

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Roberto Clemente for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counseling presented on May 7, 1998. Title: Interdependent Perspective of Functions and Relations Perceived by School Counselors, ESL Teachers, European American, and Latino Students

Abstract approved: Signature redacted for privacy.

Brooke B. Collison

This paper presents the results of a qualitative research study conducted with school counselors from four middle schools in Oregon and their interaction with Latino and European American students. The relationship maintained with ESL programs is explored. This document includes the research problem, a short overview of the researcher's professional experience, literature review, and methodology. The literature review examines the history of the Latino population in the United States, language use, socioeconomic dynamics, and major issues. The literature also includes a history of school counseling, English as a Second Language (ESL), and bilingual programs. The methodology includes the research paradigm, sampling methods, data collection, data analysis, and interpretation. A summary of a description of events, emerging patterns, and theoretical constructs is included. Implications for counselor training programs, middle school counselors, and ESL instructors are postulated.

©Copyright by Roberto Clemente
May 7, 1998
All Rights Reserved

Interdependent Perspective of Functions and Relations Perceived by School Counselors,

ESL Teachers, European American, and Latino Students

by

Roberto Clemente

A DISSERTATION

submitted to

Oregon State University

in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the
degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Presented May 7, 1998
Commencement June 1998

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As I reflect on the culmination of this study, I am able to retrace the footprints on a road paved by excitement, hard work, uncertainties, long nights, and the thrill of acquiring new knowledge. It has been a journey of discovery and a unique stage in my life. Many people contributed to the realization of this dream and I am deeply indebted,

to Dr. Brooke B. Collison whose genius, camaraderie, trust, and support made this a growing experience and not a mere intellectual exercise,

to my committee, Dr. Brooke B. Collison, Dr. Phyllis Lee, Dr. Jodi Engel, Dr. Reese House, Dr. Anisa Zvonchovic, Dr. Eileen Waldschmidt whose challenge and support nurtured my growth,

to my faculty, Dr. Liz Gray, Dr. Jim Firth, Dr. Mary-Lou, Dr. Judy Osborne, Dr. Michael Ingram, Dr. Reese House, and Dr. Brooke B. Collison whose experience and vast knowledge nourished me,

to God, who kept me spiritually strong, gave me wisdom, and guided me,

to my father and mother, though miles away, always supported me and planted the love for education and served as a source of inspiration,

to Marilu and Carlos, whose love, prayers, and unconditional support made this dream possible,

to my fellow doctoral students, Jennie Miller, Colin Ward, Allan Mandell with whom many hours of joy and work were spent,

to Allan Mandell, whose sincerity, and humor built a brotherhood friendship,

to Dr. Cesar Vazquez, who believed in me and kept a solid friendship during this journey at the distance,

to my beloved wife, Dagmar, whose patience, love, caring, support, and understanding served as an oasis in the desert,

to my children, Tito and Nany, whose unconditional love and ingenuity rebuilt my energies and inspired me to keep working,

and to all the Latinos in the U.S., whose hard work, struggle, and courage will lead to a brighter future.

Thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 The Research Problem	1
1.2 Statement of Purpose.....	2
1.3 The Researcher	3
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	5
2.1 Language, Mental Health, and Health Education.....	16
2.2 English as a Second Language and Bilingual Programs.....	28
2.3 School Counseling -- Historic Overview	35
2.4 Definitional Trends	43
3. METHODOLOGY	46
3.1 Research Paradigm and Design	46
3.2 Sample.....	48
3.2.1 Setting.....	48
3.2.2 Students.....	49
3.2.3 Staff.....	51
3.3 Procedures.....	52
3.4 Instrumentation and Data Collection	53
4. RESULTS	57
4.1 Mechanics of Data Interpretation	57
4.2 Codification of Emerging Patterns.....	58

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	<u>Page</u>
4.3 Findings and Interpretation	58
4.3.1 Counselors.....	59
4.3.2 ESL Teachers	64
4.3.3 Latino Students.....	69
4.3.4 European American Students	72
4.4 Patterns Consistent Across Groups	76
4.5 Triangulation with Public Data and Research	77
4.6 Constructivistic Overview of the Researcher's Analysis and Process.....	79
5. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS	82
5.1 Implications to the Counseling and ESL field	82
5.2 Limitations of the Study.....	89
6. CONCLUSION.....	92
BIBLIOGRAPHY	93
APPENDICES	105
Appendix A : Purpose of Research Letter Sent by Primary Researcher to Superintendents	106
Appendix B: Informed Consent Form (Forma de Previo Consentimiento, Spanish Version): Parents and Students	107
Appendix C: Informed Consent Form: Parents and Students	109
Appendix D: Focus Group Questions: Latino Students	111
Appendix E: Focus Group Questions: European American Students	112
Appendix F: Informed Consent Form: Staff.....	113

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	<u>Page</u>
Appendix G: Counselors--Interview Questions.....	115
Appendix H: ESL Teachers--Interview Questions	116

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
1 Distribution of Latino Groups within the U.S. Total Population	8
2 Ratio of Latino Groups by Size of Household	10
3 Family Size Distribution	11
4 Distribution by Marital Status of Latino and U.S. Population	11
5 Distribution by Household Income: Latinos vs. U.S. population	12
6 U.S. and Latinos Below Poverty Level	12
7 Distribution of the Occupational Force in the Country	13
8 Gender Contrast between Latinos and U.S. Population	14
9 Characteristics of Selected Schools	48
10 Number of Latino Parents and Students Agreeing to Participate	50
11 Number of European American Parents and Students Agreeing to Participate	50
12 Gender and Ethnicity of School Counselors and Interviewees	51
13 Gender and Ethnicity of ESL Teachers and Interviewees	52

INTERDEPENDENT PERSPECTIVE OF FUNCTIONS AND RELATIONS PERCEIVED BY SCHOOL COUNSELORS, ESL TEACHERS, EUROPEAN AMERICAN, AND LATINO STUDENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Research Problem

The multicultural counseling movement grew in momentum in the '70s when some professionals in the mental health profession noticed the poor quality of services that members of minority groups were receiving (S. Sue, 1977, p.116). The terms cross-cultural or multicultural have been used to refer to counseling American minorities who were seen as culturally different. The term culturally different has led many researchers to study how certain cultures differ from the mainstream culture and how traditional counseling theories and techniques have to be adapted and improved in order to be applicable (Das, 1995).

One of the first articles written about multiculturalism was "The Culturally Encapsulated Counselor" by Wrenn (1962). This article pointed out some of the client needs and flaws in counseling services. Since then, many articles have been published addressing the need to be "culturally appropriate, culturally relevant," and "culturally sensitive" in regard to minority groups, and many techniques have been developed to counsel certain groups (Sue, 1989, 1990, 1991). Due to the fact that the Hispanic/Latino group has experienced a population explosion in recent years and is expected to keep increasing, the counseling field has placed special attention on this group (Counseling Today, August, 1997). This demographic phenomenon has been accompanied by educational, political, and social issues in light of the general population. Particular

cultural characteristics, magnified by linguistic differences, have posed a challenge to educators and school counselors. Multiple studies have pointed out the need to accommodate this particular school population if success is expected (Aguilar, 1972; Cuellar, 1980; Marín, 1991; Moyerman & Foreman, 1992; Orozco, 1993 Padilla, 1980). An in-depth analysis of the literature regarding the Hispanic-Latino population is included in the literature review section.

Proponents of multicultural counseling emphasize the need to modify therapeutic practices to reflect the Hispanic/Latino client's cultural characteristics, as well as to "promote bilingualism rather than monolingualism" (Sue, Arredondo & Davis, 1992, p.479). It has been shown that members of minority groups have shown better levels of responsiveness when culturally sensitive strategies have been utilized in counseling sessions (O'Sullivan, Peterson, Cox, & Kirkeby, 1989). Acknowledging that there is a need to keep revising standard beliefs about counseling and the Hispanic/Latino population, studies utilizing different research paradigms should be conducted in order to keep developing a rich data bank.

1.2 Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate what school counselors do with Latino students and with European American students in small / medium size middle schools in Oregon and, the interactional role of the ESL/ Bilingual staff in the student (Latino) - Counselor dyad. The intention of this study was to contribute data and findings that could enrich counseling strategies, skills, techniques, and possibly question some theoretical beliefs about counseling. This study was intended to serve as a foundation for

future studies; therefore, trends, patterns, and emerging hypotheses and questions should be pursued in order to explore all possible ramifications related to the topic.

1.3 The Researcher

Different than quantitative research in which control of extraneous variables and their unwanted effects is sought through highly structured instruments as the main source of investigation, qualitative research utilizes the researcher as the main instrument that will filter the data (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). For this reason, it is necessary to include some biographical information regarding the researcher to understand the rationale of conducting certain techniques and at the same time exposing the possibility of biases, which are always existent in any type of research.

The researcher has a combined experience of 11 years in the educational field that includes teaching, counseling and guidance at the K-12 level, and teaching and counseling at the college level. These experiences include working in a K-12 middle class environment, working in the public projects in San Juan, P.R., and college setting in both Puerto Rico and Oregon. During those years, multiple experiences based on professional growth and development of a bicultural identity has molded his views. The use of the Spanish and English languages as vehicles of communication embedded in their respective cultures for educational and counseling purposes have enriched the researcher's perspective and worldview.

Experience accumulated in the Puerto Rican educational system a traditional-Spanish method of education combined with Anglo American currents and a total

immersion in Oregon's educational systems during the last years, has provided a unique way of characterizing counseling as a powerful tool in different ethnocultural settings.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It is somewhat ambitious to define and describe the impact and complexities of the Hispanic/Latino culture in the United States of America in one section of a manuscript. In a complex society in which identifying and describing an ethnic group has become a politically correct entanglement, Latinos have not been excluded. Due to the diversity of the Latino community, especially in terms of racial composition, historically, the U.S. Census has used the term Hispanic to encapsulate members of Spanish-speaking groups regardless of racial or ethnic origin.

The term Hispanic was adopted from the term Hispanicism (españolismo) that at the same time was a reflection of the colonialism imposed by the Spanish government on the American colonies; therefore, in an effort to develop a unique identity detached from the Spanish oppression, the term Latino (Latina for female) has been used to stress roots in a language (Latin roots) as opposed to roots in a country (Spain) (Aguilar, 1972; Dana, 1993). This trend has been reflected in the counseling literature advocated by the Chicano movement (a more political description) in the South and West and the Puerto Rican movement in the East.

The existence of a general Latino population is absent from an ethnocultural point of view; instead, there are multiple groups that are distinguished by the modification of the Spanish language, distinctive culture, and unique location where they live. As a clarification note, definitions used for Latinos, in general, reflect the personalities and environments that press upon people who identify themselves as Latinos (García &

Marotta, 1997). Even in the Latino community within the counseling field it is not easy to find a consensus regarding definitions.

This lack of consensus for defining Latinos has been analyzed in the last decade by Padilla and Salgado de Snyder (1985) and Baptiste (1987). It appears that at one point researchers will have to deal with the dilemma of defining a group by the standards designated by the U.S. government and/or by the old colonialist government of Spain. The other option is to use the preferred term used by the group itself. In support of the self-identification rationale, this researcher will use the term Latino as opposed to Hispanic. Latino, as a descriptive term has more acceptance among Spanish speaking people than Hispanic. That being said, this section intends to provide demographic, geographic, immigration, educational, occupational, income, and poverty level information regarding Latinos in the U.S. In addition to this information, a historic overview of the school counseling and ESL (English as a Second Language)/bilingual programs in the U.S. will be provided.

According to the 1990 U.S. Census, Latinos are located in all areas of the country; however, this group is primarily concentrated in the Southwest and in the East, predominantly New York. Data show that 87% of the Latino population is primarily located in ten major states: Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Florida, New Jersey, New Mexico, Colorado, Texas, California, and Arizona. The Latino population within these states varies. For instance, in New York Latinos represent 12% of the total population; in Texas and California Latinos represent 25% of the total population. Another state that has a large number of Latinos is New Mexico; one third of its population has a Latino background (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). Similarly, California has almost eight

million Latinos among the general population. An element that is not considered in most studies and reports is the large number of undocumented workers that are not officially counted; however, they play an instrumental role in the socioeconomic life of the country.

Since 1980, the Latino population has increased an estimated 69% nationwide. According to the National Council of La Raza (1990), the Mexican American population alone has increased from 2.1 million to 13.3 million in the last 30 years. To create context and perspective in regard to these statistics, the United States has the fifth largest Latino population in the world. For instance, the United States has a Latino population on roughly equivalent to the combined populations of the following countries: Nicaragua, Honduras, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Panamá, El Salvador, Puerto Rico, República Dominicana, and Cuba. Theoretically, the Latino population in the United States of America has the potential to create a nation by itself as far as numbers are concerned.

Latinos are clustered in various regions of the country according to their country of origin or ethnic background. For instance, Florida is mostly populated by Cubans and South American immigrants (Bean & Tienda, 1987). On the other hand, Texas, California, Arizona, and New Mexico are highly populated by Mexican Americans (Zambrana, Silva-Palacios, & Powell, 1992). The following are distribution tables of the Latino population in regard to the total population and its own distribution by groups:

Table 1: Distribution of Latino Groups within the U.S. Total Population:

Description	Number	Percentage
Total Latino	22,354,059	100%
Mexican	13,495,938	60%
Puerto Rican	2,727,754	12%
Cuban	1,043,932	5%
Other	5,086,435	23%

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993).

The distribution of Latinos in certain regions of the country has a significant influence on services provided to this population. By way of illustration, areas that historically have had a high concentration of Latinos have developed well-established programs to serve the needs of this population; educational policies have been the product of community influence in the legislative arena. On the other hand, geographic regions that have been recently populated by Latinos do not have the same type of quality services, largely because of a lack of orchestrated efforts and influences from a well-organized Latino community.

The explosive growth of the Latino population in recent years is attributed to immigrants from Latin American countries. In fact, one third of all immigrants to the United States of America come from Latin America. To put these numbers in perspective, about one-half of the total Latino population in the states have resided in this country only 10 to 12 years; therefore, they are an extremely new population (Schick & Schick, 1991; Zambrana et al., 1992). The experience of this population has been severely affected by the legal status of most immigrants; that is, the fact that most Latin American immigrants enter this country undocumented has bound them to live invisible lifestyles. This illegal

status situation can be contrasted with legal immigrants who have work visas and as a consequence are entitled to all the benefits of the U.S. laws, as opposed to the situation of undocumented workers living at the mercy of many unscrupulous employers who exploit the situation. The acculturation process for illegal immigrants is indeed drastically different than for legal immigrants; the development of fears of deportation and injustice mark the lives of many Latinos in a different way than lives of legal immigrants (Schick & Schick, 1991).

Another phenomenon that has shaped the immigration process of Latin Americans into the United States is civil wars that many Central American countries are undergoing. For instance, many immigrants from Central America are coming from El Salvador which is enduring a civil war that has eroded its population in the last fifteen years. These immigrants are coming to the U.S. with fears and distrust toward government and institutional agencies based on their unique traumatic experiences. Different than Cubans and some Southeast Asian immigrants that were received into this country under political refugee status, Salvadorans are, for the most part, considered illegal and not protected and ineligible to receive any special benefit from the government. Similar circumstances have been experienced by some Latin American immigrants fleeing civil strife in Colombia, Perú, or Bolivia.

The Latino population is considered the fastest growing ethnic group in the nation and is expected to grow at a proportion three to five times faster than any other group (Hayes-Bautista, Shink, & Chapa, 1988; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). This growth can be attributed not only to recent immigration patterns but to the proportion of young people of childbearing age (Amaro & Russo, 1987). It is expected that the Mexican

American, Central American, and Cuban populations will experience the largest growth in numbers. If this growing trend is maintained, by the year 2,020 the Latino population should be about 15% to 17% of the total U.S. population (Schick & Schick, 1991; Amaro & Russo, 1987). Depending on immigration patterns, the average age for the Latino population should catch up with the national average; again, this will depend on the number of new immigrants that will immigrate on the next years.

At present, 75% of the Latino population is under 39 years of age; from that are 75% under 39 years of age; and 38% are under the age of 19 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). Around 7% of the Latino population is comprised of those that are above 65 years of age, in contrast to 17% of the rest of the U.S. population above 65. Gender wise, there does not appear to exist a significant difference between Latinos and the total U.S. population. For instance, the gender distribution is 49% males and 51% females for the U.S. population versus 50% males and 50% females for Latinos. In regard to family size, 65% of the Latino families have 3 or more members while 57% of the remainder of the U.S. population that have 2 children or less (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992).

Table 2: Ratio of Latino Groups by Size of Household

Number of Persons	Mexican	Puerto Rican	Cuban	Central and South American
> 2	30%	44%	52%	34%
3-5	54%	50%	45%	57%
6 +	16%	7%	3%	9%

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992).

Table 2 depicts the household type within Latino groups in the U.S.: Table 3 depicts family size and Table 4 depicts marital status, and size within Latinos and the remainder of the U.S. population by percentages:

Table 3: Family Size Distribution

Number of Persons	U.S.	Latino
< 2	57%	35%
3-5	39%	53%
> 6	4%	12%

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992)

Table 4: Distribution by Marital Status of Latino and U.S. Population

Marital Status	Latino	U.S.
Never married	33%	29%
Married	56%	58%
Widowed	4%	7%
Divorced	7%	8%

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992)

Despite the fact that many Latinos are employed in the agriculture industry, there is a tendency for this group to live in the large cities. In fact, around 90% of the Latino population are concentrated in the urban areas versus 64% of the U.S. population (Leslie

& Leitch, 1989). In addition to that, there are noteworthy differences between the average U.S. population and Latinos as far as household income is concerned. The following table illustrates these differences in percentage:

Table 5: Distribution by Household Income: Latinos vs. U.S. population

Income	U.S.	Latino
Less than \$10,000	15%	21%
\$10,000-\$24,999	27%	34%
\$25,000-\$49,000	33%	31%
\$50,000 or more	26%	15%

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992)

These statistics create a contextual effect when examined in light of the nationwide poverty level. The following distribution reflects these differences of poverty level between the average U.S. citizen and the Latino household:

Table 6: U.S. and Latinos Below Poverty Level

Poverty	U.S.	Latino	Mexican	Puerto Rican	Cuban	Central/ South American
< \$14,000	14 %	29 %	30 %	39 %	18 %	24 %

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992)

Table 6 data shows a range of intragroup differences among Latinos. For instance, Cubans have the highest income among all Latinos, while Puerto Ricans have the lowest one. Also, as a group, Latinos have a greater tendency to fall below the poverty level compared to the U.S. population. Another area that appears to be an important factor when analyzing the intercultural dynamics of the Latino population is the education factor. The term education is utilized as an equivalent to formal education according to the government parameters and not “informal sociocultural education.” It is well known that the level of formal education has played an instrumental role in the occupational force distribution in this country during the last century. This phenomenon of obtaining formal education through the established institutions is reflected on the Latino population. For instance, only half of the Latinos 25 years and older have completed high school, compared to 80% of the total population. While 21% of the total population have college degrees, only 9% of Latinos have attained college degrees. This educational phenomenon is clearly reflected on the distribution of the work force by occupational level:

Table 7: Distribution of the occupational force in the country

Description	U.S	Latino
Professional / technical	16%	6%
Administration	7%	3%
Sales	4%	4%
Service and support	32%	31%
Farm and forestry	6%	4%
Labor and crafts	35%	52%

(Garcia, 1992)

Due to the fact that many immigrant Latinos worked in labor and crafts in their native countries without the need of obtaining a college degree, the same pattern of behavior is reflected in the U.S. This lack of professional training, college education, and the fact that most Latinos immigrate to large cities where their skills may not be needed contribute to a high level of unemployment. The following table depicts a comparison between Latinos and the U.S. population in regard to unemployment by gender:

Table 8: Gender contrast between Latinos and U.S. population

Description	U.S.	Latinos
Males	7.5%	12.2%
Females	5.4%	9.8%

(García, 1992)

The level of education and sources of income seem to be closely related to the type of health care services Latinos seek. According to the Council of Scientific Affairs (1991), Latinos have different patterns of usage of health delivery systems when compared to European Americans. Latinos have a tendency to use emergency services instead of routine health care (Council of Scientific Affairs, 1991). Latinos have lower access to preventive health care, sources of health care, and related programs than the rest of the U.S. population. A common practice among Latinas is not to seek prenatal care and rely on nontraditional services or emergency services when needed. This after-the-fact reaction among Latinos aggravates their health condition and oftentimes delays the

recovery process; therefore, their hospitalizations are longer than the average U.S. population (Todd, Samaroo, & Hoffman, 1993). A health care issue that seems to be making an impact among Latinos is the level of knowledge regarding HIV and AIDS. In proportion with the rest of the U.S. population, Latinos are overrepresented among HIV infected and AIDS clients. This issue is correlated with the lack of knowledge, prevention measures, and low awareness toward sexually transmitted diseases and their consequences (Marín, 1989).

Most health services in the U.S. are obtained by way of insurance. Latinos are deprived of these services due in part to their low income and lack of high paying jobs that provide health care insurance among other benefits (Schick & Schick, 1991; Council of Scientific Affairs, 1991). Compared to the general population in the U.S., twice as many Latinos do not have medical insurance.

There is also a strong correlation between the level of English proficiency and obtaining health care benefits. According to the Council of Scientific Affairs (1991), Latinos who have a good command of the English language seek health benefits twice as frequently as those whose predominant language is Spanish. According to the findings reflected on the Hispanic Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (HHANES), one third of Latinos do not have insurance coverage (Treviño, Moyer, Valdéz, & Stroup-Benham, 1991). It would be tempting to attribute this lack of insurance coverage to cultural patterns alone; however, factors such as poverty, low educational attainment, and underemployment seem to play a vital role in the situation. According to Treviño (1991) there is a tendency for Spanish-monolingual Latinos to be twice as likely to be uninsured

as English-dominant Latinos. The tendency for Spanish-monolingual Latinos to be uninsured seems to be closely tied to the level of education.

In a study conducted 10 years ago by Malgady, Rogler, & Constantino (1987) it was found that variables such as language, acculturation levels, assessment, and treatment practices were related with the level in which Latinos sought mental health services. These findings have been found to be compatible with recent studies conducted by Rodríguez and Dutton, (1991) and Contreras and Hendrick (1996).

2.1 Language, Mental Health, and Health Education

According to the Bureau of the Census (1993) there are 17 million Spanish speaking Latinos in the U.S. and of these, 8.3 million do not speak English well or not at all. These data seem to be consistent with a previous study conducted by Ramírez (1988) in which it was found that Spanish is the most salient characteristic among Latinos. As it was pointed out earlier, Spanish monolinguals and limited English-speaking skills are elements that restrict Latinos' access to information and health benefits. Depending upon the level of language dominance and mastery, Latinos have been classified into four groups: (a) monolingual English speakers (dominance of English only), (b) English dominant bilinguals (better skilled in English than Spanish), (c) Spanish dominant bilinguals (better skilled in Spanish than English), and (d) monolingual Spanish speakers (dominance of Spanish only) (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994).

The level of literacy, that is, the ability to write and read varies among Latinos as well. Using literacy as an indicator or parameter, there appear to be four major areas with variations among them: (a) literate in English and Spanish (good mastery of both

languages), (b) literate in English only, (c) literate in Spanish only, and (d) illiterate in both Spanish and English (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). Within each of the aforementioned categories there are variants and multiple levels that make it difficult to encase individuals in them; therefore, there are not clear statistical studies with clear ratios that represent the placement of the Latino population in these categories.

Due to the high level of complexity of literacy issues and the variations within the Spanish language, that is, cultural divergences in the linguistic stems, mental health professionals have to be sensitive to these variations when delivering services to this population (Richwald, Schneider-Muñoz, & Valdéz, 1989). The inadequacy of mental health professionals to convey ideas clearly to their Latino clientele has been a major impediment as far as change of behavior and compliance is concerned. Recent studies conducted by Padilla et al. (1991) and Bamford (1991) support what has been suggested by previous studies during the 1980s in regard to quality of services to Spanish speaking clients. It is clear that the demand for Spanish speaking services is high and there are not sufficient professionals with both training in their field and Spanish proficiency to satisfy the need. Also, due to the lack of variety of research studies utilizing bilingual clientele, it is not totally clear what language should be utilized if the client is bilingual. This issue of language selection and utilization to effectively deliver services goes along with the lack of cultural and linguistic instruments developed for specific Latino subgroups (Rozensky & Gómez, 1983). The word subgroup is utilized to point out the multiplicity of variations among Latinos and not as a derogatory descriptor.

It appears that one of the most difficult scenarios for English monolingual counselors and mental health professionals is when the client is either a moderate English

speaking Latino and written illiterate or a Spanish-monolingual illiterate (written/spoken). The reasons for having difficulties with the aforementioned scenarios are obvious: lack of effective communication and retroactive feedback to ensure counseling effectiveness. A study conducted by Ortíz and Arce (1984) indicated that Spanish-monolinguals have considerable less education than their English-dominant peers. This factor limits the ability of Spanish-monolinguals to access the health system, insurance coverage, and therefore, mental health services as well. In fact, Kirkman-Liff and Mondragón (1991) found that one of the main barriers for Spanish-monolingual Latinos accessing any kind of health services in the south of Arizona was the inability to communicate effectively with the staff.

There are differences among Latinos across complicated dimensions, including but not limited to historic origin, race, cultural background, class, nationality, religion, immigration status, education, and English language proficiency. In spite of the fact that language seems to be the common denominator among Latinos in most cases, language as a variable has been neglected for years in most research studies. As a way of illustration, Kirkman-Liff and Mondragón (1991) reviewed 69 health-related articles published from 1981 to 1991 and found that none included language of interview as a variable of their study. Since then, some studies have been conducted regarding the use of the Spanish language as an important variable.

As pointed out before, there is great linguistic variety among Latinos, however, the most neglected segment of this group variation is the Spanish-monolingual. Most data regarding Latinos has been collected in English or through the use of interpreters;

however, interpreters are not always available and even fewer bilingual / bicultural professionals. As a result, distorted information is often collected when surveying or interviewing Spanish-monolingual Latinos (Kirkman-Liff & Mondragón, 1991).

According to Delgado & Estrada (1993) there are very few Latino health professionals and even fewer Latino researchers with a solid bilingual background which makes very difficult to develop Spanish-valid and reliable instruments. Similarly, if there are a limited number of Latinos in the health professional field, including mental health and related branches, the representation of Latinos in higher levels with an interest in policy development is even lower (Marín, Amaro, Eisenberg, & Opava-Stitzer, 1993).

Among the most difficult tasks to accomplish in research is survey translation. The difficulty not only results from the translation process -- that is, grammar, syntax, and punctuation -- but on the norming process in which meaning and content should match the original version. This process constitutes an intellectual and culturally-sensitive challenge. One of the most complex challenges when constructing surveys and research tools is the avoidance of literal translations which tend to be poor research tools. In order to minimize literal translations when constructing research tools in several languages, translation techniques ought to be embedded in cross-cultural principles and not merely in linguistic rules (Brislin, 1970; Marín, & Marín, 1991). The integration of cross-cultural principles in surveys and in any type of research provides a cultural blanket of sensitivity, especially when dealing with multiple groups within one ethnic category. Being sensitive to intracultural differences within the Latino group enhances the possibility of developing valid and reliable research studies, consequently, more suitable applications (Hendrickson

et al., 1989). Congruent with the statement pointed out above, the Surgeon General's National Hispanic Health Initiative (Todos, 1993) indicated that if Latinos are not actively recruited into health related fields and higher education, low progress will be made in the development of culturally sensitive research and services for the Latino population.

Frequently a lack of Spanish skills hampers a healthy client-professional interaction. The first step to be taken by a mental health professional is to do an intake interview. This intake interview could range from obtaining the health history up to the educational and social history which happen to be the bases for diagnosis, planning, and possible avenues of treatment. If the professional lacks Spanish skills and is dealing with a Spanish-monolingual client, there is a high probability that the information is invalid or inaccurate due to inarticulateness of the client to depict the concerns. As a consequence, the interventions could be erroneous or even if the professional was accurate in the diagnosis, compliance of treatment by the client cannot be ensured (Poma, 1983). Research has reflected that Spanish-speaking clients treated by Spanish-speaking professionals were more inclined to comply with treatment than those treated by non-Spanish speakers (Seijo, Gómez, and Freidenberg, 1991).

Researchers in the mental health field have found that Spanish-speaking monolinguals tend to underutilize mental health services when compared to European Americans and African Americans. This issue is aggravated by the lack of mental health bilingual professionals (Padgett, Patrick, Burns, & Schlesinger, 1994; Malgady, Rogler, & Constantino, 1987). Due to the fact that individuals are able to express more accurately their experiences in their native language, psychological and psychiatric interviews should be conducted in the native language in order to avoid psychopathologic labels that could

be linguistic and cultural misconceptions (Flaskerud & Hu, 1992; Padilla et al., 1991). A classic illustration to support the previous statement is when a mental health clinician labels a client as being emotionally detached, resistant, and unmotivated to work with deep issues, when in truth the client is unable to express emotions in an uncontextualized linguistic vehicle. In a study conducted by Gutfreund (1990), Spanish-monolingual clients scored higher levels of depression and anxiety when the assessment was conducted in their native Spanish. There is also an inclination to render incorrect diagnoses when poor vocabulary, long pauses, and poor conceptualization of scenarios are seen in Spanish-bilingual clients (Bamford, 1991).

Limited representation of bilingual professionals in the mental health field conducting research to advance the quality of services rendered to bilingual clients has retarded the process of developing good assessment tools linking linguistic skills and psychopathology (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). If counselors are said to be “talking therapists,” then, the most precious tool that counselors rely on is language. If this linguistic tool is absent or not properly attuned with the client’s contextual reality and experience, the counselor is basically ineffective. An illustration of not being properly attuned is when the counselor possesses limited Spanish skills and devotes all the energy to decipher the meaning of the content and presenting problem according to the verbal input, then, disregards non-verbal communications (Bamford, 1991).

Bilingual clients differ from Spanish-monolingual clients in many areas that should be carefully considered during therapeutic treatment. This position is based on a detached cognitive position that decontextualizes the linguistic experience. Daily experiences tend to be stored in the brain according to the linguistic and cultural filter in which the

experience happened in relation to time. In other words, deep emotions and feelings are attached to early experiences based in the language that they were experienced (Marcos, 1979). A monolingual is restricted to use one vehicle to express emotions, however, a bilingual client may have the predicament of using both languages interchangeably due to the fact that these experiences happened in different contexts with different linguistic bases. This bilingual issue adds even more complexity to the counselor-client-assessment equation.

Substantial evidence exists indicating that Spanish-monolingual clients tend to drop earlier from treatment when seen by English-monolingual counselors than when seen by bilingual counselors (Laval, Gómez, & Ruíz, 1990). An outcome study conducted by O'Sullivan & Lasso (1992) showed that Spanish-monolingual clients seen by bilingual-Latino counselors remained in treatment longer than Spanish-monolingual clients seen by non-Latino English-monolingual counselors. According to the authors the reason for dropping out of treatment was not race but language.

The implications regarding the importance of language and the need to assess and treat clients in their native Spanish language triggered the attention of the American Public Health Association, stimulating the development of linguistically sensitive services for Spanish-monolingual clients (Padilla et al., 1991). This awareness stimulated interest in actively recruiting bilingual Latino professionals and training established staff in Spanish (American Public Health Association, 1991). In order to close the linguistic gap and improve the quality of services for monolingual Latinos in mental health agencies, community agencies, and schools, various measures have been recommended by Fullerton, Wallace, & Concha-García, (1993). An important aspect to be considered is unidiomatic

written translations. A written text could be translated into Spanish and in theory is readable; however, the translation may lack idiomatic expressions used by the community lowering the possibility of the original desired impact. As a result, the written communication may not be taken seriously by the readers (Fullerton, Wallace, & Concha-García, 1993). Translating material from one language to another constitutes an intellectual challenge as well as a cultural responsibility. This is true when school counselors develop flyers with the intent of recruiting parents for support groups and workshops, but the result is very low attendance due to inaccurate translations.

A traditional but effective technique that is used for the translation of documents is the blind-back translation (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973). This technique uses two competent translators. One will translate the material from English to Spanish and the second will translate the Spanish document to English without reading the original. If both documents are similar in content, meaning, and cultural essence, then, the translation process was effective; otherwise, linguistic and cultural glitches were present in the translation. Blind-back translation serves as an instrument to protect the “spirit” of the original document, that is, the translated document might be correct and readable and still may not communicate what the original document intended. Similar procedures are followed when translating psychological instruments or battery tests with the difference that a panel of bilingual professionals work together as opposed to two individuals alone.

Another technique for translating written documents that can be applied to the counseling field is decentralizing. Different than the blind-back translation technique, the

translator's intent is not to maintain fidelity to either language during the translation process. In essence, when a colloquial term is found in one of the documents and does not translate well, this colloquial term is changed in the original document to another expression that could be easily translated. So both documents are altered and improved during the translation process (Brislin et al., 1973).

When counselors are dealing with massive amounts of documents to be translated into Spanish or English that could impact large communities, counties, or states, more expensive strategies are used to ensure a high quality product. A committee is created consisting of bilingual-bicultural individuals from different segments of the society such as community leaders, researchers, teachers, health care providers, and college professors to be involved in the translation of documents (Kerr & Ritchey, 1990). This panel will be composed of Latinos from various ethnic and national backgrounds. The panel will have the task of making a sensitive and inclusive document for intragroup differences among Latinos.

Due to the fact that it is difficult to determine which translation technique is superior, a multimethod approach for translation in which blind-back, decentering, and bilingual-bicultural panel has been recommended to be used for better results (Fullerton et al., 1993; Walker, Kerr, Pender & Sechrist, 1990). After undertaking the written communication hurdle and recruiting potential clients, difficulties are far from over for counselors. In fact, whether or not Spanish-monolingual clients were recruited through written communications, mandated by court, or sought counseling by their own initiative, effective communication poses a challenge. Considering that most counselors in agencies

and schools are English-monolinguals, interpreters are needed to establish the counseling process. Often times counselors are faced with the predicament of using relatives, sometimes children, as interpreters. Utilizing interpreters presents a complex challenge that has to be carefully considered by counselors. For instance, a mother may inhibit herself in disclosing intimate issues to her son or daughter to be interpreted for the counselor. In addition to inhibition, it is hard to ensure that a child or a relative with limited knowledge about confidentiality will keep the disclosed information within the limits of the counseling sessions (Marcos, 1979).

Finding competent translators to be used in counseling sessions as interpreters is not an easy task. The use of interpreters with minimum translation skills often leads to unwanted short cuts of verbalizations, distortions, and misunderstandings (Bamford, 1991). Further, even well trained interpreters sometimes are unable to transmit all paralinguistic messages to the counselor. These paralinguistic messages may include emotional content, intonation, and subliminal linguistic sarcasms (Bamford, 1991). Even though there are no substitutes for direct communication without intermediaries, professionally trained interpreters increase the opportunity of a better outcome. These interpreters should have a bicultural-bilingual background as a fundamental base in addition to professional training in counseling terminology. Also, it is expected that these translators will abide by the counseling code of ethics (Erzinger, 1991). Acosta and Cristo (1981) developed a program for interpreters in mental health settings and found that clients expressed greater satisfaction working with those formally trained than with those without training. On the other hand, in the same study, mental health counselors

manifested some degree of discomfort and ineffectiveness during sessions. It seems that getting access to filtered information, regardless of the quality of the interpreter, posed an uncomfortable element for mental health counselors. Interestingly, it appears that there is a high degree of compatibility between the counselor and client feelings toward the relationship. Both client and counselor appear to have difficulties developing a close relationship due to the hurdles of translation.

In harmony with the findings of Bamford (1991) and Acosta and Cristo (1981) a competent interpreter should have the following skills: (a) knowledge of ethics and confidentiality issues; (b) knowledge of school, psychological, and basic medical terminology; (c) interpersonal relations; (d) knowledge and awareness of Latino intragroup cultural differences; and (e) literacy in both English and Spanish. It is clear that being a native Spanish speaker does not give an automatic credential to an individual to serve as an interpreter during counseling sessions. Being bilingual and bicultural are just the basic benchmarks expected to have in order to be a proficient interpreter, the remaining characteristics are acquired through professional training.

The predominant characteristic that fuses together Latinos around the globe is the use of the Spanish language. Despite the differences in ethnicity and national origin, the Spanish language has served as a catalytic element fusing native cultures and indigenous tongues with the Spanish European culture. The Spanish language varies according to the region, country, and ethnic history that helped mold it. According to Keller (1983) Standard Spanish is the variety with no foreign interference, colloquialisms, and regionalisms from specific regions of a country. This Standard Spanish is also known as

broadcaste Spanish and is spoken by educated people from any Spanish speaking country. Due to the fact that this Standard Spanish operates from a common core base, Latinos from every country regardless of the ethnic background can communicate effectively with each other. The use of Standard Spanish has been used effectively by the television and radio enterprises that broadcaste a diversity of Spanish programs across Latin America, Spain, and the United States (Weller, 1983). Also, artists have exploited the versatility of the Standard Spanish by marketing ethnically generic songs across the Americas and Europe for the benefit of Spanish speakers. According to Treviño, Moyer, Valdéz, and Stroup-Benham, (1991) the Hispanic Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (HHANES) reflected that the best method for effective communication should be based on the use of Standard Spanish without the use of regionalism that could confuse the client. As an illustration, the word *guagua* means bus to a Caribbean Latino and *baby* for a Chilean. There are many other words and phrases that used in the wrong setting and time might cause an antagonistic reaction or could be rude to the client (Treviño, 1985).

To avoid miscommunications during interactions within heterogeneous groups of Latino background, be it spoken or written, Standard Spanish should be used. On the other hand, if the intent is to create a comfortable atmosphere for the client by using regionalisms and colloquialisms during counseling sessions, a constant feedback process ought to be used in order to ensure that the right message has been delivered (Clemente, 1997). Similarly, when writing documents for Latino populations with diverse backgrounds, the best strategy is to put in parenthesis various words with the same meaning according to the region of origin (Treviño, 1985).

As any other language, Spanish is not stagnant and is constantly changing depending upon the context where it has been used and the ethnic background of the speakers (Fullerton et al., 1993). For instance, the Spanish used by Latinos/Chicanos in the East Los Angeles area has unique particularities that make it different from the Spanish spoken in the New York area by Caribbean Latinos. Although the common core for the Spanish language is the same in both places, the ethnohistory and contextual geography of New York and California make the Spanish variances unique.

Psycholinguistic instruments should be carefully used due to the ethnohistorical and literacy differences among Latinos. It is possible that a client has extremely limited reading and writing skills or that is basically illiterate; therefore, if an extremely complicated instrument is used to evaluate a client, the possibility of obtaining a biased result may occur. To complicate matters further, it is possible that a Latino client might feel overpowered and ashamed about his/her illiteracy (Richwald, Schneider-Muñoz, 1989). If counselors expect to work with a large Latino population using written instruments, it is recommended that pilots tests be performed with similar populations in order to assess the readability of the material (Robin, 1989; Rodríguez Diéguez, 1989). Alternative measures to be used instead of written material are the use of pictorial symbols, pictures, and videos. These results can be triangulated with clinical notes written by the counselor.

2.2 English as a Second Language and Bilingual Programs

All elementary and secondary school students in the next century will be facing one of the most challenging events in the United States history, that is, a multicultural and

multilingual society (McLaughlin, 1992). To achieve their career, social, and interpersonal goals it is expected that every individual would be capable of communicating skillfully with this diverse community. The primary goal for the education system is to prepare academically and socially all individuals to be effective contributors in society.

Furthermore, this general goal includes students whose native language is not English (McKeon, 1994). The goal of educating students whose primary language is not English has relied mostly upon the shoulders of English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual programs. Although the multiplicity of content-oriented courses are taught by other teachers and programs, the ESL and bilingual programs have had the task of serving as a transitional vehicle to accommodate the needs of limited English proficiency students (LEP) or English speakers of other languages (ESOL).

According to Collier (1995a) in the last 10 years the number of students who speak languages other than English at home has increased by 69%. Also, in 1993 English language learners in U.S. public schools numbered almost 3 million (Collier, 1995b). This trend of multilingualism is consistent with the flow of immigrants from non-European cultures with diverse traditions, races, ethnic backgrounds, political experiences, educational backgrounds, and world views (García, 1994). This diversity represented in their cultures is clearly reflected in the levels of language proficiency of these students. Many ESOL students came recently to this country with limited to no previous exposure to English and limited formal schooling; on the other hand, others came with formal education and previous exposure to the language. Also, other ESOL students are members of ethnolinguistic minorities that have been established in this country long before the U.S. was formed as the nation that we know (Crawford, 1992). Consequently

the heterogeneity of ESOL students makes the ESL panorama one of many challenges and complexities.

According to the ESL standards for Pre-K-12 students (1997) there are a number of basic principles on which national ESL programs rest that provide an educational rationale for their implementation and utilization. These principles are: (a) language as communication; (b) language learning through meaningful and significant use; (c) the individual and societal value of bi- and multilingualism; (d) the role of ESOL students' native languages in their English language and general academic development; (e) cultural, social, and cognitive processes in language and academic development; and (f) assessment that respects language and cultural diversity.

The development of ESL standards is important because they fill a gap that has been ignored in most content oriented courses in which mastery of the English language is assumed in order to perform in the area (Christian, 1995). In sum, ESL programs have the task to serve as a linguistic bridge to target and transport knowledge. The main difference between ESL and bilingual programs is that the latter seeks to integrate mainstream students with respect to teaching in other languages and carries a more voluntary character than ESL programs. In fact, political convolutions surround both programs for the competition of federal funding. Due to the fact that the U.S. had a monolingual approach to education for years based in a monocultural perspective, and considering the fact that biculturalism and bilingualism were seen as deficits in search of Americanization, ESL and bilingual programs have battled for years against this agenda. Thus, there are some traditional myths surrounding these programs that have crippled their image. Among those myths are the following: (a) Myth: Non-English speakers (ESOL

students) learn the language simply by being exposed to it and surrounded by native English speakers. Fact: Although being exposed and “immersed” in an English speaking environment accelerates the process, learning a language in all the areas (writing, listening, speaking, and reading) does take a lot of intensive hard work and a cognitive and affective disposition. (b) Myth: If ESOL learners are able to understand and maintain a conversation, then, they have mastered the language. Fact: Mastering a language in all the areas takes from six to nine years. After that time, academic parity could be achieved with respect to native English speakers. In fact, school age students that have participated in carefully designed ESL programs have stayed longer in school than non-participants. (c) Myth: When the first European immigrants started populating the U.S., they learned English and integrated easily to the system without the need of any special programs. Fact: It has been demonstrated that many children during the first years of the European immigration either did not go to school at all or dropped out to obtain jobs that did not require formal education. Contrary to those days, our work force is highly specialized and requires highly sophisticated communication skills plus content expertise. Obtaining a high school diploma does not ensure a job in the market. (d) Myth: Learning more than one language at the same time might cause confusion and eventual mediocrity in both. Fact: There is no research evidence to support that the brain cannot handle simultaneous multiple language acquisition; moreover, the average European citizen speaks two or three languages (Christian, 1995).

Opponents of ESL and bilingual programs carry the fear that the national language --English-- may get debilitated and ultimately lost. It seems that linguistic fears

are cemented in cultural and xenophobic fears. On the contrary, ESL programs seek the integration of ESOL students into the linguistic mainstream. In essence, ESL and bilingual programs promote bilingualism and biculturalism based on the fact that these students are interacting in an ever expanding international community with limited boundaries (Pease-Alvarez & Hakuta, 1992). The idea is not to replace one language for another, but to keep the native language and use it as a transitional vehicle to learn English. There are multiple principles based on research and theory about the nature of language learning, pedagogy, and human development that serve as an operational foundation for ESL programs. For instance, language is a dynamic and functional entity based on cultural learning (Jacob & Jordan, 1993). The classic approach to language learning was based on the mastery of the elements such as spelling, vocabulary, and grammar as the ultimate goal. However, recent research argues that if the oral and written language is a tool used by people to interact with others, learn about the world (context), express themselves, and meet their needs, then, a language should be learned based on its functionality and practicality first, and later the mechanics of it can be understood (Jacob & Jordan, 1993).

Languages are not monolithic entities but dynamic ones capable of changing and adapting to multiple sociocultural niches. It is important to recognize that every language in a region has its own particularities based on historical events that makes out of it a legitimate vehicle of communication (Flores, 1996). Among others, language varieties are a reflection of values, norms, and social rules. If a language carries these aspects, then, learning a new language is a process of learning a new culture. Another precept that serves as an underlying foundation of ESL programs is that language acquisition is a long-

term process. Language acquisition occurs through a developmental stage process, thus, it means that every individual will go through different learning stages at different rates influenced by factors such as educational background, first language background, learning style, cognitive style, motivation, and personality (McLaughlin, 1992).

Another basic principle defended by ESL advocates is that literacy in the native language correlates positively with the acquisition of literacy in a second language (McLaughlin, 1992). Also, academic instruction in the ESOL student's native language facilitates learning of academic content in other areas combined with English, instead of using English only as a teaching vehicle to present new content material in different courses. ESOL students who are literate in their native language know that they can use written forms of language to learn more about the world, to gather information, to establish relationships with others, and to explore views and opinions from multiple sources. For ESOL students who are literate in their native language it could be frustrating to deal with new content material that could have been easily dealt with in their language but seems harder due to the language barrier (Christian, 1995).

The language acquisition hypothesis states that we have two different and independent ways of developing ability in second languages. We can acquire and we can learn. Acquisition is defined as the process children use to acquire a first language (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). The acquisition process is subconscious and usually we are not aware of the absorption of the language. The tendency is to think that a good conversation is happening or that an interesting book or magazine has been read; therefore, there is not awareness that something has been acquired, then, the knowledge

itself is subconscious. As a way of illustration, native speakers do not always know the rules of their language consciously, but know when something sounds awkward or it is written incorrectly. This is called tacit knowledge of the native speaker (Collier, 1987). Different than the unconscious characteristic of acquiring a language, learning is defined as conscious, or explicit knowledge. Learning is developed by formal instruction and is thought to be aided by the practice of error correction. Error correction is the utilization and application of grammar and linguistic rules to refine the language (McLaughlin, 1992).

The debate regarding the investment of tax payer's money into the learning phase for immigrants has brought forth a great many political frictions. In order to understand the educational policies it is vital to understand the political and economic frame underlying them. Educational programs cannot be analyzed in a vacuum because any educational policy is dependent on the state and federal budgets that at the same time are a reflection of the economic environment (Crawford, 1992). ESL programs are not excluded from this political and economic entanglement. According to McLaren (1989) education has not been directed primarily at vocational training or personal growth and development. Rather, it has stressed behaviors and attitudes appropriate to good citizenship and moral behavior, largely as these are perceived by the elites of the society.

Promotion of certain type of behaviors has been recommended to minority groups and immigrants as the right way to be successful. Among these behaviors are: docility, discipline, time-management, honesty, and respect of others. These behaviors are a good match for such lower-paid jobs as industrial or service jobs (Tierney, 1993). On the other hand, there is another set of skills that is encouraged to be taught to certain segments of the population. Some of these are verbal and analytical skills, critical thinking, and

discursive thought and writing. Obviously, these skills are needed to obtain management positions. It is clear that being literate and having a command of a language allows people to analyze and explore issues and situations from different angles. Conversely, maintaining illiteracy to non-English speaking immigrants by impeding access to the English language falls in the paradigm that perpetuates classism and elitism (Darder, 1991). In other words, literacy has been used to solidify the social hierarchy, empower elites, and ensure that people lower in the hierarchy accept the values, norms, and beliefs of the elites (Darder, 1991). Funds allocated for ESL/bilingual programs as well as federal policies for the education of linguistic minorities pose a challenge for those involved in education.

2.3 School Counseling -- Historic Overview

In order to talk about issues related to the counseling field and more specifically regarding school counselors, it is instrumental to provide a contextual base depicting some historic trends and decisive events that shaped the counseling profession. Although it is virtually impossible to include every possible historic event regarding the counseling profession in this section, major episodes, authors, and trends that shaped the field are included. Individuals from early civilizations had the need to seek advice and counsel from individuals believed to possess superior knowledge, insights, and experiences. This phenomenon is characteristic of any culture and society regardless of its geographical position.

Initially, representatives from the gods, priests, and monks were sought for counsel and advice when decisions were to be made. The assumption was that those leaders had

spiritual wisdom and direct communication with the forces from beyond that would lead them to offer accurate advice. The Greek civilization made a shift in the reasoning for seeking advice, that is, instead of assuming that advice was sought because an individual had spiritual connections with the gods, advice was sought because the person had accumulated knowledge that would lead to right answers. Furthermore, Plato and Aristotle started depositing the responsibility on the individual declaring that factors such as education, upbringing, and inheritance would determine the development of the person. These ideas brought a humanistic dimension to the advising and counseling dynamics.

Modern Christianity in Europe - 16th and 17th century- contributed with the development of books written by the clergy with a description of the most important occupations, how to obtain training, and who was the most fit for particular occupations. Although Rene Descartes (1596-1650) has been mostly known by his contributions to the mathematics field, he began studying the relationship between an organism's reaction toward various stimuli and its connection to behavior (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981). These preliminary studies set a precedent for future scientific studies in modern psychology. Historically, patients with mental diseases were ignored or isolated in their societal context, often believed to be spiritually possessed by diabolical forces. As medicinal discoveries advanced, mental diseases began to be related with organic origins, therefore, deficiencies that could be cured. However, only the wealthiest could afford the visits and treatment of a physician at home. Later, mental asylums were developed with the purpose of keeping the society safe from mentally disturbed individuals. Furthermore, horrendous experiments were conducted in the name of advancement of science.

In the United States of America during the 19th century, Horace Mann -- Massachusetts Board of Education- set a precedent in expressing interest in educating poor, blind, deaf, and mute people in order to reform his contemporary society. His revolutionary ideas provided a base for an egalitarian system for accessing education and acknowledged the value of each individual. In Europe, at the end of the 19th century, Wilhem Wundt opened the Psychological Institute at the University of Leipzig, creating a systematic inquiry into human behavior and separating the psychology field from physiology. After the breakthrough of Wundt in the psychology field, the next 100 years were characterized by specialization and training on specific areas of the psychology field. Physicians extrapolated the medical model into the psychology field advocating an organic treatment to relieve mental diseases. This inclination created the psychiatry branch within the medical field (Ridley, 1995).

The American educational system and the counseling and guidance field interacted in such a way that each other benefited from its advances. The Boston Vocational Bureau organized by Frank Parson in 1908 provided vocational assistance to young people and trained teachers to serve as vocational counselors. These teachers were trained to help students select a vocational career and school and make the transition from school to work.

In 1909, a year after the organization of the Boston Vocational Bureau, Parson published his findings and recommendations discussing the role, functions, and techniques used by vocational counselors and how these could help people selecting a vocation. This publication proved to be a landmark production in the counseling field; he divided his work in three different areas: industrial investigation, personal investigation, and the

organization and the work. In fact, with the exception of some cultural biases and limitations based on the context and time, Parson's publication is still a solid publication with useful information. He is being regarded as the father of the counseling and guidance profession (Parson, 1909). By 1913, the profession had enough members to create a national organization with a guidance journal titled Vocational Guidance.

For over 50 years the term guidance was associated with vocational school placement. Currently the term is seldom used and has been substituted by *counseling*. Although the vocational movement was associated with vocational orientation of young people, later its applications were transferred to other educational fields. There were four other pioneers who made a contribution to the guidance field that deserve to be mentioned in order to have the whole picture of the counseling and guidance movement. These contributors were: Jessie B. Davis, Anna Y. Reed, Eli W. Weaver, and David S. Hill (Rockwell & Rothney, 1961). Davis's beliefs were cemented in the need to preach to students about the moral value of hard work, ambition, honesty, and the development of a positive character if a person was planning to enter the business world. Similar to Davis's ideas, Anna Reed believed in a close relationship between schools and the business world and the need to evaluate individuals according to the quality of the product.

Eli Weaver established guidance committees in the New York high schools in order to explore the capabilities of the student body and accommodate their needs according to the needs of the business market (Rockwell & Rothney, 1961). David S. Hill worked as a researcher in the New Orleans school system and applied scientific methods to study people. He believed in the principle of individual differences and the need to

establish and maintain a diversified curriculum in order to have a solid educational system. The 20th century was characterized by the influence of standardized tests, group-administered psychological tests and the mental health movement. The French psychologist Alfred Binet and his associate Theodore Simon developed the first intelligence test in 1905. It was translated and introduced into the United States in 1916.

Later, during the initiation of the World War I, the U.S. armed forces needed a test to be administered to draftees in order to measure their capabilities, therefore, the Army Alpha Test was developed and administered to thousands of draftees (Gibson & Mitchell, 1977). Basic principles of standardized examination were extrapolated into the educational field with the idea to accelerate assessment procedures.

The guidance movement of the '20s in the schools had a remedial stigma attached to it, that is, guidance counselors were sought to remediate educational and behavioral deficiencies and to perform semi-administrative tasks. An emerging interest for expanding the guidance movement beyond the vocational and high school level grew out of the idea that elementary schools were an ideal stage to target, explore, and treat educational and behavioral deficiencies before the student moved into the high school level (Faust, 1968).

By 1935 the New York State Teacher Association published a report with some restlessness about the guidance movement and the need to established defined parameters different than those for the teachers. At that time, guidance was defined as “ the process of assisting individuals in making life adjustments being needed in the home, school, community, and in all other phases of the individual’s environment” (p.10).

During the 1930s and 1940s the trait-factor approach gained popularity and support from teachers and guidance counselors as well. Writings of Williamson (1939),

How to Counsel Students: A Manual of Techniques for Clinical Counselors established the paradigm to be followed. According to Williamson “you are trying to improve your understanding by using data with a smaller probable error of estimate, such as test data—instead of judgments, which has a much larger probable error of estimate: variability” (Ewing, 1975, p.84).

At the end of the World War II the United States appeared to acquire new vitality and a fresher vision in regard to the counseling and guidance movement. In 1942, Carl R. Rogers wrote a book titled *Counseling and Psychotherapy* and later was refined and reinforced by another titled *Client-Centered Therapy* (1951). This new theory challenged the established, mostly European-oriented theories and was a strong influence in school and non-school settings. Roger’s approach had a humanistic base depositing the responsibility on the client as opposed to the counselor. This client-centered theory posed a challenge for counselors that had relied for years in an expert-theory approach and in standardized tests. Rogers revolutionized the field because he presented the counselor and the client as equals, furthermore, the client was seen as a source of potential and growth (Rogers, 1951). During the 1940s, group counseling theories emerged and were integrated to the counselor’s repertoire. This group counseling approach added a new dimension to the level of interventions made by the guidance counselors in school settings. As the student population increased and federal and state funds decreased, then, fewer guidance counselors were assigned per school and group counseling techniques became a useful tool having the characteristic of impacting more students at once.

In 1957, the successful launching of the first earth satellite, Sputnik I, created an indirect boost to the guidance and counseling movement in the U.S. As a counteraction --

through legislation -- the National Defense Education Act was established in 1958. This legislative piece enabled the education department to recruit and train potential guidance counselors with the task of identifying students with talent in the mathematics and science areas through massive testing and interviews. This explosive growth and interest in the counseling and guidance profession stimulated the need for developing standards and certifications in the field (Gibson & Higgins, 1966). In 1964, the American School Counselors Association (ASCA) approved the "Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors." This document included the role and function of the school counselor, furthermore, it was created in conjunction with teachers, school administrators, and other education related professionals.

In spite of the fact that until the 1970s the profession experienced a growth phase, Wrenn (1962) published a landmark article entitled "The Encapsulated Counselor" in which he pointed out biases in the counselor's perspective regarding culture and stereotypes. Since that moment and tied with the Civil Rights Movement, the counseling profession has undergone a constant revision of cultural standards and expectations vis a vis diverse populations and to male European American counselors. In 1973, the Report of the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education included multiple recommendations for the improvement of secondary education, influencing directly the school counselor. During the 70s and 80s school counseling programs were based on data-based findings and responded to the immediate and particular needs of each educational setting.

A phenomenon experienced by the counseling profession in general is the concept of diversification and specialization. In a nutshell, counseling is defined as a

process that facilitates growth and development for human beings (Corey, 1991).

Although the counseling movement initiated in school settings, psychology, and social work made a strong influence in the field. This phenomenon can be seen in the variety of counseling programs and specialties existent today. According to Collison and Garfield (1996) there is an extensive range of careers within the counseling field. As a way of illustration and to show how diversified the counseling field has become, this is a list of some careers within the counseling field: (1) student affairs and higher education (a) academic support services and academic advising, (b) admission and registration, (c) career development and student employment services, (d) commuter programs and off-campus housing, (e) counseling and testing, (f) disability support services, (g) financial aid, (h) residence life and housing, (2) business and industry (a) employment recruiters and interviewers, (b) employee service managers, (c) training specialists, (d) organizational consultants (3) private practice (a) clinical, (4) federal and state agencies (a) employment counselor, (b) correction counselor, (c) youth counselor, (d) vocational rehabilitation, (e) probation officer, (f) military education counselor (5) health care facilities (6) residential treatment and community programs (Collison & Garfield, 1996).

It is clear that the counseling and guidance field has evolved into many convoluted specialized areas. This tendency to evolve into specializations tends to follow the social, educational, and economic evolution of its surroundings. In other words, like any other profession, the counseling profession has been adapting and molding to the needs of the people and has not remained stagnant.

The school counseling profession has also undergone many changes as a result of school reforms. Some factors that have influenced the school counseling profession are

reduced funding, legislated reform, and changing student populations (Collison & Garfield, 1996). In order to keep up with societal changes, the school counselor ought to be an active agent of change capable of impacting multiple areas of the educational community, as opposed to adopt a reactive-passive stance. In order to be a competent school counselor it is expected that the counselor performs the following roles and functions: (a) program development, (b) counseling, (c) pupil appraisal (assessment), (d) placement, (e) referral, (f) parent help, (g) staff consulting, (h) research, and (i) public relations (Collison & Garfield, 1996).

As reflected in school counseling history, there is not evidence of a formal cooperative alliance between ESL/bilingual programs and the counseling field. No examples could be found in the literature of well-orchestrated counselor training programs that utilized a psychobilingual base.

2.4 Definitional Trends

In order to address multicultural issues with a clear understanding of underlying elements it is necessary to define some basic terms that will be used regularly on this paper. One of the most stressed terms in the multicultural counseling literature is the word *assumption*. An assumption is a concept or statement accepted as truth or fact without proof or demonstration. Following the same line and intimately related to an assumption is a *bias*. A bias is a mental leaning, inclination or partiality toward an issue, experience, individual or group. As a result of biases, *prejudices* are constructed. A prejudice is a judgment or opinion formed before the facts are known; a preconceived

notion. Based on biases and prejudices, *stereotypes* are established. A stereotype is a group bias or mental group picture. Again, stereotypes lack facts based opinions.

The term Latino is not a *race* but a group of individuals sharing cultural similarities. A race is a group of humankind distinguished by hair (color and texture), color of skin, eyes and stature. In spite of the fact that the Latino culture is diverse in nature, several cultural characteristics fuse the groups together. A *culture* is encompassed by the ideas, customs, skills, arts, values, and beliefs of a given people and the cumulative learning of one's upbringing, religion, heritage, and place of origin. This issue will be discussed in detail in another section of the paper stressing the importance of the Latino culture and the diversity within. *Diversity* is all the qualities and characteristics that make individuals different and unique, yet at the same time serve as commonalities. Intimately related with race and culture is the term *ethnicity*.

In fact, a culture is part of the ethnicity of a group. *Ethnicity* is the division of humankind as distinguished by customs, characteristics, language, common history, values, etc. The literature has been highly criticized for conducting studies from a *monocultural* perspective, this is, utilizing subjects and paradigms based on the North European culture. This trend has changed with the arrival of the multicultural movement. Monoculturalism can be defined as the understanding and operation within a single dominant culture. On the other hand, *multiculturalism* is defined as the ability of an individual or an organization to acknowledge, accept and operate within more than one culture. A multicultural society is one where the differing cultural backgrounds of the people are sought, accepted, and allowed to coexist together (integration) (Pedersen, 1985; Ponterotto, 1990; Sue, 1981).

Aspects related to language and counseling-teaching techniques are integrated in some sections of the paper. For instance, psychotherapy and bilingualism are combined to create the term *psychobilingualism*. In essence, psychobilingualism is the use of more than one language in a counseling session due to a linguistic deficiency by one of the participants; therefore, an interpreter is needed. Or, the use of two languages, interchangeable, without needing an interpreter based on the level of comfort of the client and assuming that both (client and counselor) master both languages with a certain degree of fluency (Wolman, 1973). Another term that is addressed in one of the sections of the paper is the term *bilingual coordinator*. Bilingual coordinators are mostly used in school-college settings and are intimately connected to ESOL programs, development, and implementation of bilingual support in educational settings. Bilingual coordinators serve as links between the educational system and the community, especially when advocating for an underrepresented group (Gutfreund, 1990).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Paradigm and Design

The purpose of this study is to better understand the underlying dynamics of the interactional relationship among school counselors, ESL teachers, Latino American, and European American students in selected middle schools in Oregon. In essence, the study is multidimensional in regard to what was investigated: (a) it explores the processes by which students construct meaning from their exchanges with the student population, school counselors, and ESL staff, and (b) it investigates how school counselors and ESL teachers contribute to the development of Latino students compared with European American students. Furthermore, the study is cemented in a *descriptive--grounded theory* approach in which the development of new concepts are expected to be found (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

The research design methodology consisted of a combination of individual and group focus in-depth interviews; furthermore, consistent patterns were developed by the researcher after the initial interviews. These patterns were validated and triangulated with documents of the public domain released by schools and districts. These documents consist of ethnic distribution by schools and dropout rates at the local and state level. The researcher served as an investigation tool in which his phenomenological perspectives were triangulated with the obtained data (Patton, 1990). Due to the fact that multiple participants were interviewed, similar patterns and themes recurred. The focal point was finding the unique perspectives of the participants according to the different school settings and communities in which interactions took place.

There are several assumptions that are relevant to this study that shaped the qualitative principles of the research activities. It provides a holistic view through an ethnographic approach, that is, the background and context from which the data come are important in search of the larger picture. The study was not limited to the exploration of one or two variables, but included a variety of variables. Due to the fact that in-depth interviews in various settings were combined with public documents and naturalistic observations, a multilevel data gathering style was used. The interviews and naturalistic observations were based on a phenomenological approach in which the construction of meaning and realities were given by the participant's and the researcher's perspectives (Bodgan & Biklen, 1992). Utilizing a phenomenological approach is a search for the insider's view or the "emic" perspective. Another assumption for the study is the utilization of inductive reasoning strategies in order to understand the data. In other words, the data collection effort builds theoretical categories and propositions from the body of the data. By an extensive examination of the data, similar and dissimilar patterns arise that help the refinement of emerging theoretical patterns (Courtney, 1991).

Instead of beginning the investigation with a deductive approach, that is, operational definitions embedded in theoretical principles established up front that have to be matched with the body of the data or findings, an inductive approach attempts to find a theory that explains the data (Courtney, 1991). Another assumption that serves as a research foundation for the study is the absence of variable manipulation and test treatment effects. A naturalistic inquiry and an interactive-process-oriented infrastructure should guide the discovery of constructs emerging from statements and behaviors (Wolcott, 1994).

3.2 Sample

3.2.1. Setting

Four middle schools in the state of Oregon were selected based on community size and demographic similarities. These four schools are located in small or middle size communities which have experienced a growth in the Latino population during recent years. Schools having a large diverse population that are located in major cities were not selected due to the fact that the social dynamics are different than those experienced in a small or medium size community. The selected schools have experienced a noticeable increase of the Latino population during recent years. In essence, the study is based on a *multisite* environment sharing similar characteristics.

The following table describes the selected schools; it provides information regarding grade levels, enrollment, percentage of Latino population, number of counselors, and participants.

Table 9: Characteristics of Selected Schools

School	Grades	Enrollment	% of Latinos	Number of Counselors	Participated
A	6-8	Medium	18%	1	No
B	6-8	Medium	24%	3	Yes
C	5-8	Small	29%	1	Yes
D	6-8	Small	51%	1	Yes
E	6-8	Medium	27%	2	Yes

Note: School A declined participation in the study; Small = ≤ 400 , Medium = 401-800, and Large = >801 .

3.2.2. Students

The school provided lists of students that indicated student name, grade, gender, ethnicity, and whether the student was enrolled in the ESL program. The researcher selected a total of 20--10 Latinos all of whom were enrolled in the ESL program; and 10 European Americans. The researcher selected an equal number of males and females in each group of 10. Students from grade 6, 7, 8 were included in each group. The names of the selected students were highlighted on master lists and the master lists were presented to the school counselor who then sent Informed Consent forms home with the students. From the returned forms from parents and students who agreed to participate, six students were selected for each group interview with equal numbers of males and females and equal numbers of students by grade-6, 7, and 8. Latino is used as a descriptor of ethnic origin and not race. Consistent with the review of the literature, European American will be used as a descriptor of "mainstream" students.

A total of four schools were utilized, therefore, a total of *48 students* were interviewed utilizing a focus-group format. Sampling procedures were purposeful in nature. Tables 10 and 11 depict the distribution of informed consent forms sent versus the number of those who agreed and declined to participate.

Table 10: Number of Latino Parents and Students Agreeing to Participate

School	Number of Forms Sent	Number Who Agreed	Number Who Disagreed or did not Return Form	Number Interviewed
B	10	9	1	6
C	10	8	2	6
D	10	10	0	6
E	10	9	1	6
Total	40	36	4	24

Table 11: Number of European American Parents and Students Agreeing to Participate

School	Number of Forms Sent	Number Who Agreed	Number Who Disagreed or did not Return Form	Number Interviewed
B	10	7	3	6
C	10	9	1	6
D	10	8	2	6
E	10	7	3	6
Total	40	31	9	24

3.2.3. Staff

A school counselor and an ESL instructor were interviewed in each of the four schools. Individual in-depth interviews were conducted with each of the participants. A total of 9 staff members were interviewed (5 counselors and 4 ESL instructors). As a result of one counselor interview, an additional counselor was interviewed in one of the schools to explore different views due to their ethnic differences. Sampling procedures were purposeful in nature in order to obtain richer data regarding the research question. Tables 12 and 13 depict gender and ethnicity of school counselors and ESL teachers:

Table 12: Gender and Ethnicity of School Counselors and Interviewees

School	Gender	European American Counselors per School	Latino Counselors per School	Interviewed
B	2 F--1 M	2	1	1 EA/M; 1 L/F
C	1 M	1	0	1 EA/M
D	1 F	1	0	1 EA/F
E	2 F	2	0	1 EA/F
Total	8	7	1	5

M = Masculine, F = Feminine, EA = European American, L = Latino

Table 13: Gender and Ethnicity of ESL Teachers and Interviewees

School	Gender	European American ESL Teachers per School	Latino ESL Teachers per School	Interviewed
B	2 F	0	2	1 L/F
C	1 F	1	0	1 EA/F
D	2 F	0	2	1 L/F
E	2 F	2	0	1 EA/F
Total	7	3	4	4

M = Masculine, F = Feminine, EA = European American, L = Latino

3.3 Procedures

Four middle schools were selected each with Latino enrollment between 20% and 60% reported by the Department of Education of Oregon --*Summary of Organizations, Students, and Staff*, (1997). The document includes the racial/ethnic distribution per counties, districts, and schools. Contact was initiated by the principal investigator (Dr. Brooke B. Collison) --major adviser-- by means of a letter to the Superintendent indicating the purpose of the research and introducing the researcher (See Appendix A). One of the four schools selected by the primary and secondary researcher declined to participate in the study, requiring the selection of another school. The superintendent and staff belonging to the school that declined to participate in the study did not provide the opportunity for a personal interview with the researcher; only phone and e-mail communication was established. The reason for not agreeing to participate in the study

was that the number of Latino students was not significant and that there was not a need to conduct a study on that population. The researcher then scheduled an appointment with each of the superintendents and based upon a positive response, contacted school directors, counselors, and ESL instructors. The plan for research procedures --times, potential consent form changes, and interview locations-- was accommodated to the needs of each school.

3.4 Instrumentation and Data Collection

Prior to starting the research interviews, parent-student consent forms were obtained (See Appendix B). A Spanish language version of parent-student consent forms was written and sent to Spanish speaking parents and students (See Appendix C). A focus group format was used to conduct the interviews. The researcher joined the groups as a member during the group interviews; the researcher was not removed from the group dynamics, but joined the circle and interacted in a casual way with the group members. The researcher's position as a group member is consistent with *second order of change* from a system's point of view (Slovik & Griffith, 1992).

The group of Latino students were interviewed separately from the European American students in order to explore their worldviews in a safe context without being influenced by the presence of others. A set of grounded questions (see Appendices D & E) were used as a guideline for the focus group interviews for the Latino and European American students. These were open-ended questions that lead to the discussion topics and were followed by questions formulated by the researcher as a follow-up to emerging

topics. Narrow questions in the format were avoided in order to not lead the participants in to the researcher's worldview. The purpose was to provide a high degree of flexibility to explore information from different angles (Patton, 1990). The grounded questions were not control mechanisms for the participants; the intent was to have some degree of interviewing consistency among the groups.

Two sessions were conducted; both were audio-taped and the first one was transcribed. Both sessions were scheduled to last between 30 minutes to 1 hour, depending on how much the group members elaborated on their answers. The first session was transcribed and a few days later -- maximum a week -- patterns found by the researcher were validated with the group participants in a second interview. Missing patterns and incomplete ideas phrased during the first interview were pursued during the second interview. This second interview was audio-taped but not transcribed; emerging ideas and patterns were incorporated into the pattern codes and subcodes. Due to the fact that the study was based on a multisite structure and had a large number of participants, recurrence of patterns was expected and saturation or re-occurrence occurred after the second interview (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). All the group interviews were conducted either in a conference room or a room designated by the school counselor; the sessions were conducted in the absence of school staff members to ensure privacy and confidentiality. The sessions were conducted in English and Spanish depending on the needs and level of language literacy/mastery of the students. Code switching techniques -- interchange of language use -- were used when some bilingual students decided to express their opinions utilizing different vehicles of communication. Consent letters were signed by school counselors and ESL teachers (See Appendix F). Similar to the student's focus

groups, interview procedures were discussed with school counselors and ESL teachers. The school counselor and ESL instructor of each school were interviewed utilizing an individual in-depth interview format. A set of guideline questions were utilized for the interviews. The interview questions paralleled the content and format of the student's guidelines (See Appendix G & H) but with the particularity of being relevant to their field and professional context. Following the same mechanics used with the students, the first interview was audio-taped followed by the transcription of the content and the validation of the emerging patterns a few days after -- maximum a week --. In sum, a total of 9 individual interviews (5 school counselors and 4 ESL instructors) and 8 focus group interviews (2 groups per school; 48 students) were conducted. A reflective journal with field notes was used during the research process; the researcher started recording events, behaviors, and thoughts beginning with the first telephone contact.

The reflective journal is comprised of two main aspects: descriptive and reflective (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The descriptive aspects of the notes has a description of the participants, including physical appearance, dress, mannerisms, and style of talking and acting. Reconstruction of unexpected dialogues and verbal encounters that were not officially scheduled as part of the interviews were incorporated, including words and phrases unique to the setting. A general description of physical settings including verbal sketches of the areas in order to capture the sense and image of the location where the interviews took place was included. Accounts of particular events, including who was involved, the circumstances, and the nature of the actions were incorporated in the journal.

The reflective part of the field notes includes the researcher's behavior, assumptions, and whatever else might affect the data gathering and analysis process (Bodgan & Bikelen, 1992).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Mechanics of Data Interpretation

In order to build theory, a comparative method approach based on emerging patterns was utilized (Strauss & Cobin, 1990). The method consisted of the comparison and integration of perceptions into delineated categories with field notes and other sources of data until saturation occurred. Finally, the researcher was able to conceptualize implications and recommendations that served as a foundation for theory building.

The first round of interviews were transcribed; a margin space in the transcription sheets was left for the researcher's notes, including the tentative identification of emerging patterns. A code was assigned to similar patterns in order to cluster them in categories. Every transcription was labeled including the position of the participants (teacher, counselor, student), date of the interview, and school's name. A blank space was left at the introductory part of the transcription for the researcher's notes such as description of the setting, attitudes of the participants, and dynamics that took place before, during, and after the interview that were not reflected on the audio-taped interview.

After the transcription of the interviews, a set of emerging patterns was identified; explanations and/or description of events and ideas were followed-up in the second interviewed. For the second interview, red ink was used to write validation patterns in the same set of transcriptions to avoid confusion between the first interview's codes and the second. A list of all the emerging patterns was developed by groups --counselors, ESL

teachers, and students. These initial lists included all emerging patterns by groups setting the ground for the mechanics of decodification.

Similar patterns within a particular group of interviewees were clustered into main codes and subcodes --related patterns--. After the main codes of each group were identified, similarities among group codes were catalogued. Overlapping themes were to be identified among counselors, ESL teachers, and students.

4.2 Codification of Emerging Patterns

As a clarification to the reader and based on qualitative precepts, the researcher intended to capture “partial truths” shaped by verbal evidence and visual perceptions of the participants; furthermore, this information was filtered by the researcher and molded by the language used to interpret it (Clifford and Marcus, 1986; Clifford, 1986). In order to substantiate and illustrate the assertions, the researcher used direct descriptions taken from the data. A code is supported by a brief explanation made by the researcher and occasionally substantiated by a direct quote of the participants. This way of illustrating abstract material is consistent with the formalized research approach to writing qualitative research reports used in dissertations and professional journals (Bodgan & Biklen, 1992, p.190).

4.3 Findings and Interpretation

This section consists of the list of findings and respective interpretations divided in four groups: school counselors, ESL teachers, European American, and Latino students. The findings were triangulated with various public documents in order to support the

researcher's analysis. A short constructivistic overview of the researcher's analyses and processes regarding the interviews and observations was included. In addition to the findings by groups, concurrent findings across disciplines and groups were highlighted.

4.3.1 Counselors

The following is a list of major findings found during the interviews with the counselors in four Oregon middle schools. As a result of an interview conducted in one of the schools, the need to interview a second counselor from a different ethnic background in the same school emerged to expand the perspectives of that school setting. The findings are provided along with excerpts of the transcriptions. The emerging issues or findings are not listed in order of importance.

(1) Overcrowded schools- overcrowded schools seem to be a major concern for some school counselors; as a result of school's overpopulation, excessive energy and time have to be invested to deal with behavioral dynamics. As one of the counselors pointed out:

“ . . .this school was built to have around 400 students and our population is about 620 students. . .that's not projecting that it will be going down in the future, it's expected to keep growing and we know that if we put too many rats in a cage you will have problems.”

(2) Lack of parental support- insufficient support from parents with regard to their children's education appears to draw the attention of school counselors.

According to one counselor: “lack of parenting is becoming a big point with me...

the parents don't know how to parent, that for me is a big issue. . .but not one that I've started to work with."

"Most don't have time to go to the school. . ."

(3) Isolation of ESL students from the rest of the population- almost all counselors agreed with the fact that ESL students, specifically Latinos, experience a high degree of segregation from the rest of the academic population. Some counselors indicated that: "you are dealing with ESL issues and the differences are there, the ESL students are isolated from the rest of the population. . .ahm. . .but I don't know if that is typical either. . ."

"They are segregated. . .I mean, it's appropriate for this age group that kind of thing. . .it's very. . .but even more so in the Latino kids; the Anglo kids are also segregated. . .I don't see any mixing between these two groups."

"I think it's maybe the community, there's no interaction between them. I think they hang out in separate hallways. . .so, also they are isolated in classes."

"It is certainly a separation between those two groups. . .it tends to be that those students who are in the ESL program, pretty much stick with each other and kids who speak English only, stick with each other."

(4) Minimal counselor's involvement with ESL staff and students- with the exception of one counselor, absence of communication and collaboration between school counselors and ESL staff was evident. Some counselors

stated: “. . .but my contact with her (ESL teacher) is like a regular teacher. She never refers ESL students to me.”

“Main reasons for contact is finding appropriate classroom placement for students. But I don’t get too involved with the Hispanic students because of the language barrier.”

“I don’t get involved; ESL staff pretty much take care of the student’s issues: rarely they consult.”

(5) Difficulty to differentiate if origin of frictions among European American and Latinos are based on race, language, or culture -a clear delineation of the construct or variable responsible for the isolation experienced by Latino students is blurred, then, it seems that a combination of variables makes it confusing for school counselors. Some counselors said: “Language is a big issue. . .and it will be interesting to see how much it has to do with values and cultural differences; that’s not as easy to see as language.”

“There’s some racism in here like in any other place,. . .but I don’t think it’s a racial issue. . . I don’t know if they feel that is a product of race or not, but I know it is very confusing to them.”

(6) TAG (Talented and Gifted) referrals by teachers to school counselors- a plan to identify potential TAG children among ESL groups by means of non-traditional methods of evaluation does not appear to be implemented in any of the schools; furthermore, does not appear to be part of school counselor’s agendas. It seems that the main reasons for referring students to school counselors are based on the need to intervene with behavioral situations, schedule of classes, and academic

deficiencies. Most of these referrals carry a remedial approach as opposed to a proactive motivation originated by the teacher or the school counselor. Unless asked about it, none of the counselors mentioned the possibility of having TAG (Talented and Gifted) students among the LEP (Limited English Proficiency) students belonging to the ESL program. Various counselors stated: "Perhaps there are 1 or 2 TAGS. . .no Spanish speakers, but with Hispanic backgrounds. . ." "There are no TAG Hispanics, . . .as far as I know." ". . .a handful of TAG Hispanics have been identified."

When counselors made reference to the Hispanic label, they were referring to Hispanic bilingual children and not to ESL Mexican students.

(7) Caste system among Latino students- some counselors voiced their concerns regarding the existence of a caste system among Mexican students. Although oppressive in nature and an obstacle to educational achievement and adaptation, none of the counselors have devised and implemented a plan to ease those intra-group differences. These are some of the excerpts of the interviews: "The kids that are in here for like eight years don't have nothing to do with the new comers who don't speak English yet. . . They distance themselves, they don't want to be associated with the new, . . .solely Spanish speaking kids."

"I know that at the beginning of the school year the group that is most recent from Mexico got a lot of abuse. Kids would walk by them and called them cockroaches, that kind of things and it seems socioeconomic, because they are lower in the scale. . ."

(8) Utilization of a bilingual-bicultural home school consultant as a school counselor- as an alternative measure and in order to meet the needs of the Latino population in one of the schools, a home school consultant has been serving as a link between the Latino students and their families, ESL teachers, and school. Although the researcher planned to interview the home school consultant, the person was absent at the time of the interviews. Various excerpts from the ESL teacher referring to the home school consultant's responsibilities are included in the ESL section of the results.

(9) Need of Spanish speaking counselors- most counselors agreed on the linguistic disparity and difficulties in establishing a counseling relationship with monolingual Spanish speakers emphasized the need for bilingual counselors capable of meeting the needs of Latino students. Several counselors said: "the majority of the issues are around family and behavior with an ESL student because of the language. It's very hard to find a Spanish speaking certified counselor."

"Well, I understand that I'm in a disadvantage because of the linguistic limitations, at least, I'm trying my best."

The issue does not lie in the need of Spanish speakers who can meet the needs of the Spanish speaking population, but in the need to find trained bilingual counselors with counseling and bilingual skills. Those counselors who have been in the field for less than 5 years, agreed upon the need to either strengthen their Spanish skills and/or to take conversational Spanish courses.

(10) Importance and characteristics of interpreters during counseling sessions-

lacking bilingual skills, some counselors have used the services of bilingual individuals to interpret counseling sessions to convey the message to the students or relatives. These are some of the interview excerpts reflecting what is necessary in an effective interpreter and the degree of importance of such individuals: "I have a couple of resources that I have used; I have used a woman that is fluent in both languages and is Hispanic, . . . they should be non-family members and neutral and preferably those with higher levels of academic education."

" . . . and the secretary that was assigned to the counselors was a native speaker, she was absolutely marvelous, . . . when a student came crying she was willing to come and help with him and interpret, and she will not only say what the student said, but she will explain the background. . . she will help me understand that. . . cultural differences. . . and I will counsel according to that and through the years I caught more experience."

" . . . those that are discrete, patient, and respectful seem to be good interpreters, . . . "

4.3.2 ESL Teachers

Similar to the previous session --4.3 a.-- a summary of major issues is provided along with excerpts from some of the interviews to support the constructs.

(1) Citizenship and problem solving skills- in view of the fact that school counselors were not able to provide certain services to ESL Spanish

speaking students, one ESL teacher devised a program to improve social skills. It was after the new bilingual counselor was hired that this teacher stopped providing these services. She said: "in this building we've been helping our students to be good citizens, teaching them problem solving skills, responsibilities, and citizenship skills along with academics."

Historically, counselors have taught these skills through workshops and special activities with an emphasis in careers and education.

(2) Existence of a self-contained school- some ESL programs --depending on the ESL population size-- have an independent program running from the mainstream school activities. With the exception of PE (Physical Education) and perhaps other elective courses, all courses are taken within the same ESL group without interacting with the main school population. As this teacher pointed out: ". . .because our program is self-contained, that means that we have a school within a school; a small school inside a large school. . .the ESL school has different levels, so a child that starts the bilingual program in the low proficiency level will move into the transitional or intermediate and then, into shelter. . .later will advance to the mainstream population."

(3) Less than 20% of the Latino students go to college- it seems that the district's financial condition has been equated with student academic performance and college success. This perception, added to the English linguistic deficiencies of the Latino students, may have an impact toward the socioeducational future of ESL/Latino students. One of the transcriptions

reads: "the majority of the students in our school don't go to college, don't have a feeling for college. Our school is poor, our district is poor, and we know that it's different; if we talk about XXX high school, that is, 80% of them go to college versus 20-25% of ours. . .the percentage is even lower for Mexicans."

(4) Different cultures among Mexican students--caste system- all the interviews reflected a caste system in which degrees of intolerance exist among Mexican students. It seems to be a combination of racial prejudice and linguistic intolerance in which the most dark-skinned individuals and Spanish speakers coming from Mexico are discriminated against. It appears to exist a hierarchy in which the Chicanos, second or more generation of Mexicans arriving legally to the country with a fairly stable financial position discriminate against the Cholos, which portray gang behavior and use a combination of Spanish and English. At the same time, both groups discriminate against the Mejicanos, who are Spanish speakers and economically disadvantaged. Various ESL teachers indicated: ". . .the Cholo is the one that we have in L.A., he neither speaks English nor Spanish, you know, those that hang around with long-oversized pants, that are neither Americans because they are brown, nor Mexicans because don't speak Spanish. Then, you have the Mejicanos saying to be better than the Cholos because they do speak Spanish; then, the Chicanos saying to be better because their grandparents and parents came in legally, they are better financially."

“If you’re an Indian or a newcomer to the school or to the culture here, the Hispanics that were born here, they look down on those who just came. . . just because they are new. . . and also, I think that the Indians are below them all. . .”

(5) Oregon ESL programs at a low stage of development in relation to other programs nationwide- it appears that due to the inexperience with non-English speakers in the school system Oregon schools are still trying to define the best method to work with linguistically different populations. Therefore, compared to other states that have faced this challenge for decades, it appears that there are aspects that have to be revisited and restructured. One of the teachers indicated: “No. . . just that there are not bilingual programs. . . as organized as they were like in California or in Chicago were we have bilingual certification. We don’t have that in Oregon, therefore, when I came to Oregon, years ago, it was kind of a surprise for the educators here. . . I talked to them on how organized they were in Chicago, teaching in their native language. . . so the students can succeed more in learning English.”

(6) Low interaction with school counselors- as a strategic measure, ESL staff have learned to operate independently with regard to student services. This situation may be a result of the independent nature of the ESL program and the ignorance with regard to the mechanics of the program by most school counselors. Some ESL teachers verbalized: “. . . usually we see the counselor when he/she is doing rescheduling or when there is a problem

and we need their help. ESL teachers take care of almost everything, for instance, schedules, we talk among ourselves and fix things up, we give them tests, but because we don't have access to their computers, they do that. Then, in essence, I don't have lots of contact with the counselors."

"The only reason why I would see a school counselor is that she could help me with a schedule for a student. If it's a newcomer student, she would decide what team she would put that student at. . . schedule lunch, schedule PE. . . that's the only reason why I would see a school counselor."

(7) Home school consultant and need for Spanish speaking counselors- in view of the fact that the Latino population in one of the schools was growing fast in relation to the services that could have been offered by the counseling office, a home school consultant has been playing the role of the counselor and appears to have a close relationship with the ESL students and staff. This is evidenced by the following statements: "I would like to see a native Spanish speaker counselor, or at least an Anglo counselor with good Spanish skills that could connect with the kids. . ."

"If they have a problem. . . the students. . . they prefer to go to Mrs. XXX. . . she can fully understand them, she knows their background issues. . . because she comes from a similar culture, she is not Hispanic, but she has Hispanic blood in her. . . and she is very good. . . they respect her. . ."

"She makes phone calls to the parents and inform them about special activities and also when the students are not attending school steadily, she contacts or visit them. . ."

4.3.3 Latino Students

Similar to previous sessions --4.3 a. and 4.3 b.-- a summary of major issues is provided along with excerpts of some of the interviews to support the constructs.

(1) English mastery equated with jobs but acknowledging the importance of

keeping both languages--Spanish and English-- various Latino students acknowledged the importance of mastering the English language in order to compete in the job market; however, the idea of losing the Spanish language was not embraced by many of them, especially by newcomers.

Several students said: “. . .English is very important to me because one can get better jobs as opposed to be working in the field picking fruits and all that. . . it is better to learn and not waste one’s life working in the fields.”

“It’s important not to forget your Spanish, you know, as one’s first language. . . if we keep both, we’ll have a better future, not to forget either one.”

Ideas of the importance of bilingualism have been taught by some ESL teachers as it was found out during the interviews.

(2) Trust issues and school counselors- the linguistic barrier appears to be blurred with racial assumptions in terms of student-counselor relationships.

Another factor that could account for a stressful relationship between a Mexican student --Spanish being the first language-- and an English monolingual counselor, could be the inability of the student to voice his/her concerns in stressful situations using a second language. As one of the ESL students indicated:

“ . . . and I had a problem in the bus. . . I didn't like that the counselor not only agreed with them to be right, but not only she agrees with the Chicanos, but with the Americans as well; that's why the Mexicans (mejicanos) prefer to speak with the Spanish speaking teachers. . . we trust them and they don't deny their help.”

(3) ESL students and the isolation experienced in school- almost all ESL students interviewed manifested feelings of isolation, segregation, disconnectedness with regard to the mainstream population. It appears that the nature of ESL programs in combination with cultural and linguistic factors generate physical and emotional separation from the school environment. Several students expressed: “. . . because we don't get in touch with the rest of the students. . . not a lot.”

“ . . . but also, I would like to take other classes with others and not be locked with the ESL group all the time. . . and talk with other children around.”

“There is a need to have group of students that would like to know new friends and help others make friends.”

(4) Assertiveness and language- Latino students participating in ESL programs appear to have multiple variables to work with regarding adaptation; for instance, new culture, a different teaching style, expectations, and language among others. Language appears to be related to their level of active participation and confidence in school activities. As this portion of a transcription reflects: “ Yes, when other people speak

other language. . .some people make fun of you, if you cannot say the right things in English.”

“Most of the people that come don’t speak any English and can’t speak to the people in here. . .and some make fun of those who speak Spanish.”

“Yes. . .they make fun of them when they can’t speak any English. . .and they are afraid because of that. . .”

“ . . .and there are some children that say that we are dumb and things like that. . .because we don’t know a lot of English. . .”

“In the Math class, because they are mostly Americans, some times they say bad things about me. . .because the teacher speaks so fast that I cannot get it. . .”

(5) Pressure and stereotypes- it seems that some Latino students face the dilemma of belonging to a group or staying out of groups and facing the consequences. Being Mexican and a gang member appear to be associated by many students in the schools, however, many Mexican students are uncomfortable with that assumption. Some students verbalized: “If there’s a group. . .a large group, I think twice before going through or walking by. They make fun of you. . .”

“Some people think that all Mexicans are gangsters. . .”

“If you don’t dress like them. . .you’re a nerd.”

(6) Minimal contact with counselor and bilingual issues- similar to the ESL teacher experiences, students belonging to the program appear to have limited contact with school counselors. The need to voice concerns in their

native language seem to be an important issue for some students. As reflected in these excerpts:

“I saw the counselor, just in the hall and said hi. . .never for troubles.”

“No. She just speaks English and it will be nice to have someone that speaks both languages.”

“There’s a lot of Spanish speakers that don’t speak any English. . .and have problems in the school and they need to talk with someone about their problems. . .”

4.3.4 European American Students

Similar to previous sessions --4.3.1, 4.3.2, and 4.3.3-- a summary of major issues is provided along with excerpts of some of the interviews to support the constructs.

(1) Importance of school budget and financial stability- it seems that financial constraints play an important role in the students’ lives; furthermore, students seem to be overconcerned with the school’s dynamics and the relationship of poor services and lack of funds.

“ . . .our school budget. . .something like that. . .about sports. . .and our school don’t have much money. . .”

. . .”everybody knows; the teachers always complain about it and our parents are talking about taxes.”

(2) Association between gangs and Latinos/Mexicans- an apparent correlation between Latinos and gang behavior has been established by European American students in some schools. It seems that the gangster stereotype

has been attached to individuals of Mexican origin based on their experiences in the community and school. Several students indicated: "I think is more a race issue. . .because there's a lot of Hispanics. . .I'm not saying anything. . .is just a thought. . .a lot of Hispanics are in gangs, but I don't know. . ."

" . . .but I think they would be in the Hispanics gangs. . .I'm not saying gangs in here are just Hispanics, but that's mostly the situation. . .there are a lot of different gangs. . .there have been some Asian gangs. . ."

"Not all of them. . .most of them are Mexicans. . ."

(3) Strategies to solve tensions with Latino students- consistent with previous findings --#2-- and the correlation between negative behavior and Mexican students, some European American students prefer to avoid contact and ignore Mexican students as a strategy to solve the strains between groups. This strategy penalizes Latino students not involved in gang behavior and who crave establishing a healthy relationship with European American students.

Different students indicated:

"I just talk to them but I don't want to do the stuff that they do. . .you know, the bad side. . .I'm very outgoing but I don't want to get involved, I'm afraid. . .sometimes they think that we don't like them. . ."

"No. I don't think so. . .if you don't like anybody just don't hang around with him. . .just ignore him."

"I prefer to leave them alone and do my own thing."

"That's their problem and I don't like to get involved."

(4) Inter-ethnic friendships and relationships- interaction between European Americans and Latino students appears to be affected by assumptions rather than by facts based on communication of their particular needs, apprehensions, fears, and concerns. Lack of physical proximity and limited interactions in mainstream classrooms appear to affect potential relationships with ESL Latino students. Various students indicated:

“I guess they are not very interested in making friends,. . .you know,. . .out of their group. . .”

“They don’t take many classes with us,. . .or are taking remedial,. . .you know,. . .for people that don’t speak English well. . .so, I don’t have a lot of chance to spend time with them. . .also, they don’t play sports,. . .after school. . .they play soccer by themselves. . .

(5) Linguistic frictions- there appears to be a degree of frustration and intolerance based on the inability to understand Spanish spoken by Mexican students. It seems that the discomfort manifested by some European American students could be based on sensations of powerlessness and feelings of exclusion. It could be argued that the need to “understand” is a systemic reflection of power and control.

These students verbalized:

“Sometimes they speak in Spanish very loud in front of us. . .or they curse in Spanish. . .Well, I don’t understand. . .maybe a few bad words,. . .but I guess that they are talking about me” . . .

“...they are talking behind your back in Spanish. . .I think it’s kind of rude because they know that we don’t understand. . .I’m not saying that speaking Spanish is bad, but a lot of times they call names to people. . .in Spanish.”

It is not clear if Spanish speaking students prefer to utilize their native language among themselves for comfort reasons or if it is used as a mechanism to cause discomfort to their English speaking peers.

(6) Rationalization of gang behavior manifested by some Latino students-

some students conceptualize gang behavior and hostility manifested by some Latino students as a construct rooted on intolerance, frustration, and reverse prejudice projected against society. In addition, antisocial behavior is paralleled with poor academic performance and low productivity. This issue is depicted by these students:

“...it’s more like they are prejudiced against other people, not all of them are like that. . .they are just mad of what you are. . .(Long pause). . .being White. . .being American.”

“...because they don’t do well in school, got bored, and don’t have jobs..”

“...they are angry, lots of dropouts.”

“Yes. . .because they come from low-income areas and are involved in gangs; they don’t care about their work in school and their behavior with the teachers. . .”

It appears that low socioeconomic status is linked with erratic conduct in schools and in the community.

(7) School counselors are seen as mediators and agents that apply corrective interventions- all students with the exception of one, conceptualize the counselor as an individual who takes care of problems --individual and familial-- and that sets up schedules and intervenes when students are academically deficient. Various students stated:

“She helps you, help you. . .in any problem or something. . .and with schedules. . .changing classes.”

“Like. . .I think they help you telling you what you need to do in the classes. . .things like that. . .”

“My mom sometimes talks with him. . .I really don’t know what they do” . .

The school counselor seems to be viewed as a reactive agent as opposed to a proactive agent anticipating future needs and providing strategies and information as preventive measures; also, it is seen as a safe place to share concerns and seek help.

4.4 Patterns Consistent Across Groups

During the transcription and analysis of the interviews various themes seemed to parallel and intersect in certain areas. Versions of situations and issues appeared to be consistent among counselors, ESL teachers, European American, and Latino students.

(a) Isolation experienced by Latino ESL students- the sense of loneliness as a consequence of the academic separation portrayed by Latinos enrolled in the ESL program seem to be a concern shared by ESL teachers and counselors, and European American students. In spite of the fact that the

segregation experienced by these students concern most of the interviewees representing their populations, programmatic activities to accelerate the integration of ESL Latinos into the mainstream have not been developed.

(b) Minimal involvement of school counselors with ESL staff and students-

ESL Latino students across groups manifested their limited contact with school counselors and sometimes this contact was filtered by the mediating interventions of ESL teachers. The ESL Latino students seem not to rely on school counselors for problem resolutions. Counselors are seen as administrative sources who organize schedules. Similarly, most school counselors interviewed acknowledged their limited contact with Latino ESL students; however, with the exception of one, none of the counselors seem to have an active agenda to remediate this situation in the near future.

(c) Linguistic frictions- European American students and ESL Latino students

manifested a significant level of dissension with respect to language. Most European American students agreed to having difficulties tolerating loud conversations in Spanish in their presence and many times felt offended and excluded. On the other hand, ESL Latino students expressed feelings of despair, shame, and frustration in establishing communication with European American students.

4.5 Triangulation with Public Data and Research

Public documents and articles related to the topic were used to validate the assertions of the interviewees and emerging patterns that were constant across groups. In

order to validate the low number of ESL Latinos identified as gifted and talented students, the data bank of the NCES (National Center of Education and Statistics) was explored to obtain the number of students from different ethnic/racial groups in the U.S. identified as gifted and talented. There is no data bank reflecting that information; furthermore, the writer contacted the Special Education Department in order to obtain data regarding ethnic group distribution and talented and gifted students and such documentation does not exist. This was confirmed after contacting the National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented at the University of Connecticut.

A survey study conducted by Machado (1987) 11 years ago provides a rough estimate of minority students enrolled in gifted programs:

MINORITY GROUP	GENERAL ENROLLMENT	ENROLLMENT IN GIFTED PROGRAMS
Caucasians	71.2%	81.4%
Blacks	16.2%	8.4%
Hispanics	9.1%	4.7%
Asians	2.5%	5.0%

According to Maker (1989), of the students enrolled in gifted and talented programs, between .14% and 1.0% come from language minority backgrounds.

4.6 Constructivistic Overview of the Researcher's Analysis and Process

Previous to conducting the interviews and through the research process a journal was kept to monitor thoughts, behaviors, and opinions of the investigation. The purpose was to identify sources of bias that could have affected the outcome of the study. The two main areas that were constantly revisited during the research were the theoretical affiliations and phenomenology based on the researcher's culture. The idea was to observe and hear the interviewees acknowledging that the information was filtered and how this filtration could have affected the results and interpretation. The following is a list of the descriptive parts of the interviews/fieldnotes as seen by the researcher:

(1) Reconstruction of dialogues

Various dialogues took place during the planning phase and are considered to be off-the record. During one of the meetings with a school counselor and an ESL teacher, the former presented a great deal of resistance by not agreeing on how the consent forms for parents and students were worded, dates for the interviews, confidentiality issues, and time to be devoted during the research process. The resistance demonstrated by this school counselor with regard to the investigation raised suspicions about hidden issues. Finally, after reaching an agreement with the counselor about procedural details and as the interviews were conducted, it was found that a limited, almost absent interaction between ESL staff/Latino students and counselor was taking place.

On the other hand, those counselors that were open to the process from the planning stage until the interviews, acknowledged their weaknesses in

regard to their limited interactions with ESL staff and students, but showed a disposition to mend those weaknesses by means of additional training.

(2) Description of physical settings

One out of four schools seem to have a welcoming environment with regard to ethnic and language diversity. This school had all school signs written in three different languages acknowledging the importance of the three ethno-linguistic populations. Also, the school and school's library name alluded to non-European figures or places. At the time of the interviews, various school activities were revolving around a Spanish term which was integrated in the curriculum and was reflected by pictures, drawings, and poems posted on the bulletin boards. The openness to include the main student population in multicultural activities was reflected on the quality of the ESL program and the school staff's diversity.

(3) Accounts of particular events

One event that was not captured by the audio-taped recordings but was consonant with the interviewees overall opinions regarding the existence of castes systems among Latinos was the rudeness manifested by one of the participants toward another. The incident initiated as the Latino participants were arriving at the conference room as they were allowed to leave their respective classes. Ignorant of the bilingual skills of the researcher, two of the participants arrived at the conference room utilizing vulgar language by means of Spanish slang. Later this behavior was exacerbated and displaced toward two of the participants who happened to have an Indian background and were Spanish

monolinguals. In spite of the corrective interventions to respect others, and reminding the group of the ground rules for the interview, one of the students kept utilizing gestures and facial expressions to the point that he had to be dismissed from the group activity.

(4) The researcher's behavior and ethical dilemmas

In spite of the fact that the researcher has a Puerto Rican background and Spanish is his first language, most of the European American interviewees did not seem to connect him with the Latino community. For instance, many of the interviewees referred to the Mexicans as "the Hispanics" as if the researcher were not one. Several times the researcher wrestled with the idea of "correcting" the interviewee's views and rationales about certain topics. Neutrality was kept by depicting relevant incidents in the journal, using it as an outlet to vent concerns and by revisiting theoretical orientations and postulates regarding emerging topics. Ethical dilemmas were not present in which breaches of confidentiality were at risk or in which the interviewer's safety was involved.

5. IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Implications to the Counseling and ESL Field

There has been a tendency to overcompartmentalize professional disciplines causing a fragmented view of issues that should be resolved utilizing a mutual dependence approach, in which every opinion is important and vital for the solution of an issue. In the higher education arena, colleges, departments, and programs have operated semi-independently protective of their knowledge and beliefs. These higher education dynamics are also observed in the k-12 school system. As the study reflected, ESL staff and school counselors are not engaged in conversations with the purpose of benefiting Latino ESL students.

These are a set of recommendations that should be followed by ESL programs/teachers and counseling programs/school counselors in order to improve services rendered to ESL Latino students.

(1) Linguistic training for counselors

A preparation program ought to be presented and marketed with the collaboration of the liberal arts college and language department. It could be developed as a minor with the intention of licensure and specialization as a Spanish/English bilingual counselor. Recruitment of out-of-state students from other universities is desirable. The courses would not be designed for international native Spanish speakers but for non-native speakers or native Spanish speaking Latinos of the U.S. without formal linguistic training.

These courses would be based on psycholinguistics and multiculturalism. All classes should be conducted in English and Spanish with an emphasis in the latter. The following are samples of courses to be offered in a master's degree counseling program. The bilingual minor could be developed in conjunction with standard specializations such as school, community, or mental health counseling.

Course: BICOUN 200X

Designed for non-native speakers with limited mastery of the language but with a notion of grammatical structure and pronunciation of the Spanish language. Basic attending and listening skills are used in a Spanish frame. Advice on how to select potential interpreters from the immediate community and interpreting techniques are explored. Basic counseling intervention techniques rooted in a cultural base are practiced.

Prereqs. - 2nd year of Spanish/ ESL, basic theories, and a multicultural course.

Course: BICOUN 300X

This course is designed for intermediate non-native speakers. Case conceptualization and code-switching techniques are used. Action skills (problem solving and advice), exploration skills (open-ended, close-ended questions) and self-disclosure in Spanish are used. Contextual interventions for school, community, and mental health counseling settings are explored.

Prereqs. - 3rd year of Spanish, advanced theory course, BICOUN 200X

Course: BICOUN 400X

This course should be taken during the last year of the program. It emphasizes the development of evaluation/assessment plans with a biopsychosocial emphasis. Normalcy, pathology, and dysfunctionality are explored from a cultural and linguistic perspective.

Implications for the field:

- (a) Better trained counselors,
- (b) Better services rendered to Latino students/clients,
- (c) Development of a solid network of trained bilingual counselors that could serve as consultants,
- (d) Enrichment of counseling and ESL training programs through the addition of educational paradigms, and
- (e) Expansion and applicability of the multicultural paradigm through the concept of bilingualism.

(2) Interdisciplinary research studies

Establishing dialogues with other programs and departments in higher education pose an opportunity to strengthen financial weaknesses experienced in higher education. This could be accomplished by means of submitting interdepartmental grants in which more than one department could benefit from the outcome. For instance, advanced Spanish students could serve as a co-trainers / facilitators of counseling activities designed for instructional purposes in counseling.

The expertise of ESL teachers could be used for the exploration of linguocultural issues in counseling courses. A similar reciprocal process

could be used for ESL courses in which behavior is explored and basic hands-on techniques could be recommended to improve teaching and interactional skills from a counseling perspective. In order to accomplish these goals, support ought to be sought from the Liberal studies department, Education --ESL--, state department of education, and mental health service agencies --public and private.

(3) Devise and implement a TAG program for ESL Latinos

Limited English skills seem to be equated with limited intelligence and capacities. Although school staff and programs would deny such a harsh statement why are there so few ESL Latino students labeled as gifted and talented? First, there is no fully operational program to identify TAG students among ESL Latino students. In order to explore the potential of these students, there is a need to utilize non-traditional methods of evaluation. Most counselors do not have training in these methods; therefore, consulting with a culturally competent clinical or school psychologist seems to be appropriate for exploring alternate routes for standardized psychometric evaluations, assuming that the selected professional has training in non-traditional methods of evaluation. Some commonly used methods such as interviews, self-reports, autobiographies, and portfolios can also be used to identify gifted and talented minority language students. ESL teachers ought to be included in the conversations with school psychologists, because eventually the ESL teacher will serve as a bridge between the student, school counselor, and the school psychologist.

(4) School panels

School panels could be developed that represent the school community. The panel could propose alternatives to improve the communication between Latinos and European American students on essential target issues presented by them and not by the education professionals. These dialogues should precede interventions with regard to improving the school climate; the school counselor could serve as a facilitator of the conversations and as a consultant on how to channel these concerns. The main idea is to include the students in the conversations through an egalitarian process of communication.

(5) Intragroup training

There is a need to provide intragroup training to Latinos belonging to different cultural generations to increase awareness and sensitivity regarding newcomers and viceversa. The purpose is to improve intercultural relationships and have a healthier school climate.

(6) Promotion of bilingualism and not foreign language in schools to increase tolerance in the European American community

An implicit element that surfaced in some of the interviews was the confusion between foreign and second language. Although both terms seem to have the same meaning, the underlying message is different. The foreign language concept may be associated with the imposition of an external element not connected with their daily life; therefore, something that is not relevant and practical. The potential of developing an adversarial position toward the language and anything that represents it is

possible. On the other hand, the acquisition and learning of a second language is better associated with an addition to something; it carries a positive and practical connotation. This positivism is linked to the practicality associated with it when interacting with hundred of Spanish speaking people in the schools and communities.

This concept ought to be promoted by both ESL teachers and school counselors in order to ensure a healthier environment in the school setting and superior relationships among the students. The idea is for students to understand and associate languages with cultures and how both are entwined.

(7) Development of a teamwork approach between ESL staff and school counselors

In order for counselors to improve services conferred to ESL Latino students it is recommended that they maintain contact with ESL staff at least once a week. The purpose would be to discuss issues and concerns regarding ESL students and how these can be remedied before the end of the

year. Ideally, the school counselor should be seen by the students as an important part of the ESL staff and not as a removed agent that deals with schedules and corrective behavior interventions. In order to portray an active image of the school counselor to ESL students, a close relationship has to start with ESL staff.

(8) Community outreach approach from a counseling perspective

A reactive role does not seem to be effective with Latino families. A proactive stance should be taken by school counselors. Coordinating every activity from and in the office limits the school counselor's effectiveness. The school counselor can serve as resource and referral agency to support the overall strength and stability of the families. For instance, the knowledge and networking contacts that school counselors have can assist Latino families to get connected with literacy programs, vocational training, ESL programs, medical services, and other social services. This could improve the quality of life of the family and Latino students. Demonstrating an interest for the well-being of the family would serve as a way to obtain cooperation from the relatives when needed.

(9) Interpreters

In coordination with the ESL staff, a list of potential interpreters and translators should be generated to be at the disposition of school counselors when needed. Selecting potential interpreters should be based on language mastery, cultural knowledge, and personal traits compatible with the school counselor's style of work. A student's relatives should not be used as an interpreter. Also, potential translators should be identified for the translation of documents that will reach the Spanish speaking population.

(10) Culturally and developmentally sensitive interventions

In order to have successful interventions in a middle school it is necessary for the school counselors to have an understanding of the influence of culture on personality in human development and how human behavior differs when embedded in a bicultural environment. While a monocultural adolescent is struggling with the developmental stage of identity versus role confusions, bicultural Latinos are also struggling with ethnic and linguistic identity. Consistent with the interview's outcome, the majority of ESL Latino students are in a disadvantageous position with regard to power; therefore, counseling interventions should be geared toward student empowerment. For instance, some interventions that could serve as empowerment tools are (a) teaching problem solving skills to develop self-confidence and cultural pride, (b) providing planning skills consistent with the student's family system to establish goal setting, (c) development of leadership skills that go across ethnic groups, and (d) integration skills to develop self-acceptance.

5.2 Limitations of the Study

The struggle between ethnic groups in the U.S. is not new and neither are the difficulties experienced by individuals of the helping profession when providing services to clients from diverse backgrounds, specifically non-native English speakers. As with any other research study, only pieces of "truth" are revealed through these findings and not a universal truth that could shed light over every challenge. This study serves as a

foundation for future studies and there are some limitations that should be considered if a similar study is to be replicated:

(1) Select one school and conduct more in-depth interviews with teaching and administrative staff, community (including religious organizations) leaders, school district staff, and family relatives of the interviewees. This study would be more time consuming but would provide an in-depth perspective of multiple dimensions of the socioeducational system.

(2) During the selection of students to be interviewed, it would be better to keep students representing a grade in one focus group and not blend students from different grades in the same interview group. It was found that higher grade students tended to dominate the conversations and impose their points of view.

(3) From a developmental point of view, middle school dynamics are different and unique in comparison to elementary or high school dynamics; therefore, it would be useful to conduct a similar study with a different school level in order to find out what can be attributed to age developmental circumstances or to ethnolinguistic issues.

(4) Although financial constraints are limitations to be cognizant of, it would have been ideal to have more than one field researcher during the data collection phase. For instance, one researcher could have put emphasis on interviewing participants in the school and community, other could have taken care of ethnographic observations, and another for research of public documents and interviews of district employees.

(5) How different would the outcome of the interviews have been if the interviewer were a member of one of the following ethnic groups, European American,

Asian American, Native American, or African American? The researcher as a tool is a variable that ought to be considered for future studies.

6. CONCLUSION

Principles of diversity, multiculturalism, and multilingualism should be the driving forces for the design of school counseling interventions for Latinos. These three basic principles will determine the validity, quality, reliability, and ultimately the effectiveness of any counseling intervention. Acknowledgment of ethnic, racial, or linguistic differences are not suggested with the purpose of jeopardizing the harmony of the student population or to promote differences. On the contrary, the purpose is to ensure that all students learn to value their uniqueness and that Latino students could reach their educational potential in a school climate that does not disassociate them from their own ethnic identity, or cultural and linguistic background.

By establishing closer collaboration methods between school counselors and ESL staff, the probability of success for Latino students increases. Results from the study suggest that counselor education programs should develop methods of integrating multicultural and multilingual principles into the course work. Psychobilingual training is suggested to improve ethnocultural and bilingual skills of counselors in training. Counselor education programs are encouraged to establish alliances with colleges and departments in order to incorporate new concepts and ideas.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Acosta, F. X., & Cristo, M. H. (1981). Development of a bilingual interpreter program: An alternative model for Spanish speaking services. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, *12*, 474-482.

Aguilar, I. (1972). Initial contacts with Mexican American families. Understanding and Counseling Ethnic Minorities. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.

Altarriba, J., & Santiago-Rivera, A. L. (1994). Current perspectives on using linguistic and cultural factors in counseling the Latino client. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, *25*, 388-397.

Amaro, H., & Russo, N. F. (1987). Hispanic women and mental health: An overview of contemporary issues in research and practice. Psychology of Women Quarterly, *11*, 393-407.

American Public Health Association. (1991). Policy statement No 9009: A call to reject "English Only" legislation. American Public Health Association Public Policy Statements, 1948-present, cumulative, Washington, DC: Author.

Bamford, K. (1991). Bilingual issues in mental health assessment and treatment. Latino Journal of Behavioral Sciences, *13*, 377-390.

Baptiste, D. A. (1987). Family therapy with Spanish-heritage immigrant families in cultural transition. Contemporary Family Therapy, *9*, 229-251.

Bean F., & Tienda, M. (1987). The Hispanic population of the United States. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Bialystok, E., & Hakuta, K. (1994). In other words: The science and psychology of second-language acquisition. New York: Basic Books.

Bodgan & Biklen (1992). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Brislin, R. W., Lonner, W. J., & Thorndike, R. W. (1973). Cross-cultural research methods. New York: Wiley.

Brislin, R. W. (1970). Translation: Applications in research. New York: Wiley.

Christian, D. (1995). Two-way bilingual education: Students learning through two languages. Educational Practice Report No. 12. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Clemente, R. (1997). Language, Culture, and Evaluation: Vital Integration, Hispanic-Latinos and Counseling. Library research paper, Oregon State University. Unpublished paper.

Clifford, J. (1986). Introduction: Partial truths. In J. Clifford & G. Marcus (Eds.), Writing Culture: The poetics and politics of ethnography. Berkeley: University of California Press: 1-26.

Collier, V. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. TESOL Quarterly, 21(3), 617-641.

Collier, V. (1995). Acquiring a second language for school. Directions in Language and Education 1(4). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Collier, V. (1995b). Promoting academic success for ESL students: Understanding second language acquisition for school. Elizabeth, NJ: New Jersey Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages-Bilingual Educators.

Collison, B., & Garfield, N. (1996). Careers in counseling and human services. Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Contreras, R., Hendrick, S., & Hendrick, C. (1996). Perspectives on marital love and satisfaction in Mexican-American and Anglo-American couples. Journal of Counseling & Development, 74, 408-415.

Corey, G. (1991). Theory and practice of counseling and psychotherapy. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Council on Scientific Affairs. (1991). Hispanic health in the United States. Journal of the American Medical Association, 265(2), 248-252.

Courtney, W. (1991). Qualitative methods: A definition. A Treatise for Educational Researchers. OR.

Crawford, J. (1992). Hold your tongue: Bilingualism and the politics of "English only". Reading MA: Addison-Wesley.

Cuellar, I., Harris, L. C., & Jasso, R. (1980). An acculturation scale for Mexican-American normal and clinical populations. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 2, 199-217.

Dana, R. H. (1993). Multicultural assessment perspectives for professional psychology. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Darder, A. (1991). Culture and power in the classroom: A critical foundation for bicultural education. New York: Bergin & Garvey.

Das, A. K. (1995). Rethinking multicultural counseling: Implications for counselor education. Journal of Counseling and Development, 74, 45-52.

Delgado, J. E., & Estrada, L. (1993). Improving data collection strategies. Public Health Reports, 108, 540-545.

Erzinger, S. (1991). Communications between Spanish speaking patients and their doctors. Culture, Medicine and Psychiatry, 15, 91-110.

ESL Standards for Pre-K-12 Students (1997). Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., Alexandria, VA.

Ewing, D. B. (1975). Direct from Minnesota-E. G. Williamson. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54, 77-87.

Faust, V. (1968). The history of elementary school counseling: Overview and critique. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Flaskerud, J. H., & Hu, L. (1992). Racial/ethnic identity and amount and type of psychiatric treatment. American Journal of Psychiatry, 149, 379-384.

Flores, J. B. (1996). Children of la frontera. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

Fullerton, J. T., Wallace, H. M., & Concha-Garcia, S. (1993). Development and translation of an English-Spanish dual-language instrument addressing access to prenatal care for the border dwelling Hispanic women of San Diego County. Journal of Nursing Midwifery, 38, 45-49.

Garcia, E. (1994). Understanding and meeting the challenge of student cultural diversity. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Garcia, J. M. (1992). The Hispanic population in the U.S.: March 1992. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

García, J., & Zea, M. (1997). Psychological interventions and research with Latino populations. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gibson, R. L., & Higgins, R. E. (1966). Techniques of guidance: An approach to pupil analysis. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Gibson, R., & Mitchell, M. (1981). Introduction to counseling and guidance. New York: MacMillan Publishing.

Gibson, R. L., Mitchell, M. H., Stockton, R., Gerster, D., & Shafe, M. (1977). The dissemination and implementation of effective concepts and practices in placement and follow-up services for school guidance programs. State of Indiana.

Guttfreund, D. (1990). Effects of language usage on the emotional experience of Spanish-English and English-Spanish bilinguals. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 58, 5, 604-607.

Hayes-Batista, D. E., Shink, W. O., & Chapa, J. (1988). The burden of support: Young Latinos in an aging society. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Hendricson, W. D., Russell, J., Prihoda, T. J., Jacobson, J. M., Rogan, A., & Bishop, G. D. (1989). An approach to developing a valid language translation of a health status questionnaire. Medical Care, 27, 959-966.

Jacob, E., & Jordan, C. (Eds.). (1993). Minority education: Anthropological perspectives. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Keller, G. D. (1983). What can language planners learn from the Latino experience with corpus planning in the United States? In J. Cobarrubias & J. A. Fishman (Eds.), Progress in language planning. Berlin, Germany: Mouton.

Kerr, M. J., & Ritchey, D. A. (1990). Health promoting lifestyles of English-speaking and Spanish-speaking Mexican American migrant farm workers. Public Health Nursing, 7, 80-87.

Kirkman-Liff, B., & Mandragon, D. (1991). Language of interview: Relevance for research of Southwest Hispanics. American Journal of Public Health, 81, 1399-1404.

Laval, R. A., Gomez, E. A., & Ruiz, P. (1990). A language minority: Hispanic-Americans and mental health care. American Journal of Social Psychiatry, 3, 42-49.

Leslie, L. A., & Leitch, M. L. (1989). A demographic profile of recent Central American immigrants: Clinical and service implications. Hispanic Journal of the Behavioral Sciences, 11, 313-329.

Machado, M. (1987, February). Gifted Hispanics underidentified in classrooms. Hispanic Link Weekly Report, p.1.

Maker, C. (1989). Project DISCOVER: Discovering intellectual skills and capabilities while providing opportunities for varied ethnic responses. Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona, Division of Special Education and Rehabilitation.

Malgady, R. G., Rogler, L. H., & Constantino, G. (1987). Ethnocultural and linguistic bias in mental health evaluation of Hispanics. American Psychologist, 42, 228-234.

Marcos, L. R. (1979). Effects of interpreters on the evaluation of psychopathology in non-English-speaking patients. American Journal of Psychiatry, 136, 171-174.

Marin, G. (1989). AIDS prevention among Hispanics: Needs, risk behaviors and cultural values. Public Health Reports, 104, 411-415.

Marin, G., Amaro, H., Eisenberg, C., & Opava-Stitzer, S. (1993). Development of a relevant and comprehensive research agenda to improve Hispanic health. Public Health Reports, 108, 546-550.

Marin, G. & Marin, B. V. (1991). Research with Hispanic populations. (Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 23) . Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McKeon, D. (1994). When meeting "common" standards is uncommonly difficult. Educational Leadership, 42(8), 45-49.

McLaren, P. (1989). Life in schools: An introduction to critical pedagogy in the foundations of education. New York: Longman.

McLaughlin, B. (1992). Myths and misconceptions about second language learning: What every teacher needs to know. Educational Practice Report No. 5. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Moyerman, D. & Forman, B. (1992). Acculturation and adjustment: A Meta-Analytic Study. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 14, 2, 163-200.

National Council of La Raza. (1990). Hispanic education: A statistical portrait 1990. Washington, DC: Author.

New York Teachers Association (1935). Guidance in the secondary school. New York State Teachers Association Educational Monograph #3. New York: Author.

Oregon Department of Education, (1991-92, 96-97). Dropout Rates in Oregon High Schools. Office of Educational Services, Public Service Building 255 Capitol Street NE, Salem, OR 97310-0203.

Oregon Department of Education (1996-97). Summary of Organization, Student & Staff in Oregon Public Schools. Office of Educational Services, Public Service Building 255 Capitol Street NE, Salem, OR 97310-0203.

Orozco, S., Thompson, B., Kapes, J., & Montgomery, G. (1993). Measuring the acculturation of Mexican-Americans: A covariance structure analysis. Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 25, 149-155.

Ortiz, V., & Arce, C. H. (1984). Language orientation and mental health status among persons of Mexican descent. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 8, 127-143.

O'Sullivan, M. J., & Lasso, B. (1992). Community mental health services for Hispanics: A test of the cultural compatibility hypothesis. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 14, 455-468.

O'Sullivan, M. J., Peterson, D., Cox, G. B., & Kirkeby, J. (1989). Ethnic populations: Community services ten years later. American Journal of Community Psychology, 17, 17-30.

Padilla, A. M., Lindholm, K. J., Chen, A., Duran, R., Hakuta, K., Lambert, W., & Tucker, G. R. (1991). The English-only movement: Myths, realities and implications for psychology. American Psychologist, 46, 120-130.

Padilla, A. M., & Salgado de Snyder, N. (1985). Counseling Hispanics: Strategies for effective intervention. In P. Pedersen (Ed.) (1987), Handbook for cross-cultural counseling and therapy (pp. 157-164). New York: Praeger.

Padgett, D. K., Patrick, C., Burns, B. J., & Schlesinger, H. J. (1994). Ethnicity and the use of outpatient mental health services. American Journal of Public Health, 84, 222-226.

- Parsons, F. (1909). Choosing a vocation. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative research and evaluation methods (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pease-Alvarez, L., & Hakuta, K. (1992). Enriching our views of bilingualism and bilingual education. Educational Researcher, 21(2), 4-6.
- Pedersen, P. (Ed.). (1985). Handbook of cross-cultural counseling and therapy. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Poma, P. (1983). Hispanic cultural influences on medical practice. Journal of the National Medical Association, 75, 941-946.
- Ponterotto, J. G., Sánchez, C. M., & Magids, D. M. (1990). The Multicultural Counseling Awareness Scale (MCAS): Form B; Revised Self-Assessment. New York: Fordham University.
- Ramirez, A. G., & McAlister, A. L. (1988). Mass media campaign-A su salud. Preventive Medicine, 17, 608-621.
- Richwald, G. A., Schneider-Munoz, M., & Valdez, R. B. (1989). Are condom instructions in Spanish readable? Implications for AIDS prevention activities for Latinos. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 11, 70-82.
- Ridley, C. (1995). Overcoming unintentional racism in counseling and therapy. Sage, CA.
- Robin, A. T. (1989). Medida de dificultad de los materiales de lectura en los idiomas distintos al ingles. Leer en la escuela: Nuevas tendencias en la enseñanza de la lectura (pp. 261-273). Madrid: Fundacion G. Sanchez Ruipierrez.
- Rockwell, P. J. & Rothney, J. W. M. (1961). Some social ideas of pioneers in the guidance movement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 40, 349-354.

Rodriguez Dieguez, J. L. (1989). Prediccion de la lecturabilidad de textos en casteellano: una propuesta y sugerencia. Leer en la escuela: Nuevas tendencias en la ensenanza de la lectura (pp. 284-310). Madrid: Fundacion G. Sanchez RUIPIEREZ.

Rodriguez, M. & Dutton, M. (1991). Ethnic bias in judgements about prognosis and appropriateness of goals. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 99th, San Francisco, CA.

Rogers, C. R. (1951). Client-centered therapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Rozensky, R. H., & Gomez, M. Y. (1983). Language switching in psychotherapy with bilingual: Two problems, two models, and case examples. Psychotherapy, Theory, Research and Practice, 20, 152-160.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (1995). Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Schick, F. L., & Schick R, R. (1991). Statistical hand-book on U.S. Hispanics. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.

Seidman, I. E. (1991). Interviewing as qualitative research. New York: Teachers College Press.

Seijo, R., Gomez, H., & Freidenberg, J. (1991). Language as a communication barrier in medical care for Hispanic patients. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 13, 363-376.

Seijo, R., Gomez, H., & Freidenberg, J. (1991). Language as a communication barrier in medical care for Hispanic patients. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 13, 363-376.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sue, D. W. (1981). Evaluating process variables in cross-cultural counseling and psychotherapy. In A.J. Marsella & P. B. Pedersen (Eds.), Cross-cultural counseling and psychotherapy (pp. 102-125). New York: Pergamon Press.

Sue, D. W. (1989, December). Cultural specific techniques in counseling: A counseling framework. Paper presented at the Southeast Asia Symposium on Counseling and Guidance in the 21st Century, Taipei, Taiwan.

Sue, D. W. (1990). Culture specific techniques in counseling: A conceptual framework. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 21, 424-433.

Sue, D. W. (1991). A model for cultural diversity training. Journal of Counseling & Development, 70, 99-105.

Sue, D. W., Arredondo, P., & McDavis, R. J. (1992). Multicultural counseling competencies and standards: A call to the profession. Journal of Counseling and Development, 70, 477-486.

Sue, S. (1977). Community mental health services to minority groups: Some optimism, some pessimism. American Psychologist, 32, 616-624.

Surgeon General's National Hispanic Health Initiative: Todos. (1993, June). Recommendations to the surgeon general to improve Hispanic health. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Tierney, W. G. (1993). Self and identity in a postmodern world: A life story. In D. McLaughlin & W. G. Tierney (Eds.), Naming silenced lives: Personal narratives and processes of educational change (pp. 119-134). New York: Routledge.

Todd, W. H., Samaroo, N., & Hoffman, J. R. (1993). Ethnicity as a risk factor for inadequate emergency department analgesia. Journal of the American Medical Association, 269, 1537-1539.

Trevino, F. (1985). Cross-cultural aspects. In National Center for Health Statistics, Plan and operation of the Hispanic Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1982-1984 (pp. 4-6). DHHS Publication No. (PHS) 85-1321. Vital and Health Statistics, Series 1, No. 19. Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Trevino, F. M. (1991). Letter. Reply to Dr. Minuth. The health insurance coverage of Hispanics. Journal of the American Medical Association, 265.

Trevino, F. M., Moyer, M. E., Valdez, R. B., Stroup-Benham, C. A. (1991). Health insurance coverage and utilization of health services by Mexican-Americans, mainland Puerto Ricans, and Cuban-Americans. Journal of the American Medical Association, 265,233-237.

U.S. Bureau of the Census (1992). 1990 Census of population and housing summary: Tape file 3A. Washington DC: Department of Commerce, Data user Services Division.

U.S. Bureau of the Census (1993). Latino Americans today. Washington DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Walker, S. N., Kerr, M. L., Pender, N. J., & Sechrist, K. R. (1990). A language version of the health promoting lifestyle profile. Nursing Research, 39, 268-273.

Washington Superintendent of Public Instruction (1996). Graduate and dropout rates. Old Capitol Building, Olympia, Washington 98504-7200.

Weller, G. (1983). The role of language as a cohesive force in the Hispanic speech community of Washington, D. C. In L. Elias-Olivares (Ed.), Spanish in the U. S. setting: Beyond the Southwest. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. Rosslyn, VA: Inter American Research Associates.

Williamson, E. G. (1939). How to counsel students: A manual of techniques for clinical counselors. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wolcott, H. F. (1990). Writing up qualitative research. Newbury Park, CA.: Sage Publications.

Wolman, B. (1973). Dictionary of Behavioral Sciences. Litton Educational Pub. NY.

Wrenn, C. G. (1962). The counselor in a changing world. Washington, D. C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association.

Zambrana, R. E., Silva-Palacios, V., & Powell, D. (1992). Parenting concerns, family support systems and life problems in Mexican-origin women: A comparison by nativity. Journal of Community Psychology, 20, 276-288.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: RESEARCH LETTER SENT BY PRIMARY RESEARCHER TO
SUPERINTENDENTS

Date

Mr.(s) Superintendent
School District
P.O Box XX,
Oregon

Dear Mr. (s) Superintendent,

The purpose of this letter is to introduce Mr. Roberto Clemente to you. Roberto is a doctoral student in Counselor Education at Oregon State University and I am his major advisor. Roberto is ready to write a dissertation and I am asking that you or your designee meet with him to discuss the participation of one middle school in your district as a data collection site.

Roberto will call your office in a few days to see if he can arrange an appointment. I hope that you will agree to be one of the four Oregon schools in his study. Roberto's dissertation concerns school counseling and how school counselors respond to the needs of Latino youth. He has a good research design that has been approved by his dissertation committee and by the university's human subject committee. The study requires that Roberto interview a school counselor, an ESL teacher, and two small groups of middle school students. Because Roberto is bilingual, interviews would be conducted in English or Spanish as appropriate.

The outcome of Roberto's study should be a valuable information to help schools respond to the counseling and guidance needs of Latino youth. Your school has been selected by Roberto because of its size and because of the proportion of Latino youth enrolled in the middle schools. If you have questions, please feel free to call me at 541-737-5968.

Sincerely,

Brooke B. Collison
Professor and Coordinator
Counselor Education

APPENDIX B: FORMA DE PREVIO CONSENTIMIENTO (SPANISH VERSION)

Queridos padres y estudiantes:

Mi nombre es Roberto Clemente. Soy un estudiante doctoral del programa de Consejería Educacional en Oregon State University (Universidad Estatal de Oregon). Estoy investigando la relación y el rol que emplean el(la) Consejero(a), maestro(a) de Inglés e instructor de ESL (Inglés como Segundo Idioma) en relación a cuatro escuelas de Oregon. Su hijo(a) ha sido seleccionado(a) al azar como un participante potencial de este breve estudio. En total, la actividad consiste de dos entrevistas grupales, grabadas en audio de una hora de duración cada una. Ambas entrevistas se llevarán a cabo en un período de dos semanas. Cada grupo consistirá de 6 estudiantes, incluyendo su hijo(a). Las entrevistas no interrumpirán las tareas escolares del día. Confidencialidad se mantendrá durante y después del estudio. También, nombres de estudiantes o escuelas no serán revelados en ningún momento en el reporte investigativo. La posibilidad de daños emocionales o físicos durante el estudio es nula porque solo se utilizarán preguntas generales en cuanto asuntos educacionales y no de tipo privado. Su hijo(a) puede decidir no participar en el estudio y también puede terminar su participación en cualquier momento. Los resultados del estudio aparentan tener un impacto a largo plazo en relación a prácticas educacionales tales como el desarrollo y mejoramiento de programas de entrenamiento en consejería.

Su apoyo en relación a este estudio es apreciado grandemente. Cualquier pregunta en relación a este estudio pueden ser dirigidas a Brooke B. Collison, PhD., Oregon State University, Education Hall, Oficina 308, Corvallis OR 97331-3502, (541) 737-5968, Roberto Clemente (misma dirección), (541) 737-5969. Cualquier otra pregunta que usted pueda tener debe ser dirigida a Mary Nunn, Oficial Investigativo, OSU Oficina de Investigación, (541) 737-0670.

Acuerdo y acatamiento: Mi firma indica que he leído y entendido los procedimientos y actividades que van a ser conducidas durante los procedimientos investigativos y que he

Appendix B (Continued)

dado mi consentimiento voluntario para participar en este estudio. Yo entiendo que recibiré una copia de este documento, o sea, del consentimiento voluntario.

Firma del padre (encargado legal)

Fecha _____

Firma del Investigador Principal
Secundario

Dr. Brooke B. Collison

Nombre del estudiante

Fecha _____

Firma del Investigador

Roberto Clemente, M.Ed.

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT FORM: PARENTS AND STUDENTS

Dear Parents and Students:

My name is Roberto Clemente. I am a doctoral student in the Counselor Education program at Oregon State University in Corvallis. I am investigating the relationship of activities performed by Counselors, English teachers, and ESL teachers in four Oregon schools. Your son/daughter has been randomly selected as a potential participant of this brief study. I need your permission to conduct two separate group-taped interviews of one hour each to be conducted in a period of two weeks. Each group will consist of 6 students, including your son/daughter. The group interviews will not interrupt daily school activities. Confidentiality will be maintained during and after the activity; tapes will be immediately erased at the termination of the study. Also, student and school names will not be revealed in any point of the research report. Physical or emotional risks are absent in this study because no invasive questions about privacy will be asked; only general questions regarding educational issues. Also, your son/daughter may choose to participate or not, and can terminate his/her participation at any time. The benefits of the research study seem to have a long term impact with regard to educational practices such as the development and improvement of future counseling training programs.

Your support regarding this study is highly appreciated. Any questions with regard to this study may be directed to Brooke Collison, Ph. D., Oregon State University, Education Hall, Room 308, Corvallis OR 97331-3502, (541) 737-5968, Roberto Clemente (same address), (541) 737-5969. Any other question that I have should be directed to Mary Nunn, Sponsored Research Officer, OSU Research Office, (541) 737-0670.

Understanding and Compliance. My signature below indicates that I have read and understand the procedures and activities to be conducted during the research procedures and that I give my informed and voluntary consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

Appendix C (Continued)

Signature of parent (or legal guardian)

Name of Student

Date Signed _____

Date Signed _____

Signature of Principal Investigator
Investigator

Signature of Secondary

Dr. Brooke B. Collison

Roberto Clemente, M.Ed.

APPENDIX D: FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS--LATINO STUDENTS

1. What are the *main issues* in the school? In the surrounding community?

(¿Cuáles son los asuntos principales en la escuela? ¿En la comunidad circundante?)

2. How would you describe the *ESL classes*?

(¿Cómo describirías las clases de *Inglés Como Segundo Idioma*?)

3. During this year, how many of you have seen the school counselor? Under what circumstances? (*Using a hand check count approach*)

(¿Durante este año, cuántos de ustedes han estado en contacto con el (la) consejero (a) escolar? ¿Bajo qué circunstancias?)

4. Did the school counselor call you or did you stop by your own initiative? (*Using a hand check count approach*)

(¿El (la) consejero (a) escolar te llamó o tú le visitaste por iniciativa propia?)

5. How do you *perceive and describe* the school counselor's functions?

(¿Cómo percibes y describirías las funciones de el (la) consejero (a) escolar?)

6. What do you *think* about what the school counselor does in the school?

(¿Qué piensas en relación a lo que el (la) consejero (a) escolar hace en la escuela?)

7. As a group, what are your major *concerns / needs*? And, how do you propose these needs / concerns should be addressed?

(Cómo grupo, ¿cuáles son sus mayores *preocupaciones / necesidades*? Y, ¿cómo ustedes propondrían que estas necesidades y preocupaciones sean atendidas?)

APPENDIX E: FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS--EUROPEAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

1. What are the *main issues* in the school? In the surrounding community?
2. How would you describe the *English class*?
3. During this year, how many of you have seen the school counselor? Under what circumstances? (*Using a hand check count approach*)
4. Did the school counselor call you or did you stop by your own initiative? (*Using a hand check count approach*)
5. How do you *perceive and describe* the school counselor's functions?
6. What do you *think* about what the school counselor does in the school?
7. As a group, what are your major *concerns / needs*? And, how do you propose these needs / concerns should be addressed?

APPENDIX F: INFORMED CONSENT FORM: STAFF

Dear Counselor, ESL and English Teacher:

My name is Roberto Clemente. I am a doctoral student in the Counselor Education program at Oregon State University in Corvallis. I am investigating the relationship of activities performed by Counselors, English teachers, and ESL teachers in four Oregon schools with regard to the student population in general. Being the appointed School Counselor, English teacher, or ESL teacher, you have been asked to participate in this brief study. The whole activity consists of two separate taped-interviews of one hour each to be conducted in a period of two weeks.

For your information, confidentiality will be kept during and after the activity and tapes will be immediately erased at the termination of the study in the four Oregon's schools. Also, staff names and school names will not be revealed at any moment in the dissertation findings. Physical or emotional risks are absent in this study because no invasive questions about privacy will be asked; only general questions regarding educational issues. Also, you may choose to participate or not, and can terminate your participation at any time. The benefits of the research study may have a long term impact with regard to educational practices such as the development and improvement of future training programs. Your support regarding this study is highly appreciated and I am looking forward to meet you at your school site for further explanations. Any questions with regard to this study may be directed to Brooke Collison, Ph. D., Oregon State University, Education Hall, Room 308, Corvallis OR 97331-3502, (541) 737-5968, Roberto Clemente (same address), (541) 737-5969. Any other question that I have should be directed to Mary Nunn, Sponsored Research Officer, OSU Research Office, (541) 737-0670.

Understanding and Compliance. My signature below indicates that I have read and understand the procedures and activities to be conducted during the research procedures

Appendix F (Continued)

and that I give my voluntary consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

Signature of Teacher/Counselor

Name of Teacher/Counselor

Date Signed
Counseling):

Position (English, ESL or

Signature of Principal Investigator
Investigator

Signature of Secondary

Dr. Brooke B. Collison

Roberto Clemente, M.Ed.

APPENDIX G: COUNSELORS--INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
(*Individual interviews*)

1. How long have you been working as a counselor? At this school?
2. Have you had previous experience in the classroom as a teacher? How long did you teach? Where?
3. From which school did you get your degree? What kind of school counseling license do you have? (e.g., standard, basic, emergency, or misassignment)
4. What are the *predominant issues* in the school district? At your school?
5. What measures does the school district have taken regarding these issues? Your school?
6. Does the school district developed *special policies and procedures* to deal with these issues? Your school?
7. How many students in the last week have you seen in individual sessions? White? Latino? Others?
8. What have been the *main reasons* in general for the sessions?
9. How often do you get *in contact with the ESL / Bilingual* staff? What are the main reasons for approaching the ESL / Bilingual staff?
10. How would you describe language and cultural interactions among the student body?
11. How many languages do you speak? How would you consider yourself with regard to cultural issues?

APPENDIX H: ESL TEACHERS--INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
(*Individual interviews*)

1. How long have you been working as an ESL / Bilingual teacher? At this school?
2. Have you had previous experience in the classroom as a teacher? How long did you teach? Where?
3. From which school did you get your degree? In what area? (Ex. Bilingual education, ESL, etc.)
4. What are the *predominant issues* in the school district? At your school?
5. What *measures* does the school district have taken regarding these issues? Your school?
6. Does the school district developed *special policies and procedures* to deal with these issues? Your school?
7. What is the *student distribution* of the ESL participants with regard to ethnic/racial origin?
8. In the last week, how many students have you seen? As a group? Individually?
9. How *often* do you *see the school counselor*? Under what circumstances?
10. How would you describe *language and cultural interactions* among the student body?
11. How many *languages do you speak*? How would you consider yourself with regard to cultural issues?