managerial combination is no longer best able to manage the modern urban school. Today's needs call for a manager skilled in planning and in the supervision of planning implementation, in coordinating constituencies within the school, and running the school as a constituent within the larger external community. The leadership attributes of principalship are vital, particularly that of recruiting positive-minded teachers who have a strong belief in the inherent capability of all pupils to learn. Finally, the principal must be committed to instruction, and be actively involved in the school's reading and mathematics programs.

Evaluation

Criterion-referenced and diagnostic tests are essential starting points in the determination of which skills must be stressed in teaching, and, to a lesser extent, which must be taught. Standardized tests are currently used for this purpose. Once pupil strengths and interests have been established, classes of objectives should be built around them. In addition, teacher skills and strengths should be assessed so that administrators can implement productive pupil-teacher matching. However, these theoretical bases of instruction require practical support; classroom and learning-lab teachers should compare aims, objectives, and pupil evaluations so that their efforts can be articulated and mutually beneficial.
Furthermore, the objectives of field trips and other extracurricular activities should be planned to support and help fulfill broad goals. Curriculum selection and instructional efficiency can be improved and validated by a conscious examination of pupil needs and available instructional approaches. In addition, teachers should be prepared to formulate their own approaches and create their own materials.

However, certain widely used test and diagnostic instruments--especially those designed for prescription--have potential flaws, especially when they decrease crucial teacher intervention. Therefore, if diagnostic tools are to be successfully used, teachers must be trained in individualized instruction approaches. It is as important to use diagnostic tools to ensure that teachers are well trained as it is to use them to ascertain that pupils can learn. Diagnostic tools must be used carefully. It would be better to build on known strengths, so that pupils could tackle their weaknesses more readily.
3. PARENT AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

The Parental Role

Parental involvement is vital to successful inner-city schools. In the early grades, parent involvement to reinforce classroom instruction is essential. To facilitate such involvement, schools should open at night or on weekends to enable those parents who work to come to the schools and confer with the staff. In addition, teachers and administrators should involve themselves in local civic activities of both parents and community. But relationships of this type have to be built, and then maintained. Regularly published newsletters provide a means of involving parents, especially if these publications explain and stress the importance of possible parent roles. Such newsletters could highlight Title I programs, indicating to parents that specific additional funds have been provided to meet their children’s particular needs.

"Parent-as-teacher" kits, sent home with children, can help to develop active parent roles. Parents then become allied with teachers in the education of the children, and thus become aware of the importance of regular school attendance.

Wherever possible, parents must participate in inservice programs. These must be promoted and made attractive, so that a teacher-parent alliance can be formed between the school and the program, making the pupils the ultimate beneficiaries. Involving parents often leads to their taking teacher-training courses. (Teachers who start as aide-paraprofessionals and become certified teachers have the lowest turnover and absenteeism rates.) Other parents can be involved by being made partners-in-progress. When the teacher presents year, semester, grade, and course plans to them, parents become aware of aims and objectives. A number of proposals for creating greater parent involvement exist. A Parent Resource Library,
containing instructional materials and run on a library loan system, would aid in the achievement of this goal.

Parent aides can certainly be used in schools. They should work on a one day per week basis, with pay. In one school, such programs reduced teacher absenteeism from 25 to 2 percent. Despite differing views on the matter, poor parents should have the same access to their children’s schools as do middle-class parents, if only because the presence of parents in the classroom has a positive effect on teachers' attitudes toward pupils. However, teachers generally believe that there is a limit to how much extra time they or the parents can be asked to contribute on the pupils’ behalf.

In summary, hard-driving leadership involving parents and community representatives with the schools is essential in creating a common interest among teachers, parents, and pupils. This cohesive approach must be adopted in order to achieve consistent and substantial improvements. Administrators should invite parents to school workshops, where they can learn to use classroom materials in the home. In addition, the school should be responsible for informing parents of simple, cost-free techniques they can use at home to teach their children skills and concepts. Parents could work with their children, and then consult with the teacher about the progress made.

Most PTA's include highly motivated parents who are probably also active in other community events. If their participation is to be maximized, more parents should be involved with the association through outreach efforts within the community. Parents who demonstrate leadership qualities may also possess skills in other areas. The contribution of these parents should be recognized, shared with the entire learning community, and applied to their children's education.

School as Training Ground for Survival Skills

The importance of the school as a training ground for the acquisition of survival skills cannot be stressed enough. In fact, for inner-city and urban pupils mastery of these skills constitutes a vital educational need. Since the great majority of urban students are Black, Puerto Rican, Chicano, or members of other inner-city
ethnic minorities, it is crucial that schools have a survival orientation. Although different ethnic groups have different needs, references to "inner-city children" should be related to all poor children.

Two key survival skills needed by the urban pupil are the ability to read and compute competently. Their acquisition is essential if pupils are to master their environment, and the technological tools used by society. The education of urban pupils should aid them to obtain employment, advance in careers of their own choosing, or further their education. Educators must set attainable goals, and thus promote positive self-realization. For this to occur, the urban teacher must--through positive attitudes and high expectations--instill a sense of personal worth in pupils.

Relevant curriculum is essential in education, and its degree of relevance can be measured by its applicability to pupils' daily lives. Such a curriculum increases pupils' capacity to solve problems in the immediate environment, and to survive while meeting the demands of daily life placed upon their socioeconomic class by society. A mathematics curriculum should be concerned with teaching urban children how to count change of a dollar rather than how to count to five hundred in Roman numerals. It is unrealistic to expect pupils whose self-esteem is largely based upon nonacademic factors to relate positively to an irrelevant curriculum.

Relevancy of curriculum must begin at the kindergarten level. Pupils must learn how to manage a home, care for children, and protect themselves as consumers. They must therefore acquire the necessary reading and mathematics skills to do so. Revelancy should not, however, be construed as meaning that urban disadvantaged pupils should not be exposed to some of the same learning requirements set forth for suburban, advantaged pupils. Materials used to teach skills to these two groups may differ. Once disadvantaged urban pupils have mastered the practical skills needed for living, and the academic skills required by the educative process, then they should tackle the bodies of knowledge every high school graduate is expected to acquire.
The Community As Learning Center

As nontraditional learning environments continue to go beyond the four walls of the school, the concept of "teacher" must be interpreted broadly enough to include community people and resources. Yet, many educators still believe that learning cannot occur unless there is "teaching." "Teaching," to most people, involves such things as "syllabus," "curriculum," "course," "test," "grade," "recitation," "hall pass,"--in short, the school environment. However, teaching means more than the above; it should be related to pupil outcomes that can be demonstrated in appropriate, positive behavior patterns.

The Career Opportunities Program concept has been introduced in some districts as a means of getting new types of teachers and new people into the school programs. This approach allows schools to bring in people who can contribute their real experiences to the professional development of the teachers. Thus the community itself becomes a learning center.

Learning Communities

The learning community is composed of teams of parents, teachers, and pupils. No one is in a better position to describe the needs and demands of urban living than parents. They should, therefore, act as consultants to urban administrators and planners.

Every member of the learning community plays an important role in improving the quality of education. The administrator therefore must relinquish some power to members of the learning community so that the nature, quality, and direction of learning becomes a shared responsibility. When administrators encourage parents, teachers, and pupils to view the school as a personal responsibility, parental and community commitment to the school is strengthened. If planning in the school community is to be effective, parents must be involved in the learning process. As reinforced of teachers, parents need to be familiar with their children's school, its curriculum, and its administrator's philosophy. Conversely, administrators must understand parents' hopes, desires, and aspirations for their youngsters. No single approach guarantees the successful involvement of parents, but the
first step is to dispel the mystique that the school is the sole place where the "miracle of learning" occurs. Outreach programs--telephone committees, staff "home visit" committees, and invitations to parents to visit the school and observe programs--should be established. Once parents become familiar with the school and its staff, they will increase their input.

Other Current Nontraditional Approaches to Urban Teaching

Urban education structures should permit pupils more self-determination, enabling them to start at the level of the curriculum which is appropriate for them. In short, the pupil must have options and alternatives. Parkway (in Philadelphia), Metro (in Chicago and in St. Louis) and City-as-School (in New York City) are examples of the move toward nontraditional approaches.

Innovation, however, is a risky business; these schools, because of their nontraditional organization, are often dubbed "not serious." Urban educators must realize, therefore, that transforming a traditional school into one which offers pupils options within a flexible structure is a serious and complicated undertaking. This transformation above all requires thorough planning, for which time and money must be allocated, and appropriate talent mobilized. Frequently, administrators who attempt change end up fighting unions, superintendents, and universities. Nevertheless, when judiciously waged, the battle is well worth fighting.

Street academies, originally developed by the National Urban League, are in most cases outside the public school system. Most have received public donations from individuals, companies, or foundations that support alternative education. Local boards of education are being encouraged to support such efforts through their regular budgets.

Some street academies have had very successful records, all the more remarkable because, in many cases, they only take pupils who have already been declared failures in the public school system. Many of these young people have gone to major Ivy League universities. Currently, a study is being made of street academy graduates who continued their education.
In these academies, pupils are treated as independent persons, responsible for their own education, which is perhaps one reason for the great success of these programs. Pupils are not only given the opportunity to learn, but also encouraged to take part in the planning of their own education. Physical attendance at an academy is normally voluntary. Mere enrollment is evidence of serious purpose.

Some schools have experimented with the open classroom. The open classroom is not, however, totally unstructured; rather, it is a program that allows each pupil to see and note personal progress step by step. A properly designed open structure provides teachers with continuing information regarding the progress and direction of their pupils.
4. PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE PROGRAMS

Preservice

One of the current weaknesses of preservice teacher education is the superficial quality of urban-based field experience. Many new teachers have no experience outside the academic environment before beginning to teach. As a result, they are often unprepared for the actual conditions of the urban schools.

Before teaching in urban schools, therefore, beginning teachers should be required to have a minimum of two years of well supervised field experience. They should explore the urban educational milieu, familiarize themselves with the community school neighborhood--its institutions, its churches--and meet with the parent council to discuss current activities. This kind of field experience would give the new teacher a sense of the community and a respect for prospective pupils, thereby minimizing possible shock or dismay on the first day of classes.

Teacher Corps and its interns have traditionally had a firm understanding of and commitment to school/community partnerships. However, districts which have adopted this kind of orientation are the exception rather than the rule. School districts must create such programs and require all new teachers to participate in them. Teacher training courses and visits to urban classrooms should start as early as the freshman training year. Thus, before reaching their senior year, future teachers will have had many opportunities to interact and work with pupils in urban schools. Teacher competencies germane to urban pupils' needs must also be taught throughout this period.

Since poor urban pupils have many needs in reading and mathematics, teachers should develop specific competencies and survival curriculums in these areas. If this kind of energy and work were to go into preparing urban teachers, universities would produce a new cadre of well trained, thoroughly sensitized, professional teachers.
It is of the utmost importance that classroom teachers—the most crucial school variable in pupils' achievement levels—have the skills, behaviors, and knowledge which will enable them to teach children successfully. Preparatory programs for new teachers should offer:

1. Early and frequent opportunities to work with children in a variety of school and instructional settings
2. Opportunities to acquire specified and assessable competencies in teaching, reading, and mathematics
3. Simulated and real experience which allows them to demonstrate instructional competencies in reading and mathematics and to receive feedback
4. Opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills from the behavioral and social sciences which allow them to develop competencies in individualized instruction, small-group work, classroom management, etc.
5. Exposure to research findings regarding effective instructional strategies.

During the preservice phase, therefore, prospective teachers must have experiences which will enable them to become accustomed to the fact that they are becoming teachers, and that their future pupils, regardless of race, ethnic background, or socioeconomic status, have the ability to learn.

**Inservice**

Inservice training programs provide valuable opportunities for specialists to demonstrate new approaches and techniques. Teachers attending these programs can also share their own techniques with each other, learning from and building on individual strengths and successes. The structuring and development of inservice education should, however, remain a teacher function. Keynote speakers should not dominate the program because the regular teacher—not the guest speaker—has to follow through and implement change.
The best teacher trainer is undoubtedly a fellow teacher; master teachers must be developed, and should aid those teachers whose pupils' achievement levels are generally poor, or are beginning to fall. Supervisors should adopt and maintain their teacher-evaluator roles--too often lost or neglected because of other activities and responsibilities.

There is also a need for inservice to be linked to preservice, and to have a follow-through on a consistent and developmental basis. In California, for example, annual assessments are made of teacher involvement in inservice programs, and research activities are strongly encouraged.

The roles of teachers' organizations and local boards, and their support of inservice training, raise a number of issues. Questions of governance and remuneration are difficult to resolve in many instances, since the needs and preferences of schools are often at odds with those of individual teachers. In addition, the roles of local institutions of higher education have seldom been clarified, including the extent to which they should be consulted, and in what ways. Local boards could share teachers' resumes with neighboring institutions of higher education so that individual needs assessments and training programs could be undertaken. Since, in some cases, the use of local institutions of higher education in inservice training is compulsory, this approach would enhance their contribution.

Inservice ought to be designed to meet specific institutional needs. Too often teachers cannot handle basic changes in curriculum content. Any sort of radical change in curriculum requires that teachers be properly trained through appropriate inservice programs. The new math and the move toward introducing the metric system are cases in point. In many instances, a return to the old math stems from a lack of teacher capability to teach the new math. University-based course designers must therefore give some thought to the problems of new courses, especially when intellectual rather than practical or computational outcomes are desired. Specific behavioral objectives should serve as the foundation of inservice endeavors. Programs should strive to meet a real need--one identified by teachers, administrators, or community members.

In these situations, the practice of claiming that pupils
"can't learn" is grossly unprofessional. Brand new approaches should be looked upon as opportunities for teacher-pupil exploration and learning. As in inservice training, the best classroom results come from learning-by-doing, in which teachers and pupils are jointly involved. Any concealment of ignorance on the teachers' part is both improper and futile; classroom results will be poor in the long run.

School districts have in fact recognized the growing need for inservice training in reading and mathematics instruction, and greater commitment has been made to such courses in recent years. However, school districts often view inservice as a one-shot process, when it should be recognized as an ongoing need. Opinion varies as to whether inservice should be an internal or external function. As noted earlier, the best teacher trainers are frequently other teachers within the same school.

At the same time, properly designed inservice training should enlist local university personnel to aid teachers in realizing what skills they already possess but have not been using—skills they should use to enhance their classroom performance. If there is hard evidence that a specific teaching method is effective, then it should be possible to demonstrate this method in the classroom. Teaching techniques developed in the university laboratory should be field-tested in the classroom during inservice training, thereby helping to build a reciprocal relationship between the university and the local school district.

A suitable inservice teacher training program is a vital support system in any attempt to improve instruction in mathematics, reading, speech, and writing. Such a program should:

1. be well conceptualized and designed, and based on organizational and individual goals
2. allow for decisionmaking by representatives of all groups affected, utilizing talents of school, college and community persons
3. specifically aim to improve teaching
4. be situation-specific, focus on particular objectives and subsequent classroom performance and behavior, and provide teachers with
relevant instructional approaches

5. emphasize demonstrations, supervised tasks, and feedback

6. be individualized so that teachers with particular needs will have differentiated educational experiences

7. be conducted by personnel able to provide assistance to teachers

8. have an assessment and feedback mechanism allowing program personnel to modify and improve their services.

9. utilize state-of-the-art teaching research data

10. be rich in substance and attractive to teachers who have had varied experiences and length of service

11. be supported by the school system administration and teachers' organizations as a means of improving the quality of instruction

Finally, State education agencies must accept the responsibility to provide technical assistance in program design, and maintain dissemination systems on effective inservice practices, resources, and consultants. They should also promote technical assistance in linking preservice training programs to inservice training programs.
5. **RECOMMENDATIONS**

**On the Federal Level**

1) Given the fact of national declining enrollments, and with the resultant staff reductions, it is likely that teachers now in the classroom will remain there for a number of years to come. Therefore, Federal, State and local agencies should stress programs which equip present teachers with new skills. Furthermore, there should be budgetary allocations for continuous retraining programs to meet local needs.

2) The Office of Education should fund retraining programs for university faculties to enable them to bring their own expertise and the resources of their university to assist urban school districts to meet the educational needs of their pupils. In addition, funding should be made available to enable university professional schools to establish ties with local high schools in order to discover untapped talent, and to motivate young people to adopt professions they might not normally consider.

3) The Federal Government should provide funding for a variety of models of teacher centers: those controlled by teacher organizations, those which are independent and free standing, and those which are university based.

4) The Office of Education should fund the development of tests which are not culturally biased, and which measure the achievement of pupils from poor, urban backgrounds.

5) Federal and State grants to education should be awarded in such a way as to allow sufficient time for planning by local school districts.

6) Traditional training programs for school administrators have generally failed to provide the requisite manage-
ment skills for the running of a complex, urban human-services delivery system. Therefore, the Office of Education should fund pre- and inservice programs which equip school administrators at all levels with modern management skills.

7) Too often, evaluation is a one-shot process, tending to focus on a particular program. Longitudinal research needs to be conducted to ascertain the long term effects of Federal programs on pupils at the local level.

On the State Level

1) Since education is a function of State government, State education agencies should evolve mechanisms to provide careful monitoring of, and increased, improved technical assistance to, local school boards.

On the Local Level

1) Local central administrations should provide supportive services--planning, guidance, and others--within the school building itself.

2) School boards should be encouraged to use successful schools as training laboratories for the district's professional staff.

3) Boards of education should be encouraged to seek the assistance of unions, business, government agencies, and the community to effect education change.

4) Local school districts should receive funding to provide basic skills at all levels of schooling.

5) All academic programs should stress building a positive personal and academic self-concept among both pupils and their teachers.

6) Any additional built-in elements of instructional programs should include appropriate use of informal learning settings outside the school walls.
7) It is essential that attempts be made to reach parents well before their children are of school age. Since studies have revealed that the most crucial cognitive period takes place at the preschool level, parents from poor urban settings need guidance in providing their children with experiences which prepare them for formal learning.
III.

USOE TASK FORCE REPORT
ON
RURAL AND MIGRANT INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
RURAL AND MIGRANT TASK FORCE PARTICIPANTS

Chairperson:
Dr. Gene Bottoms
Director
Division of Program
and Staff Development
State Department of Education
Atlanta, Georgia

Task Force Consultants:
Mr. Ramiro Avila
Oral Language Consultant
The Migrant Education Center
Leipsic, Ohio

Mr. Charles Barker
Teacher
Manzanitos High School
Grants Pass, Oregon

Mr. Ulysses Byas
Superintendent
Macon County Schools
Tuskegee, Alabama

Dr. Octavia Knight
Director of Special Education
North Carolina Central University
Durham, North Carolina

Mr. Joe Miller
Director
National Migrant Transfer System
State Department of Education
Little Rock, Arkansas

Ms. Bonnie Nicholson
Director of Federal Projects
Bessemer City Schools
Bessemer, Alabama

Mrs. Donna Nuffer
Title I Teacher
MacArthur Elementary School
Wichita, Kansas

Dr. Gilbert Schiffman
Director, School of Education
Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

Dr. Joel Smith
Administrative Assistant
Cobb County Public Schools
Marietta, Georgia

Ms. Debbie Uselton
Teacher
Canales School
Brownsville, Texas
1. INSTRUCTIONAL NEEDS

The education of rural and migrant pupils must be derived from and related to their local rural learning environments; it should allow, however, for future alternative settings. The Task Force on Rural and Migrant Education stressed that this relationship to home background should not be overlooked in any analysis of rural pupils' instructional needs in reading and mathematics. Further, the socioeconomic status of rural pupils has significant impact on the quality and nature of the education received; unique economic and cultural traditions give rise to factors that make the educational process more difficult.

All standard assessments have revealed that a majority of rural and migrant pupils lack reading and mathematics skills. Some of the failure to acquire adequate basic skills can be attributed to flaws in the schools' instructional strategies. Too often, the emphasis is placed on the teaching of concepts and skills, based on materials unfamiliar to the pupils. This accounts in large part for the non-achieving rural pupils' lack of interest in classroom activities. The lives of rural pupils provide a rich experiential basis for the teaching of reading and mathematics. Pupils' motivations increase when they can relate learning acquired in the school to experiences outside the school. The interaction between abstract skills and concepts, and life outside the school, increases the possibility that pupils will retain and apply in-school learning.

Rural migrant families frequently move from town to town in pursuit of work and income. The current estimate is that at least 60 percent of all migrant children move at least once a year. This high rate of mobility presents a severe problem to rural school systems, some of which experience an annual turnover of 100 percent of their pupil population. (Some educators have reported a slowdown in this trend because of the shrinking job market in the cities.) The pupils' need for educational continuity parallels their need for a cohesive and cumulative social experience. This need is left unfulfilled because of continuous relocation and a general lack of resources in rural settings.
The cultural traditions of rural society add to the existing difficulties in the education of rural pupils. Chief among these traditions is rural dialects, which differ markedly in pronunciation and structure from standard English, and frequently are stigmatized in the school setting as inferior. Pupils' use of dialects should not be discouraged, but instead used constructively as a foundation upon which standard English can be taught.

The relationship between pupils' families and the school has significant impact on academic achievement. While some families manage to maintain contact with the teachers, many more, unfamiliar with school procedures, in awe of the school environment and self-conscious about their own lack of education, merely surrender their children to the school. If the basic skills of rural and migrant pupils are to be improved, increased involvement and support must be sought from their parents.

Many rural pupils need to develop strong, positive self-concepts. When placed in unfamiliar surroundings, pupils often cannot cope. Given this problem, rural schools must provide their pupils with experiences that will familiarize them with different adults, life situations and settings, in a manner to enhance their confidence to deal successfully with new school surroundings.

Career education (building on basic skills acquired through life experience) can substantially benefit the rural pupil. A career-education program should include six basic components: (1) hands-on activity in which tools and skills are emphasized in relation to occupations, (2) subject matter tie-in in which an awareness is created of the interrelation between academic skills, concepts, and occupations, (3) resource persons who demonstrate the application of reading and mathematics concepts and skills to activities in the community, (4) field trips that expose pupils to new occupational settings, to other adults, and to different types of work, (5) role playing which allows pupils to try on different occupational coats and to understand the contribution each job makes to the well-being of society, and (6) techniques for increasing self-awareness, through which pupils acquire a better understanding of themselves in relation to adult roles and functions.

These components should be incorporated in the curriculum through the use of a "unit lesson plan." Such comprehensive units would allow mathematics and reading skills to be applied to adult-related activities. This approach would enable pupils to obtain the academic qualifications essential to participation in a variety of adult roles. The 'unit lesson plan'
would fill a basic need in rural education: the provision of activities that instill a "reason to learn" in pupils, so that they commit themselves to mastering reading and mathematics.

In summary, rural education must have a functional application. It should allow pupils to acquire knowledge that relates to their environment, gradually broadening this experience-based learning to include new settings and situations.
Administration, curriculum, and personnel pre- and inservice training are directly connected with the quality of instruction in reading and mathematics programs. Effective leadership at the school site is a prerequisite for success in ESEA Title I programs. However, local school system management is generally marked by a lack of flexibility, stemming from rigid adherence to Federal guidelines.

Title I programs are designed to provide "supplementary services." Participating pupils must meet eligibility criteria. In schools where 50 to 60 percent of the pupils are eligible, they are usually taken out of their regular classrooms to receive Title I services. It is difficult to conduct effective overall programs in such schools if Title I program pupils are continually moving in and out of regular and supplementary classes. It would be far better to allow all pupils to participate in an integrated program as a nonfragmented body, thereby placing the emphasis on improving the entire school.

State-level administration of Title I is essentially a maintenance operation. Title I officials often seem to demonstrate more concern for citing regulations than determining the extent to which pupils' educational needs are being met. If these programs are to be effective, the State role in Title I program leadership should include more than program administration. State leadership, therefore, is needed in the development of instructional improvement. Change in the State role will occur only if the U.S. Office of Education changes its requirements for State activity. A clear focus at State and national levels on instructional needs would result in local school districts devoting more effort and resources to the improvement of instruction in reading and mathematics.

The rural curriculum must emphasize language, best achieved through the adoption of competency-based curriculums. In many rural homes, parents seldom speak to their children. Few rural parents encourage their children to be talkative. Further, rural children seldom look at the people who are teaching them or talking to them. Rural pupils must therefore become used to actively listening to and acknowledging directions; in fact, reacting to the voices and eyes of those talking to them.
Emphasis on language development must precede a pupil's "readiness to learn" stage. Teachers must be able to assess the social as well as academic skills of their pupils. Since many rural pupils are academically weak, their social skills must be identified and used to prepare and motivate them for success in school. Given these circumstances, a competency-based curriculum with skill-orientation emphasis provides the most effective method for teaching reading. Studies have shown that successful competency-based reading programs taught in a foreign language will cut across age and grade levels.

Reading and mathematics instruction techniques requiring a definition of skills should be considered for implementation through a competency-based curriculum. A group of State directors of migrant education programs is developing, for example, a criterion-referenced list of necessary mathematics and reading skills. Such a list can provide the basis for the development of a nationwide curriculum for migrant pupils.

In view of their mobility, educational continuity for migrant pupils should be sought and developed. A teacher using the mathematics skills list can instruct any pupil immediately, regardless of the texts used previously. As an extension of the instructional technique based on the criterion-referenced list, reading and mathematics competencies should be specified by grade level, defining the levels of competence that rural pupils must master in order to manage their lives as adults. Reading and mathematics competencies at middle-grade levels and above should be expressed in terms of functional applications to everyday life, such as the ability to read and mark a ballot. The U.S. Office of Education should assume the leadership in assisting each State to develop criterion-referenced objectives and measurement instruments as part of the Title I State plan.

Specific reading activities must be examined in order to identify techniques that enhance rural education. The "Abacus" approach used in Newark, for example, helps pupils to verbalize by teaching them the sounds of the alphabet and encouraging them to sound them out.

A useful practice is to distribute pamphlets that address the need for a functional and quantifiable understanding of the environment outside the school. The U.S. Department of Labor proposed this kind of publication and has considered producing a "Junior" Occupational Outlook Handbook designed for 7th to 8th grade use. An instructional
A technique highly applicable for the stage preceding "readiness to learn" is called "thought and feelings," and is derived from the rational-emotive concept of education, requiring that an hour be set aside daily during which teachers and pupils can share their thoughts and feelings.

Improvement of rural education is dependent upon the upgrading and updating of the knowledge and skills of the rural teacher. It is important that early-grade teachers have a mastery of both the linguistic and the experience approach to the teaching of reading. Further, rural teachers must have an understanding of their pupils' home and cultural backgrounds if, in the teaching of standard English, they are to use familiar content. In many cases, teachers do not live in the community where they teach. It is therefore essential to provide, as part of a comprehensive in-service program preparation, onsite visits, so that rural teachers understand and accept the family and cultural backgrounds of their pupils. Further, rural teachers must have a feeling for the goals and objectives of their pupils. They can then use material of particular interest to them when teaching reading and mathematics. When this happens, information about the requirements for achieving these objectives can be motivating. In the absence of such understanding, the same information can be discouraging. The story is told of a hill-country pupil in the upper grades whose ambition was to work on automatic transmissions. When he found out from a teacher who accepted his goal that he had to be able to read technical manuals for this kind of work, he decided to learn to read.

The "Cureton Method," which is a linguistic method of teaching reading, emphasizes pupil involvement in the instructional process. It makes use of concrete objects, situations, and expressions familiar to rural pupils to transform phonological skills into functional reading skills.

Rural teachers should be prepared to implement proven strategies and techniques through locally developed in-service programs. The most effective programs are performance-based. Inservice programs should be designed with both a theoretical and an on-the-job component. Teachers should not be told "what" to do and "why," but should be shown "how" through followup assistance.

Inservice training provided cooperatively by teacher-training institutions and schools is invaluable. A proposal entitled "The Improvement of Student Achievement Through a Continuous Inservice Preservice Teacher Training Program"
provides an example. It called for a combined effort on
the part of the School of Education at Tuskegee, the Bank
Street College in New York City, the University of Massa-
chusetts, and two schools in Alabama. In one school, all
the pupils were black; in the other, half of the pupils
were black and the other half were white. The specific
goal of this consortium was to develop instructional mod-
ules through which inhibitors to learning in the two
schools could be identified. Pupils were dismissed at
2:45 p.m., but teachers stayed until 3:30 p.m. three days
a week, during which time they attended program workshops.
In addition to selecting modules of particular interest,
the teachers could elect to enroll in courses with the
cooperating institutions, earning credit toward a higher
degree.

Also useful are teacher-developed training designs. In
these, teachers themselves establish the objectives and
monitor progress: An Alabama diagnostic-prescriptive
program, in which a group of 32 teachers selected its
training consultants, is an example. The teachers pre-
pared curriculum guides, including a kindergarten com-
ponent that sells nationally. These teachers gained
much insight by observing outstanding colleagues, par-
ticularly about how to implement improved instructional
approaches in their own classrooms.

In summary, a program does not rise above the quality of
its leadership. There is great need for State and local
leadership to initiate and implement a change in staff
performance and curriculum in rural and migrant education.
3. INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES

The task force examined a number of effective instructional techniques used to prepare rural and migrant pupils to learn reading and mathematics. These included strategies for building motivation and self-concept.

The means to improve pupils' self-concepts must be identified and developed. Successful experiences contribute to positive self-concepts. These in turn aid in academic achievement. Furthermore, schools have an obligation to provide successful experiences for their pupils; these are essential for the building of motivation to achieve in reading and mathematics. Such experiences must be truly successful, however, and not merely labeled so. Pupils must not be lulled into a false sense of academic achievement. The professionally competent teacher will provide activities through which pupils will understand what they have mastered, and what they still have to learn. Experience must also be relevant—a pupil from northeast Georgia might not be motivated to read about foreign places and people unless these in some way relate to personal experience or interest.

Many rural pupils must be brought to a "readiness to learn" stage, and be offered the social and academic skills necessary to acquire the confidence needed to cope with the school environment. They must in effect be encouraged to take the initiative, and in some cases be helped to become accepted members of the pupil group. One teacher set aside a period for pupils to discuss their experiences. This teacher carefully structured the sessions so that pupils, particularly recent migrant arrivals, could overcome their natural reluctance to talk about themselves.

In school motivation techniques that focus on career education should be developed. A curriculum should be designed in which career education is brought into every aspect of classroom subjects in ways that strengthen pupil self-concepts. In addition to career education, nonregular Title I classroom programs allow for added reinforcement of self-concept; pupils can be encouraged to feel special, meriting special services. Building self-confidence in the school and in other away-from-
home settings is therefore a priority; the appropriate components in rural and migrant education should address it directly.

Special training in mathematics and reading approaches is recommended for teachers of rural and migrant pupils. One technique in mathematics instruction requires that pupils bring newspapers to class and select from the advertisements two items that they would like to buy. The teacher and pupils then discuss how much the articles cost. This involves them in counting, budgeting and decisionmaking.

The "inquiry process" is a useful technique for teaching reading. One method used in Cobb County, Georgia, involves taking field trips. Before pupils leave for the trip, they are encouraged to develop questions about what they will be seeing. This technique helps to sharpen their observations on the trip, and to make them comfortable with the adults who will travel with them.

The "Magic Circle" reading technique aims to develop speaking and listening skills. The teacher sets aside 30 minutes during the day and organizes a third of the class in an inner circle, with the remaining pupils sitting around the perimeter. The inner circle pupils are encouraged to talk about a subject of their choosing, while the outer circle need not interact. This technique is aimed at helping the outer circle pupils develop their listening abilities, while the inner circle pupils develop their speaking abilities.

The Rational Living School in New York City uses a technique for affective learning which can be adapted to the teaching of reading. First, an accepting climate must be provided by the teacher. The technique then seeks to use the pupils' own thoughts and feelings to help them develop concepts of reading as they develop social and personal abilities. It involves verbalizing reactions to these thoughts and feelings, during which process certain key words can be identified by the group at large. While providing an outlet for personal expression and group acceptance, this method also teaches a reading skill.

To satisfy the need for a quick method of passing on information about the achievement of rural and migrant pupils, the Wichita school system developed a "reading record card." This reading skill list allows the teacher to check off specific skills as pupils master and use them, and not merely when pupils are exposed or introduced.
to them. This technique can motivate pupils by showing them the exact nature of their achievement.

The "make-and-take-workshop" is a general technique designed to help teachers develop resource materials. This workshop is concerned with improving ability in basic hearing, seeing, and speaking. Prior to workshop sessions, organizers send the individual teacher or community worker a list specifying that he or she bring particular items to the session. At the workshop, the teachers choose and take away those remedial materials which interest them most.

Another technique, called "shine," uses some teacher-made materials. It demonstrates the value and use of the local dialect in teaching reading. "Shine" makes use of familiar local dialects, and encourages pupils to enjoy reading materials. After the taped "shine" story is played, pupils are directed to pigeonholes in which there are printed materials about the story. Each pupil must then decide what kind of development he or she would like to add to the story.

In conclusion, techniques to upgrade the reading and mathematics achievement of rural pupils clearly exist. An understanding of the nature of effective teaching must therefore become standard practice in all rural classrooms.
Instruments that measure pupil performance—through which the effectiveness of teaching strategies and techniques are subsequently assessed—must be reexamined. Currently, standardized tests based on predetermined national norms are widely used in rural education to assess pupil achievement. In addition to norm-referenced standardized intelligence tests for the assessment of rural pupil achievement, criterion-referenced tests should be used. Norm-referenced tests tend to show how rural children compare with a national peer group, while criterion-referenced tests demonstrate the extent to which the rural pupil achieves locally defined mathematics and reading objectives. This second type of test provides bases for the teacher to diagnose the skills and weaknesses of each pupil. Further, standardized intelligence tests that use cognitive, verbal, and mathematics content as a means to assess intelligence are an invalid measure of the potential for achievement of rural pupils.

Norm-referenced standardized tests are used by Federal and State officials to determine the effectiveness of Title I programs. In Title I programs, pupils often take standardized achievement tests at the beginning and end of the year to determine their progress during the past two semesters. This represents a misuse of these tests, since they are designed to compare how pupils stand in comparison to a norm group, rather than determine how well they had assimilated what they had been taught. Many States conduct their own statewide testing program, distributing reports of the test scores to the local school systems. However, these reports are not systematically used for instructional improvement. States often use these reports for accountability purposes. The results of research based on these test scores are tainted, because the tests are administered to children who cannot read them in the first place.

Some States are trying to standardize the evaluation of reading and mathematics achievement by using criteria linked to functional literacy. The ability to read basic income tax documents (e.g., W-2 forms), and to scrutinize newspapers to select the best buys among advertised specials,
The collected "objective" data are fed into a computer. Output data are examined for evidence of statistical gains among pupils.

Many pupils, especially those in the earlier grades, have difficulty in understanding test directions. As a consequence, teachers often violate test procedures and show the pupils how to follow directions.

Dr. David Welcher has conducted studies using the Wexler-Bellevue intelligence test, and has found that if questions are worded in the test takers' dialect, their ability to comprehend them, and therefore to answer them correctly, improves significantly.

Pupils who are either nonreaders or are intimidated by tests often make guesses and fill in answer boxes at random. Some severely intimidated pupils refuse to make answer marks at all. Standardized tests continue to have a significant impact on schools, however, and many teachers specifically prepare pupils for taking them. Once a school district decides to use a particular standardized test to measure teaching effectiveness, programs and priorities are geared to it.

In competency-based programs suited to rural pupils, competency-based testing instruments must be used to assess achievement and the effectiveness of the educational program. Diagnostic instruments are already in use for determining what skills migrant pupils need. One of them, the Fountain Valley Test, is considered effective, but requires too much time to administer. An improved formulation, which required shorter turnaround time, was developed in 1972, and forms part of a data-analysis system for clinical teaching. In one-and-a-half days, teachers can be trained to administer this test. It is then given to fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh graders. Each pupil's achievement and skills profile is prepared and given to the appropriate teacher for analysis. The teacher is then responsible for initiating instructional activities to help the pupil acquire those skills found lacking.

The use of tests for assessing the reading and mathematics strengths and needs of each pupil ensures that learning activities are prescribed for each pupil according to need. Teachers should confer in teams on the profiles of particular pupils and seek to develop specific strategies for meeting skill needs. Attention must be given to the ways in which teachers use test results in their planning of individualized instructional programs. In addition to providing comparisons with norm groups, test results should be analyzed to ascertain which skills pupils had mastered. Such reports would indicate skills to be taught rather than merely compare one group with another.
In attempting to assess the effectiveness of teaching, decisions must be made about the applicability of standardized norm-referenced tests versus diagnostic, criterion-referenced tests. Those favoring the latter assert that the States could establish basic objectives in reading and mathematics, specifying the essential skills to be mastered at selected grade levels. Additionally, objectives could include enough items to allow for diagnosis and the prescription of remedial materials. Such tests would concentrate on the critical objectives, rather than deal with an entire range. The high degree of mobility among rural pupils creates particular problems in prescribing appropriate assessment instruments. The U.S. Office of Education therefore should encourage each State to define those essential skills in mathematics and reading that each pupil is expected to achieve.

In summary, greater emphasis must be placed on the use of criterion-referenced tests that assess essential skills all pupils are expected to achieve in reading and mathematics. This should result in test reporting for accountability purposes giving equal emphasis to (a) the rural pupil's relative rank in comparison to national populations; and (b) the extent to which rural pupils are achieving those skills considered essential in mathematics and reading, for further learning and successful functioning as adults in our society. Greater emphasis must be placed on the proper use of appropriate types of test results, both for personal goal setting and institutional effectiveness. Use of tests for personal goal setting involves asking pupils to understand their strengths and needs, and helping them to formulate and initiate the necessary action. Institutional uses of test results include: (a) diagnosing pupil needs and formulating and implementing individualized instruction strategies, (b) assessing the curriculums to determine when, where, and to what extent covering was to be given to those skills in which numbers of pupils are deficient, (c) assessing the effectiveness of existing material and learning activities used to teach skills in which many pupils are deficient, and (d) determine teachers' methods and materials deficiencies, and devise staff development activities to correct them. In essence, clear expectations of achievement ought to be established for pupils. At the same time, teachers ought to know where the pupils stand in terms of those expectations. Further, teachers must be prepared to help pupils who fail to meet the goals they have set themselves.
The varying impact of intervention strategies used in rural education, especially those involving pupil retention and parents' participation in the Migrant Program, derives as much from their ability to meet rural pupils' needs as from the degree of importance attached to them by program administrators.

The Migrant Program was designed to help create educational continuity for more than 650,000 rural migrant pupils who move within and between States anywhere from three to fifteen times a year. In the year it was introduced, only 12 migrant pupils in the entire Nation graduated from high school; two years later, 455 pupils completed their high school education.

The severe problem of educational discontinuity is best described in the following anecdote: Juan, a Mexican-American pupil, was considered "very bright" by one teacher at a school in Arkansas. But Juan and his family migrated to another part of the State, where his teacher said "he just can't learn." The new teacher asked Juan to open his text at page 16 "to read about making igloos." Juan could not have cared less about igloos. At a third school, he was placed in a class where the teacher had built the lesson around the growing of pumpkins, and this familiar item in Juan's life was used as the basis for teaching reading and mathematics. Juan's failure or success in each school can be attributed to the relevance of the lesson materials to his interests and to his teacher's awareness of the value of relevance.

A key feature of the Migrant Program—one directed at ensuring educational continuity—is the Record Transfer Form. Using this form in conjunction with the Medical Form, a teacher can learn the pupil's history in the State and school district from which he or she has migrated.

Since the implementation of the Migrant Student Transfer System, Record Transfer Forms have allowed teachers to
identify and record the materials the pupil had been using in a previous school system. It also indicates what tests the pupil had taken. This information provides the new teacher with a comprehensive profile, saving many hours in drawing up a complete needs assessment.

Public Law 93-380 expanded the scope of the Migrant Program, extending it to migrant pupils who now have a permanent residence. This category of pupils can now receive a maximum of five years of services from the program. Legislators hope that these young people will develop into stable models; other migrant families will be encouraged to settle in one location, thereby giving their children a better chance to learn.

Mexican-American migrant camps, in particular, constitute "linguistic and socioeconomic islands" in American society. To ameliorate this situation, emphasis must be placed on the usefulness of "open houses" which have been successful in providing a meeting place for migrant worker communities. Every year these open houses mount displays and supervise activities that stress the art work, and achievements in reading, mathematics, and the English language of migrant children. To build a bridge between the Migrant Program and the parents, children whose parents do not speak English are asked to act as interpreters; this encourages increased participation in school-related activities.

The curricular strategies used for summer migrant programs are generally inadequate to meet the diverse needs of migrant pupils. The great majority of the summer school projects offered by States with a migrant agricultural labor force still use the traditional age-graded curricular model, in which the specific needs of migrant pupils are considered less important than the need for an expedient organizational system for the school.

Pupils are expected to start learning to read in the first grade, but many still cannot read by the fifth and sixth grades. There exists a language arts curriculum model basically suited to migrant pupils. It provides for a nongraded, competency-based administrative structure, in which pupils are grouped on the basis of educational needs, rather than on the basis of age. The acquisition of oral language communication skills in English is the basic instructional aim of this curricular design, utilizing second-language teaching methods and techniques based on the latest pedagogical contributions of applied linguistics and of behavioral sciences. The migrant pupil whose mother tongue is not English must understand and speak the language of the school before he can be expected to read, write, and use it.
It is frequently difficult for States to implement successful oral language development curriculum for migrant pupils because most relevant textbook material is rigidly structured. Language development is the basis of all successful reading and mathematics programs. One State, Michigan, has a Migrant Program which uses extensive oral language development materials that could be adapted and modified for use in other settings.

An alternative to the limited utility of these kinds of curriculums would be the development of curriculum guides that establish each program's basic approaches and objectives, while encouraging teachers to do what worked best. If a successful pupil-retention strategy was employed, the effectiveness of the Migrant Program would be increased. If "holding power" could be developed, it would allow the Migrant Program to deliver a full range of educational services. In a particularly successful dropout-prevention program, pupils who did poorly in reading and mathematics were isolated and provided with a full complement of services in the secondary school. The staff of this school-within-a-school included English, mathematics, and vocational instructors as well as a guidance person. Regular textbooks were discarded, and mathematics and reading skills necessary to survive in the community were taught directly. This particular retention effort was successful in building attendance, and increasing reading achievement levels by as much as three years.

In a Philadelphia program for potential dropouts in the 9th and 10th grades, pupils had a varied curriculum: in the morning they had two hours of individualized instructional labs in mathematics and reading; after this they would participate in a group guidance effort. During a period of 13 weeks, they went out in the afternoon into the community to participate in different work settings. These pupils' achievement levels were often higher than those of their classmates who remained within the traditional school setting.

A special retention program called "Preparation for Parenthood" was based on the school-within-a-school model previously described. This program required that an entire building be constructed at the end of a school corridor. The program sought to help the high-school-age mother complete high school. In the five years since the program's inception, 160 mothers graduated. When the original three-
year grant expired, the local Board of Education provided further funding. Day Care and Head Start programs gave the mothers additional services, and they were allowed to bring their babies to school with them at no additional cost.

The extent of parental involvement in the schools (or lack of it) depends on the attitude of the school towards the parents and the parents' economic situation. Parents often feel uncomfortable when they have to meet with professionals. Parents often interpret regulations requiring their attendance at the school as coercive; and consequently they are resentful. School systems very frequently require that parents come in person to pick up their child's report card. However, work hours and school hours frequently conflict, making this difficult for many parents. Many rural parents are paid by the hour, and therefore cannot afford to sacrifice the time. Thus, parents' need-to-work results in penalization of the child.

The establishment of adult education programs has done the most to involve parents, and subsequently to promote pupils' academic achievement. Parents must be taught to develop language with their children from the age of two or two-and-a-half.

A parent-education pilot program in Wichita, Kansas first invited the parents to the school for coffee and doughnuts. During this session, parents were encouraged to go through the class lessons to see what kind of instruction their children were receiving. In addition, this program established a workshop to which the parents were invited, and at which they could display their own crafts. To encourage parents' attendance at such functions, schools should provide onsite baby sitting services for parents who attend. Education workshops can also foster parental involvement. In one, called the "Abacus Workshop," parents were paid $20 each per attended session for an entire year. In a make-and-take workshop for teacher training, the role of parents was significant. It was noted that during the release time given by teachers to attend these sessions, parents worked in the classrooms as substitutes. Extensive use should be made of home visitation at times convenient to parents.

In summary, increased parental involvement in the schools, and in children's education, has become a major intervention...
strategy for the improvement of rural pupils' achievement. Since the parents of nonachieving pupils probably themselves failed to achieve in school, the strategy must be geared toward encouraging them to participate in available adult education programs.
There is a flaw in the basic assumption of Title I; that if teachers start with youngsters early enough -- at about first grade -- the pupils will progress at the same pace throughout their school years. This assumption ignores the substantial need for reading and mathematics development at the junior high and secondary levels.

To satisfy the education needs of the rural preschooler, necessary concepts must be introduced for the development of the affective as well as the cognitive area. In addition, as in career education, specific competencies must be identified, and communicated to the pupil. For example, pupils sitting on the floor and working by themselves on basic color concepts should know what their objective is. They should have supportive help and when they have achieved the objective, they should be told that they have succeeded. The teacher can then introduce them to the next task.

There is also the problem of identification in structuring rural pupils' education. Kindergarten, 1st grade, or 2d grade pupils could be taught by several adults during the course of a day. They may be unable to identify sufficiently with any of their teachers to develop the reinforcement of self-confidence necessary for "readiness for readiness to learn."

A decade ago, remediation programs in rural areas were few. These served only late bloomers, early faders, and pupils whose standardized reading test scores were more than two years below their grade level. "Let's see if they outgrow it," was a common statement. If pupils were to receive assistance in the 2d grade instead of the 9th grade, such early identification and intervention would markedly increase the possibility of successful remediation.

Other studies offer evidence of the need for early identification of learning difficulties. In one case, 3d grade pupils were taken out of their regular classrooms and were given remedial work. When assessed in 6th grade, 79
percent of these pupils were still reading at grade level. However, remediation ended in the 8th grade. When these pupils were examined in the 11th grade, only 8 percent were reading at grade level. It is clear that continued developmental curriculums will be necessary for many pupils to maintain grade-level reading ability.

Studies which assess the need for remediation strategies have confirmed the need for instructional programs which prevent the development of learning problems in preschool children. A study of 4,000 children, which followed their development from their 9th month to the end of their second year, showed that up to the age of two, children of different races were similar. After that age, differential linguistic and cognitive development began. A child's environment, not its race, is the prime determinant of critical differences in individual development. If resources are applied to prevent learning problems in pupils of this age, remediation programs at the upper grade levels will be less expensive.

A State migrant education program for preschool children in Florida illustrates the effectiveness of early assistance as a prevention strategy. All those who had received two years of preschool instruction, starting at age three, passed 1st and 2d grades. Of those pupils who had received two years of preschool instruction starting at age four, 4.6 percent failed either 1st or 2d grade. Of those who, as five-year-olds, attended kindergarten only, 9.8 percent failed either 1st or 2d grade. Of those migrant children with no preschool or kindergarten experience, 33 percent failed either 1st or 2d grades. It is imperative that migrant pupils be reached as early as possible if they are to achieve and maintain the same levels as their nonmigrant peers. In view of this, and of similar findings in other studies, national assistance strategies, as defined in legislation, should be extended to three-year-olds.

Nutrition and health care are important components of assistance strategies for pupils in preschool and elementary school. The health care of young pupils in rural areas is significant in determining their success or failure in school; the death rate for this group is 124 percent higher than the national average. Parents should receive advice on basic nutrition problems and ideas. This would aid early identification strategies.
In summary, it is clear that national assistance strategies must be expanded in two areas: Early Childhood Education, which should be extended to include three-year-olds; and reading and mathematics continued developmental programs at the junior and secondary level.
Productive school climates, efficient managerial structures, meaningful programs, and adequate staff preparation are necessary components for the improvement of instruction in rural education.

The advantages of a healthy attitudinal climate in the school cannot be overstressed. Unsuccessful education programs are usually marked by a defeatist attitude among school personnel; they do not believe in the pupil's ability to learn. The need for a positive school climate has not been given sufficient attention in Title I programs. Some schools with pupils from low-income, rural families have task-oriented principals whose leadership enables the pupils to achieve above the national norm. These principals clearly demonstrate their belief that schools can educate children.

A study published by the Harvard Educational Review analyzed the significance of teacher expectations. This study surveyed pupils enrolled in a kindergarten class, in which they had been separated into four groups. The teacher had formulated expectations of the learning capabilities of each group and adopted appropriate teaching strategies. When the teacher asked a slow-group pupil a question and received an "I don't know" answer, she turned away. Posing the same question to a fast-group member and receiving an "I don't know" answer, the teacher made substantial efforts to show this pupil that in fact he did know. When addressing the class, the teacher normally faced the fast group and had her back to the slow group. Because teacher expectations significantly affect pupil achievement, educators should develop plans which would help teachers to become enthusiastic about the capacity of all pupils to learn. Programs are needed which allow teachers to develop confidence in pupils' learning potential, while instructing the teachers in specific competencies. The programs should enable teachers to earn master's degree credits for all
competencies demonstrated in the school; they should not have to attend teacher-training classes. A college professor, a peer teacher, and the school principal could jointly observe and evaluate the teacher's demonstration of these competencies. The program would provide benefits by creating new ties between principals and teachers.

Many successful schools have a management structure in which the principal is the "key person." In rural schools, principals must be strong administrators; they cannot merely show meticulous concern for limiting activities to Federal guidelines, nor can they view the instruction of rural children as a maintenance operation. Successful leadership is process-oriented; constantly examining pupils' education needs, identifying barriers to these needs, and formulating and implementing strategies to meet them. The principal is so important in the managerial structure that 3 percent of Title I funds should be allocated for management purposes. This would allow the principal to allocate 1 percent of these funds to staff who work with poor pupils. A program that would bring together the principals in a given region within a State, allowing them to pool their expertise and thereby improve their institutional management skills, would have positive repercussions.

An important aspect of the principal's role in the managerial structure is the relationship with the teachers. Teachers with strong egos, tenacity, and patience should be selected for rural instructional programs. In addition, principals must recognize and encourage teachers who make an extra effort.

In many rural schools, there is a lack of communication among teachers, and between teachers and principals. A study has found that when teachers perceive their principals to be open, flexible, interested in curriculum, and supportive of their instruction problems, and as setting high expectations for them, pupils scored significantly higher on the statewide tests than in schools where teachers perceived principals as lacking these qualities. When the principal is more concerned about building maintenance than instructional problems, then teachers will react accordingly.

The development of alternative course scheduling and organization models should be a permanent feature of
rural instructional programs. Some States' Regional Accréditing Commissions accredit high schools which have a college-type schedule. Classes meet three times a week for one hour, and twice a week for two hours. This schedule is designed to improve pupil achievement by decreasing the number of weekly and daily preparations, while working the same total number of hours. The teachers benefit by not having to prepare five lessons every evening; in fact, they would prepare three lessons in one afternoon and two the next.

Classroom organization—whether self-contained or "mainstreamed"—must be designed to meet specific needs. The "learning disabled" child and the "trainable" child cannot be taught in the same classroom at the same time; the learning-disabled child must be taken out of the regular classroom for the kindergarten and 1st grade years. Nevertheless, 19 States have already passed legislation requiring "mainstreaming" in the schools. Learning-disabled children not previously taught in the regular classroom are being "mainstreamed."

To instruct rural pupils successfully every teacher must have five basic skills: (1) presenting materials such as films, (2) questioning, (3) constructing testing instruments, (4) analysis (the teacher must be able to interpret test scores and make appropriate adjustments in teaching strategies or techniques), and (5) building confidence.

A major problem in the staff organization of rural elementary schools is that too many people must report to the principal. A different staffing model, in which the principal meets weekly with a "lead teacher," is needed. This method of organization is described in the "Individual Guide to Education," developed by the Kettering Foundation, and is already in use in some schools. In this management process, groups of teachers, directed by a "lead teacher," meet every day for 30 minutes to do team planning, and to look into the needs of individual pupils. The "lead teachers" then meet once a week with the principal for similar purposes. This staffing model improved communication between teachers and principals, and focused everyone's attention on pupil learning.

Another successful staffing model used junior and senior
high school pupils as "cadet teacher aides." These pupils received licenses to work as teacher aides when they graduated.

In summary, a positive school climate, effective managerial structure, and teacher confidence in the pupil's ability to learn are basically dependent on the principal's personality and skills. If pupils are to achieve, there must be intense interaction between the various components, as well as an ongoing evaluation of successful and unsuccessful strategies and programs.
The effective use of funds for the improvement of instruction for rural pupils requires extensive planning. All school staff, from the secretary to the highest administrator, should be involved. Goals must be established. In order to achieve these goals and to maintain continuity, each individual should be given a job description which specifies what he or she is to accomplish during the course of the year. By monitoring progress, rural education administrators would be able to keep programs on course. At the end of the year, the extent to which program goals were achieved could be evaluated; if necessary, they could be modified. If resources requested for the coming year are based on how the previous year has been managed, then an operational plan—rather than a proposal—is being presented. The operational plan could be used as a measurement device whereby the funding source could monitor programs. Similarly, fund recipients could achieve and adjust their program objectives. The planning process could be operative at central offices, and at the Federal, State, school and teacher levels.

The State administrators' role in making process reviews, and generally monitoring instructional programs is curtailed by lack of adequate administrative funding. The process review requires that evaluation teams inspect programs and help program staff rethink objectives, approaches, or assumptions.

Significant abuses of Title I funds have occurred in local school systems in many States. The following occurrence is typical: a State school system brought in Title I pianos for so-called "eligible" schools, and then took local funds and bought pianos for other schools. The dollar equivalent cost of pianos was not allocated to Title I schools. Thus, the school system allocated its own funds in patterns of inequity. Clearly, the lack of planning processes often facilitates abuses; many school systems have no proper control over program expenditures.
Although abuses of Title I monies have occurred, the greatest barrier to improvements in instruction to rural pupils arises from the severe constraints placed on the use of those funds. Title I regulations forbid the use of funds for such purposes as the purchase of a printing press, or payment for teacher-made materials. In a particular case, a school bought a press by allocating non-Title I funds. The press, however, was housed in the Title I office and was used 60 percent of the time for the Title I program. Furthermore, Title I money cannot be used to hire teachers to work for three weeks in the summer to produce learning materials in reading and mathematics for Title I pupils. If Title I funds were used to procure teacher-made materials and evaluative instruments specific enough to meet the standards of a particular State, those items would help migrant pupils to meet the educational standards of other States.

Fund allocations must be made, subject to the discretion of the local education agency, for leadership and inservice teacher training. Budgets for parent and community involvement must be included in these allocations. Funds should be allotted to purchase and administer tests for clinical and diagnostic teaching.

Planning and funding are inevitably interdependent. The efficient school system will establish clear program goals, monitor these goals, and recommend changes where appropriate. However, effective implementation requires additional discretionary funds at the planning level.
9. **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following are the recommendations of the Task Force on Rural Education, and the implications of these recommendations for Federal, State, and local education agencies.

1) **It is recommended that a results-oriented school management system be adopted to improve the achievement of the rural pupil.**

School managements that focus on results seek to use the combined resources of the school, the home, and the community. This will ensure that pupils achieve those skills essential for learning, and for eventual success as adults in society. The school that defines the essential objectives it expects all pupils to achieve will formulate a curriculum and an instructional plan aimed at these objectives. Such a school will also implement its plan in an organized manner, and will continuously assess both the plan and its effectiveness in terms of pupil achievement. Further, this school will identify instructional problems, and their causes, and formulate the means to correct them.

Recommendation 1 has implications at the national level. It indicates that the improvement of school level instructional management and leadership should become a national priority. Further, rural schools with high concentrations of disadvantaged pupils must focus on the improvement of the total school program. The preparation and certification requirements of school-level administrators at the State-and local levels must therefore be revised.

2) **It is recommended that the rural pupil assessment programs be broadened to include the assessment of pupils' essential skills in communication, mathematics, and career development. Reference tests should be used to determine whether or not essential**
objectives have been achieved.

Rural education could be substantially improved if States would define the essential skills that all pupils should master. The emphasis would then be shifted from the pupils' socioeconomic backgrounds to teachers' expectations of pupils' achievement levels. This shift would eliminate the teachers' self-fulfilling prophecies that only certain types of pupils are able to learn.

Such an assessment program helps teachers to ascertain which objectives their pupils have achieved, and which objectives must be retaught. This would certainly help migrant pupils. Furthermore, the specification of expectations provides schools with a basis to communicate to parents what their children are being taught.

On the national level, it is necessary to legislate and appropriate the funds needed by States to implement this recommendation. The recommendation places considerable leadership responsibility on the State and local school systems. They must work together to define essential skills, and to develop an assessment method to determine to what extent these skills have been mastered.

3) It is recommended that a comprehensive staff development program be provided for rural teachers. This program should be tailored to meet their needs and respective settings, and should be competency based.

There are many new teaching techniques, skills, and concepts that rural teachers ought to possess. These include:

- the use of diagnostic and prescriptive skills
- the use of competency-based materials
- the ability to individualize curriculum materials
- the development of the teachers' own materials based on their pupils' life experiences, for the teaching of basic skills
- the involvement of parents in their children's education
- the increased knowledge and understanding of the values and traditions of rural culture
- a broadening of the teacher's understanding of linguistics
- the use of a variety of approaches to teaching reading to rural youth.

New staff development programs must be designed and then adapted for use in rural classrooms. Further, the skills of rural teachers must be upgraded. Each rural school site should design its own localized staff development program, geared to the needs of the local school system.

Recommendation 3 calls for a national rethinking of Federal support for staff development activities. With a declining public school enrollment, there is need to upgrade the knowledge and skills of practicing teachers. All Federal legislation affecting rural schools should stress this. Such legislation should earmark funds for teacher upgrading. There is need at the national level to consider the creation of model delivery systems, and to incorporate what is known about learning patterns into rural teaching practices.

Recommendation 3 has implications at the State and local level, for teacher certification—particularly certification renewal. The idea of permanent certification, with no further training requirements, is outdated. Professional personnel should receive continuing preparation. It should be possible for teachers to renew their certificates through participation in staff development activities that result in documented improvement. Further, local school systems and boards in rural areas should design and implement policies that support and encourage rural teachers to upgrade and update their knowledge and competencies.

4) It is recommended that the curriculum in rural schools be structured on a competency-based approach.
Federal programs dealing with basic skills should be extended beyond the primary grades into the middle grades and the high school years.

It is assumed that concentrated efforts to assist poor children in the early grades will provide a base enabling them to keep up in a traditionally oriented school curriculum. This assumption is not supported by the evidence. Many States have made substantial progress in raising pupil achievement levels in basic skills during the early grades. In many cases, this progress ceases between grades 4 and 8.

Recommendation 4 calls for State and local boards to continue to stress basic learning skills throughout junior and high school. This policy decision would facilitate adoption of a competency-based curriculum approach to basic skills. It would further ensure that many poor achievers would no longer drift through the upper grades without receiving the instruction and assistance they need in order to master the basic learning skills vital for effective participation in the adult world.

5) It is recommended that rural educators use a greater variety of teaching methods, approaches and materials, as well as increased task orientation. This would assist rural youth, particularly the poor, to master basic skills.

Instruction is frequently stale, and educators often fail to make use of all the available resources. Further, many teachers are not task oriented and do not set for themselves the goal that all their pupils learn.

At the national level, recommendation 5 calls for the Office of Education to insist that State and local systems reexamine the needs of rural pupils. This is essential because certain of these needs are not being met. The Office of Education should also start examining alternative methods of meeting these needs; subsequently, it should select the appropriate methods, and implement them as standard procedures. The Federal Government must, therefore, provide a climate in which local agencies can come...
to believe in their ability to plan more effective strategies for the education of rural children.

Recommendation 5 calls for a different kind of leadership at the State level in many of the Federal programs. The focus should shift from rules and regulations to the proven needs of local systems. Ongoing renewal and reexamination should therefore become standard practice. Rural schools should also adopt the problem-solving approach.

6) It is recommended that the home, the school, and the community work together closely in the education of rural children.

Greater communication between parents and schools is needed. It is important that schools take a leading role in broadening parent participation in and responsibility for the education of their children.

Federal legislation pertaining to rural communities should provide for parent education. This is necessary if parents are to work with their children, including preschoolers. In addition, such legislation should provide for teachers to visit the homes of pupils. The tradition of home visits, formerly practiced by agricultural and home economics teachers, highly successful in its day and supported by Federal funds, should be reexamined for its potential usefulness as a model for the education of rural and migrant children. Mandating of local advisory committees as components of Federal programs has not always provided the kind of participatory involvement that was intended. New approaches must be suggested and tried out.

Recommendation 6 has significant implications at the State level; State educational authorities would have to assist local systems to develop their own participatory leadership skills.
In summary, the Federal Government must emphasize the improvement of education for all rural pupils. In addition, six variables require careful examination:

- pupil expectations
- staff preparation and qualification
- staff organization
- pupil assessment
- school management, and
- the quality of home-school partnership.
IV.

USOE TASK FORCE REPORT
ON
NATIVE AMERICAN INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
NATIVE AMERICAN TASK FORCE PARTICIPANTS

Chairperson:

Mr. Thomas Thompson, Blackfeet
College Director, Teacher Corps
School of Education
Eastern Montana College
Billings, Montana

Task Force Consultants:

Ms. Louise Britton, Yupic
Teacher
Kilbuck School
Bethel, Alaska

Mrs. Mona Bublitz Miyasato, Sioux
Teacher
Shannon County School
Batesland, South Dakota

Dr. Carl Downing, Cherokee
Professor of Elementary Education
Department of Education
Central State University
Esmond, Oklahoma

Mr. Paul Johnson, Ojibway
Consultant
Michigan Education Association
East Lansing, Michigan

Ms. Gay Lawrence, Sioux
Program Specialist
Arizona State Department of Education
Phoenix, Arizona

Ms. Billie Masters, Cherokee
Supervisor of Teacher Education
Department of Teacher Education
University of California
Irvine, California
NATIVE AMERICAN TASK FORCE (continued)

Mr. Roger Philbrick, Sioux
Supervisor of Teacher Education
Indian Education Section
Department of Public Instruction
Madison, Wisconsin

Mr. Eugene Sekaquaptewa, Hopi
Superintendent
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Hopi Agency System
Keams, Arizona

Dr. James Shanley, Assiniboné
President
Standing Rock Community College
Fort Yates, North Dakota

Dr. Alan Wheeler
College Director,
Teacher Corps
State University
Potsdam, New York

Ms. Josie White Eagle, Wisconsin Winnebago
Director of Indian Education
State Department of Education
Pierre, South Dakota

Mrs. Teresa Williams, LaCourte Oreilles Chippewa
Teacher, Director
LaCourte Oreilles School
Couderay, Wisconsin

Mr. Albert Yazzie, Navajo
Principal
Canada Public School
Canada, Arizona
The Native American Task Force Report represents the efforts of a group of Native American educators. The report should not be construed as representative of the Native American community as a whole. It is, however, the specific thoughts, suggestions, recommendations, and perspectives relative to Native American education as seen by the Task Force members individually and collectively.
The education provided for Native Americans is currently undergoing intensive review to make it better fulfill the needs of the populations it is meant to serve. Whether seen as a training vehicle or as a means of inculcating knowledge, the education of Native Americans remains based on the traditional models of Anglo-American society.

Anglo-Americans tend to identify the Nation's indigenous peoples by the single term "American Indians." Such identification through overly broad racial characteristics and cultural factors is unsatisfactory and unacceptable. Indiscriminate identification as "Indian" tends to reinforce the mistaken notion that Native Americans are a homogeneous group. Each tribe is an individual society. Only recently has this fact been recognized by non-Native Americans.

Differences in living patterns pervade languages, religion, and kinship structures. Tribal diversity has given rise to highly specialized and widely different survival skills, each reflecting adaptation to topography and climate. Instructional program planners must analyze the context of these skills so that curriculum activities relate to the character and traditions of the specific tribal community for which they are designed.

The concern of Native American leaders with education, however, transcends specific tribal boundaries. Education ranks high among their priorities. In the 1970's self-determination became the slogan across the country, and as a result tribal communities called for--and continue to call for--changes in education curriculum and practices.

Generally, educators of Native American children have paid too little attention to their pupils' unique needs. The values of the differing indigenous cultures have received scant consideration from non-Native American...
teachers and administrators. Curriculum content is frequently alien to the pupils' lifeways. Teachers confronted with a Native American value system often find it completely different from their own.

Nevertheless, Native Americans must be educated in the traditional ways of their tribal society while simultaneously acquiring the means to live with dignity and pride in a mixed, contemporary society. The Office of Education must therefore develop programs that work for the preservation of tribal cultures and languages. These programs should stress the many positive values of Native American cultures, and should clearly demonstrate their contributions to the Nation's greatness. Non-Native Americans and Native Americans must be informed and sensitized to past, present, and future issues affecting both the Native American and non-Native American way of life, in an attempt to promote cultural pluralism.

Furthermore, the education of Native Americans must be responsive to the cultures served, while concurrently creating relationships with non-Native American society. To date, instructional programs for Native Americans failed to take into account the conflicting worlds in which the many tribes and communities are forced to exist. Until very recently, Native Americans have been unable to realize their right to participate actively in the education of their young. There is a grave need to develop programs which support this right, and which encourage and facilitate participation, as Native American values are the initial influence on children's self-concept, aspirations and achievements. Although the Protestant ethic is fundamental to the Anglo-American education system, it is not deeply rooted in Native American tribal value systems, even though many Native Americans have been Christianized. This ethic effectively cuts off Native American children from their own traditions.

Native American values generally conflict with the dominant system's stress on competition, assertiveness, and expressed sociability. Native American parents teach their children to cooperate rather than compete with peer-group members. Exhibitions of individual prowess suggest a lack of concern, or even respect for the needs of the group as a whole. Reticence is another trait that creates classroom difficulties for Native...
Americans. Pupils remain silent unless they are sure that they can give the right answer, while Anglo-American educators normally stress articulateness, and active participation in classroom activities.

If education is to succeed within Native American cultural contexts, more Native American instructors will be needed in preservice programs, and to teach in schools serving Native American pupils. Although there exists a variety of programs in Native American education, to date there has been no cohesive mechanism linking them or their staffs to the national emphasis on teacher training. The Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), for example, has a brief two-week orientation program for its new teachers. It might be useful to supplement this orientation by having teachers in preservice and inservice programs share the bus ride of the pupil who lives farthest from the school—a round trip that could total 150 miles. Teachers would then have a realistic insight into one aspect of their pupils' school experience.

Education for Native Americans should treat cultural differences in a positive manner by using humanistic teaching methods and sensitively written materials. An education environment in which the cultural richness of the pupils' communities is valued will do much to promote a positive classroom atmosphere. In a culturally mixed society, the intellectual concepts of the dominant group often negate or de-emphasize the cultures of minority groups. Although mathematics and language concepts are derived from the cultural framework of a community or group, cultural differences need not be a barrier to learning. Giving Native American pupils an appreciation of their own cultural strengths enhances their ability to contribute to non-Native American society.

In any acceptable educational endeavor, there must be an emphasis on those qualities—among them respect, understanding, patience, and endurance—that are valued by Native Americans.

Educators have tended to dismiss this as "going back to the tepee." Instead, they should attempt to open their thinking; they should create a viable and valid educational system, building upon these values.
The impact of cross-culturalization has been especially taxing to Native American pupils who come from widely differing cultures which have only recently received individual recognition from non-Native American society. It is therefore imperative that teachers develop strategies to assist their Native American pupils to retain their cultural identities. Though they need to acquire the skills valued by the majority, pupils should be encouraged by their teachers to learn tribal history, religion, and language.

The Native American pupils' existence and their well-being depend upon their ability to cope with the world of the non-Native American. For this reason, education must not exclude either culture: it must call upon the richness of both. Yet teachers should be aware of the problem inherent in abrupt cultural confrontation: Native American pupils, often unable to speak English, are removed from their own culture and placed in another said to be superior. Their ideas, beliefs and values are often totally foreign to those of the dominant society. Frequently, they must overcome these barriers with little understanding from their teachers. The loss of their Native American culture is a substantial reason for the poor academic achievement of many Native American pupils.

Much of the lack of teacher awareness of Native American cultures stems from inadequacies in current inservice training programs. Teaching requires more than a general vocation; and teaching Native American pupils a specific vocation is essential. Teachers should develop sensitive instructional techniques grounded in Native American lore and culture. They will then be acceptable role models to their pupils. Only those teachers trained in instructional programs developed in conjunction with Native American communities can hope to gain the needed knowledge. Pupils become much more enthusiastic about their education once they have identified with a teacher. Those who wish to maintain their Native American identity need some means of strengthening their cultural ties. Effective Native American role models in the schools, special programs to develop awareness and pride, and Native American centers are all possible mechanisms.

The teacher's role should be one of assisting Native American pupils in identifying and clarifying personal
values. The expectations teachers have of their pupils are also important. Research indicates that performance improves when teachers have high expectations of their pupils in the classroom and other settings.

Mastery of curriculum alone is not enough. A teacher must be aware of the cultural values and uniqueness of a specific community.
Federal program evaluations test participants' progress against national norms, ignoring minority cultural factors. The BIA has demonstrated a lack of sensitivity to the values and culture of Native American pupils. After nearly a century, it has still not developed appropriate materials and textbooks.

Historically, Native American children have to contend with highly adverse backgrounds: currently, 90 percent live in substandard housing; some 40 to 50 percent of the parents are unemployed; family income seldom exceeds $1,500; average life expectancy is 45 years; tuberculosis still exacts a heavy toll; dysentery is rife; and the Native American pupil dropout rate is 60 percent in all types of schools. The BIA established boarding schools with the intention of providing an adequate level of basic life supports for children suffering from the extremes of poverty on the reservations. Yet these schools have not succeeded in educating the children. Uprooted from their homes, they enter an alien, institutionalized world in which custodial concerns take priority over individual educational needs and cultural development—a situation which in many respects reflects the concepts that governed nineteenth-century "relocation" programs. BIA boarding schools, currently serving about 12,000 pupils, should be a primary area for the revamping of Native American education. These schools should be models for other school systems. BIA planners should design bicultural and bilingual programs, develop and utilize the most effective techniques for educating Native American pupils, and operate and staff these schools with Native Americans from the area being served. Native American youths have been kept so long in ill-suited programs in white schools that they have missed many important lessons in becoming adequate members of their own tribal communities.

Native American communities must participate in the pra-
evaluation of federally funded instructional programs so that program goals will not conflict with those of the Native American communities.

Curriculum Development

To resolve the issue of inappropriate materials and textbooks, a curriculum should be adopted that reinforces the strong oral traditions of Native American cultures. The Native American intellectual structure values history and information that have come down through stories elders tell to children. Conversely, the Anglo-American value system stresses written work. The difficulty of improving the reading and writing skills of Native American pupils cannot be overstated. About 40 percent of the pupils speak Native languages that have no written forms. The large number of Native American languages and the small number of Native American teachers—especially those proficient in their native tongues—made the ideal bilingual situation next to impossible. As a result, the gap between the language of the home and that used in school is immense; consequently perceptions of reality differ sharply. Further, traditional historical narratives tend to exclude, defame, or disparage the Native Americans. Any survey of textbooks will confirm this. This is particularly ironic when we consider the richness of folklore, music, dance and human experience transmitted orally in Native American cultures. Native Americans stress quietude and time spent alone: introspection gives strength. Anglo-Americans on the other hand stress gregariousness: the more sociable the individual, the greater the esteem he or she is likely to win. These disparate values must be recognized if Native American pupils are to benefit and receive equal treatment in the schools and within the society at large.

Current curriculums often lack flexibility, and teachers find it hard to adapt materials to their pupils' needs. Construction of new curriculums necessarily involves the development of teaching practices which draw upon the environment, oral tradition, and tribal cooperation. One key to successful education programs lies in the courage to make drastic changes: to move from book-based rote learning to learning-through-inquiry, with
a concern for the pupils' emotional well-being and personal communication styles. There is a need for teachers to individualize curriculum in Native American schools. Greater efforts must also be made to implement in full Title IV, Part A, of the Indian Education Act, 1972, by requiring the introduction of Native American history and culture in all schools. If Native American pupils are to succeed, curriculum and the teaching techniques employed must respect their perceptions of their world. For example, vocabulary can be built through the exploration of the environment. Methods of proven effectiveness can be used, such as walks through the woods, with the pupils gathering leaves and learning in their own language the methodology of leaf identification. This approach would enable pupils to develop a bilingual vocabulary in the science curriculum.

Another device useful in the development of appropriate curriculum involves bibliotherapy, the process of diagnosing and prescribing an appropriate book for each child. There is a need for accurate diagnosis of pupils' skill deficiencies. For example, a 10th-grade pupil might only have reached 2d-grade level in reading. Special approaches would then be needed. Often, the most difficult point to get across to a teacher is to teach at the child's level. To do this requires a conscious effort on the teacher's part.

Much can be done to enrich Native American education resources and improve pupil performance. One tested approach is the child-centered classroom in which pupils are free to move around. Many educators hold that children learn better if not overly confined. Native American pupils in many of the tribal schools, for example, are at their best with tables and totally movable equipment. Some of the more successful classrooms do not use desks at all. Informally structured learning centers could be established as a means of breaking the restrictions of the formal classroom. These would create an open climate, allowing pupils to work off excess energy in moving around.

In one district, despite every obstacle caused by uncertain program funding, lack of construction funds, the problems of attracting quality staff to teach in a "no benefits-no tenure" situation, a reservation Tribal School was created, essentially through Title IV,
Part B. In an informal atmosphere, in which the reading curriculum was flexible and most materials were created by teachers and pupils, significant academic gains were made by a pupil body whose dropout rate in the previous year had topped 72 percent. The stereotype of Native Americans as apathetic, silent, and incapable was disproved. Mathematical instruction, largely based on familiar daily life situations, was very successful. In this setting, pupils acquired necessary basic skills, motivation was striking, and parental enthusiasm high.

Surprisingly, there is no lack of curricular and instructional materials. In fact, the availability of curriculum materials frequently outruns needs. Though pupil gains have not been proved, teachers' complaints have lessened as a result of an abundance of standard supplies subsidized by project funds. Frequently, however, the most suitable and adaptable items cannot be found in the standard catalogs to which teachers are restricted. Supplementary funds, or a portion of the equipment and materials budget, should be made available for the purchase of nonstandard items needed by creative teachers who wish to develop new materials.

Reading and Phonetics

Vocabulary training can be improved by a more extensive use of phonetics: the alphabet, or numbers, can be taught using Native American names and Native American pictures. By developing a sight vocabulary, children can also learn a sound vocabulary. Phonetics is important in this process, for with labial, dental and guttural sounds, children should be able to learn initial sounds, final sounds, and then vowels. In view of the fact that the language spoken in many Native American homes has no written alphabet, the use of phonetics could substantially help pupils to master grammar and vocabulary. Teaching language so that pupils master reading is really teaching them formal methods for decoding the tangibles and intangibles of their existence. Reading is decoding whether it pertains to symbols, or an alphabet. This is a key concept in the teaching of reading.

Many Native American pupils speak their own language at home but have to speak English in school. Efforts made
in the 1930's to develop bilingual textbooks were soon abandoned, and only recently has the concept again found favor with the BIA. Despite recent efforts, the current work for bilingual programs fails to do justice to Native American languages. As products of the bilingual/bicultural education process, tribal leaders are aware of its importance. Yet, all too often, the program designers' concern is primarily with finding new ways to teach English rather than simultaneously to expand and develop native thought processes or native languages. Additionally, there is need for continued and broad-based community involvement in Native American language programs.

As attendance at workshops and seminars on instructional programs often requires travel over great distances, resulting in tremendous loss of time and resources, close working relationships between tribal councils and program administrators are strongly urged. Certain tutoring programs established by administrators have in fact been valuable. In some of these programs, parents and high school pupils have worked successfully as teachers' aides and classroom assistants. Their participation has allowed classroom teachers to spend more time in one-to-one work with pupils who have special needs.

The setting of such adjunct programs is considered important. In fact a major reason tutoring programs have tended to work is that they are conducted outside the school. Community service centers and private homes are used instead, and these latter have proved to be the most successful. Greater emphasis must, therefore, be given to activities which supplement regular school programs, and offer solid benefits.

There is a need for programs of continuing education within the Native American community. These programs could be run by the school system or by Native American organizations. In either case, the development of educational activities beyond the secondary level is a goal worthy of attainment.

Staff development must be considered in the planning of all programs, so that teachers with appropriate instruction methods and techniques can be made available. Some Native American schools have begun inservice programs...
for their teachers, and have attempted to explore the varied social and cultural differences between teacher and pupil. However, by and large, teachers are being trained by middle-class, non-Native Americans. Few of these trainers possess an adequate awareness of cultural, social or racial differences. Little of realistic usefulness is included in their training to prepare teachers of Native American children. However, there are a few new pre- and inservice programs attempting to correct this. A number of Native American communities have conducted successful inservice programs in which non-Native American teachers attend pow-wows, major ceremonials, and other events.

States should mandate that local education agencies be required to have preservice and inservice programs involving local Native American tribes. The qualifications of the staff should be dual in nature, fulfilling State requirements for a teaching certificate, and also reservation requirements for teaching Native American children. In order for these goals to be achieved, State teacher certification criteria will have to be changed and inservice programs upgraded and strengthened.

Grading and Evaluation

Title I evaluations have found that some 90 percent of Native American pupils are deficient in basic skills. A National Institute of Health survey conducted in a large reservation school determined that there were no gifted pupils. Despite the doubtful validity of any such finding in a sizable population, teacher expectations shape themselves accordingly. In any instructional situation where failure is reported and the results of the tests are poor, the methods used to teach these children have been ineffective. No one appears to recognize the existence of the gifted poor.

The grading methods used in Native American instructional programs have given rise to much discussion. The immense contrast between the oral and written traditions highlights the problems Native American pupils face in the current education environment. Achievement is generally measured on traditional Anglo-American lines. For example, there is a cultural bias implicit in formulating supposedly value-free test questions for which pupils
ain credits for giving "correct" answers, but none for assisting classmates who are having difficulty. This system of reward minimizes the value of human cooperation, while denying Native American pupils support in gaining abstract academic skills. How to bridge this cultural gap and make these differences into strength remains a major problem.

Two kinds of improper grades are often assigned to Native American pupils: higher grades than deserved because teachers believe the Native American is unable to do better or to communicate with non-Native Americans, and lower grades than deserved because teachers are culturally or racially biased. Pupils with specific difficulties either in academic learning or in aspects of socialization require a large measure of individualized instruction and personalized attention from teachers with specialized training.

Skilled diagnosis is necessary to determine the extent to which social problems give rise to academic problems and vice versa. Diagnosis involves the determination of pupils' actual skill levels, without regard to their formal academic placement. Furthermore, weekly diagnosis is necessary in order to determine accurately whether pupils are making valid and lasting progress. Diagnostic teaching enables teachers not only to determine pupils' progress, but also to provide guidance regarding the materials they should use to maximize pupils' gains. The value of diagnostic teaching must be fully recognized, and its use in the enhancement of pupil achievement encouraged. Few teaching tools offer so great a scope for exploring the relationship between pupils' backgrounds, and their mastery of skills required by Anglo-American society. When diagnostic-prescriptive strategies are used for remedial programs in reading and mathematics, the programs seldom relate to the school's basic curriculum; often a child might be doing good recognition work in a remedial program, while not being taught the alphabet in regular classes.

The home experience of the Native American pupil reflects vocabulary methodologies and curricular instruments other than those used in the structured environment of the classroom and school. Childraising practices among Native Americans are very different from those of the external society. Spoken instructions
are few; children learn a great deal through experience. Therefore personal instruction must go beyond the attention the teacher gives a pupil with academic difficulties. It is important that social factors affecting the pupil’s achievement level be considered.

Many Native American children start school unable to communicate in English, and of necessity must learn English while living in non-English speaking communities. However, both in physical and programmatic form, current bilingual/bicultural programs in reading and mathematics tend to be peripheral and compensatory. Instructional programs for Native American pupils must be fully integrated into the regular school curriculum if they are to be of any benefit at all.

Finally, Federal regulations should be changed, particularly for Title I programs, so that the testing requirements include acceptance and use of local criterion-referenced evaluation. The values, standards, culture and language of the local community should be recognized as an accepted area of knowledge. This is necessary, because of the importance that funding agencies, especially under ESEA Title I, attach to the pretesting of all components of a proposed instructional program.
It is a misconception that Native Americans are uninterested in the education of their children. Rather it is only recently that Native Americans have been able to play an active role in determining their educational destinies. But their concern is no new phenomenon: Plenty Coups, a Crow chief, said to the young members of his tribe: "Education is your great weapon; without it, you are the white man's victim. With it, you are his equal."

Among the Hopi, for example, parents are intensely interested in the appropriateness of methods used in the education of their children. They are keenly aware of the importance of bilingual-bicultural processes, being products of those processes themselves, whether formally or informally. In addition, Hopi tribal leaders place great stress on developing their own comprehensive education system.

Not all Native American parents, however, are fully committed to the notion that school brings advantages to the children: many look back on their own brief and unsuccessful school experiences; and doubt that school prepares their children for tribal life. Furthermore, academically educated tribal members are often not fully trusted, and parents teach their children to disapprove of people who try to "get ahead." Though these findings are derived from a study of the Navajo, they apply—in part at least—to other tribes. If even appropriate education programs are to succeed, tribal leadership and community acceptance must be sought and won.

Absenteeism is frequently high among Navajo pupils. When parents were questioned about this, many replied that attendance was the responsibility of the children—not theirs. This was in keeping with traditional Native American childrearing practices, which stress personal
decisionmaking and responsibility. Teachers ought to be aware of this, interpret absences correctly, and work more closely with both pupils and parents.

Federal regulations require parental involvement in any program for which funds are sought, and many provide for continuing parental evaluation. However, Federal legislative staffs fail to take into account the socioeconomic and educational status of parents (e.g., average family income $1,500-$2,000; 6-10 dependent persons in the family; 7th-9th grade reading skills). Very few can grapple with the meanings of complex Federal regulations for a variety of programs (Head Start, Follow Through, Teacher Corps, Titles I, IV, VIII, and various BIA and other programs), or write constitutions and bylaws for their parent advisory groups. What help they might get usually comes from the local program administrator—the official they are supposed to evaluate. If parents do not gain greater control of funds, their exercise of power will remain largely fictitious. At the same time, parents are asked to render services that are seldom reimbursed. They should be properly paid, just as all other consultants are, and expenses incurred should be met. Clearly, the Office of Education must explore the question of parent compensation and make a policy decision.

Over the last ten years, Native American communities have been seeking a stronger consultative role in their relations with Federal and State education agencies. Though Native Americans know their needs, their leadership must continue to develop the ability to articulate them forcefully to those involved in planning services. Prior to legislation becoming law, Native American target groups should advise planners on the content of legislation. In addition, Native Americans should be involved in regulating programs designed for their communities. Federal policies and programs of the past have failed to meet the needs of the Native American communities, prolonging their dependency upon the Government, rather than transmitting the skills that would make them self-reliant.

It is difficult for Native Americans to negotiate with the Federal Government on a footing equal to that enjoyed by other constituencies, since they are often hesitant to
"speak-up." When they do, they receive flak from their own people, because "that's not Indian." Federal and State education program officials must recognize that because of tradition, Native Americans do not present their legitimate requests forcefully. They should not, as a result, be left with inadequate programs. Further, in urban areas, the Native American emphasis on silence weakens their potential for leadership. In that setting, silence suggests a lack of social organization. Federal and State administrators, must in some instances, take the initiative in supporting the expression of Native American leadership.

The philosophical content of Native American instructional programs should reflect community input and involvement. This involvement could take numerous forms: parental advisory committees, parents as teaching aides and assistants, or parents as co-teachers in specific subject areas in which they have expertise. For example, parents might be responsible for instruction in Native American herbal medicine, or the presentation of courses on Native American lore and tradition. Whatever the appropriate approach, parent participation is of paramount importance. Involvement in education programs can enhance parents' sense of self-worth, and enable them to help their children adapt to the requirements of the external world.

Community involvement is especially important in bringing major evolving programs to Native American pupils, and in ensuring that such programs develop in ways acceptable to the community. This will prevent Native American pupils from being looked upon only as dollar signs in terms of access to Federal programs.

Parental involvement in Native language development and instruction would bring to the classroom the priorities and values of the adult native-language speakers within the community. Parental involvement through community advisory committees would, moreover, increase the amount of information available to program managers, enabling them to meet community requirements more fully and, as a result, to improve programs. Advisory committees have already done much to influence the orientation of inservice training institutes, and have been responsible for the
growing requirement that teachers in training for Native American schools live within Native American communities prior to starting service.

However, community participation in education affairs is not without problems. Care must be taken in building it up, and results carefully monitored to measure benefits to the community. One key problem is that most handbooks explaining education programs to parents are too complicated. Not all Native American parents know why they are on program advisory committees or realize the responsibilities they have as members. Many attend one meeting and then drop out. If parents are to become meaningfully involved in policy determination, funding for parent training programs must be provided. The layers of separation between Federal bureaucracies and field programs must be minimized.

ESEA Title I limits representation on advisory councils to the parents of pupils, which artificially fragments the traditional tribal hierarchy. Representatives other than parents should be eligible to sit on advisory councils and on other committees and boards that oversee Native American programs. The established authority of existing tribal leadership should not be arbitrarily overlooked. Such leadership has living knowledge of the ways of the community as well as acceptance and authority within it. Thus, community leaders could effectively serve both the tribal members and the education program by serving on advisory committees. In this context, training for tribal leaders would serve to increase the knowledge and skills they need in order to function successfully in their contact with society at large.

While the Bureau of Indian Affairs has long encouraged parental involvement in school activities, its approach is largely patriarchal, and historically has given non-Native Americans control over Native American schooling regardless of community concerns. In general, local school systems, not Native American communities, control education.

Native American communities are many and varied. Apart from the many tribal organizations, each unique in its nature and with a different relationship to the Federal Government, there are subgroups within the various tribes--
each with different needs and goals. Tribal councils meet only four times yearly, and on these occasions their work loads are heavy. In view of actual tribal organizations, both education and the community would be better served by increased integration between the sociopolitical structure of the community and that of instructional programs. Therefore program specifications should be flexible, and designed to allow for productive relationships with as many groups as possible.

Closely allied to the question of Native American sovereignty and governance is that of the Trust responsibilities exercised by Federal and State agencies over Native American education. Inherent in Trust responsibility is the requirement that the Trustee (i.e., the Federal Government) do all that is possible to ensure maximum benefits to the beneficiary. The tribal structure, with its traditional distribution of responsibilities, is well suited to aid the Trustee in planning and carrying out instructional programs, provided the latter is open to tribal concerns and priorities. Native Americans could and should play a greater role in all areas of program planning. Through this, the fabric of tribal and individual life would be strengthened.

Tribal legal structure, sovereignty, Trust responsibilities and treaty relationships with the Federal Government should receive much deeper study and analysis. Conceivably, greater tribal responsibility and power for self-determination have been specified in now neglected treaty clauses. Some might provide starting points for the development of more responsive relationships with the Federal Government. Indeed self-determination has become an aim and a watchword within the Native American community. Its achievement would serve to mitigate some of the current hostility toward Federal programs felt by Native American communities; a hostility often stemming from lack of necessary information about these programs. In some cases, disruption and factionalism have occurred, and at times Native Americans have been joined by non-Native Americans within the community in their resentment towards Federal programs.

In the traditional tribal setting, communities have been the producers of education. They can be again. When the
community fosters education, the charisma, wisdom and skills of its various elements are strengthened, and the sacred aspects of Native American life are again nourished.
In view of the tremendous needs of Native American pupils, current State and Federal funding is meager. Native American representation is urgently needed in the initial funding determination. At present, proposed Federal legislation becomes law without such input. As a result, considerable money is spent in reallocating funds when Native American communities reject unrealistic priorities. The development of a model Native American education program requires Native American representation at all levels--Federal, State, and local--in planning and in the administrative process. Often, funding authorities overturn planned implementation priorities, thus hindering services intended for the pupils.

Designers of Native American education programs must plan within a consistent and fully articulated educational philosophy. One problem seen as critical is that frequently non-Native American institutions apply for Federal funds in order to implement and administer Native American programs. Few, however, have decided how such programs fit within their philosophical frameworks or have acknowledged their permanent value by moving them toward full inclusion within their budget when Federal funding ends. In effect, Native American education programs are being used to enable the institutions to pursue "soft" funds, whether or not they serve tribal or community interests or real needs in any way. Thus, goal statements should be a required component of all proposed instructional programs. This is also important because agencies more readily fund programs whose contours and goals they understand clearly and therefore can evaluate.
An additional concern is that needs are assessed for determination of program funding levels at too great a distance from program operations. It is a strength that school boards make school budgets public to the community. On the other hand, it is a weakness that Native Americans are not involved in the budgetary process and cannot plan effective supplemental education efforts. Local input is necessary in budget decisions since no straight-forward negotiation process exists among Federal, State, and local education agencies.

The degree of control exercised by those who review and fund programs is also a concern. When funding is not categorical or mandatory, administrators have greater latitude to approve and fund proposals; or to reject them. Indeed, there is great arbitrariness in the use of administrative discretion regarding the types of program, materials, supplies, and equipment to be funded. Administrative agencies, possessing discretionary authority in funding local Native American education programs, frequently agree to only partial funding. It is of prime importance therefore that the community itself establish program priorities.

Federal program-funding regulations and guidelines, stressing teacher credentials and bureaucratic accountability, often damage program implementation. Native Americans place far less emphasis on formal education degrees than do those who control their education; namely, State legislatures, education associations, and teachers' organizations. Indeed, the certification requirements inherent in legislation, administrative practice and convention tend to destroy needed program flexibility. Regulations designed to make program personnel accountable often require teachers to use methodologies and instruments unsuited to their pupils' needs.

There is a need for funding long-range planning for the sake of continuity. Long-range planning creates greater clarity in the definition of problems and in the refinement of effective approaches, and finally makes possible more beneficial programs. In many instances, programs do not last long enough to become effective education instruments within the community. In addition, there is always uncertainty as to how any program will be structured the
next year. With possible legislative of funding changes, school officials can only hope to implement programs on a short-term basis; there is no consistency or long-range planning. Planning of flexible programs for long-term pupil benefits becomes impossible.

Development of program linkages in thematic and curricular areas would offer possibilities for sharing information on successful experiences and for duplicating successful methods and techniques. The Federal Government should support such linkages and interaction among funded programs. These kinds of combinations should bring additional monies for special projects.
The administration of Native American education programs is complicated and highly regulated. Local program administrators are forced to ensure that their programs meet Federal and State administrative guidelines; this has restricted their positive development. In many instances, programs get caught up in the information-reporting requirements of funding sources which cost the project director and staff large amounts of time. The day-to-day operational and management information needs of the programs themselves often remain unmet due to lack of staff time and energy. This situation obviously limits the quality of services given to those for whom the program has been established.

Educational jargon has so burdened regulations that lay persons have become utterly bewildered.

Program guidelines should be radically simplified, and consolidation should be sought to reduce the present multiplicity of programs and regulations.

Locally, coordination of Native American program operations would improve organization and increase flexibility in implementation. Community participation in program coordination would also reduce program duplication and overlap: one community, for example, was served by 22 Federal programs. Several of these 22 programs were designed in part to serve the same population for the same purpose. Each was operated in total isolation; there was no comprehensive overview of the community's needs.
The management techniques of modern corporate enterprises should be used in the planning and coordination of contemporary Native American education. An accessible source of comprehensive information on Native American instructional program is badly needed and would enable Native Americans to compare the structure, aims, and follow-through of individual programs. Lack of a centralized data base makes it difficult for parents and interested community members to get information on program aims, activities and structures. Data dissemination concerning resources and planning in Native American instructional programs is in fact grossly inadequate; the community is not being even minimally served. For example, ESEA Title IV quarterly reports are often submitted to Washington without having been disseminated to the communities the programs have served.

The performance of teachers and program personnel would be enhanced by timely dissemination of program information to parents. Information would foster familiarity with programs and create a continuing capacity for all parties to discuss program-related problems and issues. The long-term employment of all personnel would enhance program results and aid development of proper and reasonable administrative recordkeeping and procedures. Establishment of set procedures would in turn facilitate the dissemination of information on program objectives and ongoing plans--to the benefit of all program participants.

In summary, information on data-processing technology, the development of accountability systems, and flexible and continuous financing of Native American education all need urgent attention. Success in these areas requires cooperation between the Native American communities and local institutions of higher education.

School system personnel sometimes find themselves teaching the community about newly found resources for programs while at the same time coping with passive resistance to new efforts to provide quality instruction from existing education program staff. Though the basic philosophical statements underlying many programs appear straightforward, it is necessary to train existing staff to accept them fully. The effects of such training are mixed;
largely successful with principals and parents, but less successful with long-tenured teachers. For programs to have the greatest value to participants, all should be developed to reinforce one another.

All too often, instructional programs of particular interest to Native Americans become showcases, and siphon off Native Americans working in less glamorous educational endeavors. Native Americans must be employed across the board in education, especially in ESEA Title I programs. If pupils are to gain the most from education, they must have tangible evidence of broad involvement of their own people and communities.

The lack of ethnic balance among the administrative staffs of programs is an area of concern. Most contain too few Native Americans. Non-Native Americans have tended to close out opportunities for advancement, mobility and decisionmaking power, objecting to career ladders for Native Americans in instructional programs. More Native American administrators are needed if instructional programs are to succeed. There are insufficient numbers of Native Americans at planning and decisionmaking levels of many programs. This failing is a prime source of conflict: programs fail because the education priorities of Native Americans generally differ from those of non-Native Americans charged with program development. Certain positions in Native American instructional programs should be designed for and reserved to Native Americans. It has also been suggested that those who wish to teach Native American children be required to have dual certification—indicating that they are qualified to teach in the State and are also qualified to teach Native American Pupils. Multiracial staffing is seen as a valid and reasonable goal, although numerical balances could not be set overnight and reasonable goals must be negotiated for the immediate future. Once balanced, staffing is effected, Native American programs can do much more for pupils and their communities.

Administrators have only limited flexibility within institutional budgets, but this could be used to gain improvements. Administrators are often hesitant to use funds to support ethnically-oriented activities. Some parents
might think a club, for example, would help pupils develop a sense of self-worth and importance within schools in which they are a minority. Though some schools encourage various clubs and organizations, few administrators are known to be using school funds for Native American clubs, although this activity is recognized as a valid endeavor of modest cost. Administrators could use the non-print budget for this purpose; however, they tend to insist that under ESEA Title IV only external funding can be used for creating a Native American club. Such resistance can negate the interest expressed by Native Americans in the education of their young. There is no valid reason why funding from external sources should be the only means to sustain Native American activities when activities of other ethnic groups are funded through normal sources. Native American pupil needs can be more fully met within existing education programs if those responsible administer them more boldly. In general, Federal agencies lay down certain guidelines and local Native Americans have to work within their constraints. The extent to which local needs can be met within these constraints depends upon skillful management by program administrators.

In conclusion, it seems quite clear that the catalyst needed for the enhancement of Native American programs lies with increasing the awareness and sensitivity of Anglo-Americans to the unique needs of Native American pupils. Concomitantly, changes in the attitudes of non-Native American teachers can be achieved by increasing their sensitivity to the Native American pupil. The growing exploration of Native American history, culture and language can aid in the recognition of the need for practical reform in program design and funding. Furthermore, this growth of interest can nurture a new willingness on the part of non-Native American teachers and administrators to learn from past experiences. Zealous implementation of existing programs can then give way to a more sensitive awareness of the complexities inherent in the Native American experience, providing the foundation for greater effectiveness in the education of the Native American pupil.
6. RECOMMENDATIONS

1) The Task Force recommends that the Office of Education develop programs that work for the preservation of tribal languages, cultures and histories. The contributions made by Native Americans to the mainstream American culture should be brought to the attention of both Native and non-Native Americans alike.

2) Regarding the teaching profession, the Task Force made the following recommendations:

a) More Native American instructors are needed in preservice and inservice programs, and to teach in schools serving Native American pupils. States should mandate that local education agencies be required to have preservice and inservice programs involving Native American tribes.

b) Staff qualifications should be dual in nature, fulfilling State requirements for a teaching certificate, and also reservation requirements for teaching Native Americans.

c) A realistic orientation program for teachers should be established.

d) Certain positions in Native American programs should be designed for and reserved to Native Americans.

e) There should be long-term employment for program personnel.

f) There should be a mechanism whereby existing staff can be trained to accept the philosophy underlying new programs.
g) There should be more Native American administrators in Native American schools.

h) Management should be streamlined and programs consolidated, involving an efficient use of technology and the development of effective accountability systems.

3) The Task Force made several recommendations regarding needed programs:

a) A bibliotherapy program should be introduced nationally.

b) The open-classroom method of teaching should be more widely adopted.

c) Diagnostic teaching should be more widely adopted.

d) Bilingual/bicultural programs in reading and mathematics should be fully integrated into the regular school curriculum.

e) Linkages and interaction between funded programs should be supported by the Federal Government.

f) Program guidelines should be simplified.

4) The following are the recommendations the Task Force made regarding community and parent participation in Native American programs:

a) Native Americans should play a greater role in all areas of program planning. The community should establish program priorities.

b) Local input should be supplied for budget decisions.

c) Guidelines for federally funded programs should encourage community participation in Native American programs, rather than restrict participation to parents.
Representation on advisory councils should include representation other than parents so that tribal leadership is not fragmented. Federal and State administrators should support the expression of Native American leadership.

Parents serving on advisory councils should be both trained and paid.

There should be timely dissemination of all program information to parents.

5) Regarding financing, the Task Force made the following recommendations:

a) Long-range planning should be financed.

b) An accountability system should be devised to monitor the implementation of funded programs.

c) Native Americans should participate in the planning, negotiating, and implementation stages of all programs designed by their local education agencies, particularly those responsible for the needs of Native American children.

d) Native American instructional programs should be of sufficient duration to be firmly established and implemented.

e) A unified system of governance should be built into Native American instructional programs at Federal, State, and local levels. This is necessary in order to avoid duplication of program and expenditures, and to provide a basis for collaborative effort.

f) Pre- and inservice programs should be required. Categories of Native American instructional programs: Title I, IV, and VIII should recognize this requirement.
V.

USOE TASK FORCE REPORT
ON
BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL TASK FORCE PARTICIPANTS

Chairperson:
Dr. Jose Cardenas
Executive Director
Integral Cultural Development Research Associates
San Antonio, Texas

Task Force Consultants:
Ms. Carla Barela
Assistant Director, Teacher Corps
University of Southern Colorado
Pueblo, Colorado

Ms. Maria Cerda
Executive Director
Chicago Latino Institute
Chicago, Illinois

Ms. Gloria Cox
Principal
Ramona High School
Los Angeles, California

Dr. Donald Hata
Director
East Asian Interdepartmental Program
California State College
Dominguez Hills, California

Ms. Pilar Lujan
Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum
Department of Education
Agana, Guam

Dr. John Lum
Program Analyst
San Francisco Unified School District
San Francisco, California

Ms. Marina Mercado
Instructor, School of Education
The City College of New York
New York, New York

Ms. Belen Ongteco
Program Specialist
Llicano Bilingual/Bicultural
Honolulu, Hawaii

Mr. Carlos Perez
Supervisor
State Department of Education
Albany, New York

Dr. Eduardo Seda-Bonilla
Professor
University of Puerto Rico
Rio Piedra, Puerto Rico

Dr. Roger Shuy
Professor
Georgetown University
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Madelon Stent
Director, Interdepartmental Studies and Program Development
The City College of New York
New York, New York

Ms. Lourdes Travieso
College Director, Teacher Corps
The City College of New York
New York, New York
1. INTRODUCTION

In school year 1972-73, nearly 3 million children were attending public elementary and secondary schools in which instruction was not given in their native language. This situation existed despite the passage in 1968 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Title VII of this legislation called for bilingual education services for children whose native language was not English; Title I provided for special services for educationally deprived children. Though a spate of programs followed the legislation, many children continued to be denied proper educational services. In January 1974, the Supreme Court ruled that non-English-speaking children who were not receiving bilingual education services were being denied an education.

Bilingual/bicultural education has proved difficult to define; the key terms are not self-explanatory. Few ethnic groups would agree on any one definition and countless problems have been raised by those who have attempted to explain the semantic parameters. For the bilingual component, definitions run from one extreme to another: from the belief that bilingualism is merely the exposure to two languages to bilingualism being the ability to speak or exercise native-like control, in two languages.

After almost ten years of Federal spending, there has been little critical, analytic thinking about the philosophy, goals, methodologies, techniques, curriculum design and development of bilingual/bicultural education. Thus, techniques of instruction are poorly developed, with the result that many bilingual/bicultural pupils are performing poorly in English language reading and mathematics.

In 1975, the United States Office of Education sponsored this task force, which sought to develop a working philosophy for future endeavors in bilingual/bicultural education. During its meetings, the task force identified relevant strategies, methodologies and techniques for improving the quality of instruction in the basic content areas, with particular emphasis on reading, writing, audiolingual perception in the mother tongues and in English As A Second Language, and in mathematics. In keeping with the above, the task force agreed that it was imperative that future endeavors in bilingual/bicultural education be preceded
by research-based knowledge. This philosophical and research-based orientation would enable and encourage the different non-Anglo peoples to develop models designed to meet their specific educational requirements, while allowing all bilingual/bicultural peoples to share their endeavors.

Those planning bilingual/bicultural programs should anticipate variation, not only among different ethnic groups, but also within any one group. Particular programs of bilingual/bicultural education, since they are targeted to a specific population, should not be assumed to be fully valid for other groups. It should not be assumed that all members of an ethnic group have a single level of ability; curriculum developers must be able to differentiate among different performance levels within an ethnic group.
Bilingual/bicultural instructional programs should encompass a philosophical orientation toward peoples whose cultures are not Anglo-American, and whose native tongues are not English. These programs must be based on the particular conceptual, cultural, historical and linguistic backgrounds of these peoples. Therefore, bilingual/bicultural education requires the acceptance and acknowledgment of the legitimacy of non-Anglo heritages. Educators working with bilingual/bicultural children must recognize that their pupils' backgrounds are different from, and not inferior to, those of the dominant Anglo-American society. In short, they must commit themselves to cultural pluralism, morally, educationally, and legally.

A serious commitment to cultural pluralism means that bilingual/bicultural education programs must be institutionalized at the administrative and instructional levels in universities, secondary and intermediate schools, and in elementary schools. This commitment must be complete—there can be no exceptions. Programs should not be implemented merely to fulfill legal and funding requirements, but must be considered as integral parts of school curriculums. Simply to teach English As A Second Language, and perhaps to include within the instructional program the teaching of Spanish, Mandarin, French, Cherokee, and others as first or second languages, does not meet the schools' obligation to the philosophical principles of bilingual/bicultural education. In addition, merely teaching academic subjects in foreign languages and then literally translating traditional English-language curriculum materials into the appropriate language, without any consideration for nuances in linguistic and cultural perceptions, negates the individuality of bilingual/bicultural peoples. Finally, bilingual/bicultural education is definitely not to be interpreted as the conducting of remedial classes in languages other than English. Cultural, linguistic, racial, and ethnic differences are frequently equated with inferiority and
second-class citizenship. Many bilingual/bicultural young-
sters are "Anglicized" while learning to be ashamed of their
parents', of their native tongue, and of their cultural and
historical heritage. High dropout rates, low academic
achievement, and socioeconomic failure are testimonies to
lack of communication, the development of racism, and
negative self-perception in the classroom.

Individual self-concept is further damaged by limited ca-
reer choices open to minority high school graduates. The
inability to find a job is often looked upon in terms of
a rejection by society. Only those who fit into the ap-
proved stereotypes, however, are able to develop strong
self-concepts, or are able to make the drive-to-achieve
work in their favor.

Strengthening pupils' self-concept is a primary task of the
educator. It is especially necessary when dealing with
bilingual/bicultural children. Many are hybrids of two worlds,
of two cultures, neither fully accepted by the majority society
nor by the homeland they have left. The families of these
children view education as the key to upward mobility and to
the better life. Yet all too many see their children facing
the trauma of failure in school, leading to the inevitable
collapse of hopes for a professional career.

Educators must therefore advance from the "equal access"
concept to that of "equal benefits": it is not enough merely
to ensure that all pupils have access to properly staffed and
supplied schools, in which they are "exposed" to an adequate
curriculum. Rather, under the equal benefits concept, the
school must take responsibility for each pupil's progress.
The school must acknowledge the learning pupils acquire out-
side the school, and must take into account the economic and
cultural contexts of their homes and communities. Educators
must remain aware of the ways in which language and background
affect individual learning styles.
Critical analysis and research-based knowledge must be the basis for the formulation and testing of theories, methodologies, techniques, performance evaluation criteria, and curriculum materials developed for bilingual/bicultural education programs. No matter what type of research is undertaken in bilingual/bicultural education, the investigator must adhere to the operative research requirements, whether historical or experimental. This scientific process will lead to greater clarity of concepts, methodology, selection and ordering of data, and their appreciation. It will also eliminate erroneous information and practices, and develop relevant curriculum. Patterns and trends will then be revealed, and programmatic guidelines developed which will accurately reflect the educational need of bilingual/bicultural peoples. These efforts should reduce the number of programs—many within the same cultural group—that reflect the preconceived ideas of trained but uninformed personnel.

Lack of research knowledge is accompanied by the lack of minority-group researchers engaging in bilingual/bicultural education. It is clear from the research ventures funded by the United States Office of Education, the National Institute of Education, foundations and other organizations that minority researchers are rarely given the opportunity to study their own communities, and the processes that affect those communities. In many cases, minorities are studied by researchers who consider them exotic, neither speak nor understand their language, and are ignorant of their cultural and historical heritages.

At the same time, bilingual/bicultural educators who belong to minority peoples lack the necessary access to publication of their articles, books and studies. The United States Office of Education should therefore establish a clearinghouse for the following purposes: (a) fund the research endeavors of minority bilingual/bicultural researchers; (b) publish articles, books and studies; (c) make those works available to school districts, boards of education and universities across the country; (d) make them available

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to commercial publishing houses and magazines for wider distribution; and (e) allow for full participation of minority bilingual/bicultural educators in the decision-making process of its administration.

Research has not kept pace with the competitive business of the production of reading materials for the monolingual child speaking a language other than English or for the bilingual child who speaks English and another language. Research on "reading" has been prolific; however, little has been produced or evaluated that has grown directly out of the American bilingual/bicultural experience. The needs and the contributions of the Nation's multilingual population still remain largely neglected by researchers.

Better use should be made of those research findings that have been disseminated. Ramirez, Price-Williams, and Boman have indicated that Chicano children have a different learning or cognitive style than Anglo children. Chicano children exhibit more field dependence than Anglo children. They score better on the verbal tasks of intelligence tests and learned better when the material was characterized by fantasy and humor, but was related to human content. They also performed better when those in authority expressed confidence in their ability. Field independents—and thus Anglo children—do better on visual motor tasks of intelligence tests, such as putting pieces or parts together to make a whole, or separating parts from a whole. These Anglo children learned better when the material was abstract, impersonal, and tied to reality. Their behavior was not significantly affected by the opinions of authority figures.

These concepts of cognitive styles, as well as the findings of other researchers such as Canavan, must be brought to bear upon the curriculum and upon the instructional techniques of bilingual/bicultural education, especially upon such key subjects as reading and mathematics. Given proper support, appropriate research will lead to more effective and encompassing instructional strategies, and will enable the Nation's schools to meet the cultural, individual, social, and cognitive needs of bilingual/bicultural pupils.

Community Field Research

Due to lack of information about minority communities, present research endeavors in bilingual/bicultural education fail to identify relevant issues. More information about minority life-styles is needed. Racial, cultural and linguistic prejudices toward minority ethnic groups have filtered into the education system, influencing teacher...
trainers and teachers in the classroom. Generations of children were told that they were "culturally and linguistically dis-advantaged." The tragedy has been that all too many bilingual/bicultural pupils have accepted this judgment as fact.

Therefore, it is clear that community field research must be conducted and directed by minority researchers. They will examine from an unbiased point of view socialization patterns, interpersonal relations, cultural and self-identities, cognitive and linguistic styles, and the organization of grass-roots social, religious, economic and political structures. They will then analyze these data, and apply their findings to the development of methodologies, teaching techniques, curriculum content and development, parental and community participation, teacher training, educational testing, and performance and program evaluation. A Teacher Corps model training design which stresses the need for a cooperative relationship between university, community, and school district ought to be explored.

Curriculum and Curriculum Development

Language is one of the determinants of pupils' cognition and perception, and learning takes place within a linguistic framework. If pupils respect their linguistic heritage, they will take pride in their intellectual and educational development. It is well documented that learning to read in a second language, for instance, is easier and more successful when speaking and reading have already been mastered in the native tongue.

Therefore, curriculum and curriculum materials should be designed and developed by those knowledgeable about bilingual/bicultural traditions. The implications of this are far-reaching and important. Educators must understand that cognitive styles and socioeducational requirements of pupils whose native tongues are not English, and whose cultural backgrounds are not Anglo-American, are different, not deficient. For example, the studies of Ramirez and Casteneda support the hypothesis that Mexican-American children view life situations in their totality rather than as individual components, and thus have a highly personalized style of learning. The Metodo Global for the teaching of reading in Spanish makes use of the pupils' own experiences, perceptions of the world, and speech patterns, in order to teach Hispanic children to write, and to deduce meaning from sound-symbol relationships. Research funds should be made available to bilingual/bicultural...
tural education researchers for the development of such specialized curriculum approaches.

There is a definite linguistic component to the learning style used in reasoning out mathematical concepts. Because bilingual/bicultural pupils acquire basic mathematical concepts using culturally relevant examples in their native tongue, they experience difficulties in learning mathematics in English. Low achievement among bilingual/bicultural pupils in mathematics has been mistakenly ascribed to the pupils' lack of ability rather than to irrelevant or inadequate methodologies and techniques or to a lack of communication. If the instructor is using a textbook literally translated from English, or from another language, and is unfamiliar with the language, cognitive style and cultural heritage of the bilingual/bicultural pupils, academic failure is hardly the fault of these latter. Curriculum designers must therefore understand that learning will improve if material is taught using familiar models. Native language skills must be maintained and increased, as must English language skills.

Several instructional strategies have been developed that take into consideration the linguistic and cognitive style requirements of a variety of linguistic and cultural groups. The Preview-Review approach introduces a topic in one language, teaches it in the second language, and then reviews the material in the first language. Another strategy, the Alternation approach, includes the use of two languages of instruction on alternative days, half-days or hours. For example, material used would be taught first in Japanese and then retaught in English. The Balanced Bilingual Instructional Approach allows for classroom instruction in the native language for the first three years of school (although some educators are of the opinion that this should be continued for the first five or six years) while concurrently developing a 50-50 balance, arriving at English as the second language by the end of the third year.

The rationale for this gradual approach is that bilingual/bicultural pupils are likely to lose the functional use of their native language through too rapid immersion in English. Research into the use and instructional effectiveness of these approaches, and the development of new approaches and models, are urgently needed so that teaching strategies, techniques, and methodologies can be made more effective.
Though many choices exist in the design of curriculums and the adoption and use of instructional methods, certain planning tools should be borne in mind by all teachers for each course they give. Teachers should assess and state the specific objectives of the course—i.e., in measurable terms: the objectives for native language skills, English language skills, content area components; and objectives related to any other aspect of the material or the instructional approach. Further, teachers should write up the program design and schedules; the use of bilingual professional and paraprofessional staff; the evaluation design related to specific objectives; and a listing of materials to be used, specifying those developed by the teacher.

As bilingual/bicultural education is directed primarily towards the non-acculturated minority pupils, care should be taken in curriculum planning to develop course elements in which the majority of pupils—whose education will be deficient if they are not exposed to bilingual/bicultural experiences—can actively participate.

In summary, bilingualism must be viewed by bilingual/bicultural pupils and educators as an asset to intellectual development, and as an educationally legitimate element in the learning environment. Bilingualism contributes to present and future educational success for all who are involved.

The Cultural Component

Pupils' pride in their cultural heritage contributes to the development of a positive self-image. A positive cultural and self-image is essential for motivation, and the desire to learn. It is imperative that curriculum designs and curriculum materials for bilingual/bicultural pupils be tailored to their specific needs. Educators must break away from traditional, monocultural, sociohistorical and socioeconomic attitudes which fail to recognize the culturally pluralistic nature of the heritage of the United States. American cultural, social, economic, ethnic, and religious histories imply that the decisive role in the shaping of this country was that of the Anglo-Saxon American. The Asian and Pacific peoples, the Puerto Ricans, the various Indian nations, the Mexican-Americans, the Blacks, the West Indians, the Cubans and other various bilingual/bicultural groups and peoples are often ignored, or presented as impediments to the development of the United States.

There are few culturally appropriate curriculums tailored to the educational needs of bilingual/bicultural pupils.
The token presence of brown, yellow or olive skins in recent textbook illustrations is simply inadequate. Publishers must be pressured into greater accountability in fulfilling demonstrated needs. Teachers should be encouraged to offer critiques of existing textbooks, specifying general inadequacies and specific inaccuracies which in turn could lead to the selective boycotting of publishers, possibly instilling in these an increased sense of responsibility. Parents are an important resource on life and environment, and should be consulted during curriculum development. Though some materials have been developed through cooperative effort between teachers and parents, little has been published or distributed.

Curriculum designs and materials must also do more than merely offer separate courses relevant to a particular group of "ethnics." They should encourage all pupils to explore and respect their own cultural and historical heritages, and to study and explore others. All ethnic groups have historical experiences and resources from which material for developing new and more relevant texts can be drawn. Culturally pluralistic education will counter negative self-concepts and negative cultural images.

In summary, curriculum and curriculum materials must be designed according to the learning styles of bilingual/bicultural pupils. Traditional textbooks, literal translation, and other nontailored material can limit the achievement of bilingual/bicultural pupils. Their continued use remains a major obstacle to the academic success of non-Anglo pupils.

Program Funding

Educators and local public elementary and secondary school administrators are well aware that the funds available for programs under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act are inadequate in terms of the magnitude of the need. The number of applications for grants-in-aid have clearly demonstrated this. All administrators should remain aware that bilingual/bicultural programs can be justified and funded under Title I of the Act, if the needs assessment indicates that such programs are a prime need of "educationally deprived" children within the school district. This funding possibility should not be neglected.
University Teacher Training

By and large, university teacher training institutions have failed to prepare teachers capable of developing adequate bilingual/bicultural learning environments. Only recently, with the advent of Federal allocations, have university administrations and faculties even acknowledged the need for training in this particular field. Furthermore, those universities which do offer such programs tend to stress the linguistic, and not the cultural and historical aspects, of bilingual/bicultural education. In many programs, emphasis is placed on the teaching of reading English, and the teaching of English As A Second Language. Sometimes, teacher training in English As A Second Language is taught by faculty who do not know the language of the bilingual/bicultural population to be served. Many who support the concept of English As A Second Language contend that this situation is acceptable educational practice. However, the similarities and differences between the native language and English can hardly be effectively taught by someone who only knows the latter.

Few universities have courses which deal with the teaching of content areas in bilingual/bicultural education in the relevant language(s). Generally, universities allocate neither the time nor the research facilities to formulate hypotheses, theories, and techniques for bilingual/bicultural education, although courses in the theories and practices of bilingual/bicultural education are sometimes based on the individual research and experience of minority researchers and teachers.

Teacher Examinations and Licensing

Teacher licensing examinations procedures should be overhauled. In most professions, practitioners are able to show their worth through a combination of performance and evaluation. This is not the case with teachers; in spite of field evaluations, written examinations must be passed. These often discriminate in context, content and structure, against the minority candidate.
In some States, licensing in bilingual/bicultural education does not require that candidates speak the language of the intended pupil population. This favors Anglo applicants, and adversely affects the education of the minority pupil.

**Removal of the Teacher Preparation Function from the Universities: An Alternative Approach**

Certain bilingual/bicultural educators believe that the preparation of teachers in bilingual/bicultural education should be removed from the universities and placed in other institutions. These new institutions should be committed to bilingual/bicultural education, and should be accredited to grant degrees in this area. The courses of study should include: analyses of the heritages of bilingual/bicultural peoples; effective language instruction, so that teachers may speak, read, and write the various languages; research experience in the development of methodologies and techniques; and instruction in content areas such as mathematics, science, and social studies. In addition, courses in health service areas, guidance and counseling, as well as extensive field experience, are essential in the education of the bilingual/bicultural teacher, administrator, and counselor.

In the context of preparing teachers able to meet the needs of bilingual/bicultural children, it should be noted that bilingual/bicultural teacher preparation programs originated at the local level and only later were offered by institutions of higher education. Much of the accumulated expertise in methodology, techniques, and instructional skills remain within the local school districts, with their emphasis on practice and performance, rather than higher academic degrees.

**Inservice Training for Teachers**

Currently, there is little effective inservice training for teachers and administrators in bilingual/bicultural education programs. Even within school districts serving the same ethnic population, inservice courses tend to bear little relationship to each other. School districts should establish their own research units, and test programs within the district.

Teachers need skills in the designing and developing of bilingual/bicultural curriculums and materials for their pupils. Inservice training in guidance and counseling is needed to prepare these teachers to deal effectively with
various classroom situations. Time must be allocated for this. The qualifications for guidance positions should include a knowledge of the heritage and language of the relevant bilingual/bicultural communities.

New patterns of cooperation and collaboration must be established among school districts, universities, alternative Teacher Centers, privately supported research foundations and publicly funded bilingual/bicultural education foundations, so that information concerning bilingual/bicultural instruction can be shared. Monolingual teachers would certainly benefit from appropriate training. New teaching strategies should be developed so that monolingual teachers can work together in the same classroom with bilingual/bicultural teachers.

Career Ladders for the Bilingual/Bicultural Community

A career ladder for the long-term training of community members in teaching, administration, guidance counseling, and other positions should be created and funded by Federal, State and local governments. Participants in this training should be allowed to attend both traditional university programs and existing alternative programs. They should receive adequate compensation for working as teacher aides and paraprofessionals, and an effort must be made to place them when they have fulfilled the certification requirements. In short, the role of the paraprofessional in education must be clearly defined, whether these people wish to become teachers, or pursue other careers. Proper accreditation must be set up; its lack remains a significant obstacle to flexible performance and upward mobility for paraprofessionals.
The role of the parent in all education is properly one of advocacy and participation. Parents carry a major responsibility for ensuring that schools educate their children. Teacher organizations and unions have opposed use of teacher preparation periods for parent-teacher conferences. They do not recognize these conferences as part of the professional function of teaching. Consequently, parental participation has been limited to curriculum development, guidance, and counseling, and other supportive services. Parents frequently find the school atmosphere unwelcoming, and are therefore reluctant to visit and find out what is happening. As a result, the gap between parents and educational policymakers is becoming increasingly broad. This, rather than a lack of concern for their children's education, is the root of the problem. Historical forces have granted the white, Anglo-Saxon middle class control over decisionmaking, and have educated them in the skills necessary for the development and exercise of political power. Bilingual/bicultural parents must also receive such an education. Teachers must adapt their own perceived roles in order to work more closely with parents. Their traditional role of a "fountainhead of knowledge" must change: if it does not, parental input will remain minimal. The new role of the teacher therefore is that of facilitator, diagnostician, and prescriber of learning activities.

Parental participation in the schools is important in fostering a sense of community among the parents, teachers, and administrators. Bilingual/bicultural education must be viewed as a family activity in which parents help in the education of their children, as well as in the learning experiences of the teachers and administrators. Parents should also play a consultative role in the selection and development of instructional methodologies, techniques, and curriculum materials. Recent studies have revealed that learning increases when parental and community resources are brought into the classroom. When these resources are used by teachers, humane, integrated and well-rounded learning experiences follow. The Home Visitation Program is a model of parent-teacher cooperation which should be considered for use in more schools. This program stresses the home as a learning environment which can
increase academic performance and social development. With regular visitation, teaching—normally relegated to the school—is brought into the home. The role of the parent is to be a teacher and change agent for the child; the role of the home visitor is to be a change agent for the parent, showing ways to supplement the school, and not to imitate it.

One benefit of the Home Visitation Program is the enhanced education of parents to be aware of and use their talents to increase the achievement, motivation, intellectual behavior, and self-esteem of their children. A major activity of the home visitor is to demonstrate and explain the tasks that have been devised in the school to increase the pupils' intellectual competence and personal social development. With the home visitor as liaison between the school and the home, parents become better informed about school functions and are encouraged to become involved not only in task development but in the whole range of community-school relationships.

Classifying parents as consultants might facilitate the entry into the schools of parents with special skills. Thus parents who might not be able to work full time could come into the school for a day, or a few hours, depending on the schedule they establish with the school. They should also be paid for these services.

Although few schools have established programs to train parents to participate on program advisory boards, some have successfully done so. In one such program, the parental role in decisionmaking was the same as that of the principal and the staff. Parents were trained to analyze the basic provisions of the ESEA law, and to draft proposals. In one case, for example, these skills proved critical in winning back Title I funds when the Federal Government attempted to cut these off because the school's minority bilingual/bicultural pupils had achieved too much academically, and were therefore "ineligible" for further funding. The parents, community, teachers, and administrators joined in a cooperative effort and recaptured the Title I funds.

Another model of parental participation is the Center for Urban Education in Detroit. The aim of the center was to train parents to assume leadership roles on school boards. Over a period of three years, a citywide training program was established, and community and parent groups became active in bilingual/bicultural instructional programs, and participated in the selection of key administrators. Unfortunately, the center is now defunct for lack of funding.
In summary, it is clear that in order to instill a sense of community among parents, teachers, administrators and university faculty bilingual/bicultural parents must play a major role, from prekindergarten to the university level. They should be trained to participate in all decision-making bodies having to do with bilingual/bicultural education.
The need for instruments which evaluate objectively the academic performance of bilingual/bicultural pupils is particularly acute. The majority of school systems across the United States use standardized tests which are essentially biased against the bilingual/bicultural pupil. The bias in these tests is evidenced by the neglect of bilingual/bicultural linguistic, cultural, and historical heritages. These tests cannot be considered as universally valid test instruments when in fact they define achievement in terms of the middle-class experience. Thus bilingual/bicultural pupils take standardized tests which they may not understand because of unfamiliar content, or because the tests are given in English. This often results in their being designated "poor achievers," and subsequently being placed in classes for the mentally retarded or for the slow learner. The repeated denial of academic success results in the creation of a negative self, cultural, and racial image.

Successful test scores are a function of language proficiency and understanding of the cultural context the test reflects. Each culture, because of environmental and social traditions, selects certain activities as the most significant. It encourages or suppresses them according to given norms and values. For example, the relative standing of the different cultural groups in "intelligence" is affected by the particular culture in which the tests were constructed. Consequently, the predictive validity of standardized tests is questionable because they do not measure pupils' intelligence, but rather their grasp of middle-class norms, values and language. Thus, the use of standardized tests to predict the achievement and learning ability of bilingual/bicultural pupils might in fact conceal academic ability, and, in many cases, prevent significant achievement. Standardized tests are not the best tools for diagnosing the specific learning needs of bilingual/bicultural pupils.

Recently, to eradicate inequities in educational opportunities for bilingual/bicultural pupils, the courts have ruled
on the issue of testing. In Lau vs. Nichols (1974) the Supreme Court was critical of the use of "discrete-point tests" for evaluating pupil reading performance. The basic assumption of the "discrete-point tests" is that by measuring one part of a test, judgments can be made about the whole. For example, it was assumed that because a child could give a letter-sound correspondence in the 3rd grade, he or she was a "good" reader. For years, the "discrete-point test" was an integral part of reading instruction in English, and often discriminated against the bilingual/bicultural pupil. Both the Lau decision and the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) guidelines have argued for the use of observational analysis in a realistic social context, and for the development of an ethnographic measure. The need for the development of an instrument which can measure fairly the academic achievement of bilingual/bicultural pupils remains critical. At present, there has been no technical implementation of the OCR guidelines. Only time can tell whether or not the Lau decision will have had a lasting effect.

The case of ASPIRA vs. the New York City Board of Education posed a different performance evaluation problem for bilingual/bicultural education. Because of the predominance of Spanish as the language of communication among the Hispanic-American pupils in the New York City school system, and the predominance of English as the language of instruction, the Court ruled that this situation resulted in inequalities in educational opportunity for bilingual/bicultural pupils. The Court ordered the Board to develop a testing mechanism to determine the language in which these pupils could most effectively participate in the classroom. The Board then developed a language aptitude test which would ascertain in which language--English or Spanish--the 300,000 Hispanic pupils were most fluent. Bilingual/bicultural teachers who administered the tests reported that they only evaluated reading knowledge of Spanish and English. In addition, parts of the test resembled the traditional standardized one, translated into Spanish. Others stated that the cultural and historical heritages of these pupils were almost totally ignored. It was observed that pupils equally fluent in Spanish and English were placed in English-dominant classes, with no attention paid to their Hispanic, bilingual/bicultural heritage. Some teachers reported that because of the lack of planning, tests were administered haphazardly. Moreover, monolingual teachers, who could not speak the language of the pupils, and thus could not explain the test directions correctly, administered the test to these pupils. To be valid, these tests should have contained an evaluation mechanism with scientifically based diagnostic
and predictive elements. The areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing should also have been evaluated by those knowledgeable in the field of bilingual/bicultural education. "Subjective" and "regionalized" tests must be developed. The "subjective" instruments would represent an evaluative scheme in which the viewpoints and expertise of psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists, teachers, linguists, and parents would pool their resources to accurately assess the abilities of bilingual/bicultural pupils. The "regionalized" instrument would be designed to assess the particular educational requirements of specific ethnic groups in different geographical areas. For instance, a Puerto Rican child in New York, because of environmental factors and cultural lifestyle, has educational needs that are different from those of a Puerto Rican child in Puerto Rico. The same can be said for the educational needs of a Chicano child in Texas and a Chicano child in California, or a Japanese-American pupil in Los Angeles and a Japanese-American child on the island of Guam. More research is needed on the factors that account for regional characteristics.

Criterion-referenced tests are another alternative to standardized tests. Construction of criterion-referenced testing instruments requires the identification and itemization of the significant academic skills and concepts that pupils should have acquired after a given period of instruction. This evaluative mechanism also identifies minimum skills and concepts a child requires in order to function at each grade level.

This type of testing instrument can be developed for bilingual/bicultural education by determining research-based methodologies and techniques necessary to teach linguistic skills, content material, and concepts. Furthermore, curriculum must be designed to identify skills and concepts in subject areas. When used, this system of criterion-referenced testing has been successful, and has aided in the design of curriculums.

Pupils benefit from criterion-referenced testing because the teachers are evaluated at the same time. For example, if a number of pupils in a class consistently make the same errors, or fail to display certain skills or concepts, then the teacher must acknowledge that he or she has been deficient in communicating those skills and concepts.
A vital component of any bilingual/bicultural program is the capacity for self-evaluation. A suitable means of ensuring this is the application of discrepancy analysis. The application of this system not only holds teachers accountable for achieving stated objectives but also for doing so within the planned time frame. No such evaluation can be carried out, however, without the participation of trained evaluators who by membership in the minority group will be its most accurate observers. It is particularly important that evaluators are able to assess the pupils' performance in both their mother tongue and in English.
It is imperative that the educational requirements of bilingual/bicultural instructional programs be analyzed and identified prior to Federal funding. Many federally funded programs and projects in the field of bilingual/bicultural education tend to be based on someone's pre-conceived ideas rather than the philosophical foundations of this field. For example, programs are funded which fail to identify the relevant aspects of the learning and teaching problem among the target population. This is due to the lack of research-based methodologies, techniques, and strategies for effective classroom instruction. In addition, due to a lack of clearly articulated programmatic goals and objectives, it is almost impossible to either measure accurately or evaluate the academic performance of participants. At times, there is no indication that these funded programs have been developed on the basis of an existing body of knowledge, or on a tested model.

Clearly, children's educational needs must be assessed before funding priorities can be developed. However, this cannot be carried out until research exists on the communities to be served. Even when such documentation is available, it is more often than not ignored. For example, in the State of Colorado, the educational needs of Mexican-American pupils have been documented. The report states that these pupils are eight months behind in mathematics. Yet, despite widespread dissemination of this report among school administrators, funding priorities have not changed. Broader dissemination of the facts to the general public through the mass media, and especially through public broadcast facilities, must take place.

This, combined with political pressure by bilingual/bicultural peoples, would create a climate that would favor a distribution of Federal funding more in keeping with real education priorities.

Federal agencies charged with the distribution of funds for bilingual/bicultural instructional programs must monitor the distribution and use of funds within each State. A case in point is California, where it was discovered that large metropolitan area school districts had requested additional monies without first justifying
the use of funds already allocated. The Los Angeles Unified School District requested additional funding without demonstrating why more funds were needed, or that the original funds had been expended to the pupils' benefits. Another example from California concerns the California State Department of Education. Monolingual/monocultural personnel were assigned to bilingual/bicultural posts without being able either to speak any of the relevant languages operative in the California education system, or to evaluate the implementation of programs in bilingual/bicultural education funded by Federal sources. Moreover, they could only carry out onsite evaluations when they were invited to do so.

The official response to objections to this policy was that the Federal Government did not require State evaluations. Requests for additional funds for bilingual/bicultural instructional programs must therefore be accompanied by reports on how the original funds were spent, and on the educational effectiveness of those efforts. The reports should be evaluated by United States Office of Education bilingual/bicultural personnel with expertise in the field. On the basis of these evaluations, additional funding should be awarded or denied. Furthermore, State personnel charged with evaluating these programs should themselves be bilingual/bicultural.

Bilingual/bicultural instructional programs are often characterized by disorganization, mismanagement, and lack of accountability on the part of State Commissioners and local superintendents of education. Furthermore, the programs lack management schemes, programmatic guidelines, goals, job specifications, etc. Because of these shortcomings the U.S. Office of Education has recently dispatched monitoring teams to various States. However, these teams were unable to enter school districts receiving Federal funds without being invited to do so by school district officials. Consequently, their monitoring effectiveness was severely limited—the element of surprise totally eliminated. For instance, the Lau Task Force, which was organized to give technical assistance to those seeking to implement the Lau vs. Nichols decision, discovered that it could not give technical assistance unless invited to do so by the superintendent of a school district.

Effective teacher training for bilingual/bicultural education is crucial for the improvement of education for non-Anglo pupils. At the present time, teachers undergo training in bilingual/bicultural education at personal expense. Yet once prepared, this teacher still has obstacles to
overcome: for example, he or she may not have the seniority to teach in a particular program, although his or her qualifications may be superior to those of a senior teacher who has qualified by taking a crash course in a second language. Or, he or she may be forced to accept a short-term, federally funded job. Obstacles such as these discourage many licensed teachers from seeking bilingual/bicultural training.

The informed participation of bilingual/bicultural parents in the decisionmaking machinery of bilingual/bicultural instructional programs should be mandated. Bilingual/bicultural parental and community opinion is vitally important to the selection of personnel; types of programs needed; and for obtaining feedback on the effectiveness of programs. Parental and community participation should therefore be mandatory on all decisionmaking committees, and parents should be paid consultant fees.

It is imperative that the year-to-year funding of programs in bilingual/bicultural education be eliminated. One-year-at-a-time funding results in the lack of program planning for more than one year; the lack of analysis of the future results of current efforts; and, in general, superficial endeavors. In addition, because of the uncertain future of already funded programs, the best bilingual/bicultural teachers are reluctant to administer or staff them. Program proposals adhering to the philosophical and pragmatic requirements of bilingual/bicultural education should therefore be funded for a period of four years, with yearly Federal evaluations and modifications when necessary. Funding for the fifth, sixth, and seventh years should aim to integrate the program into a tax-levy funded permanent structure, so that the program can be institutionalized with the same personnel. Binding agreements leading to integration must be the sine qua non for further Federal funding, thereby decreasing the instability of federally funded bilingual/bicultural instructional programs.

Lack of financial resources to develop and implement their own instructional program is a serious problem for bilingual/bicultural peoples. At the present time, the lion's share of the funding is given to school districts and universities. Unfortunately, bilingual/bicultural peoples have learned that these institutions and organizations still fail to meet bilingual/bicultural instructional needs. Federal funding should therefore also be provided for alternate endeavors in bilingual/bicultural instruction outside of the institutional structure, which in turn should
be organized, staffed and administered by bilingual/bicultural personnel.

There are a large number of diverse ethnic groups included in the term "bilingual/bicultural." Although all target groups have educational needs, what for some is enrichment is for others a matter of survival. In the fight for funding, those with the most political power absorb funds to the exclusion of the less powerful. Target groups most lacking in resources for survival and the maintenance of cultural identity should receive the highest funding priority.

In summary, it is clear that Federal funding for programs in bilingual/bicultural education must be reassessed. The relevant priorities must be studied; existing programs, the funding, timetock, and personnel of present programs must be reexamined; the decisionmaking machinery of bilingual/bicultural education programs must be reevaluated. It is imperative that these aspects of Federal funding be fully studied, in light of the fact that only 2 percent of the pupils in the United States who need bilingual/bicultural education participate in such programs.
8. RECOMMENDATIONS

1) The U.S. Office of Education should establish an independent clearing house whose purpose would be the following:

(a) to fund the research endeavors of minority bilingual/bicultural researcher/educators;

(b) to publish and/or print in a variety of languages the research endeavors of minority investigators for the purpose of sharing and applying cross-culturally relevant information;

(c) to make these works available to school districts, boards of education and universities across the country;

(d) to approach commercial publishing houses and magazines, both academic and popular, for the purpose of increased dissemination;

(e) to encourage the full participation of minority bilingual/bicultural educators and researchers in the decisionmaking process in the funding of projects.

2) The U.S. Office of Education should fund community field-research projects in bilingual/bicultural communities for the purpose of gathering and analyzing information on the cultural, historical, and linguistic lifestyles of minority communities, with the intention of applying the results to curriculum content and development; methodological improvement and teaching techniques; parental and community decisionmaking; and teacher training, testing, and performance evaluation.

3) The Federal Government should arrange a series of meetings with the commercial publishers of textbooks used in bilingual/bicultural education in order to discuss the improvement of these textbooks.
4) Funding under the various education and education-related Titles should be made contingent upon the use of materials that are specifically designed for bilingual/bicultural pupils.

5) All university teacher-training programs should be made to demonstrate their practical commitment to the philosophical and pragmatic requirements of bilingual/bicultural education by developing courses in full cooperation with minority bilingual/bicultural educators, faculties, parents, and communities.

6) University faculty members who teach in bilingual/bicultural education teacher training programs should be required to be not only bilingual, but to have a sound knowledge of the cultural, historical, and linguistic heritage of the particular group being served. This also applies to university administrators of Teacher Corps projects dealing with bilingual/bicultural populations.

7) Federal funding should be withheld from universities failing to demonstrate compliance with the philosophical and pragmatic requirements of bilingual/bicultural education, and recent court decisions.

8) Teacher training in bilingual/bicultural education should be removed from the current university control, and new alternative institutions should be established. These institutions must also be federally funded, fully accredited, and national in scope, encompassing all bilingual/bicultural peoples.

9) Federal funding requirements should insist that curriculum design, development and materials should be jointly produced by teachers, parents and communities, in cooperation with teacher training institutions.

10) Methodologies, techniques, curriculum development and materials should result from research-based information. School districts, universities and alternative institutions should establish research units so as to deal more effectively with the educational needs of bilingual/bicultural peoples.

11) Inservice courses should prepare teachers to develop their own materials, so that they can decrease their dependence on inferior, commercially produced materials.
12) Inservice courses should include language learning in the relevant native language for the purpose of using it as a vehicle of learning communication in the classroom. In addition, culture and history courses, as well as community lifestyles, must be an integral part of all bilingual/bicultural instruction programs.

13) Career ladders which allow community members to qualify for teaching positions, to be administrators, guidance counselors, support personnel, or other career choice should be promoted and funded by Federal, State and local mechanisms.

14) Federally funded programs, staffed by minority bilingual/bicultural educators, should offer tenure, or permanence, in school systems and universities, so as to encourage educators to work in these Federal projects. The Federal Government should pay the salaries of these individuals until regular, tax levy funds become available for maintenance.

15) The United States Office of Education should give priority to funding minority bilingual/bicultural researchers and research organizations for the purpose of developing evaluation instruments that reflect the academic performance of bilingual/bicultural pupils, while at the same time accurately diagnosing their educational and instructional needs.

16) A central clearing house must be created where bilingual/bicultural researchers can meet and share the knowledge they have acquired from their investigations.

17) There must be broader dissemination of the educational facts of bilingual/bicultural instruction to the general public through the mass media, and especially through the use of public broadcasting facilities. In keeping with the above, Federal funds should be made available to bilingual/bicultural peoples to produce their own programs.

18) It is strongly recommended that requests for additional funds for bilingual/bicultural programs be accompanied by Office of Education and State-sponsored program evaluations, and evaluation of the educational effectiveness of previously allocated funds. Personnel evaluating these programs should be bilingual/bicultural, and have expertise in bilingual/bicultural instructional techniques.
19) Federal funding should be provided to reimburse bilingual/bicultural teachers for the expenses incurred during teacher preparation for bilingual/bicultural teaching.

20) Parent and community participation should be made mandatory for all decisionmaking regarding Federally funded programs in bilingual/bicultural education. Furthermore, parents and community members on these committees must be paid consultant fees for their input.

21) Those programs adhering to the philosophical and pragmatic requirements of bilingual/bicultural education should be funded for a period of four years, with yearly U.S. Office of Education evaluations. Funding for the 5th, 6th and 7th years must aim at integrating the program into a permanent tax-levy funded structure, so that it can be institutionalized in the 8th year, under the direction of the same personnel. In addition, the Federal Government should continue to pay the salaries of bilingual/bicultural personnel until such a time as they obtain other teaching positions, or are absorbed into the structure of the school district.
VI.

OVERARCHING THEMES
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The Urban, Rural and Migrant, Native American and Bilingual/Bicultural Task Forces all sought to isolate strategies and techniques for the improvement of the quality of instruction in reading and mathematics in American schools. It is significant that issues emerged which, though not necessarily identical, were nevertheless similar enough to be considered common to each group. It becomes clear therefore that there exist generic problems germane to the entire public school system in the United States. The five areas reflecting mutual concern were: Curriculum Development; Performance Evaluation; Personnel Training; Parent and Community Participation; and Funding.

Curriculum Development

The four task forces, independent of each other, focused on a common theme: overall program designs could be made, and must be made, more responsive to the immediate environment of a given pupil population, whether it be urban or rural, monolingual or bilingual. Further, that within a given school district, the individual school had its particular needs.

The Urban Task Force, for example, was concerned that since urban schools often failed to provide a positive learning environment, the urban pupil tended to seek self-esteem outside the academic setting, thereby diminishing chances for academic success. The Rural and Migrant Task Force, on the other hand, stressed that most of their pupils had to overcome the feeling of being social outcasts before significant academic progress could be achieved.

The discussions of both the Native American and Bilingual/Bicultural Task Forces offered similar recommendations. In relating positive self-concept to learning ability, both urged that teaching methods be accommodated
to the unique needs of their pupils, offering materials, techniques and strategies that made full use of the particular linguistic, cultural and historical heritages.

It was recommended that education programs be designed with pupil success in mind, rather than regional or State requirements. All the task forces stressed that this would raise overall achievement levels and promote motivation to learn. "Utilize the skills the pupil already has, and then progress to more difficult levels" was a recurrent observation expressed in various ways. After experiencing a modicum of success, pupils would be prepared to tackle more difficult material, thereby starting a momentum which would have a lasting effect on their school years.

Further, the Urban Task Force proposed maximizing the use of existing community skills to develop what they called a "survival curriculum" for their pupils, while the Rural and Migrant Task Force urged that instruction center around the rural experience, especially for the teaching of mathematics. A similar appeal was made by the Native American Task Force. It felt that community participation for the teaching of folklore traditions would boost pupil self-esteem, and improve cognitive skills for effective participation in the American secondary school system. The Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force in turn proposed a curriculum that would be responsive to bilingual/bicultural life styles in the urban setting.

Each of the task forces' findings therefore imply the need for a utilitarian-based education, reflecting the particular needs of pupils from disparate cultural backgrounds.

Performance evaluation

National standardized testing was criticized by all task forces for being a poor tool to evaluate the performance of non-middle-class and nonwhite pupil populations. The Rural and Migrant Task Force for example observed that their youngsters frequently did poorly in these tests because of the disparity between local use or dialect and the standard English wording of the questions. Clearly this situation was compounded in the case of the bilingual and Native American pupil, and to some extent
in the case of the urban pupil. Members urged therefore that regional tests be designed, and that objectives in reading and writing be established State by State.

Criterion-referenced testing, on the other hand, was generally cited as being an effective method of identifying pupil needs, and was particularly praised by the Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force for being a useful means of evaluating both pupil achievement and teacher performance.

Personnel Training

The task forces stressed that effective teachers were those sensitive to the unique needs of the community served by their school. All too frequently, however, the teacher was not indigenous to the particular community in which he or she taught. It was felt that community orientation sessions, for example, would prove invaluable for the prospective teacher.

Effective school administrators were individuals with personal education philosophies, the Urban Task Force stated, and this should be reflected in their approach to school management and curriculum upgrading. The same theme appears in the discussions of the other task forces. The Rural and Migrant Task Force, for example, noted that when teachers saw their principals as open, as being supportive and interested in developing improved programs, they tended to perform better.

The general plight of children residing in low-income areas was seen as being similar in all four groups. Urban teachers, for example, were inclined to expect less from the poor pupil, so this task force recommended teachers be required to demonstrate teaching skills reflecting their belief in the poor pupil's ability to learn as well as any other.

The severe shortage of Native American teachers gave rise to another recurring theme: if suitable staff is lacking, recruit adult members from the community for help in the design of training programs for prospective teachers, both preservice and inservice. Thus, the Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force called for increased numbers of bilingual teachers, while cautioning against crash courses
in Spanish or Chinese for example, to enable teachers to fulfill district quotas. The Urban, Rural and Migrant, and Bilingual/Bicultural Task Forces also urged the forming of new links between local universities and school systems for the training of specialized teachers.

Parent and Community Participation

Parent involvement and community participation clearly emerged as major themes. The Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force contended that learning actually increased in proportion to the number of parents involved in school affairs. In recommending that parents serve as teachers the Native American and Urban Task Forces felt their presence in the school was of great benefit not only to the pupil but also to the parent. The Urban and Rural and Migrant Task Forces recommended therefore that the concept of the "learning community" be more widely propagated. Indeed, while the Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force discussed education as a family affair, with all family members participating, the Native American Task Force felt that although parental roles in the schools were essential, the traditional role of the tribal council had to be observed.

Funding

The policies which determined funding patterns and funding allocations emerged as a subject of vital interest to all the task forces. It was argued that the inadequacies of these allocations, and the regulations restricting their use in such programs as Title I, pose significant obstacles to the development of effective programming. The Rural and Migrant Task Force felt that the allocations of Federal funds should fall under the jurisdiction of local education agencies. Similarly, members of the Urban Task Force recommended that half of Title I funds be discretionary, since current regulations denied the recipient the authority to expand successful programs. A cost-benefit analysis could be made to demonstrate which programs had proved effective.

The relationship of funding to personnel staffing was another major issue raised by each task force. The Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force noted that the instability
of teaching appointments posed a serious threat to the effectiveness of bilingual programs. For example, when Title I and experimental school funds were exhausted, the school system generally terminated the Title I teachers. The Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force urged therefore that the Federal Government assume responsibility for Title I teacher salaries until the teacher was absorbed into the local school system proper. The Native American Task Force agreed that allocations specifically earmarked for inservice training should be made, and participation in both inservice and preservice programs should be made mandatory through amendments to Titles I, IV, and VII of the Indian Education Act.

Parents should be encouraged to participate in parent advisory committees, urged the Bilingual/Bicultural Task Force. The Rural and Migrant Task Force concurred, and stressed that funds must be made available for parent leadership-training workshops, to offset, for example, the cost of babysitters and other expenses incurred through attendance. Similar suggestions were put forward by both the Native American and Urban Task Forces.

All task forces stressed the urgent need for long-range planning to achieve sound program implementation. The funding of programs for only one year was considered poor policy; task forces urged therefore that to be effective, all programs must be funded for at least two years. Members of the Native American Task Force, for example, recommended that a more rational system of administration be built into their instructional programs on the Federal, State and local levels, thus avoiding program and expenditure duplications.