

Reynaldo F. Macías

Dr. Macías is a Professor at the University of California, Los Angeles, and is Director of the Cesar Chavez Center. He is also in the Department of Education. He was a professor in the School of Education at UC Santa Barbara for many years and was the director of the University of California's Linguistic Minority Research Institute. He has been involved in many TRPI projects geared towards improving the educational attainment of Latino students. He is the author, co-author, and editor of six books and over two dozen research articles and chapters on such topics as bilingual education, teacher supply and demand, Chicanos and schooling, adult literacy, language choice, analysis for national language survey data, population projections, language policies and media research. His current research activities are in language policy/politics/demography, adult literacy and teacher studies. In addition to teaching and research, he co-founded Aztlán-International Journal of Chicano Studies Research, and the National Association of Chicano Social Science. He is also a member of the Board of Directors of the California Association for Bilingual Education, Editor of the National Association for Bilingual Education Journal, on the Board of Directors for the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund, and was the Assistant Director for Research and Language Studies at the National Institute of Education in the U.S. Department of Education. He has been the recipient of several awards, including postdoctoral fellowships from the UCLA Institute for American Cultures and the National Research Council and in 1994, he was honored by the National Association for Bilingual Education as a Pioneer in the field. Dr. Macías received his doctoral degree from Georgetown University in Linguistics, specializing in Socio-linguistics and minored in Theoretical Linguistics and Language Policy Planning.

VITA **
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PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT/EXPERIENCE

1998 to present	Chair, César E. Chávez Ctr for Interdisciplinary Instruction in Chicana/o Studies, UCLA
1998 to present	Professor of Chicana/o Studies, Education & Applied Linguistics, UCLA
1992 to 1998	Professor of Education, UCSB
1992 to December 1997	Director, University of CA Linguistic Minority Research Institute
1985 to 1992	Associate Professor of Education, USC
1984 to 1992	Director, Ctr. for Multilingual, Multicultural Research, USC
1982 to 1985	Assistant Professor of Education, USC
1979 to 1981	Assistant Director for Reading and Language Studies, National Institute of Education, U.S. Education Dept.

ACADEMIC DATA

1. Education

Ph.D. Georgetown University, Linguistics. Major Program: Socio-linguistics. Minors: Theoretical Linguistics and Language Policy and Planning, 1979.

M.S. Georgetown University, Linguistics. Major Program: Socio-linguistics. Minor: General Linguistics, 1977.

M.A. University of California, Los Angeles, Education. Major Program: Early Childhood Curriculum and Instruction, 1973.

B.A. University of California, Los Angeles, Sociology, 1969.

2. Credentials and Certificates

Lifetime California Community College Credential. 1971.

Paralegal Certificate: Georgetown University Legal Assistant Program, 1978.

3. Fellowships and Awards

Appreciation Award for Outstanding Contributions to the California Association for Bilingual Education, March 2000. California Association for Bilingual Education.

Appointed to the Advisory Board for the National Institute for Literacy, by President of the U.S. (William Clinton), confirmed by the U.S. Senate, 1996-2001.

President's Award. 1996. National Association for Bilingual Education.

Pioneer in Bilingual Education Award. 1994. National Association for Bilingual Education.

Senior Postdoctoral Fellowship, National Research Council, Ford Foundation Minority Fellowship Program. AY 1988-89.

Participant Award from the Center for Puerto Rican Studies, City University of New York, Summer Institute on Puerto Rican Studies, New York City. Seminar on Language. Summer, 1982.

Postdoctoral Scholar Award, University of California, Los Angeles, Chicano Studies Research Center/Institute of American Cultures, 1981-82.

Ford Foundation Graduate Fellowship, Georgetown University, 1976-1979.

Danforth Foundation Fellowship, UCLA, 1971-1973.

Study Award/Fellowship from Chicano Studies Center, University of California, Santa Barbara, to the Institute on Bilingualism and Chicano Studies, Colegio de México, México City. Seminars in Linguistics and Psychology. Summer, 1971.

Graduate Teaching Assistant, School of Education, UCLA, 1969.

Honor Senior, University of California, Los Angeles, 1968-1969.

Team Member, Project India 1967. Traveled to thirteen cities in India. Sponsored by the University Religious Conference, Los Angeles and UCLA, 1966.

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Education—bilingual instruction and methods; U.S. educational history and policy analysis; social context of curriculum design and implementation; multicultural curricular issues.

Chicano Studies—education and language of Chicanos and other Latinos within the U.S.

Linguistics—bilingualism (language demography, language maintenance and shift); language policy & planning with focus on the U.S. (especially language policy as a mechanism of social control).

GRANTSMANSHIP (Funded projects)

Principal Investigator. History of *Aztlán Journal*. UCLA Institute of American Cultures. \$1,500.

Principal Investigator. CA Proposition 227 Impact on Teachers and Teacher Preparation. UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute. \$15,000 for 6 months (1999).

Principal Investigator. UCSB Bilingual Education Fellowship Program. Office of Bilingual Education & Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department. \$500,000 for 3 years (served as PI for the first year, 1998-99).

Principal Investigator. Electronic Services for the Center for Research in Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). UC Santa Cruz, subcontract funded from the Office for Educational Research & Improvement, U.S. Education Dept. \$200,000 for 2 years (1996-1998).

Principal Investigator. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education Partner. George Washington University, subcontract funded from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department. \$200,000 for 5 years (1995-2000).

Co-Principal Investigator. Avenues for Bilingual Resources in Education—UCSB Bilingual Teacher Education Program. Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department. \$990,000 for 5 years (1995-2000).

Co-Principal Investigator. Chicano/Latino Electronic Network on Language, Education and Culture. California SR 143 Competition for Projects on CA Latino Policy Issues. Committee on Chicano/Latino Policy Research. UC Presidents Office. \$185,000 (1993-1998).

Principal Investigator. UCSB Bilingual Education Fellowship Program. Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department. \$330,000 for 3 years (1993-1996).

Principal Investigator, "Advocating for Change in Chicano Teacher Preparation," Tomás Rivera Center (Exxon Educational Foundation). \$50,344, 1989-1992.

Co-Principal Investigator, "USC Bilingual Education Fellowship Program," Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department. \$780,000 for 3 years (1990-1993).

Co-Principal Investigator, "Summer Institute for Professional Development and Second Language Education," the United University of America. \$644,579 (1990-1992).

Co-Principal Investigator, "Summer Institute for Professional Development and Second Language Education," the United University of America. \$385,000 (1987-1989).

Principal Investigator, "The National Need for Bilingual Teachers," the Exxon Educational Foundation. \$49,901 for 1 year. (October 1986).

Co-Principal Investigator, "Summer Institute for Professional Development and Second Language Education," the United University of America. \$86,768 for 4 months. (April 1986).

Principal Investigator, "Illiteracy in the Latino Community: Its Extent and Consequences," Tomás Rivera Center (Inter-University Program/Social Science Research Council), \$44,000 (1986-1987).

Principal Investigator, "USC Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction Leadership Training Program (Bilingual Education Fellows), Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Education Dept. \$244,000 (1985-1988).

Co-Principal Investigator, "USC Bilingual Policy Fellowship Program, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Education Dept. \$244,000 (1985-1988).

Principal Investigator, "Training Program in Minority-Handicapped Research," Minority Handicapped Research Institute (Office of Special Education, U.S. Education Dept.) \$22,000. (1984-1985)

Co-Principal Investigator, "USC School of Education Project—Developing USC Bilingual Education Resources," Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs, U.S. Education Department, \$77,464 (1981-1984).

Co-Principal Investigator, "U.S.-México Border Atlas on Schooling and Language." UCLA. \$3,000 (Summer, 1982).

Principal Investigator, "Mexicano/Chicano Sociolinguistic Behavior and Language Policy in the United States," Ford Foundation Fellowship Dissertation Research Award. \$1,400 (1978-1979).

Principal Investigator, "National Survey of Chicano Faculty and Research," University of California, Los Angeles, Chicano Studies Center Grant (1974).

Principal Investigator, "University of California Chicano Faculty Research Directory," UCLA, Chicano Studies

Center Grant (1972).

Head Researcher, A Study of Unincorporated East Los Angeles, UCLA, Chicano Studies Center Grant for Community Research Project No. 1 (1970).

PUBLICATIONS AND EDITORIAL EXPERIENCE

1. Books

Greenberg, E., Macías, R. F., Rhodes, D. & Chan, T. 2001. *English Literacy and Language Minorities in the United States*. [NCES 2001-464] Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. Of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics.

Macías, R. F. & García-Ramos, R. eds. 1995. *Changing schools for changing students: An Anthology of research on language minorities, schools & society*. Santa Barbara, CA: UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute.

López, R., Arturo Madrid-Barela, and R. F. Macías. 1976. *Chicanos in Higher Education—Status and Issues*. Los Angeles, CA: Published by the UCLA Chicano Studies Center for the National Chicano Commission on Higher Education.

Macías, R. F., Carolyn Webb de Macías, William De La Torre & Mario Vásquez. 1975. *Educación Alternativa—On the Development of Chicano Bilingual Schools*. Oakland, CA: The Southwest Network— Clearinghouse on Alternative Schools.

Macías, R. F., Guillermo Flores, Donaldo Figueroa & Luis Aragón. 1973. *A Study of Unincorporated East Los Angeles*. Los Angeles, CA: Aztlán Publications (UCLA).

2. Conference Proceedings

Macías, R. F., ed. *Perspectivas en Chicano Studies I—Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the National Association of Chicano Social Science, 1975*. Los Angeles, CA: National Association of Chicano Social Science and the UCLA Chicano Studies Center, 1977.

This volume also contains 8 documents identified, selected, and compiled by the editor as primary source documentation on the establishment and development of the Association.

3. Journal Articles

Macías, R. F. 1997. Bilingual workers and language use rules in the workplace: A Case study of a non-discriminatory language policy. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*. No. 127. (Special issue on linguistic human rights from a sociolinguistic perspective). pp 53-70.

Macías, R. F. 1995. Trabajadores bilingües y reglas de uso de las lenguas en el lugar de trabajo: Un estudio de caso de una política lingüística no discriminatoria en California. *Alteridades*. [México, DF] (Número especial sobre derechos humanos lingüísticos en sociedades multiculturales) 5:10, 43-53.

Macías, R. F. 1993. Language and ethnic classification of language minorities: Chicano and Latino students in the 1990s. *Hispanic J. of Behavioral Sciences*. 15:2 (May). pp. 230-257.

Macías, R. F. 1990. Bilingualism, language contact, and immigrant languages. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. 10. pp. 13-25.

Macías, R. F. 1985. Language and Ideology in the United States. *Social Education, (Journal of the National Council for Social Studies)*. 49:2 (February). pp. 97-100.

Macías, R. F. 1982. Language Policy, Planning, and Politics in the United States Concerned with Language Minority Issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. 2. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers. pp. 86-104.

Macías, R. F. 1982. U. S. Language-in-Education Policy: Issues in the Schooling of Language Minorities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 2, Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers. pp. 144-160.

Estrada, L., L. Maldonado, R. F. Macías, F. C. García. 1981. Chicanos in the U.S.: A History of Exploitation and Resistance. *Daedalus-Journal of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 110:2 (Spring). pp. 103-132.

Reprinted in N. Yetman, ed., *Majority and Minority: Dynamics of Race & Ethnicity in American Life* (4th ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1984. pp. 162-184.

Reprinted in F.C. García, ed. *Latinos & the Political System*. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 1988. pp. 28-64.

Macías, R. F. 1979. Language Choice and Human Rights in the U.S. in *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics, 1979. Language in Public Life*, J. Alatis, ed., Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press. pp. 86-101.

A revised version is also published as "Choice of Language as a Human Right--Public Policy Implications in the U.S.," in R. Padilla, ed., *Public Policy & Bilingual Education*, Ypsilanti, MI: Eastern Michigan University, 1979, pp. 399-57.

Macías, R. F. 1973. Opinions of Chicano Community Parents on Curriculum and Language Use in Bilingual, Preschool Education. *Aztlán-Chicano Journal of the Social Sciences and the Arts*. 4:2 (Fall). pp. 315-334.

Macías, R. F. 1973. Developing a Bilingual, Culturally Relevant Educational Program for Chicanos. *Aztlán*. 4:1 (Spring). pp. 63-84.

4. Chapters in Books

Macías, R. F. 2001. Minority Languages in the United States, with a focus on Spanish in California. In Dürk Gorter, & Guus Extra, Eds. *The Other Languages of Europe*. Clevedon, ENG: Multilingual Matters Press. Pp. 331-354.

Macías, R. F. 2000. The Flowering of America: Linguistic diversity in the United States. In S. McKay & S. Wong, eds. *New Immigrants in the United States: Readings for second language educators*. Cambridge, ENG: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 11-57

Macías, R. F. 2000. Language Politics and the sociolinguistic historiography of Spanish in the United States. In Peg Griffin, Joy Peyton, Walt Wolfram, Ralph Fasold, eds. *Language in action: New studies of language in society*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press. Pp. 52-83.

Macías, R. F., Castro, R. & Rodríguez-Ingle, Y. 1999. Looking for needles in the haystack: Hispanics in the teaching profession. In Abbas Tashakkori & Salvador Ochoa, Eds., *Readings on Equal Education, Vol. 16: Education of Hispanics in the U.S.--Politics, policies and outcomes*. NY: AMS Press. Pp. 47-74.

Macías, R. F. & Terrence Wiley. 1997. Editors' Introduction to the Second Edition. In Kloss, Heinz. *The American Bilingual Tradition*. (Second edition). McHenry, IL: Ctr for Applied Linguistics & Delta Systems. Pp. vii-xii.

Macías, R. F. 1997. Bilingüismo y política en los Estados Unidos. In M. Lavadenz & C. Velasco, eds. *Hacia un*

futuro sin fronteras: Jornadas pedagógicas para la educación bilingüe. Santa Barbara, CA: UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute. 43-53.

- Macías, R. F. 1996. Bilingual education, language minorities and foreign languages in the United States. In F. W. Spliethoff, ed. *Second language acquisition in Europe: Proceedings of the International Conference on Second Language Acquisition in Secondary Education, Velhoven, the Netherlands, May 17-19, 1995*. 's-Hertogenbosch, the Netherlands: KPC (Katholic Project Ctr), 51-62.
- Macías, R. F. & García-Ramos, R. 1995. Changing schools for changing students. in Macías, R. F. & García-Ramos, R. eds. *Changing schools for changing students: An Anthology of research on language minorities, schools & society*. Santa Barbara, CA: UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute. pp. v-xvii.
- Macías, R. F. 1994. Inheriting sins while seeking absolution: Language diversity and national statistical data sets. in D. Spener, ed. *Adult Biliteracy in the United States*. McHenry, IL: Ctr for Applied Linguistics & Delta Systems. pp. 15-46.
- Macías, R. F. 1992. Bilingualism, multilingualism, and multiculturalism. in W. Grabe and R. Kaplan, eds. *Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. 213-230.
- Macías, R. F. 1989. International patterns of language diversity and policies. in L. Bernstein, ed. *Proceedings of the Conference on Language Rights and Public Policy--Perspectives on the "English only" movement*. San Francisco, CA: American Civil Liberties Union.
- Macías, R. F. 1989. Definitions of literacy: A Response. in R. Venezky, D. Wagner & B. Ciliberti, eds. *Towards defining literacy*. Newark: International Reading Association.
- Macías, R., Teacher Preparation for Bilingual Education, in *Compendium of Papers on the Topic of Bilingual Education*, of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Rep., Serial 99-R, Washington, DC: USGPO, 1986, pp. 41-56.
- Macías, R., National Language Profiles of the Mexican Origin Population in the U.S., in *Mexican Americans in Comparative Perspective*, ed. by W. Connor, (Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press), 1985, pp. 283-308.
- Macías, R. F., Language Diversity Among U.S. Hispanics: Some Background Considerations for Schooling and for Non-Biased Assessment, *Proceedings- Invitational Symposium on Hispanic American Diversity*, J. Speilberg, ed., East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University and Michigan State Department of Education, 1982, pp. 110-136.
- Macías, R. F., Opinions of Chicano Community Parents on Bilingual Preschool Education, in *Language in Sociology*, A. Verdoodt and R. Kjolseth, eds., Institut de Linguistique de Louvain, 1976, pp. 135-166. Selected Proceedings of the Research Committee on Sociolinguistics VIIIth World Congress of Sociology.
- Macías, R. F., and Carolyn Webb de Macías, La participación contemporánea del Chicano en las escuelas del suroeste de los EE. UU., in *Aztlán--Historia contemporánea del pueblo chicano*, D. Maciel & P. Bueno, eds. México, DF: Editorial SepSetentas, 1976, pp. 109-128.
- Macías, R. F., Juan Gómez-Quifiones, and Raymond Castro, Objetivos de los estudios chicanos, in *Aztlán--Historia contemporánea del pueblo chicano*, D. Maciel and P. Bueno, eds., Mexico, DF: Editorial SepSetentas, 1976, pp. 129-139.

This essay was originally published as a single title position paper for the National Institutes on Chicano

Studies, in 1969. It was subsequently published as Objectives of Chicano Studies, in *Epoca-The National Concilio for Chicano Studies Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 2 (Winter 1971), pp. 31-34; and then translated into Spanish for publication in this 1976 Mexican anthology.

Macías, R. F., Schooling of Chicanos in a Bilingual, Culturally Relevant Context, in *Parameters of Institutional Change--Chicano Experiences in Education*, Hayward, CA: The Southwest Network, 1974, pp. 109-134.

5. Instructional Materials or Media

Presenter/Discussant, Parent participation in the educational achievement of children and youth, Training videotape for parents, LAUSD, Spring 1986, (in production).

Co-author of Spanish language basal reading series, *Campanitas de oro*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986 (10 readers).

Co-author of Spanish language supplemental reading series, *Mil Maravillas*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1985 (6 readers).

6. Directories

Mares, R., R. F. Macías, and J. Gómez-Quifones, comps. and eds., *The National Directory of Chicano Faculty and Research*. Los Angeles, CA: UCLA, Chicano Studies Center, 1974.

7. Published policy reports, technical reports and speeches

Macías, R. F., with Alejandro Cobarrubias, Gabino Arredondo, José de Jesús Gutiérrez San Miguel, Manuel Huerta and Andrés Martínez. 2000. *Summary report of the Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient students and available educational programs and services, 1997-98*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Macías, R. F., with Shinichi Nishikawa and Juan Venegas. 1999. *Summary report of the Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient students and available educational programs and services, 1996-97*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Macías, R. F., Shinichi Nishikawa, Adelina Alegría and Juan Venegas. 1998. *Summary report of the Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient students and available educational programs and services, 1995-96*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Macías, R. F., Adelina Alegría & Ana Resnik. 1997. *Content analysis of funded [OBEMLA] Enhancement Project applications—Fiscal year 1995*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Macías, R. F. and Candace Kelly. 1996. *Summary report of the Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient students and available educational programs and services, 1994-95*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. [www.ncbe.gwu.edu/]

Macías, R. F. ed. *Are English language amendments in the national interest? A Policy analysis of proposals to establish English as the official language of the United States*. Claremont, CA: Tomás Rivera Policy Center. 1988.

Macías, R. F. *Bilingual teacher supply and demand in the United States*. Los Angeles, CA: USC Ctr. for Multilingual, Multicultural Research and the Tomás Rivera Policy Center. 1988.

Macías, R.F. *Latino illiteracy in the United States*. Claremont, CA: Tomás Rivera Policy Center. 1988.

Macías, R. F. *Official languages in the United States: Policies, polemics and politics*. Keynote, Fifth Annual National Hispanic Media Association Conference, Los Angeles, CA: Tomás Rivera Policy Center. 1987, April 25.

Macías, R. F., and Mary Spencer, *Estimating the Number of Language Minority and Limited English Proficient Persons in the U.S.: A Comparative Analysis of the Studies*, Los Alamitos, CA: National Center for Bilingual Research, 1984.

8. Selected Essays and Journalism in National Publications

Macías, R., Macro-Onda: Language Studies and Chicanos, *La Red/The Net—Newsletter of the National Chicano Council on Higher Education*, No. 66 (March 1983), pp. 26-28.

Macías, R. F., Language Diversity Among U.S. Latinos, *El Mirlo—A National Chicano Studies Newsletter*, 9:3 (March/April 1982), pp. 1, 2, 10-11.

Macías, R. F., Our State of Schooling, *Nuestro—The Magazine for Latinos* (New York), September 1979, pp. 37-40.

Macías, R. F., El debate bilingüe/The Bilingual Debate, *Nuestro* (New York), February 1978, pp. 36-40.

Macías, R. F., and Gilbert Narro García, Back to School—Lessons Latinos Are Learning, *Nuestro* (New York), September 1977, pp. 40-45.

Macías, R. F., U.S. Hispanics in 2000 AD—Projecting the Numbers, *Agenda* (Washington, DC, Magazine of the National Council of La Raza), May/June 1977, pp. 16-20.

(Macías, R. F.), Bilingual Education in Colorado: The Story, *Agenda*, Winter 1976, pp. 25-228.

Macías, R. F. Political Power of the Chicano, *La Luz Magazine* (Denver), October 1974, p. 1.

Macías, R. F. History of East Los Angeles, *La Luz Magazine*, October 1974, pp. 14-16.

Macías, R. F. and R. Cabello-Argandoña, Media Research and the Chicano, *Latin Quarter* (Los Angeles), October 1974, pp. 14-18.

9. Book Review Essays

Macías, R. F. 1996. Power, politics, and Language rights: A Review essay. *TESOL Q.* 30:3 (Autumn). 623-626.

Macías, R. F. 1986. Disambiguating the Veltman Trilogy: A Book Review Essay—Relative Educational Attainment of Minority Language Children, 1976 (Veltman), The Role of Language Characteristics in the Socio-economic Process of Hispanic Origin Men and Women (Veltman), and The Retention of Minority Languages in the U.S. (Veltman), *The Bilingual Review/La Revista Bilingüe*, pp. 140-143.

Macías, R. F. 1982. Confronting Language Politics in the U.S.: A Book Review Essay—Language and Politics: Spanish and English in the U.S. (Bruckner), and The Tongue-Tied American—Confronting the Foreign Language Crisis (Simon), *NABE Journal*, Vol. 7, No. 1, (Fall), pp. 61-66.

10. Book Reviews

Macías, R. F. 1982. Book Review: The New Bilingualism—An American Dilemma (Ridge), *La Red/The Net, Newsletter of the National Chicano Council on Higher Education*, No. 61, (November). 7-9.

Macías, R. F. 1979. Book Review: The Structuralists—From Marx to Levi Strauss (De George and De George), *Aztlán*, Vol. 10, pp. 133-135.

Macías, R. F. 1977. Book Review: A Chance to Learn—A History of Race and Education in the United States (Weinberg), *Aztlán*, v. 8, pp. 237-243.

11. Editorial Experience and Positions

Reviewer, *Psychological Science*. 2001.

Founding Member, Editorial Board, *Language, Identity and Education*. (Published by Multilingual Matters). 2000-present.

Editor, *Multilingual News*. (Newsletter for the California Association for Bilingual Education). 1999 to present.

Reviewer, *American Education Research Journal*. 2000.

Reviewer, *Education Statistics*. National Center for Education Statistics. 1998.

Editor-in-Chief, *UC LMRI News*. (Newsletter for the University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute). 1992-1997.

Editor, *NABE Journal* (published by the National Association for Bilingual Education), 1985-1988; 1990-1992.

Member, Editorial Board, *Adult Basic Education: An Interdisciplinary Journal for Adult Literacy Educators*. (Commission on Adult Basic Education and the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education), 1990-1992.

Member, Board of Editors, *NABE Journal*, (published by the National Association for Bilingual Education), 1982-1985.

Reviewer, *Research on the Teaching of English*, 1983.

Co-founder and Co-editor of *Aztlán—International Journal of Chicano Studies Research* (formerly *Aztlán—Chicano Journal of the Social Sciences and the Arts*), 1970-1986.

Reviewer, *Advances in Bilingual Education Research Series*, Arizona State University Center for Bilingual/Bicultural Education and the University of Arizona press.

Reviewer, *Multicultural Education*, Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1983.

Guest Editor, Schooling Issue, *Nuestro* (New York), September 1979, pp. 37-48.

Member, Board of Contributors, *Nuestro--The Magazine for Latinos* (New York), 1977-1980.

Editorial Assistant, Publications Department, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, DC: Sept. 1975-March 1976.

Coordinator, Publications Unit, Chicano Studies Center, University of California, Los Angeles, 1971-1975.

Initiated and co-developed *El Mirlo Canta de Noticatlán*, a Newsletter dedicated to the professional development of Chicano Studies. Published by the UCLA Chicano Studies Research Center, 1974.

Series Co-editor for the following University of California, Los Angeles, Chicano Studies Center publications:
Monograph Series in Chicano Studies, No. 1, 2, 4, 5.
Bibliographic & Reference Series in Chicano Studies, No. 1-4.
Creative Arts Series in Chicano Studies, No. 2.
Pamphlet Series in Chicano Studies, No. 1, 2.
Reprint Series in Chicano Studies, No. 1-4.

TEACHING INTERESTS AND EXPERIENCE

1. Teaching Interests

Education—Bilingual education, biliteracy instruction, bilingual/ESL methodology, multicultural education, educational policy, language assessment and language use in the classroom, alternative schooling, language instruction and learning (reading, writing, and oral language), and futures.

Sociolinguistics—Applied sociolinguistics, multilingualism, language policy and planning, language demography, language change, methodology.

Chicana/o Studies—Chicano language and speech, Chicana/o Studies introduction, survey and theory courses, education and the Chicano.

2. Courses Developed

Bilingualism and Biliteracy, undergraduate seminar, UCLA (Chávez Ctr for Interdisciplinary Instruction in Chicana/o Studies). 2001.

Cultural Pluralism and the Curricula, undergraduate seminar, UCLA (Chávez Ctr for Interdisciplinary Instruction in Chicana/o Studies). 2000.

Language politics, undergraduate seminar, UCLA (Chávez Ctr for Interdisciplinary Instruction in Chicana/o Studies). 2000.

Language and language based research, graduate seminar, University of Southern California (Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction), 1986.

Language Proficiency Assessment and Education of Language Minority Students, graduate seminar, University of Southern California (Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction), 1984.

Biliteracy, Learning and Instruction, graduate seminar, University of Southern California (Department of Curriculum and Instruction), 1983.

Socio-political Context of Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction, graduate seminar, University of Southern California (Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction, 1983).

Co-organizer, Sociolinguistics Seminar, City University of New York (Center for Puerto Rican Studies, Summer Institute), 1980.

Introduction to Bilingualism and the Education of the Chicano, undergraduate upper division and masters degree students, UCLA, (Education; taught in Spanish and English), 1974.

Co-organizer, History of the Indo-Hispanic People in Mexico and the United States, undergraduate, University of California, Los Angeles (Extension; taught in Spanish), 1971.

The Mexican American Child and the Schools, undergraduate and fifth year students, UCLA (Experimental College), 1968.

3. Courses Taught

Theoretical Concepts in Chicana/o Studies, UCLA.
Language and Education, UCLA.
Race, ethnicity & language in United States education. UCSB, UCLA.
Research seminar on language instruction, USC, UCSB.
Methods in Bilingual Education, and English as-a-Second-Language USC.
Cultural Pluralism and the Curricula, USC, UCSB, UCLA.
Socio-political Context of Bilingual Curriculum and Instruction, USC.
Biliteracy, Learning and Instruction, USC, UCSB
Language Proficiency Assessment of Language Minority Students, USC, UCSB.
Introduction to Bilingualism and the Education of the Chicano, UCLA.
History of the Indo-Hispanic People in Mexico and the United States, UCLA.
Chicano History, UCLA and East Los Angeles College.
Urban Problems, UCLA (High Potential Program).
Chicano Intellectual Thought, UCLA (High Potential Program).

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATION AND PARTICIPATION

1. Professional Affiliations

American Association of Applied Linguistics, 1981-1985; 1987-present.
American Education Research Association, 1988-present.
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1982-1995; 1998-present.
California Association for Bilingual Education, 1981-1986; 1992- present.
Director of Financial Affairs, 1985.
Representative, Region 3, (elected to the Board of Directors representing Orange, Los Angeles, Ventura, Santa Barbara Counties), 1983-1985.
National Association for Bilingual Education, 1979 to the present. Treasurer, 1986-1987.
Scholar of the Center, Tomás Rivera Policy Center, Claremont, CA, 1986-1998.
World Future Society, 1983-1990
Council on Anthropology and Education, 1981-1983.
EDUCARE, 1982-1992.
Linguistic Society of America, 1978 to 1981.
Co-founder and member, National Association of Chicano Social Science, 1973-1976; 1999-present.
National Coordinator, 1975-1976.
National Coordinating Committee, 1974-1976.
National Council on Chicanos in Higher Education, 1982.

2. Organization and Program Participation

Member, Information and Publications Committee, California Association for Bilingual Education. 1999 to present.

Co-Chair, Division G Program, American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, 1996.

Chair, Federal roles in educational research panel. American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, 1996.

Conference Co-Organizer. Jornadas: International Conference on Bilingual Education (in Spanish). Annually. 1989-2001.

Conference Co-organizer, 11th Annual Conference of Spanish in the U.S. University of Southern California (November) 1991.

Conference Planning Committee (Responsible for program), Annual Meeting of the National Association for

Asian and Pacific American Education, Los Angeles, CA, October 1985.

Co-Chair, Research Strand, California Association for Bilingual Education 1985 Annual Meeting, Los Angeles, January, 1985.

Conference Planning Committee (responsible for program), 10th Annual Conference of the California Association for Asian and Pacific Bilingual Education, 1984, Los Angeles.

Paper and Session Proposal Reviewer in language policy for 1982 Annual Meeting of National Association for Bilingual Education, Detroit.

Member, Program Committee, 1981 Annual Meeting of American Association of Applied Linguistics, NY.

Member, Program Committee, 1978. New Ways of Analyzing Variation in Language (NWAV), VII, Georgetown University.

Organizer, Session on Chicano Sociolinguistics, 1975. Annual Meeting of National Association of Chicano Social Science, Austin.

Chairperson, Language Policy Session, Exploratory Conference on Chicano Sociolinguistics, Las Cruces, NM, 1974. Sponsored by Social Science Research Council, Research Committee on Sociolinguistics.

3. Selected Papers & Invited Presentations

Macías, R. F. 2000 (nov.-dic.). La política de idioma en los EE.UU. Simposio sobre estudios chicanos en Madrid, Valencia, Granada, y Sevilla, España.

Macías, R. F. 2000 (noviembre). Diplomado en educación bilingüe y derechos Indígenas. Universidad Pedagógica Nacional. México, D.F.

Macías, R. F. 2000 (January 28-30). Minority Languages in the United States, with a focus on Spanish in California. Invited paper for "Which Languages for Europe?" Conference sponsored by the European Cultural Foundation, Tilburg University and the Fryske Academy. Oegstgeest, Netherlands.

Macías, R. F. 1998 (April). Invited Keynote Plenary. The Social construct of bilingualism—Value and determination. American Educational Research Association. San Diego, CA.

Macías, R. F. 1997 (October). The Politics of language and literacy. Center for the Book, U.S. Library of Congress. A Public lecture and discussion sponsored by the Center for Applied Linguistics.

Macías, R. F. 1996 (May). Invited Keynote Plenary. Language Politics and bilingual education in the U.S. National Association of Asian and Pacific American Educators. San Francisco, CA

Macías, R. F. 1996 (April). Language politics and the historiography of Spanish in the U.S. American Educational Research Association. New York, NY.

Macías, R. F. 1996 (March). Pathways to Teaching: Results of the Paraprofessional Survey. National Association for Bilingual Education. Orlando, FL.

Macías, R. F. 1996 (January). Invited Keynote Plenary. Impact on Language: Politics and bilingual education in the U.S. California Association for Bilingual Education. San José, CA.

Macías, R. F. 1995 (May). Invited Keynote Plenary. Bilingual Education, Language Minorities and Foreign

Languages in the United States. International Conference on Second Language Acquisition in Europe. Veldhoven, Netherlands.

Macías, R. F. 1995. (March). Invited Keynote Plenary. Profiles and Shadows: Bilingualism and biliteracy in the U.S. American Association of Applied Linguistics. Long Beach, CA.

Macías, R. F. 1994 (February). Bilingual Teacher Supply: Are Paraprofessionals Interested in Becoming Teachers? National Association for Bilingual Education. Los Angeles, CA.

Macías, R. F. 1994 (March). Biliteracy, Native Language Literacy & Adult Education. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Baltimore, MD.

Macías, R. F. 1994 (March). Teachers as Culture Guides. American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, LA.

Macías, R. F. 1994 (June). English-Only Rules in the Workplace: A Case Study. Law & Society Association. Phoenix, AZ.

Macías, R. F. 1994. Diversity, Bilingual Education and School District Accountability for Effective Instruction. Tri-Partite Council (Collaboration of K-12 School Districts and all colleges in the San Francisco, CA Bay area). San Francisco, CA.

Macías, R. F. 1991 (January). National Data Sets and illiteracy, literacy and biliteracy studies. Paper presented at the Biliteracy: Theory & Practice Colloquium sponsored by the National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education, Washington, DC.

Macías, R. F. 1991 (January) Implications of national data sets for adult basic education. National Association for Bilingual Education Annual meeting, Washington, DC.

Macías, R. F. 1990 (October) Educational language policies and bilingual education in the U.S. Invited presentation at the International Perspectives on Bilingual Education meeting hosted and sponsored by the Los Angeles Unified School District.

Macías, R. F. 1990 (September) On models, data and policy issues in bilingual/ESL teacher supply and demand. Paper presented at the Invitational Bilingual Research Symposium sponsored by the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, Washington, DC.

Macías, R. F. 1990 (April) Language politics of the 1990s. Keynote lecture presented at the 14th Annual Bilingual Education Evaluation Meeting of the Ysleta Independent School District (TX) Office of Bilingual Education instructional and administrative staff. El Paso, TX.

Macías, R. F. (1990, January) Language politics during the 1980s. Paper presented at the Language Policy Conference, University of Texas, El Paso.

Macías, R. F. (1988, October) Latino literacy in English and Spanish. paper presented at the 8th Annual Conference on Spanish in the U.S., Miami, FL.

Macías, R. F. (1988, October) The Cost analysis of English only policies. Florida Endowment of the Humanities Forum on the English Language Amendments. Miami, FL. (videotaped for dissemination and library purposes)

Macías, R. F. (1988, November) Asian Pacific American perspectives on California language policies: History

repeats itself. Keynote at the Annual Conference of the California Association for Asian and Pacific American Bilingual Education. Los Angeles, CA.

Macías, R. F. (1988, June 24) Need for Bilingual Teachers and Bilingual Teaching. Invited Keynote Address to the Arizona Conference on Multicultural Awareness and Teachers/Teaching Aides, Tucson, AZ. (videotaped for training purposes)

Macías, R. F. (1988, June 24) Learning Partnerships for the Future. Invited Keynote Address to the Arizona Conference on Multicultural Awareness and Teachers/Teaching Aides Tucson, AZ. (videotaped for training purposes)

Macías, R. F. (1987, September 28) Respondent, Response to 'Definitions of Literacy,' by Richard Venezky, Invited presenter at Symposium of Literacy sponsored by the National Advisory Council for Adult Education and the Literacy Research Center of the University of Pennsylvania.

Macías, R. F. (1987, June 29) Panelist, Teaching Language Minority Students, National Education Association Conference on Instructional and Professional Development.

Macías, R. F. (1987, April 25) Official Languages in the United States: Policies, Polemics and Politics, Luncheon Keynote, Fifth Annual National Hispanic Media Conference, Los Angeles, CA. (Reproduced as a Working Paper by the Tomás Rivera Center for Policy Studies, affiliated with the Claremont Graduate School)

Macías, R., Language, Literacy, and Improving Schooling, Keynote address, Parent Conference for Southern California, LAUSD, Convention Center, September, 1986.

Macías, R. F., Cross-cultural Bilingual Research and Practice, Symposium sponsored by the Army Research Institute, National Institute of Education, and the Secretary's Initiative on Literacy, Washington, DC, October 1984.

Macías, R. F. Values Underlying Educational Language Policies and Public Education of Language Minority Children, Far Western Philosophy of Education Society and Western Region of the Comparative and International Education Society Joint Annual Meeting, University of Southern California, December 1983.

Macías, R. F. Planning for California's Educational Future, Keynote address at the annual meeting of the District Advisory Council, Paramount Unified School District (CA), November 13, 1983.

Macías, R. F. Language Politics: The History and Future of Spanish in the United States, Keynote Address at the Fourth Annual Spanish in the U.S. Conference, Hunter College, NYC, October, 1983.

Macías, R. F. Derechos lingüísticos en la educación y en las cortes, Keynote Address at the Parent Training Conference of the Los Angeles County Migrant Education Council (Region 10), Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, July, 23, 1983.

Macías, R. F. History of U.S. Language of Instruction Policies, Migrant Education Management Council, Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, June 13, 1983.

Macías, R. F. Policy Directives for Meeting the Needs of Diverse Cultures, State Policy Seminar— California's Educational Trends, Institute for Educational Leadership, Los Angeles, CA, May 20, 1983.

Macías, R. F. Current and Future Language Diversity in the Borderlands: Educational Needs and Services, Symposium on Major U.S.-México Borderlands Issues, UCLA Student Association for Latin American Studies and the Latin American Center, Los Angeles, CA, May 13, 1983.

Macías, R. F. The Community College Role in Preparing Bilingual Personnel, Eighth Annual Meeting of the California Association for Bilingual Education, Anaheim, CA, January 1983.

Macías, R. F. Latino Children, the Role of Culture, and Television, Symposia on Presenting Minority Children on Television, NBC Network, Los Angeles, CA, December 4, 1982 and January 17, 18, 1983.

Macías, R. F., Los Angeles: A Profile of a Bilingual Future, Third Annual USC Careers in Bilingual Education Conference, University of Southern California, December 11, 1982.

Macías, R. F., A Critical Analysis of Policy Toward Spanish Speaking Practices in U.S. Schools, invited lectures in the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, School of Education Urban Education Doctoral Lecture Series, UWM, December 7, 1982. (Video taped and archived by the School of Education, UWM.)

Macías, R. F., Discussant/reactant to Curriculum Panel on Chicano Studies in the 1980's Annual Meeting of the Southern California Foco of the National Association for Chicano Studies, East Los Angeles College, November 13, 1982.

Macías, R. F., Education and the Non-traditional Student: Focus on English Language Needs--Demographic Realities and Schooling Responses, EDUCARE North, San Francisco, CA, October 15, 1982.

Macías, R. F., Language Demography, Language Policy, and the Future of CA, Lecture Series, USC Population Research Center, October 11, 1982.

Macías, R. F., Institutional Language Policies: Spanish Language Needs, Resources, and Conflicts in U.S. Public Service and Political Institutions, Tenth World Congress of Sociology, México, August 1982.

Macías, R. F., A Reassessment of the Status of the Spanish speaking in the U.S., UCLA Chicano Studies Research Center Speakers Forum, May 26, 1982.

Macías, R. F., Ethnic Scholars and the Community, Symposium on Issues of Ethnic Minority Scholarship in the Public Humanities Program, sponsored by the California Council for the Humanities and the UCLA American Indian Studies Center, UCLA, April 2, 1982.

Macías, R. F., Language Policy in Public Service Institutions, presentation to the Faculty and Students of the Department of Linguistics, University of Southern California, April, 1980.

Macías, R. F., Language Choice and Human Rights in the United States, paper presented at the Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics. Language and Public Life, Washington, D.C., March 1979.

Macías, R. F., Choice of Language as a Human Right--Public Policy Implications in the United States, paper presented at the Ethnoperspectives in Bilingual Education Research Project, 1978-1979, Bilingual Education and Public Policy in the United States, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan. June 1979.

Macías, R. F., Invited Participant, National Conference on Chicano and Latino Discourse Behavior, The Educational Testing Service and the National Chicano Research Network, Princeton, NJ, April 17-19, 1978.

Macías, R. F., Invited Panelist, Bilingual Education, at the National La Raza Law Students Association Convention, Washington, DC, Mar. 2, 1978.

Macías, R. F., Panelist, Chicano Literature, National Conference of the Association of Mexican American Educators, Los Angeles, CA, Oct. 1974.

Macías, R. F., Opinions of Chicano Community Parents on Bilingual Preschool Education, paper presented at the session on Chicano Sociolinguistics, Research Committee on Sociolinguistics, International Sociological Association, 8th World Congress of Sociology, Toronto, CAN, Aug. 1974.

UNIVERSITY SERVICE

Invited Graduation Keynote, UCLA Raza Graduation. June 2000.

Chair, César E. Chávez Center for Interdisciplinary Instruction in Chicana & Chicano Studies, UCLA. 1998-99 to present.

Member, Faculty Advisory Committee, Center for Labor Education & Research, UCLA. 1999-2001.

Member, Faculty Advisory Committee, Chicano Studies Research Center, UCLA. 2000-01.

Member, University of California Committee on Chicano/Latino Policy Research. 1996-97.

Member, Personnel Committee, Education Dept. UCSB, 1993-1995.

Member, University of California Latino Eligibility Study Task Force, 1994-1997.

Member, University of California Committee on the University and State Government, 1994-1996

Member, University of California ACCESS Committee (re: internet and computer data bases for public use), 1995-1997.

Member, University Graduate Programs and Studies Committee, USC, 1990-1991.

Member, University Grievance Committee, USC, 1988-1990

Chair, School of Education Student Services Committee, USC, 1990-1991

Member, School of Education Graduate Programs Review Committee, USC, 1990-1991

Chair, School of Education Graduate Programs Committee, USC, 1989-1990

Member, School of Education Graduate Degrees Committee, USC, AY 1987-88.

Member, Liaison Committee between Education & Linguistics Depts, USC, AY 1986-87; AY 1987-88.

Faculty Senate, USC, 1984-85; 1985-86.

Member, University Admissions and Financial Aid Advisory Committee, USC, Fall 1986.

Member, Faculty Advisory Committee to the President on the Improvement of Undergraduate Education, USC, Spring 1986.

Member, Faculty Advisory Committee, Dean, Graduate School, USC, AY 1985-86; AY 1986-87.

Member, Search Committee for the Director of Teacher Education, USC, Spring 1986.

Member, School of Education Graduate Centers Committee, USC, 1985-86.

Member, Dean's Committee on the Masters in TESL, USC, AY 1985-86; AY 1986-87.

Member, School of Education Multicultural Education and Language Committee, USC, 1984-1985.

Member, School of Education Financial Aids Committee, USC, 1983-1984.

Member, School of Education Research, Resources and Publications Committee, USC, 1982-1983.

Co-chair, Dean's Task Force for Bilingual Education, USC, 1982-1983.

Member, Ad Hoc Committee on Library Subscriptions, USC, Summer 1983.

Member, Search Committee for Reading Position in Curriculum and Instruction Department, USC, Spring 1983.

Member, California Articulation Council, Liaison Committee on Bilingual, Cross-Cultural Education, representing USC, 1982-1985.

PROFESSIONAL, COMMUNITY AND PUBLIC SERVICE

1. Organizational Service

Member, Advisory Board for the National Institute for Literacy (appt. by President of the U.S. William J. Clinton). 1996-2001.

Member, Latino Forum to the Chief, Los Angeles Police Department. 2000 to present.

Member, Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) Research Committee & Committee of Examiners. Educational Testing Service/TOEFL Policy Council. 1997-2000.

Member, Advisory Panel for the Review of Teaching Credential Requirements (SB 1422). California Commission for Teacher Credentialing. 1995-1997.

Member, Cultural Policy fact-finding team in Tibet, the People's Republic of China. National Committee on U.S. China Relations (New York). November, 1995.

Member, Advisory Committee on the Credentialing of Bilingual Teachers (SB1969). California Commission for Teacher Credentialing. 1995.

Member, Urban Education Task Force Advisory Committee to Assembly member Juanita McDonald, Chair, Special Ad Hoc Committee on Urban Education. California Assembly. 1995.

Member, Literacy Definition Committee, National Adult Literacy Survey, Educational Testing Service and the National Center for Education Statistics, 1990-1993.

Member, Technical Review Committee, National Adult Literacy Survey. Educational Testing Service and the National Center for Education Statistics, 1990-1993.

Member, Background Questionnaire Committee, National Assessment of Education Progress, 1990-1992.

Panelist, National Science Foundation Minority Graduate Fellowship Program Evaluation Panels, Washington DC. February 1990.

Member, Executive Board, Jesse Marvin Unruh Assembly Fellowship Program, CA State Assembly (appointed

by Speaker of the Assembly, Willie Brown, Esq.), 1989-1991.

Member, Policy Analysis and Use Panel, National Assessment for Educational Progress, ETS, Princeton, NJ, 1988-1989.

Member, Working Group, National English Literacy Demonstration Program for Adults of Limited English Proficiency. Aguirre International, funded by the Adult Education Division, U.S. Education Dept. 1990-1992.

Member, Advisory Board, ESL/Multicultural Infusion in Teacher Preparation Project, CA State U, Long Beach, funded by the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Education Dept., 1989-1991.

Member, Working Group, Hughes [Aircraft Co., Space & Communications Group] Public Education Project--Galaxy Classroom, 1990-1991.

Member, Policy Analysis and Use Panel, National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1988-1990.

Board of Directors, Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund, 1988-1990.

Member, District Bilingual Education Advisory Committee, Alhambra City School Districts, February---December, 1985. Reappointed for AY 1986-87.

Member, Education Advisory Committee to Assemblyman C. Calderón, Spring, 1985.

Assistant Director for Reading and Language Studies Division, National Institute of Education, U.S. Dept. of Education, 1979-1981.

Executive Director, National Hispanic Bicentennial Commission, 1976.

Participant member, Incorporation of East Los Angeles attempt in 1974.

Member, Board of Directors, Movimiento Educativo Para los Niños de Aztlán (MENA), 1971-1973. (Head Start Pre-school Agency)

Member, Nominating Committee for the Board of Directors, National Institute of Human Services for Children and Families, Washington, DC, 1973.

Member, Greater Los Angeles Mexican American Education Committee, 1964-1968.

2. Selected Media Presentations and Participation

Interview, Chicano Civil Rights documentary, Public Broadcast System (Public Television). April 1996.

Interview, Bilingual employment, National Public Radio, October 1989.

Interview, Bilingual employment, KGIL Radio, Los Angeles, October 1989.

Interview, Bilingual employment, *Los Angeles Times*, October 1989.

Interview/consultant, Proposition 63--Constitutional amendment to make English the Official language of California, KVEA (Ch. 52), News Division, November 4, 1986.

Interview, Proposition 63 and language politics, KMEX (Ch. 34), Mundo Latino program, October 1986.

Macías, R., Bilingual Education and Illiteracy, Testimony before the U.S. House of Representatives Education Committee, Sub-Committee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, Los Angeles, CA, November 25, 1985. Available in the Committee print of the hearings, Serial No. 99-78, Washington, DC: U.S. GPO, 1986, pp. 43-47.

Macías, R., Education of Refugee and Immigrant Children, Youth and Adults in Los Angeles, Testimony before the L.A. County Commission on Human Relations, Monterey Park, November, 1985.

Interview, Educational Futures in Los Angeles, KABC (LA), Jan. 1985.

Interview, Bilingual Education Act and Spanglish, National Public Radio, October 1983.

Interview, on Education, Mundo Latino, Spanish International Network, KMEX, Los Angeles, CA, September 1983.

Interview, on Children, Schooling and Television, Pace Setters, KTLA, Los Angeles, CA, February 1983.

Interview, bilingual education, Prisma, WMAL, Washington, DC, June/July 1980.

Interview, on bilingual education, Prime Time Saturday, NBC National News Network, April 1980.

Interviews on various topics for the radio course Viva Latino--A Radio course on Latinos in American Thought and Culture. Programs on Chicanos in the United States, El Barrio, and Latino Expression. WAMU-FM, American University, Latino Institute, Armando Rendón, producer, 1978.

Interview, Latinos in the United States, on the Morning Break program, WMAL, Washington, DC, May 1977.

Interview, Ricardo Flores Magón y el Partido Liberal Mexicano, a documentary special television program, WMAL, Washington, DC, April 1977.

Interview, Immigration and the Mexican and the Latino, documentary special television program, Diario, WJLA, Washington, DC, February 1977.

Consultant, feature television program special on the Incorporation of East Los Angeles, KCET, Los Angeles, CA, May 11, 1973.

Participant, Panel on Chicano Publications, on La Raza Nueva Radio program, KPFF, Los Angeles, CA, January 15, 1973.

Interview and consultant, Bilingual Education, on the Reflecciones Television program, KABC, Los Angeles, CA, November 1972.

3. Invited expert testimony

Macías, R. F. (1987, March 20) Hispanic Underachievement and Teacher supply and demand, Testimony before the U.S. House of Representatives Education & Labor Committee Field Hearings, Los Angeles, CA.

Macías, R. F. (1986) Teacher Preparation for Bilingual Education, in *Compendium of Papers on the Topic of Bilingual Education*, of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Rep., Serial 99-R, Washington, DC: USGPO, pp. 41-56.

Macías, R. F. (1987, January 26 & 29) Deposition and court testimony as an expert witness in Sociolinguistics, Spanish-English language translation and document design, in *Orantes v U.S. Dept. of Justice*, before the U.S.

Federal Court, Los Angeles, CA.

PERSONAL AND MISCELLANEOUS DATA

1. Languages

English—spoken and written fluently.

Spanish—spoken and written fluently.

I have researched or have studied the following languages: French, Japanese, Nahuatl, Papiamentu, Mandarin Chinese.

2. Travel

México, People's Republic of China, Tibet, India, Thailand, Japan, Canada, Guam, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Netherlands, France, Spain, Bahamas, throughout the United States.

3. Consultancies

Alhambra City School District.

California Business Round Table.

California State Dept. of Education.

California Commission on Teacher Credentialing.

Chamorro Language Commission, Guam.

Educational Testing Service.

Ford Foundation.

Los Angeles Unified School District.

Michigan State Department of Education.

Migrant Education Program, Los Angeles County Schools.

Montgomery County (MD) School District.

National Broadcasting Network.

National Institute of Education, U.S. Education Department.

National Assessment of Educational Progress.

Paramount Unified School District.

U.S. Dept. of Housing and Urban Development.

Wadsworth Publishing Co.

- Metcalfe, A.A. (1979). *Chicano English*. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Moore, G.A.; MacNamara, J.; et al. (1970). Interlingual dichotic interference. Unpublished research report, McGill University, Montreal.
- Nunberg, G. (1992). Afterword: the official language movement: reimagining America. In *Language Loyalties: A Source Book on the Official English Controversy*, J. Crawford (ed.), 479-494. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Ober, L.; and Albert, M. (1978). A monitor system for bilingual language processing. In *Aspects of Bilingualism*, M. Paradis (ed.), 156-164. Columbia, SC: Hornbeum.
- Passel, J.S. (1994). *How Much Do Immigrants Really Cost?* Claremont, CA: Tomas Rivera Center.
- Paulston, C.B. (1977). Theoretical perspectives on bilingual education. *Working Papers in Bilingualism* 13, 130-177.
- (1986). Linguistic consequences of ethnicity and nationalism in multilingual settings. In *Language and Education in Multilingual Settings*, B. Spolsky (ed.), 117-152. San Diego: College Hill Press.
- Perez, J.F. (1993). Hernandez v. New York: courts, prosecutors, and the fear of Spanish. Unpublished manuscript, University of Florida, College of Law, Gainesville.
- Perez v. F.B.I., 707 F. Supp. 891 (W. D. Tex. 1988).
- Phillipson, R.; Rannut, M.; et al. (1994). Introduction. In *Linguistic Human Rights: Overcoming Linguistic Discrimination*, T. Skutnabb-Kangas and R. Phillipson (eds.), 1-22. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Rea, L.M.; and Parker, R.A. (1992). *A Fiscal Impact Analysis of Undocumented Immigrants Residing in San Diego County*. Report to the Office of the Auditor General. San Diego: Rea and Parker.
- Romaine, S. (1989). *Bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Seliger, H.W.; and Vago, R.M. (eds.) (1991). *First Language Attrition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). *Bilingualism or Not: The Education of Minorities*. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.
- , and Cummins, J. (eds.) (1988). *Minority Education: From Shame to Struggle*. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.
- Solé, Y.R. (1990). Bilingualism: stable or transitional? The case of Spanish in the United States. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 84, 35-80.
- Spolsky, B. (ed.) (1986). *Language and Education in Multilingual Settings*. San Diego: College Hill Press.
- Slavohagen, R. (1990). *The Ethnic Question: Conflicts, Development, and Human Rights*. Tokyo: United Nations University Press.
- Triesman, A.M. (1964). Verbal cues, language and meaning in selective attention. *American Journal of Psychology*, 77, 210-219.
- (1969). Strategies and models of selective attention. *Psychological Review* 76, 282-299.
- Urban Institute (1994). *Immigrants and Taxes: A Reappraisal of Huddle's "The Cost of Immigrants"*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute, 44, [20] p.
- Vaid, J. (ed.) (1986). *Language Processing in Bilinguals: Psycholinguistic and Neuropsychological Perspectives*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Valdés, G. (1990). When does a witness need an interpreter? Preliminary guidelines for establishing language competence and incompetence. *La Raza Law Journal*, 3, 1-27.
- , and Figueroa, R. (1994). *Bilingualism and Testing: A Special Case of Bias*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Velman, C.J. (1983). *Language Shift in the United States*. Berlin: Mouton.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1987). *Languages in Competition*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Weinreich, U. (1974). *Languages in Contact*. The Hague: Mouton.

Bilingual workers and language use rules in the workplace: a case study of a nondiscriminatory language policy

REYNALDO F. MACÍAS

Abstract

Language diversity has been increasing again throughout the United States since 1965, partly the result of major changes in immigration, foreign language, and civil rights laws. As a result of this diversity, language issues requiring policy attention have arisen in the workplace. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission adopted rules in 1979 governing when and under what conditions these workplace policies could require that only English be spoken by employees. Consent agreements and litigation brought under this "English-only" rule have resulted in a number of decisions that have assumed certain things about bilingualism and bilinguals, as well as about language attitudes and monolinguals. While not all of these decisions have been uniform, some of these assumptions have raised the following questions: (1) how does bilingual speech affect work performance? and (2) to what extent do English monolinguals need "protection" from hearing non-English languages around them (whether as clients or employees in a work situation)?

This article reviews a selected case of an urban university-based hospital, which successfully solved a conflict over an English-only rule, in order to look at these questions. It found, among other things, that language attitudes were a key component to intergroup relations and language status. Non-English languages were the focus of unfounded English monolingual "fears" and "paranoia". A workshop covering many cross-cultural communication strategies can be successful in improving these relationships.

Introduction

Language policies can see languages as a resource, a problem, or a right (cf. Ruiz 1984). Over the last two decades, international language policies have slowly been developing the notion of language rights with two

emerging standards: (1) the individual has the right to be free from discrimination based on language; and (2) the individual has the right to access one's home, community, and national language(s) (cf. Macías 1979). How does the right to be free from language discrimination play itself out? Kloss (1977) categorizes language policies into promotion-oriented (the government supports and uses the language) and tolerance-oriented (the government is neutral to the use of the language within its borders) laws. We can add to these two categories that language laws can also be repressive (attempting to eliminate languages), or restrictive (conditioning benefits or other social goods on knowledge, proficiency, or use of a language).

In the United States, during the nineteenth century, language policies attempted to prohibit non-English languages as a response to nativist politics, but this was found to be unconstitutional — the state did not have a good reason to override the use of languages by its citizens. In response, nativists successfully lobbied the government to adopt laws requiring the knowledge of, and ability to use, English for different purposes (e.g. as a medium of instruction in the schools; as a job requirement) (Lebowitz 1969). Immediately following the successful adoption of these language policies, they were amended, or new ones were made requiring English ability and use exclusively for these purposes (i.e. *only* English could be used for instruction). These English-only policies reigned for most of the twentieth century.

In the 1960s and 1970s, several national laws were adopted that directly or indirectly changed these English-only laws (e.g. the 1964 Civil Rights Act; the 1965 Voting Rights Act; the 1968 Bilingual Education Act; the 1978 Court Interpreters Act). Court cases involving language issues also increased during this period. Several of these court cases involved English-only language policies in the workplace, forcing the adoption of English language policy guidelines for businesses by the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission in 1980 (EEOC 1980).

Very briefly, these guidelines (which had the force of law) stated that language issues and discrimination were part of national-origin discrimination. Absent this relationship to national origin, one could not litigate language issues *per se*. Also, English-only language policies were permissible only if they were justified by a business necessity. Even so, these policies could not be so broad and sweeping as to cover informal conversations between employees during break time or other personal, non-work-related time.

The use of different languages in the US workplace has become an increasingly complicated, if not contentious, issue during the last quarter of the twentieth century. One of the more important examples of this

contentiousness is in health and medical work sites, where services involve life-and-death decisions and physical and psychological health care, such as in emergency services, hospitals, and fire and police services (cf. Macías 1982; Platt 1990 for a survey of the issues). The debates rage over the desirability and the efficacy of different language policies in these settings, including: (1) the mandatory use of English exclusively in the work environment; (2) the permissive use of English and non-English languages in the performance of one's work; and (3) the mandatory use of non-English languages at work.

This article reviews one case, that of the University of St. Francis Hospital, which encompasses the first and second types of these policies, in order to ascertain the impact of a new language policy designed to be nondiscriminatory.¹ It was the result of a conciliation agreement resolving complaints filed in 1988 with the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission (EEOC) charging national origin/language discrimination. The new policy was agreed on by the parties in mid-1989. The focus of this article is the development and impact of the new policy on job performance and patient care, especially the unique role of the training in providing a nondiscriminatory working environment; in other words, the way in which the right to be free from language discrimination was addressed in this case for the workers and in relationship to the purpose of their work — to provide health and medical services. In order to answer these questions, it is useful to describe some of the language policies, issues and conditions that prevailed before the agreement, how the agreement was constructed, and subsequent activities.

Preagreement conditions

The preagreement conditions for employees, supervisors, and recipients of care varied from department to department in the hospital. The relationships between employees was reported to be strained because of the various perceptions about language use in the hospital. Representatives from the hospital and the union representing the workers reported that

1. English monolingual employees were jittery and anxious over the use of non-English language speech by other employees (C., Y. 1990);
2. English monolinguals often confused non-English language speech with poor English language proficiency (C., Y. 1990); and
3. Monolingual English speakers felt bilinguals were "talking about me" (B., R. 1990).

Supervisory roles were specifically identified in describing the tensions felt at the hospital over these issues, including that

- The supervisors were inadequately trained to supervise bilingual employees hired for their non-English language abilities in performance of their jobs (C., Y. 1990).
- Supervisors nonverbally communicated frustration and the message that the bilingualism was an "imposition" (C., Y. 1990).
- Some supervisors felt they had to "police" the speech of employees (W., C. 1990).

There seemed to be little disagreement between the parties in describing the situation before the agreement.

The English-only rule

There were several departments in the hospital that had such a rule: Nutrition and Dietetics, Personnel, and the laboratories (B., R. 1990). The rationale for the rule was that a common language was needed to maintain a safe working environment for employees (B., R. 1990; K., L. 1990). The rule basically prohibited the use of non-English languages in the workplace and mandated the exclusive use of English (EEOC 1988a; K., L. 1990). The rule had been in existence at least since 1979 in the Nutrition and Dietetics department (K., L. 1990).

Between the establishment of the rule in 1979 and the complaints in 1988, the hospital hiring policies and practices did not include an (English) basic skills test as a condition of employment, although some job descriptions did ask for proficiency in English, communication skills, or a specific non-English language (A., M. 1990). Language-minority personnel were concentrated in the Accounting and Food Service departments, and some worked in Physical Plant and the Mailing Room. There was a significant concentration of language-minority employees, especially Filipinos, among nurses, with a rising number of Latinos.

The complaints

According to his statement, Zamora-Baca, a worker in the Nutrition and Dietetics Department and the complainant to the EEOC, was first informed of the English-only rule in the summer of 1987, when the food line manager told him of the rule and followed up with a written reminder "not to speak Spanish while on the job" (EEOC 1988a). He was later

verbally reprimanded by another supervisor, in another department, for speaking Spanish on the job with an older, Spanish-dominant housekeeper. This supervisor was also bilingual in Tagalog and English and spoke Tagalog with other Filipinos, apparently at the hospital (EEOC 1988a). The supervisor for the Nutrition and Dietetics department "reaffirmed" the need for the English-only rule in "slightly softened form," using the rationale that a common work language improved and secured worker safety (K., L. 1990). This was done at the initiative of the department and did not involve a review, approval, or notice procedure by the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Office (the office responsible for review of personnel policies involving equity issues), at the University of St. Francis campus, or by the workers' union, the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME) (C., Y. 1990).

The union representative within Nutrition and Dietetics took exception to the rule reaffirmation. About nine or ten complaints were registered with the department (K., L. 1990), including one from a supervisor (C., Y. 1990), although the head of the department felt that only three were "legitimate" complainants and the others "sympathizers" (K., L. 1990). The discrimination charge was brought on racial and national-origin grounds and filed with the EEOC on June 21, 1988. The EEOC Conciliation Agreement identified the EEOC, ten individuals, and AFSCME as the charging parties (EEOC 1989: 1).

The agreement

The case was resolved between the parties, after discussions clarifying the issues — the difficulties between workers and management over use of non-English languages — and after negotiations over the various remedies that could be used to correct the working conditions.

Negotiating the agreement

Several issues came up after the complaint was filed. The Department of Labor Relations took jurisdiction of the complaint away from the Nutrition and Dietetics department. They justified the English-only rule as part of the rights of supervisors to set work rules and on the grounds of worker safety (e.g. the handling of knives in the kitchen requires a common language of communication for safety) (A., M. 1990). The Nutrition and Dietetics department initially felt they were cut out of the

process by the Labor Relations department. Some of the supervisors expressed "feeling betrayed" (K., L., 1990). The departments of Nutrition and Dietetics and Labor Relations met over the issue, depersonalized the complaints over which had jurisdiction, and then focused on the language-policy debates. As a result of the negotiations, the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity became the Chancellor's representative on these matters.

One suggestion, nonenforcement of the rule, was found an insufficient remedy for the situation, because it still had a "chilling effect" on employees (C., Y. 1990). Apparently there was also resentment over the complaints and the change in language policies from other minorities, particularly Blacks, within the union and management. Discussions within the union regarding former historical language exploitation of Blacks in the US helped change the views of those who opposed the complaints (C., Y. 1990).

Contents of the agreement

The Conciliation Agreement was 11 pages long, including a title page, a contents page, a Section I entitled General Provisions (three pages), a Section II for Signatures (two pages), and three appendices (a two-page letter from Chancellor Krevans to all staff, including the new policy on nondiscrimination regarding language in the workplace [listed as Attachment A]; a one-page list of Bulletin Boards by Departments [listed as Attachment B]; and a one-page English-only workplace rule survey [listed as Attachment C]) (EEOC 1989).

The General Provisions section included five major subsections labelled A-E. The first subsection stipulated that the agreement was not an admission of a violation of Title 7 of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. The second subsection stated that the charging parties would not sue the university if the agreement was kept. The third subsection reconfirmed that university personnel policies would be maintained in a nondiscriminatory manner. The fourth subsection agreed to no retaliation against the complainants for filing the complaints. The fifth subsection had eight major points of agreement specifically related to the language policies of the university (EEOC 1989).

The eight points of agreement related to language included the following:

1. The University will adopt and post the "Policy on nondiscrimination regarding language spoken in the workplace." The following is excerpted from the memo to USF staff:

¹² The policy of the University of and of USF is clear, and in concert with Federal EEOC guidelines which state that prohibiting employees from speaking their native language in the workplace constitutes discrimination. It is the University's policy to comply fully with these guidelines, and employees are free to speak their native languages to their co-workers and friends if they wish to do so.

¹³ Effective immediately, any existing policy, practice or custom, whether formal or informal, requiring employees to speak to their co-workers in English shall be terminated.

¹⁴ No employees may be disciplined for speaking in the language that is most comfortable. Oral reprimands or the suggestion that employees speak English as a "courtesy" will be a violation of campus policy. Any employee who violates this policy may be subject to disciplinary action.

¹⁵ Further, employees have the right to request review of their personnel file in order to have written warnings, counseling memos or other documentation related to English-only rules removed. No employee shall be subject to retaliation for requesting review of his/her file or for objecting to an English-only rule (Krevans 1989: 1).

¹⁷ In the future, any department which wishes to establish an English-only policy must submit to the Affirmative Action Office a formal request for approval on a questionnaire that may be obtained from that office. The circumstances under which such a policy will be approved are extremely rare and are limited to those which are a true business necessity. Justification such as "Supervisors cannot understand what their workers are saying," "English-speaking employees suspect that non-English speaking employees are talking [about them] behind their backs", and "The policy will enhance public image," are not sufficient (Krevans 1989: 2).

2. The University also agreed to purge the personnel files of the charging parties of any references to the use of a language other than English in the workplace and/or the complaints. The University will also amend any English-only-rule public notices.

3. The University will distribute the new policy to all employees and translate the policy into three other languages.

4. The University will review and purge personnel files of any employees of references to infractions of an English-only rule.

5. The University will provide notice to AFSCME, the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), and the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund (MALDEF) for five years from the date of the agreement, of any English-only rule to be approved by the USF Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Department. The University also agreed to mandatory training of managers and supervisors in the Nutrition and Dietetics department on the policy against English-only rules, and the relationship between the English-only rules and national-

origin discrimination; incorporation of the new policy into personnel policies and handbooks; and inclusion of the new policy in the training given to all new supervisors. The University also agreed to schedule and coordinate cultural sensitivity training by the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Department for all department heads and supervisors where there has been an English-only rule. This training shall be made available on a voluntary basis to all other supervisors and employees. The University will also undertake a survey of all campus departments to identify English-only rules.²

6. The parties agreed that a settlement of this charge will have no relationship to any other charges against USF before the EEOC.

7. The agreement is to become effective as soon as all parties agree.

8. Publication of the agreement shall be by previously and mutually agreed procedures.

Construction of the agreement

The use of the phrase "native language" in paragraph 2 of the policy notice was purposefully used to include native English speakers and avoid the concern over "reverse discrimination." It was not the same as "non-English languages."

The phrase "prohibiting employees from speaking their native language" (¶2) was seen as functionally equivalent to "speaking only English."

The phrase "requiring... English" in ¶3, while appearing to leave open the requirement to speak *only* English or a non-English language, was used because the focus of the discussion was on the word "requiring." The construction of the phrase was intended to include *any and all language requirements* in its scope.

The examples of unjustified reasons for an English-only policy (¶4, ¶7) were obtained from discussions on disciplinary actions and what seemed to be rationales inconsistent with the policy that had been advocated by others.

Post-agreement situation — implementing the agreement

Implementing the agreement took time and involved several people. Correcting personnel files, disseminating the new policy to all workers and supervisory personnel, and changing attitudes about each other and

about languages and language use in order to improve employee relations were all goals set out in the agreement.

Purging of personnel files

This proceeded in two steps within the affected Nutrition and Dietetics department. The first step was a random spot check of all *disciplinary actions* (a "Blue Form") for language-policy violations. The second step was a review of all *performance evaluations* (a "White Form") for every employee within the department. The Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity estimated roughly 100 to 125 files were reviewed, with about 25 to 27 files having comments regarding non-English languages. There were no references just to language or communications issues; all of them involved other aspects of performance as well. K.L. (1990), however, estimated a review of about 200 files by the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity and the Department of Labor Relations, representing about 168 FTE (Full Time Equivalents), with about ten files purged of "language" statements. This is a difference between 1 out of 4 (25%) versus 1 out of 20 (5%) files that had language issues purged. While this is a large discrepancy, the numbers were presented from memory by the respondents. We should take note, however, that the files were reviewed, language-discrimination comments were found in some of the files, and these comments were purged from those files.

Distribution and promotion of new policy

The statement of policy was distributed twice. The initial distribution was through the campus (internal) mail to each employee work address around October, 1989. This turned out not to be very good coverage, especially for the "most affected" groups (support staff), because (1) support staff, housecleaning, and other units did not maintain a desk or mailbox for all their workers; (2) it was seen as bulk (read "junk") mail because of the way it was distributed and so was thrown away by many before it was read; and (3) some departments did not normally receive mail in this manner. In order to get better coverage and understanding of the policy, a second copy was distributed to each employee's home address. About 17,000 copies were mailed.

Some of the sections of the policy memo were *translated* into Spanish, Tagalog, and Chinese (¶2, ¶4, and ¶5). An additional paragraph at the end of the memo in each of the four languages indicated that the policy

statement was available in the other languages through the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity (Krevans 1989).

Complaints about the new policy were minor through September of 1990. The general reaction to the mailing was quiet, with only one copy returned with an expletive, and several phone calls complaining about the new policy; all were anonymous.

Pasting of the new policy on campus department bulletin boards took place around October, 1989. They were to remain posted indefinitely. In September of 1990, the one on the kitchen bulletin board within the Nutrition and Dietetics department was not up or visible, nor was one available in the Perinatal department staff lounge of the hospital. It is not clear how many copies of the policy were still on bulletin boards one year after being posted.

Three types of *training* were mentioned in the agreement: (1) training involving issues specifically related to the complaint for the Nutrition and Dietetics department (compliance training); (2) modifying ongoing training for supervisors to include language-discrimination issues and the new policy (called supervisor training); and (3) the development of "cultural diversity training." Supervisor/compliance training was undertaken jointly by the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity, Department of Labor Relations, and AFSCME. Cultural diversity training was carried out by the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity.

Training for the Nutrition and Dietetics department took place in late 1989, organized principally by the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity. The training focused on four specific issues raised in the complaint and the conciliation agreement: (1) evaluation of job performance; (2) discomfort with non-English languages in performance of the job; (3) retaliation against employees who registered the complaint, or spoke non-English languages; and (4) communication skills without an English-only rule involving non-English languages (i.e. how to improve communication in non-English languages, or with non-English-language speakers).

The supervisor training took place year round and was not mandatory, except for those working in the Medical Center. The standard supervisory training included the Conciliation Agreement, and some of the issues that gave rise to it. The focus of the training was "valuing diversity." In addition to the agreement, it included: (1) a focus on retaliation against those using a non-English language in the workplace; and (2) the underlying racism involved in the establishment of English-only rules (e.g. cultural arrogance; superiority). Several other issues were addressed as well, through a focus on "diversity": (3) understanding your own cultural

values and those of others; (4) the relationship of the values to views of others; (5) intercultural communication; (6) the changing demographics of the service area and its relationship to medical services.

The training was carried out monthly by a four-member team from the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity and the Psychology department. The Hospital Director or someone he designated started each session with an introduction and stated its importance to the hospital. There were approximately 25 persons per session, lasting one day from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.

The evaluations of the "new" format of training with the Medical Directors, through the first six months beginning in February/March 1990, were "very" laudatory (B., R. 1990). The head of the Nutrition and Dietetics department thought the diversity training was a "very good program" (K., L. 1990). He thought so highly of it that he wanted all four managers, 11 supervisors, and all the employees within his department to take it (K., L. 1990). The changes to supervisory training and the cultural diversity training were also supported by the union.

Employee relations

Attitudes. Employees and management did not change their language attitudes overnight, if at all. There were a few complaints about the new language policy. From January to September of 1990, there were about four "informal" complaints about the new policy lodged with the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity. These were from people who disagreed with the new nondiscriminatory language policy, or who expressed discomfort being in a situation where a non-English language was being spoken, or who found it "offensive" (A., S. 1990).

In the training, a short questionnaire regarding language use and attitudes was filled out by the participants. Several of the opinions expressed by participants about the use of non-English languages included "They are talking about me!" "This [NEL] speech is a slap at our authority." "Affirmative action [is] taking away something again" (B., R. 1990). These attitudes were not expressed by everyone, nor, it seems, did they stay unchanged as a result of the training for many of the participants.

Employee morale seemed an important issue in the negotiations constructing the agreement, and in discussions after the agreement was reached, partly reflecting the concerns expressed by employees. The discussions about morale seemed to center on the effect of the new policy on patient care. If patient care went down, it was a job-performance

evaluation issue. If an increasingly nondiscriminatory environment negatively affected morale, then the maintenance of the discriminatory environment and values needed to be addressed. This discussion led to changes in the training and addition of new topics, including the relationship of the new policy to patient care and to the diversity of the clients served by the hospital.

At least one respondent estimated that there was no change in the amount or frequency of non-English language use or code switching after the agreement as compared to before the agreement. However, there was a distinct difference in the confidence of the workers able to speak and use the non-English languages, which was reflected in their uplifted morale and the positive status accorded these languages (C., Y. 1990).

A request for an *exception* to the new policy came in from St. Francis General Hospital (a part of USF). It had a previously negotiated English-only rule with the EEOC in one of the laboratories that included bilingual workers who code-switched between the two languages when they spoke with each other while they worked, where the time for turnaround of the work was of concern. The supervisor was an English monolingual, and it was largely in deference to the supervisor that the rule was in place. The presumption was that the non-English language talk was non-work-related and so slowed down productivity. This presumption was tested, and it was found that the code-switchers worked faster than the monolingual English workers (A., M. 1990). The conclusion was that happier workers were better workers.

At least one nursing supervisor felt much more "comfortable with the new policy; relieved of policing" the three Cantonese-speaking and one Mandarin-speaking nurses she supervised (W., C. 1990). Of the four non-English language background nurses in the Perinatal department, two were still learning "clinical English," and one of the Cantonese-speaking nurses was learning Mandarin in exchange for teaching English. These four nurses were often scheduled together to help each other in the 12-hour night shifts (7 p.m. to 7 a.m.) they served three days a week. They represented a conscious attempt at diversifying the 80-nurse staff in the 25-bed department to reflect the diversity of the client-patients. The supervisor worked with these four nurses and did not find any problem in communications with them, or between them and other staff. She also indicated no problems with the (more highly concentrated) Filipinas in the Environmental staff.

The Perinatal department is a high-risk department and requires higher professional standards and training than other departments. Many foreign-trained nurses did not have the training because it was specialized,

and they might not have had the opportunity to learn it, although they come to the job with much more diverse professional experiences than nurses trained in this country. Nursing-professional education on the job and orientation to the unit often included cultural variations in birthing behaviors (e.g. why some women do not bathe for 100 days after giving birth), as well as in verbal and nonverbal language and speech. The department uses the services of a Filipina educational researcher in pediatric nursing familiar with Pacific and Asian populations (W., C. 1990).

Employee relations. Within the Nutrition and Dietetics department, the relations between groups of employees were good after the agreement. The department head indicated that he had "not noticed any problems as a result of the agreement" (K., L. 1990). Although in some cases, some employees felt more comfortable, he was still concerned for the monolingual English-speaking employee who was working among bilinguals who were speaking the non-English language. He felt that neither the agreement nor the Office of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity addressed this issue (K., L. 1990). It was for this reason that he felt the training should have been available to all employees, not just management.

Council of Minority Organizations. A new organization was partly the result of the discussions over the new agreement. Apparently, two of the top supervisors, who were Black, disagreed with the new language policy and reinforced resentment between the groups with talk such as "Nobody took care of ours." "If we had to tough it out so do they." Much like the discussion within the union, these "reasons" for not supporting the new policy withered away. The Black Caucus, an employees' group and the oldest of the ethnic personnel support groups, began meeting with the Latin American Campus Association (LACA), the newly formed United Filipino Organization (UFO), and then the Asian Pacific System Wide Alliance (APSA). From these meetings came the Council of Minority Organizations, which met and discussed the commonality of related issues to equal employment opportunities, such as social barriers in the workplace.

Other benefits/services

Other benefits of the agreement included an *interpreters bank* of volunteer translators and a better sense within the university hospital operation of

where non-English language services were needed (A.,M. 1990). A certification process was developed with help from the union. USF also worked with "The Language Bank" and Berlitz to do the actual certification in Spanish, Tagalog, Cantonese, Russian, Arabic, and Vietnamese. Demand for the interpreting increased. USF increasingly needed to identify positions with bilingual skills, bring in outside interpreters, and hire full-time interpreters (C.,Y. 1990).

There was also an increased demand for *English as a second language training* through the Personnel department for employees who wanted to improve their English proficiency. Access to classes needed to be improved, and so flexible time was considered to accommodate meeting times and schedules for employees (C.,Y. 1990).³

Discussion

This case study provides one example of what appears as a *successful* implementation of a new language-equitable policy. It was a policy collaboratively constructed through the negotiations of the various involved parties, acting with equal status. They eventually understood the various perspectives and interpretations of bilingual speech in the workplace, and their impact on the social relations between workers as well as on work performance. The agreement included not only a new language policy, but a concern for disseminating its existence to the entire workforce, and specific guidelines of what were acceptable and unacceptable behaviors. It also challenged the various unacceptable understandings and attitudes about non-English languages and their use by identifying them and providing useful and applied training on these issues. The policy's impact on job performance and on the language rights of the dominant English monolinguals is of particular interest.

How did the new policy affect job performance of employees?

There were two answers to this question, one for supervisors and one for nonmanagement employees. The training was, and appears to be, key for supervisor effectiveness in this area. Managers were not always knowledgeable of the discriminatory *behaviors* related to certain language attitudes and policies and that they were illegal. The training provided by the university allowed for explicit discussion of these issues and provided for guidelines to resolve language-discriminatory behaviors. It also attempted to deal with the attitudes underlying many of these discrimina-

tory behaviors by increasing understanding of bilingualism, what non-English speakers talk about when they use the language, and how the use of non-English languages can be related to improved patient care and meeting the goals of the hospital. The training was effective and appeared to help the relationships between managers and between management and labor (K.,L. 1990).

For nonmanagement employees the new policy also seemed to work. According to C.,Y. (1990), the language issue strengthened workers because equity was a concern for all workers. The biggest advantage was that the permissive use of the non-English languages allowed the workers to use the different languages as needed to reflect the diversity of the patients. It also improved morale among workers.

Institutionally, it is important to keep in mind that the senior officers of the university discussed the language-discrimination issue, developed great understanding of it, and bought into the agreement as the "socially correct" policy. This policy was seen as consistent with the diversity of the service area and the location of the university in the Pacific Rim (A.,M. 1990; Harris and Moran 1987).

How did the new policy affect patient care?

The new policy improved patient care in several ways: (1) the performance of employees improved; (2) patient menus for food were translated into several non-English languages, thus closing the gap between the menus and the diversity of the patients; and (3) information signs were translated into several languages (C.,Y. 1990). Since the English-only rule was in the Nutrition and Dietetics department, which has some patient contact but is not responsible for direct patient care, we need to look at some of the other units in the hospital. In the Perinatal department, the bilingual nurses were specifically deployed in the work schedule so that they could support each other and be matched with the language needs of the patients (W.,C. 1990). This improved patient access to someone who spoke a language they could understand and, presumably, improved care.

What implications are there for language rights?

The context for exercise of these rights needs to take into account the attitudes of the dominant English monolinguals. While there may be

rights to speak languages under certain circumstances, and to learn certain languages, there seems to be no right to keep from hearing a language. The right to speak a language outweighs any other person's individual interest in not overhearing or listening to that language.⁴

While this study was not a comprehensive review of workplace social and work-group relations, it also indicated that language policies have a reciprocal effect on language attitudes and on language status. They are not independent of each other. It is useful to note two of the ten concluding statements made by Roberts et al. (1992) in their broad studies of communication in multiethnic workplaces:

1. Language is used by people with power to sustain power (consciously or unconsciously) and, therefore, plays a significant, if invisible, role in how discrimination works.

7. Good interethnic communication is achieved only through a conscious effort of understanding based on an awareness of the real difficulties involved. Good policies, principles, and intentions are not enough (Roberts et al. 1992: 368-369).

It would seem that, to some degree, the agreement and the training and implementation plan described in this study did reflect a conscious effort of understanding, based on an awareness of the real difficulties involved.

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Notes

1. I have been involved as an expert witness in several court cases involving language issues and workplace language policies. The data for this case study was collected, in part, for possible use in other litigation not involving the case here described. I was not involved in this San Francisco EEOC case. In collecting these data I reviewed institutional documents, conducted individual and group interviews, toured the hospital's different departments, informally talked with workers, and inventoried public and employee signage and bulletin boards in selected departments. An initial description of "findings" was submitted to those interviewed for accuracy and feedback, resulting in follow-up conversations and discussions.
2. This survey was undertaken and did not reveal any other departments with an English-only rule, except Nutrition and Dietetics, Personnel, and some of the laboratories.
3. The union local at UCLA apparently contracted with a local community college for ESL instruction on site (C., Y. 1990).
4. Cf. Valdés, this volume, for a review of judicial instructions to a jury to keep from hearing, paying attention, or otherwise considering testimony in a non-English language, in favor of the court's English translation.

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The Hispanophobia of the Official English movement in the US

ANA CELIA ZENTELLA

Abstract

The greatest efforts ever made to restrict language in the US since the post-WWII period have been taking place since 1980. Language policy in three areas — the language of government, the language of employment, and the language of the schools — affect the human rights of 32 million members of language-minority families, but they are targeted most specifically at the group that represents the majority: Spanish speakers. In response, defense of Spanish has served to unite diverse groups of Latinos despite differences in migration history, socioeconomic profiles, and political affiliations. Of particular interest is the relationship between the positions that a group takes on the issue of making English the official language of the US and on the issue of eliminating the services that might be affected by English-only legislation. This paper reports on the views of more than 300 Latinos in New York City and compares them with those of Euro-Americans, African Americans, Afro-Caribbeans, and others.

The media in the USA gave extensive coverage to the anti-immigrant feelings that surfaced in California around proposition 187 in 1994, which refused medical and educational services to illegal aliens. But California is not alone. In New York State, officials announced (November 21, 1994) that an all-time high had been reached in the number of "Good citizen" calls — for reporting crimes — with a record number of people turning in neighbors and coworkers who were illegal aliens. One New Yorker applauded the news, saying "It's time to stop playing Santa Claus for all these people, they have their own countries and should go back where they came from" (CBS News). It is this sense of insecurity and anger that organizations such as US English and English First have been fueling with their efforts to make English the official language of the United States since 1981. Much of the focus on promoting and protecting

Language and Ethnic Classification of Language Minorities: Chicano and Latino Students in the 1990s

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The relationship between ethnicity and language in educational statistics can be stronger for policy and research purposes. Over the last two decades there have been improvements in the specification and collection of language and ethnic data, and yet the constructs based on these data have fallen prey to bureaucratic and policy battles, or gone unnoticed. Two of the concepts developed to estimate the need for bilingual education: "non-English language background" and "limited-English proficient" persons, are useful as a framework for educational language demography as well as language studies in other areas. These two constructs have been used, differentiated and elaborated by different agencies within the federal government. At the same time, they have loosened the traditional relationships between ethnicity and language. Comparing the data from the 1980 and 1990 Census and California school enrollments, this article illustrates the utility of these two constructs, discusses the new Census Bureau constructs of "English difficulty" and "linguistic isolation," and the implications for educational data, monitoring Latino student progress in the 1990s, and educational language policies.

Language has been a marker for ethnicity for a long time. In the United States, non-English languages have often been used as a surrogate for foreign birth, and associated with immigrants in general. Much of the language data that was officially collected by the government prior to 1980 was not useful for current policy decisions because it was historical or retrospective language data (e.g., questions like "what languages were spoken in a person's home when he/she was a child?"). Often government surveys did not ask about current language abilities or use. This changed in the mid-1970s when the Federal Bilingual Education Act amendments of 1974 mandated a series of studies to estimate the need for bilingual education among the school-age population in the country. This mandate led to several studies and five national surveys that helped define and refine school-based concepts about

language minority students, like "non-English language background" (NELB) and "limited-English proficient" (LEP) students (cf. Macías with Spencer, 1984). The surveys and subsequent analyses of their data in the late 1970s led to a change in the language question of the decennial Census in 1980. Instead of asking about retrospective household "mother tongues," the 1980 and 1990 Census asked about current language use (speech) in non-English languages and about English language abilities.¹

The subsequent concern about, and excitement over, having current language data, led many educational analysts to ignore or deemphasize the relationship between language and ethnicity in the schools in favor of the concept of "limited-English proficiency."² The relationship between language and ethnicity for Latinos is the focus of this article. It is an important nexus of schooling practices and policies. Programs and policies that were developed to address a student's limited proficiency in English often ignored or deemphasized race and ethnicity in general. Many experts still argue over whether class, immigrant status, or "cultural differences" are the principal reasons for Chicano³ and Puerto Rican losses in the public schools. But the debates over bilingual education and cultural literacy are as much about race as they are about "culture and languages" (see Crawford, 1992, for a discussion of a U.S. English founder's views of language and Mexicans; and Gibson & Ogbu, 1991).

In this article, I present two of the critical concepts in educational language demography, describe and discuss the growth of the Spanish-speaking and non-English language population in the United States between 1980 and 1990, and present a case analysis of California school data. This is presented within the context of demographic change for Latinos in the last decade (see Chapa & Valencia, 1993 [this issue]). I conclude the article by suggesting some of the critical issues raised by this analysis and how they might be addressed.

Critical Concepts in Language Demography

The definitions and concepts in language demography that have developed over the last 15 years in the United States are useful as a framework for surveying language minorities in general, and not just for estimating the need for bilingual education. Out of the Bilingual Education Act research, we have the two core notions of "non-English language background/language minority" (NELB/LM) and "non-/limited-English proficient" (N/LEP).

The NELB/LM designation was designed to be an inclusive category that would be the pool from which, or within which, all persons (not just

school-age youngsters) who were limited in their English proficiency could be found (Macias with Spencer, 1984). This designation also served as an "upper limit" of the number of non- and limited-English proficient persons. This "pool" of individuals was identified through surrogate (probability) characteristics, like foreign birth, living in a community or household where a language other than English was spoken, or speaking a non-English language (see Table 1). In several studies (O'Malley, 1981; Oxford et al., 1981), this category referred to the number of people who lived in a household in which a non-English language was spoken, whether or not they all spoke that language. With the focus in the 1980 Census on the spoken language of the individual, then non-English language *speaking* was a more specific subset of non-English language background. This distinguished between the non-English language household *environment* and persons who *spoke* a non-English language.

The LEP (and non-English proficient) category was defined as a subgroup of language minority/non-English language background whose English proficiency was not sufficient for them to participate effectively in an English-only classroom. The term "limited-English speaking" ability was derived from the federal Bilingual Education Act legislation of 1968. The Bilingual Education Act amendments in 1978 added *reading and writing* English to the definition and the term became "limited-English *proficient*." To be English *proficient*, then, meant a person had to be able to speak, understand, read and write English, not just speak it.

Several points should be made here about the utility of the definitions. They affected (a) the estimates of need for bilingual education, (b) the standards used for identifying the population in need of bilingual education, and (c) the relationship between language and ethnicity. Several studies were carried out in the late 1970s and early in the 1980s; to estimate the need for bilingual educational services in the country, some of which used these two key concepts. Table 1 briefly identifies the various characteristics to identify these populations used by six of these studies. The table refers to three levels of the study's operational definitions—how they identified the population universe for their study; what the factors were to identify the highest probable pool of people within which those with limited-English proficiency could be found; and the measures or constructs used to identify their English "proficiency" or need for special language services. As is evident, the studies generally used different criteria to identify their study populations. This meant that their definitions for non-English language background and limited-English proficiency were also different and so they came up with different estimates of need. The utility of these two concepts, however, was clearly shown in an analysis of these studies, which indicated very little

Table 1. Variables Used in Conceptualizing Non-English Language Background and Limited-English Proficient

Factor	NCES, 1978	O'Malley, 1981	Dubois, 1980	Oxford et al., 1981	Barnes, 1981	Milne & Gombert, 1981 ^a
Universe						
Total population	x	x	x	x		x
Public school enrollment					x	
Age band						
5-14 years		x	x	x		
6-18 years/K-12 grades	x				x	x
Pool factors (non-English language background)						
Mother tongue	x			x		
Household language 1 (usually used)	x	x	x	x	x	
Household language 2 (often used)	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual language 1 (usually used)					x	
Individual language 2 (often used)					x	
National origin						x
Need factors (limited-English proficient)						
Direct measure of English proficiency						
reading		x	x	(x)		
writing		x	x	(x)		
speaking		x	x	(x)		
understanding		x	x	(x)		

(continued)

Table 1. Continued

Factor	NCES, 1978	O'Malley, 1981	Dubois, 1980	Oxford et al., 1981	Barnes, 1981	Milne & Gombert, 1981 ^a
Indirect measure of English proficiency						
Standardized reading achievement test					x	
Reported speaking ability of English				x		
Reported understanding ability in English				x		
Surrogate measure of English proficiency						
Family income				x		
Language dominance						
Relative frequency of use						x
Relative proficiency of ability						

NOTE: The x in the various cells refer to that type measure being used in the study identified at the column head. The parentheses refer to the fact that Oxford et al. (1981) was a synthetic analysis relying on ratios generated from direct measures by other studies. Oxford et al. (1981) did not actually collect data, and thus did not use its own direct measure. Only the last row does not have any x because none of these studies used this definition of language dominance as a measure. Leaving the row blank was a reminder of its nonuse.

SOURCE: Macías with Spencer (1984, Table 2, p. 6).

a. This is the only study cited here to use civil rights data for its estimate.

differences between the estimates when the definitions for the groups were held constant (Macías with Spencer, 1984). The estimates of need for bilingual education were different because several offices within the U.S. Department of Education had competing definitions and policy interpretations in the education of language minorities. One can see that the many possible variables used for identifying the pool population, and the wide variety in estimating or measuring English proficiency, could easily lead to discrepancies in the resulting estimates. Judicious use of these two core notions, however, can provide a ballast in these varying definitions and apparent conflicts in estimates of need for bilingual education.

During this same period, there was a debate over whether English proficiency should be the exclusive criterion for the federal Bilingual Education Act target population, irrespective of the person's proficiency in the non-English language or whether relative language proficiencies or language dominance among bilinguals should be the determining factor. The *Aspira v. New York School Board* (1975) consent decree initially identified Puerto Rican students in need of bilingual instruction by the dominance of Spanish over English, without reference to a threshold proficiency in either language (New York City Public Schools, 1992). The U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare's Office of Civil Rights definitions for "national origin" and "language discrimination" also used a *relative language proficiency* (or language dominance) standard to identify the different categories of students and define their needed educational services (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office for Civil Rights, 1970, 1976). A student or group of students needed to be a member of a national origin group, *dominant* in a non-English language over English and be discriminated against, to trigger civil rights law protection. Unlike the studies mentioned above that were mandated by the Bilingual Education Act, the civil rights studies were driven by the enforcement and interpretations of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as it applied to national origin groups and their language characteristics. The estimates based on the civil rights studies did include ethnic identifiers, but differed markedly from the bilingual education studies because they were based on school enrollments, not population samples. These data were also incompletely reported and were not comparable across districts partly because of the lack of cooperation from school districts in reporting these data (Macías with Spencer, 1984). This dominance standard has not survived, with the Office of Civil Rights moving from a "language dominance" standard to an "English proficiency" standard over the 1980s (U.S. Department of Education, 1991).

The prevalence of the English proficiency standard is useful because it focuses on the critical characteristic that drives bilingual education programs

for K-12 schooling, that of acquiring English proficiency such that the students can participate effectively in an all-English classroom. This debate over the standard (English proficiency exclusively or language dominance), however, minimized the existence or co-occurrence of ethnicity and of the non-English language such that school and program personnel using the classification of "limited-English proficiency" for educational program placement, often ignored or minimized the non-English language resources of the learner for instructional and, sometimes, for reporting purposes. This was, and continues to be, a particularly serious problem when it comes to diagnosing instructional needs because one does not identify all of the learner's strengths and resources.

The cumulative result of these issues—defining group terms on the basis of language and the exclusive focus on the English language—loosened the policy relationship between ethnicity and language. This also had an effect on how data on language and ethnicity were collected and reported—generally separately. This did not mean ethnicity were absent from bilingual education discussions, but it was certainly muted. Using bilingual education-driven identifiers, there is quite an overlap between "language minorities" and some ethnic groups (e.g., Mexican origin, Chinese origin), but not a 100% overlap. It became an easy surrogate identification, however, over the last few years, to use ethnic identifiers interchangeably with language minorities but with the understanding of these language constructs. When this was done, then fluent and monolingual English speakers of the ethnic group were often not included in the discussion, because the marking characteristic for bilingual and language minority educational and policy purposes was the students' limited proficiency in English and their use of the non-English language. Also, if and when ethnicity (or its code word "culture") was considered in the discussion, it was *after* one conceptually narrowed the group under discussion by their limited-English proficiency. This shift to a language focus leads many policymakers and analysts to focus on language as the "cause" of low academic achievement, rather than considering or exploring more complex alternatives including the role of race/ethnicity, class, or discriminatory institutional practices.

It is important for new studies on language, ethnicity, and schooling to be as clear as possible about how such categories as "language minority" or "non-English language background" or "limited-English proficient" are being used or could be used. The following preliminary analysis presents both language and ethnic data and identifies their utility and limitations. The first section describes the national population by Latino ethnicity and Spanish language background.⁴ The second section focuses on California school data

on Latino ethnicity and language. The relationship between the ethnic and language data is imputed here by comparison and contrast, because of the way the data were collected or reported. The California statistics below came from different data sets (e.g., California's ethnic enrollment data is collected in the fall, and the language data are collected in the spring), and the national data were not available for direct statistical manipulation (the 1990 Census public-use tapes for the national sample data were not yet available). They are presented here for their heuristic purposes.

Growth Patterns of Latino Spanish Language Background/Limited-English Proficient, 1980-1990

The decennial census provides us with a regular and convenient data source for describing and analyzing many aspects of the Latino populations in the country. These data allow for "status" analyses (what the condition is of Latinos in the country), rather than processes or more qualitative analyses on the dynamics of these groups. Comparing data across two points in time, however, can provide us with a sense of the changes that take place over time. This section presents data on ethnicity and language between 1980 and 1990.

Latino Growth Between 1980 and 1990

As discussed by Chapa and Valencia (1993 [this issue]) the growth of the Latino population between 1980 and 1990 was 53%, from 14.6 million to 22.4 million (see Table 2). This growth was over 5 times the rate of growth for the national population (9.8%) as a whole, 12 times higher than the growth rate for (non-Latino) Whites (4.4%), and 4 times higher than for Blacks (13.2%). Only Asians increased at a greater rate than Latinos (107.8%). The growth rates of Asians and Latinos during this decade reflects, in part, the tremendous shift in immigration from Europe to Asia and Latino América over this century. One should keep in mind, however, that the numerical growth of Latinos was almost as large as that for Blacks, Amerindians, and Asian/Pacific Islanders *combined*, and was equal to about 68% of the growth of Whites.

Much of this growth between the two decades was the result of in-migration. Approximately 8% of the 1990 national population was foreign born. Of the nearly 20 million foreign-born persons in the country in 1990, 44% (8,663,627) entered the country between 1980 and 1990 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1992a).⁵ This immigration during the decade represented about 39% of the total national population increase for the decade.

Table 2. Population Change Between 1980 and 1990 by Race and Ethnicity in the United States

	1980		1990		Change		
	N	%	N	%	N	% Increase	%
Total	226,545,805	100.0	248,709,873	100.0	22,164,068	9.8	100.0
White	180,256,000	79.6	188,128,000	75.6	11,314,448	4.4	51.0
Black	26,495,025	11.7	29,986,060	12.1	3,491,035	13.2	15.8
Amerindian	1,420,400	0.6	1,959,234	0.8	538,834	37.9	2.4
Asian/Pacific Islander	3,500,439	1.5	7,273,662	2.9	3,773,223	107.8	17.0
Other	6,758,319	3.0	9,804,847	3.9	3,046,528	45.1	13.7
Hispanic	14,608,673	6.4	22,354,059	9.0	7,745,386	53.0	34.9

SOURCES: Data for 1980 and 1990 were taken from the 1990 Census Summary Tape file, 1A. The data were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau Regional Office, Los Angeles, CA. Also see U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1991b); and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1991c).

NOTE: The ethnic categories are mutually exclusive, for example, Whites are non-Hispanic Whites.

Table 3. Latinos by National Origin and Foreign Born by Country, for the United States, 1990

Country/Ethnicity	Latinos		Foreign Born (FB)		
	Total	%	Total	%	% Foreign-born/ Latino
Total	21,900,089	100.0	21,631,601	100.0	n.a.
Mexican	13,393,206	61.2	4,447,439	20.6	33.2
Puerto Rican ^a	2,651,815	12.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Cuban	1,053,197	4.8	750,609	3.5	71.3
Dominican	520,151	2.4	356,971	1.7	68.6
Salvadoran	565,081	2.6	472,885	2.2	83.7
Other Central American	758,749	3.5	698,828	3.2	92.1
South American	1,035,602	4.7	890,423	4.1	86.0
Spaniard	519,136	2.4	103,518	0.5	19.9
Other Hispanic	864,934	3.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

SOURCE: Data for Hispanics were taken from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Ethnic and Hispanic Branch (1992b). This table was created from the sample data and had not yet been adjusted to the final count from the 100% data. Data for foreign-born Hispanics were taken from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Ethnic and Hispanic Branch (1992a).

a. Data for the island of Puerto Rico are usually reported separately from Puerto Ricans on the mainland. In 1990 the island population was 3,522,037, nearly all of which, I assume, was ethnically Puerto Rican. This figure is not included in the totals. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1991a, Table 1).

Of the total foreign born in the country in 1990, about 35% came from Latino countries. This also approximates the percentage of foreign born within the Latino population. The percentage of foreign born varied by nation of origin among the Latino population (see Table 3). Although Mexican-born Latinos were the largest single national origin group born outside the United States at 4.5 million (about 58% of the total foreign born Latinos) they represented about 33.2% of all Mexican-origin persons in the country in 1990. Central Americans, excluding Salvadorans, however, had 92.1% foreign born; Salvadorans had 83.7% foreign born. South Americans also were highly foreign born with a rate of 86%. The Latino national origin group with the lowest foreign-born proportion were the Spaniards with 19.9%. These data reflect an increasing national origin diversity of the Latino population and a change in the composition of the Latino foreign born with almost half (42%) being non-Mexicans. It is also expected that among the foreign-born population we find the highest concentration of Spanish speakers who have difficulty with the English language (see Waggoner, 1987, for a discussion

of how different nations of origin may be identified with different responses to the English ability question on the census).

Spanish Speakers Growth

The Latino population grew dramatically during the 1980s, as did the number of Spanish speakers. The rate of growth between 1980 and 1990 for the Spanish-speaking group (5 years and older) was 56%, slightly higher than that for Latinos as a group, increasing from 11.1 million persons in 1980 to 17.3 million in 1990. This growth rate was much higher than for speakers of other non-English languages, who increased at a rate of only 22.3%, from 11.9 million persons to 14.5 million (see Table 4). This means that Spanish speakers became a greater proportion of the non-English-speaking populations. In 1980, Spanish speakers represented about 48.4% of those who spoke a language other than English in the country. In 1990, Spanish speakers represented 54.5% of this group.

If we compare the numbers from the census of Spanish speakers and Latinos, and assume all Spanish speakers are Latino (but not all Latinos are Spanish speakers), then at least 76.1% of Latinos in 1980 spoke Spanish, whereas 77.1% of Latinos did so in 1990 (see Tables 2 and 4).⁶ The net growth of Latinos in the 10 years was 7.7 million, and the net increase in Spanish speakers (5 years and older) was 6.2 million persons. Spanish speakers (assuming all were Latinos), reflected over 80% of the net growth of Latinos (in that the Spanish-speaking data is for those 5 years old and over).

Although the absolute numbers of Spanish speakers grew between 1980 and 1990 for the school-age population (5-17 years old), and adults (18+ years), Table 4 shows that the adult segment grew more quickly. The school-age segment grew by 1.2 million persons at a rate of 41.4%, as compared to the adult Spanish-speaking population, which increased 5 million persons during the decade for a 61.3% increase. In 1980, the school-age population represented 26.5% of those who spoke Spanish, and in 1990, the proportion fell somewhat to 24% (see Table 4). Adults represented 80% of the 6.2 million new Spanish speakers identified in 1990. For every new Spanish speaker of school-age, there were 4 new adults who spoke Spanish in 1990. The implications for adult education and literacy programs are several, including a more dramatic growth in need of these programs for Spanish-speaking adults—a point I discuss below.

The geographic distribution of Spanish speakers was very close to the distribution of Latinos within the country. The states with the largest numbers of Latinos in 1990 had the largest number of Spanish speakers: California, Texas, New York, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, Arizona, New Mexico,

Table 4. Percentage Change in Speakers of Non-English Languages, by Language and Age, 1980 and 1990

	1980		1990		Net Change		
	N	%	N	%	N	% of Change	Increase
Non-English language speakers	22,973,410	100.0	31,844,979	100.0	8,871,569	100.0	38.6
5-17 years	4,529,098	19.7	6,322,934	19.9	1,793,836	20.2	39.6
18+ years	18,444,312	80.3	25,522,045	80.1	7,077,733	79.8	38.4
Spanish speakers	11,117,606	100.0	17,345,064	100.0	6,227,458	100.0	56.0
5-17 years	2,947,051	26.5	4,167,653	24.0	1,220,602	19.6	41.4
18+ years	8,170,555	73.5	13,177,411	76.0	5,006,856	80.4	61.3
Other non-English language speakers	11,855,804	100.0	14,499,915	100.0	2,644,111	100.0	22.3
5-17 years	1,582,047	13.3	2,155,281	14.9	573,234	21.7	36.2
18+ years	10,273,757	86.7	12,344,634	85.1	2,070,877	78.3	20.2

SOURCE: Data for 1980 is taken from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1982, Table P-2). Data for 1990 is taken from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1992c).

Table 5. Top Ten States of Latinos and Spanish Speakers, 1990

State	Total Population	Population age 5+ years	Latinos	Latino foreign-born	NELS ^a	% of Population age 5+ years	Spanish Speakers					
							Total	% of NELS	Bilingual ^b	%	English Difficulty ^c	%
California	29,760,021	27,383,547	7,687,938	3,312,621	8,619,334	31.5	5,478,712	63.6	2,518,584	46.0	2,960,128	54.0
Texas	16,986,510	15,605,822	4,339,905	1,107,551	3,970,304	25.4	3,443,106	86.7	1,867,454	54.2	1,575,652	45.8
New York	17,990,455	16,743,048	2,214,026	723,724	3,908,720	23.3	1,848,825	47.3	947,919	51.3	900,906	48.7
Florida	12,937,926	12,095,284	1,574,143	897,612	2,098,315	17.3	1,447,747	69.0	718,669	49.6	729,078	50.4
Illinois	11,430,602	10,585,838	904,446	355,687	1,499,112	14.2	728,380	48.6	361,381	49.6	366,999	50.4
New Jersey	7,730,188	7,200,696	739,861	270,058	1,406,148	19.5	621,416	44.2	310,391	49.9	311,025	50.1
Arizona	3,665,228	3,374,806	688,338	173,675	700,287	20.8	478,234	68.3	290,920	60.8	187,314	39.2
New Mexico	1,515,069	1,390,048	579,224	58,133	493,999	35.5	388,186	78.6	268,481	69.2	119,705	30.8
Colorado	3,294,394	3,042,986	424,302	46,309	320,631	10.5	203,896	63.6	134,796	66.1	69,100	33.9
Massachusetts	6,016,425	5,605,751	287,549	71,890	852,228	15.2	228,458	26.8	117,350	51.4	111,108	48.6
Subtotal	111,328,808	103,027,831	19,439,707	7,017,260	23,869,078	23.2	14,866,960	62.3	7,535,945	50.7	7,331,015	49.3
National total	248,609,873	230,445,777	22,354,059	7,751,895	31,844,979	13.8%	17,345,064	54.5%	9,035,069	52.1%	8,309,995	47.9%
Subtotal as % of national	45	45	87	90.5	75		86		83		88	

SOURCE: Data were taken from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1992a, 1992c); U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Ethnic and Hispanic Branch (1992a).

a. NELS refer to non-English language speakers.

b. Bilinguals in this table were estimated by subtracting those with English difficulty from the total number of Spanish speakers. Bilinguals, thus, spoke Spanish and were reported with English ability as "very well."

c. Persons with English difficulty were defined by the Census Bureau as persons whose English ability was less than "very well."

Colorado, and Massachusetts, in descending order (see Table 5). These 10 states had 45% of the total national population, but 87% of the total Latino population, and almost 91% of the Latino foreign-born population. About 75% of the persons who spoke a language other than English also resided in these 10 states, but close to 86% of Spanish speakers lived in them. Speakers of non-English languages were not evenly distributed throughout the country, but Spanish speakers, like Latinos in general, and foreign-born Latinos especially, were even more concentrated in these 10 states, with more than 50% of Latinos and Spanish speakers in only two states (California and Texas).

Growth of NLEP Groups

The combination of the language questions asked in the census allow us to identify the number of people who spoke a language other than English and also their reported ability to speak English (very well, well, not well, not at all). Using the data from the 1980 Census, researchers often dichotomized the four possible answers to the English ability question to identify oral bilingual persons (spoke a non-English language *and* English very well or well) from monolinguals (spoke a non-English language and spoke English not well or not at all; see Table 6 for a display of bilingualism data using this definition). These two definitions were clearly not the same as that for non-/limited-English proficiency, because they did not include reading and writing English in the definition. The non-/limited-English proficiency estimates for 1980 came from other surveys, and in some instances, linkage of those surveys with the 1980 Census.

For the 1990 Census, the Bureau of the Census developed two new constructs that will guide the reporting of the published data: "English Difficulty" and "Linguistically Isolated Households." The English Difficulty construct has its origins in the early 1980s when the Census Bureau was asked by Congress to revise the estimates of voting-age national-origin persons with limited-English ability as part of the 1982 amendments to the language minority provisions of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Congress amended the law, adding the English language ability criterion as part of the trigger for protections of the Voting Rights Act. In the summer of 1992, Congress extended these provisions until 2007. The Census Bureau was directed to determine the affected jurisdictions under these new criteria.

The Census Bureau reviewed the relationship of the census English language ability question and its answer scale with a direct measure of English literacy used in the English Language Proficiency Study of 1982 (cf. Kominski, 1985, 1989). The Census Bureau determined that a break between

Table 6. Percentage Change in Bilingualism, by Language and Age, 1980 and 1990

	Total non-English Language Speakers		Bilinguals ^b		Non-English Language Monolinguals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1980						
NELS ^a	22,973,410	100.0	18,676,906	81.3	4,296,504	18.7
5-17 years	4,529,098	100.0	3,875,536	85.6	653,562	14.4
18+ years	18,444,312	100.0	14,801,370	80.2	3,642,942	19.8
Spanish speakers	11,117,606	100.0	8,353,920	75.1	2,763,686	24.9
5-17 years	2,947,051	100.0	2,474,619	84.0	472,432	16.0
18+ years	8,170,555	100.0	5,879,301	72.0	2,291,254	28.0
Other NELS	11,855,804	100.0	10,322,986	87.1	1,532,818	12.9
5-17 years	1,582,047	100.0	1,400,917	88.6	181,130	11.4
18+ years	10,273,757	100.0	8,922,069	86.8	1,351,688	13.2
1990						
NELS	31,844,979	100.0	25,172,778	79.0	6,672,201	21.0
5-17 years	6,322,934	100.0	5,415,371	85.6	907,563	14.4
18+ years	25,522,045	100.0	19,757,407	77.4	5,764,638	22.6
Spanish speakers	17,345,064	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
5-17 years	4,167,653	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
18+ years	13,177,411	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Other NELS	14,499,915	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
5-17 years	2,155,281	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
18+ years	12,344,634	100.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

SOURCE: Data are from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1982, 1992c).

a. NELS refers to non-English language speakers.

b. Bilinguals are defined here as persons who spoke a language other than English, and who were reported to speak English "well" or "very well." Data from 1990 were not available at the time of writing to estimate bilinguals by language using this definition.

"very well" and the other three possible answers was more indicative of the English ability "threshold" of when language minorities might have difficulty in participating in English-only elections (see Kominski, 1985, 1989). Those who answered the English language ability question with less than "very well," were identified and reported by the Census Bureau as having English Difficulty. This construct also does not equate with limited-English proficiency, but implies more than the lack of oral fluency in English.

Consistency across government agencies in the use of these terms, English *proficiency*, English *difficulty*, and English *fluency*, would help in better understanding the reported data.

This construct of English Difficulty was applied to the 1990 Census language data for reporting purposes. Using this definition, nearly 14 million persons (44%) who spoke a language other than English, in 1990, also had difficulty with the English language (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1992c). Almost 60% of these persons were Spanish speakers (8.3 million). These Spanish speakers with English Difficulty represented about 48% of all Spanish-speaking persons.

The construct of "Linguistically Isolated Households," or linguistic isolation, was developed by the Census Bureau more recently to describe the language environment of persons who might be cut off from English language exposure and who might be in greatest need for language services. The term reflects households in which all persons 14 years and older spoke a non-English language *and* had English difficulty (spoke English less than "very well"). About 7,741,259 persons (age 5 years and older) lived in linguistically isolated households in 1990 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1992c, Table ED90-3). Unlike the English Difficulty construct, which was based on correlational analyses with other data, this construct was based primarily on the household density of non-English-speaking persons with English difficulty, and made several untested assumptions regarding the effects of their language environment.

Although these two constructs of English Difficulty and Linguistically Isolated Households reflect a concern for how well language minority persons can speak English or have exposure to English, they are relatively new, and it is unclear how useful they will be to a larger audience. Only the English Difficulty construct has been used in policy analyses (e.g., for the Voting Rights Act language minority amendments). They do not take the place of the Non-/limited-English Proficiency construct because they do not directly and clearly include reading and writing English ability. These constructs also raise the issue of English proficiency standards as they apply to the adult population. Although the standard for non-/limited-English proficiency for the school-age population is the effective participation in an English-only classroom, there is no parallel standard for language minority adults. The English difficulty standard for the Voting Rights Act was whether or not a language minority person would reasonably have difficulty participating in an English-only election. But the English Language Proficiency Study adult measure of English "proficiency" was based on what was needed for accessing public social services. One can ask whether this is reasonably parallel to the English language and literacy needs to participate in English-

only elections. There may be other such standards that should and could be explored for a wider acceptance and application of the construct. Because language proficiency is often influenced, if not determined, by context and function, it would be unwise to arbitrarily apply this standard widely without validation study.

The introduction of the linguistic isolation construct is a bit more problematic. It is not based on studies on these types of households. It reflects a concern for identifying the "neediest" for special language services. This targeting of the neediest was a policy strategy used by the Reagan administrations as a justification for reducing the size and budgets of social programs. It was also part of the strategy to reduce the need for bilingual education (see Barnes, 1981, and Macías with Spencer, 1984, for specific statistical analyses of some of these attempts; and San Miguel, 1988, for a more general policy discussion of these strategies). I am not suggesting that the development of the linguistic isolation construct was motivated by similar intentions, and it certainly highlights the presence of non-English language households in the nation. However, it goes beyond presenting data in its complexity and carries with it negative connotations of language and social participation that may not be warranted, especially because it was a snapshot of time on a changing situation—household language structures.

These constructs—Non-English Language Background, Non-/Limited-English Proficient, English Difficulty, and Linguistically Isolated Households—will shape much of the discussion over language and ethnicity during the 1990s. With the benefits and drawbacks of the federal language data, we should keep one thing in mind: The federal surveys and studies do not systematically collect comparable English language proficiency data across states and school districts that, alone, could be the basis for describing the English proficiency of language minorities or Latinos (cf. Council of Chief State School Officers, 1992; Chapa, 1991; and U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Secretary, 1992). As many of these language data cannot yet be related to school enrollment data, let us take a look at one state, California, to see more clearly the relationship between language, ethnicity, and schooling.

Language and Ethnic School Enrollments: The Case of California

California keeps possibly the most exhaustive and systematic data on its school population in the nation, and so it is a useful case to study. Keep in mind that, in 1990, approximately 7.7 million (26%) of the state's 29.8

million total population (not school enrollments) was Chicano/Latino (see Table 5). Recent projections indicated a continued growth of Latinos in number and proportion of the state (California Department of Finance, 1992). The state's Latino population was larger in 1990 than the total populations of 42 states (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1991c).

The U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1991c) also reported that over 31.5% (8,619,334) of the population 5 years and older, spoke a language other than English in 1990. About 21.8% (1,878,957) were school age (5-17 years old). This represented about 35% of the state's 5- to 17-year-olds. Among adults, 30.6% (6,740,377) of the state's 22 million people who were 18 years and older, spoke a language other than English. Spanish speakers were a large part of these groups, representing 71.9% (1,350,598) of the school-age non-English-speaking population and about 61.2% (4,128,114) of the non-English-speaking adults. In 1990, the total Spanish-speaking population was about 63.6% of the state's total non-English-speaking population. The total numbers of Spanish speakers dramatically increased 74.9% from 3,132,690 in 1980 to 5,478,712 in 1990.

Population figures are generally higher than school enrollment data for several reasons, not the least of which is that everyone of school age is not in school, and school data are often only of *public* school enrollments. About 9.3% of California's total enrollment in 1990 was in private schools (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1992c).

Latino K-12 School Enrollment

In the 1991-1992 school year, there were approximately 5.1 million students enrolled in California public schools from kindergarten to the 12th grade (see Table 7). About 1.8 million of these students were Chicanos and Latinos (about 35% of the total enrollment).

The growth of the Chicano/Latino enrollment is projected to continue. Recent state projections indicate that "between 1991 and 2005, the number of Hispanic students is projected to grow 112%; Asian, 86%; Filipino, 83%; American Indian, 76%; Pacific Islander, 68%; Black, 24%; and White, 7%" (California Department of Finance, 1992, p. 1). The projected growth among Latino students is expected to account for 73% of the projected 2,708,405 enrollment growth statewide during this 15-year period (see Figure 1). Latino students are projected to be 48.4% of the total statewide enrollment in the school year 2005-2006 (California Department of Finance, 1992, p. 2).

In addition to the growth in enrollments, Chicano/Latino graduation rates are projected to increase, albeit at a slower rate of increase. Chicano/Latino high school graduates represented 18.6% of the state's total number of

Table 7. Public School Enrollment, by Grade, LEP^a Classification and Latino Ethnicity, California 1992

Grade	Total Enrollment	LEP		Latinos		Spanish Language Background LEP			
		N	% Total Enrollment	N	% Total Enrollment	N	% Total Enrollment	% Total LEP	% Total Latino
Kindergarten	428,392	127,646	29.8	163,937	38.3	101,586	23.7	79.6	62.0
1	444,101	126,710	28.5	165,956	37.4	99,570	22.4	78.6	60.0
2	427,612	116,155	27.2	156,947	36.7	90,388	21.1	77.8	57.6
3	420,018	105,556	25.1	151,192	36.0	81,940	19.5	77.6	54.2
4	412,613	96,843	23.5	147,791	35.8	75,390	18.3	77.8	51.0
5	401,538	85,501	21.3	141,273	35.2	66,976	16.7	78.3	47.4
6	386,807	74,005	19.1	134,740	34.8	58,168	15.0	78.6	43.2
7	370,964	64,201	17.3	126,608	34.1	49,730	13.4	77.5	39.3
8	355,168	57,480	16.2	121,086	34.1	43,903	12.4	76.4	36.3
9	398,734	71,078	17.8	146,150	36.7	53,699	13.5	75.5	36.7
10	370,635	64,175	17.3	132,584	35.8	46,311	12.5	72.2	34.9
11	324,395	45,521	14.0	103,697	32.0	30,059	9.3	66.0	29.0
12	260,693	29,960	11.5	72,238	27.7	18,053	6.9	60.3	25.0
Ungraded	105,475	13,874	13.2	40,337	38.2	12,263	11.6	88.4	30.4
Total	5,107,145	1,078,705	21.1	1,804,536	35.3	828,036	16.2	76.8	45.9

SOURCE: Data are from California Department of Education (1992).

a. LEP = limited-English proficient.

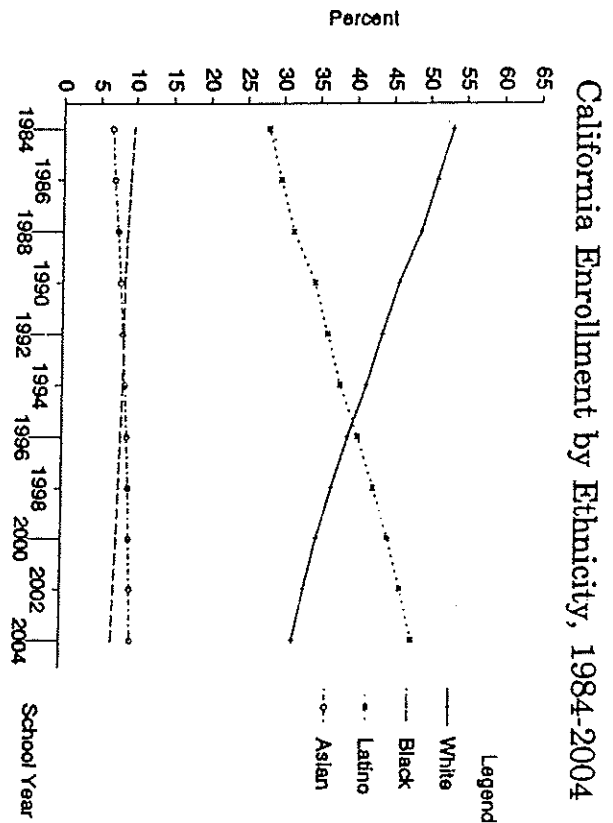


Figure 1. California enrollments by ethnicity, 1984-2004.
SOURCE: California Department of Finance (1992).

graduates in 1985, and 25.3% in 1991 (see Figure 2). They are projected to be 38.2% of the graduates in the year 2006 (California Department of Finance, 1992, p. 3).

LEP Enrollments

California has a fairly explicit system of identifying the NELB student at the initial point of contact with the schools through a household survey. NELB students are then tested with state-authorized language proficiency instruments to determine their English proficiency. In the spring of 1992, about 828,036 LEP students came from Spanish language backgrounds (76.8% of the state total LEP count). In comparison to the ethnic enrollment data (assuming all Spanish language background students are Chicanos or Latinos), then almost half (45.9% or 828,000) of the Chicano/Latino students were limited-English proficient, or not proficient enough in their English ability to participate effectively in English-only classrooms. These Spanish language background LEP students accounted for about 16.2% of the total school enrollment.

California Graduates by Ethnicity, 1984-2004

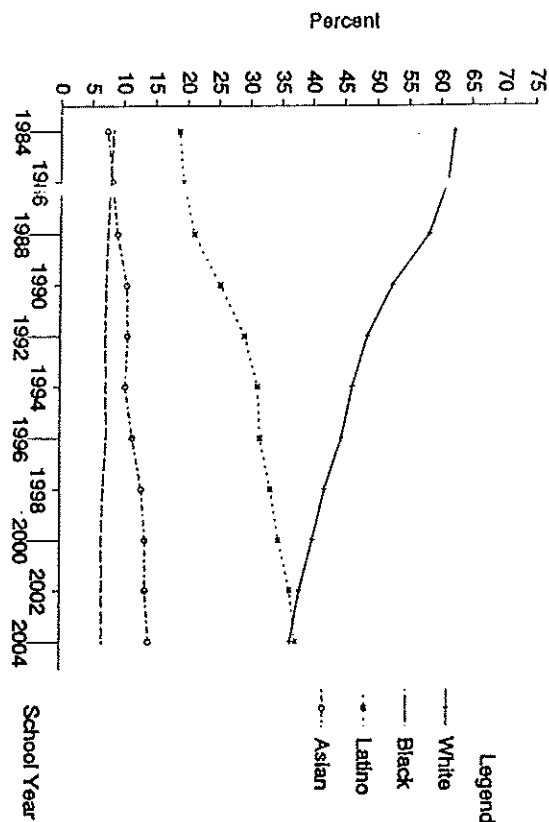


Figure 2. California graduates by ethnicity, 1984-2004.
SOURCE: California Department of Finance (1992).

The percentage of Latino enrollment that was limited in their English proficiency declined from the primary grades to high school. About 62% of the kindergarten Latino enrollment and about 25% of the Chicano/Latino enrollment at the 12th grade were Spanish language background limited-English proficient (see Table 7). For the first 5 years of school (K-4), over half of the Latino students were limited-English proficient. By way of contrast, about a third of Latinos entering kindergarten in 1991, were classified proficient enough in English to participate in an English-only classroom, whereas nearly three out of four were so classified in the 12th grade. The proportion of Latino students who were limited-English proficient grew between 1988 and 1992. In 1988, the LEP proportion of the total Chicano/Latino enrollment was 35% (California Department of Education, 1992). In 4 short years, that increased by 11 percentage points.

Despite these increases, California did not provide all of these students with instruction in a language they could understand (assuming this to be the non-English language for LEP students). In the spring of 1992, although more than three fourths (821, 511) of all LEP students received special language instruction, barely half of all LEP students (542, 172) received some instruc-

Table 8. Number and Percentage of LEP Students, by Type of School and Assigned Instructional Programs, California, 1992

	LEP Students by Type of School									
	Elementary		Middle		Secondary		Other		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
ELD ^a	87,013	12.2	31,643	20.6	42,730	21.1	303	4.2	161,689	15.0
ELD + SDAIE ^b	68,329	9.5	20,858	13.6	27,368	13.5	1,095	15.1	117,650	10.9
ELD + SDAIE + NEL ^c	113,676	15.9	23,771	15.5	43,086	21.3	1,810	24.9	182,343	16.9
ELD + Academic Subject NEL	329,232	46.0	17,354	11.3	12,377	6.1	866	11.9	359,829	33.4
None of above	117,324	16.4	60,079	39.1	76,602	37.9	3,189	43.9	257,194	23.8
Totals	715,574	100.0	153,705	100.0	202,163	100.0	7,263	100.0	1,078,705	100.0
Number of schools	4,591	—	966	—	1,099	—	110	—	6,766	—

SOURCE: California Department of Education (1992, Table 13).

a. English language development; no instruction in the non-English language.

b. Specially designed *academic* instruction in English.

c. Non-English language instruction.

tion in the non-English language (see Table 8). In elementary schools, about 62% of these students received such instruction, and in secondary schools only about 27% received it. Half of all LEP students in California in 1992 received all their instruction only in English.

What do we learn from this cursory review of one state's data? In general, the public school enrollments are becoming more like the rest of the world than the rest of the nation in its ethnic and language diversity. Latinos and Spanish language background LEP students have increased and are projected to increase dramatically. As far as the ethnic and language data and classifications are concerned, we can draw four conclusions. First, the language and ethnic data are collected separately, and only recently have been reported together. Second, although NELB data are available through the home language surveys, they are not regularly and systematically reported. Third, these data are reported only for public school enrollments, not total school enrollments, nor for the total school-age population. Fourth, California projection data on enrollments and graduation rates are developed by race and ethnicity, but not by language. If we were to compare these data collection efforts with federal statistics collection and reporting efforts, we would find that the latter sometimes collect and often report ethnic and language data separately as well. The agency responsible for most educational statistics (the National Center for Education Statistics) regularly and systematically collects and reports almost no language data, and the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA) of the U.S. Education Department, collects some LEP data but almost no ethnic data. The timely, systematic integration of these data-collection and reporting efforts at the federal and state levels leave much room for improvement and utility.

Implications for Educational Needs, Reform, and Latino Language Education

These changes in our national linguistic and ethnic diversity over the last decade demand greater attention. These growth rates are expected to continue into the early 21st century. While debates over language and educational policy continue, especially concerning school reforms, the need for attention to several of these language and ethnic issues increases. Although the following list is not exhaustive, it includes several critical issues.

Instruction in an Understandable Language

The more non-English proficient individuals in our schools (K-12 and adults), the greater the need to provide comprehensible instruction in a

language they understand. Current law indicates that a school district has an affirmative responsibility to address the language needs of language minority students. Rather than being the exception, it demands center stage in educational planning and practice.

As we look at the ethnic and linguistic characteristics of our public school enrollments, it is hard to ignore the teaching force, and we should be struck by how segregated and imbalanced it is. Close to 90% of the national teaching force was White in 1991. How can a public school teach about any kind of democratic pluralism, when it is not reflected in its labor force that has front-line contact and authority with the student enrollments? How can an overwhelmingly monolingual and White teaching force meet the needs of a linguistically and ethnically more diverse enrollment when it continues to reproduce itself in its own image? (see Macías, 1988, and Valencia & Aburto, 1991, for a discussion of the importance of having Latino teachers, and some of the barriers they face in becoming teachers).

Continuing Lifelong Education or "What About Adults?"

The growth of the adult Spanish-speaking population among Latinos between 1980 and 1990 should signal several things. There is a greater rate of increase of Spanish-speaking adults than there is with school-age students. Looking at the language of adult education and community college offerings for possible instruction through Spanish is just one of the many implications of this pattern of growth among Latino adults. The many family educational and literacy programs currently promoted by the federal government and the states should take into account the language diversity of the populations they are targeting for services.

It should be noted that, contrary to public opinion, Spanish-speaking adults clearly recognize the importance of learning English as a vehicle to improve their socioeconomic mobility, and many do learn English. Dictates of time, need, and sometimes choice, mean that communication with large numbers of Latinos would be better carried out in Spanish as well as English. The failure of having adequate numbers of bilingual personnel in service positions and high public contact positions often results in poor service delivery and heightened tensions between groups (see Crawford, 1992).

Data Collection, Language and Ethnicity Definitions

The growth in the number of non-English speaking persons in the country between 1980 and 1990 was substantial. Federal data collection should more consistently include language use and ability items on national surveys to

better monitor changes during the 1990s. Race and ethnic data collection has improved for Latinos, but it is still inconsistent across government agencies. Connecting language and ethnic data more closely, especially for Latinos, Asian and Pacific Islanders, and Amerindians, would be yet another improvement. Providing for discussion about and consistency in definitions and reporting constructs across agencies of government would also improve our understanding of the linguistic diversity of the nation.

In summary, we have improved the statistical picture of the Latino populations and language diversity in the United States over the last two censuses. Much more still needs to be done. The development of these language constructs helps us understand the linguistic diversity and situation within the country, but it ought not and does not have to come at the expense of our understanding of the relationships between language and ethnicity. This is as much a reporting concern as it is an analytic concern. The data are available to reconstruct and better focus the national and local picture.

Notes

1. There were three questions on current language use and ability that were asked, substituting for the single "mother tongue" question of previous decades:

13a. Does this person speak a language other than English at home?

o Yes

o No, only speaks English—Skip to 14

13b. What is this language?

13c. How well does this person speak English?

o Very well

o Not well

o Well

o Not at all

(U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1979, p. 82)

The questions were identical for both the 1980 and the 1990 Census. For those interested in language maintenance and shift among Chicanos and Latinos in the U.S., the collection of the 1990 Census data represents the first time we have had *current* language use and ability data using the same measure across two points in time, for us to be able to directly analyze the issue.

2. Over the last several years there have been calls to revise this label for students in bilingual education programs so that they are not "defined" or identified principally by a deficiency or lack of something, in this case, English proficiency. Some educators are concerned that this labeling undermines the development of a positive self-concept among students (see Hanmyan, 1990, p. 5). They have suggested alternatives, including "potentially English proficient," which they feel are more positive. Although this might be useful at the local level of instructional and service delivery (assuming the social-emotional context for the students is also positively valued), it bears little on the conceptual and policy motivation for the programs themselves. The programs are driven by the purpose of teaching and learning English to students who do not speak, understand, read, or write it.

3. The author uses the term "Chicano" to refer to all persons of Mexican origin within the United States, regardless of birthplace, immigration status, or other characteristics. The term

"Latino" is used to refer to all persons generally within the United States whose origins or ancestry can be traced to one of the Spanish dominant speaking Latin American countries (e.g., not including Brazil, Guyana, or Belize), the Caribbean nations of Puerto Rico, Cuba, and the Dominican Republic.

4. This analysis was based primarily on *published* 1990 Census data, because the release of the public use tapes of national sample data that include language and other variables has not yet been released as of this writing. I intend to complete these analyses during 1993 once these tapes are available, using ethnicity as a screen for the language data.

5. There was a slight discrepancy in the number of foreign-born persons for 1990 between the press release from the Census Bureau dated May 29, 1992 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1992a), which estimated 19,767,316 foreign-born persons in the country, and the special tabulation on foreign-born persons released during the summer of 1992 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Ethnic and Hispanic Branch, 1992a), which estimated 21,631,601 such persons. Because both estimates were generated from the sample data, I am assuming that the numbers were not yet aligned.

6. This assumption is tentative for this analysis. Although it seems to "work" for the national population and the percentages are reasonably within range of other estimates of the Spanish-speaking Latino population, some anomalies at the state level did arise. Several Southern states (Alabama, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, and West Virginia), had more Spanish speakers than they did Latinos, ranging from slightly over 100% to 170% (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1991c, 1992c). Many of these states also experienced a decline in the number of people who self-identified as Latinos from 1980 to 1990. The numbers for the combined 11 states were relatively small: 379,000 for Latinos (1.7% of the national population) and 502,095 for Spanish speakers (2.9% of the national population). This percentage of Spanish speakers over Latinos is also minimum, in that the Spanish-speaking were estimated for the population 5 years and older, whereas the numbers in Table 2 are for all ages.

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