

Literature Review

MIGRANT EDUCATION

This document was prepared for the Office of Migrant Education of the US Department of Education as a Year 1 deliverable (Task 2 – Draft Literature Review) pursuant to the RESULTS Contract # ED-ESE-10-C-0084. The contents do not necessarily represent the views or opinions of the US Department of Education.

Table of Contents

I.	Introduction	1
II.	Background	3
	A. Background Information on Migrant Families.....	3
	B. Background Information on the Migrant Education Program.....	4
	C. Impact of Shifts in the Agricultural Economy and Mobility of Farmworkers	5
	D. The Effects of Migrancy on Student Achievement	6
III.	Research Question #1: What needs do highly mobile students have that are different from those of other high risk students?	7
	A. Educational Continuity.....	8
	B. Time for Instruction.....	9
	C. School Engagement.....	9
	D. English Language Development.....	10
	E. Education Support in the Home.....	11
	F. Health.....	13
	G. Access to Services.....	14
	H. Diverse Culture	15
	I. Section Summary	17
IV.	Research Question #2: What instructional strategies has research shown to have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?	17
	A. Preschool Students	18
	B. School-aged Students	20
V.	Research Question #3: What evidence-based programs exist that have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?	24
	A. Preschool Programs.....	24
	B. Before and After School Programs	26
	C. Short-term Programs.....	28
	D. Tutoring Programs	28
	E. Alternative Secondary Programs	29
VI.	Research Question #4: What services are likely to help migrant students overcome the obstacles created by a highly mobile lifestyle?	31
	A. Interstate Coordination	31
	B. Identification and Recruitment Services.....	32
	C. Parent Involvement Services.....	33
	D. Professional Development to Improve Services	34
	E. Services for Out-of-School Youth	37
	F. Summer Programs	38
VII.	Conclusions	40
VIII.	Annotated Bibliography.....	43
	A. Annotated References.....	43
	B. Resources	82

I. Introduction

Children of migrant farmworkers are impacted by a mobile lifestyle that creates discontinuity of schooling, social and cultural isolation, extreme poverty, and poor health. Many migrant children also need supports to assist them with becoming proficient in English to succeed in school. They have unique needs that differ from those of the general school population in the US, often lacking school readiness skills, starting school at an older age than non-migrant students, never having been enrolled in school previously, or having attended only a few years of elementary school (Chavkin & González, 2000). These factors are compounded by issues of social isolation, the need for knowledge about how to access community resources and post-secondary education, and the need for creative ways to involve their parents who work long hours to support the family.

The National Agricultural Worker Survey (NAWS) (Carroll, et al., 2005) estimated that there are over three million migrant and seasonal farmworkers in the US. These migrants are primarily Hispanic (94%), have Spanish as their native language (81%), and have a seventh grade median level of education. This same study reports that total family income averaged between \$15,000 and \$17,499 and that 30% of all farm workers had family incomes below the poverty level.

Migrant farmworkers typically live in housing that is overcrowded, lacking adequate sanitation and working appliances, and structurally defective. Housing often consists of rundown farmhouses, field barracks, or small shacks (Housing Assistance Council, 2006). The health needs of farmworkers have been compared to those of most Third World countries (National Center for Farmworker Health [NCFH] 2011). The NCFH describes the agricultural industry as one of the most dangerous in the United States. Migrant workers risk injuries from farm machinery, are subjected to pesticides and other chemicals commonly used in farms, and are exposed to diseases caused by poor sanitation. Farmworkers are at a much greater risk of suffering a fatal accident than workers in other industries in the US with the exception of those in construction (NCFH, 2011).

To address the unique needs of the children of migrant farmworkers, the Migrant Education Program (MEP) was established in 1966 through an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA). The MEP has been continued in every subsequent reauthorization of the ESEA, which was most recently reauthorized as part of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). The MEP provides supplemental instructional and support services to migrant students during the regular school year and during the summer term. These services include: “academic instruction; remedial and compensatory instruction; bilingual and multicultural instruction; vocational instruction; career education services; special guidance; counseling and testing services; health services; and preschool services.” (US Department of Education’s (ED’s) Office of Migrant Education [OME] website, 2011).

Using the most recent data available, OME reported that State educational agencies (SEAs) identified approximately 470,000 eligible migrant children and youth. Thirty-five percent of these children were considered limited in English proficiency, and 15% were out-of-school youth (OSY). Five states (California, Texas, Oregon, Washington, and Florida) identified

approximately 74% of the eligible migrant students nationally. States served approximately 67% of the total eligible migrant students and 47% of the eligible OSY in the 2008-09 Comprehensive State Performance Reports (OME website, 2011).

The purpose of this literature review is to address factors related to the unique needs of highly mobile students, as well as the promising practices in instruction, programming, and services found successful in raising migrant students' achievement and successfully attaining other positive outcomes. It examines documents that have been published between 1995 and the present, including research and journal articles from the fields of education, health, agriculture, economics, anthropology, linguistics, multicultural education, sociology, demography, and social and behavioral sciences. The literature review of migrant education is intended to assist SEAs in designing and implementing better projects for migrant-eligible children and youth and address issues around interstate and intrastate coordination of migrant education programs, projects, and activities.

There are eight sections to the literature review. In addition to this brief Section I introduction, Section II contains background information; Sections III, IV, V, and VI explore the research questions; Section VII offers conclusions; and Section VIII lists references and resources.

- I. **Introduction** – The Introduction provides the purpose of the literature review, research questions asked, definitions used in the report, and a brief outline of the report.
- II. **Background** – This section presents background information on migrant families and the migrant education program in order to provide a context for the research questions. This section also discusses the impact of shifts in the agricultural economy and mobility of farmworkers and the effects of migrancy on student achievement.
- III. **Research Question #1: What needs do highly mobile students exhibit that are different from those of other high risk students?** – This section focuses on what OME has characterized as the seven areas of concern resulting from educational challenges associated with the migrant lifestyle and put migrant children at a risk of school failure (OME, 2004). A separate section of this review is dedicated to the areas of: a) educational continuity, b) time for instruction, c) school engagement, d) English language development, e) education support in the home, f) health, and g) access to services.
- IV. **Research Question #2: What instructional strategies has research shown to have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?** – This section summarizes and synthesizes published information on classroom strategies that have been found to be effective with high risk students with characteristics similar to those of migrant students.
- V. **Research Question #3: What evidence-based programs exist that have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?** – This section focuses on the programmatic level and presents interventions (program, product, practice, or policy) that have research supporting their effectiveness with high risk students with characteristics similar to those of migrant students.

- VI. **Research Question #4: What services are likely to help migrant students overcome the obstacles created by a highly mobile lifestyle?** – This section focuses on the system/coordination level and summarizes strategies that can be used at the intrastate and interstate level to meet the needs of migrant students.
- VII. **Conclusions** – The conclusions summarize, analyze, and evaluate the major ideas presented in the literature review. Questions that need further research are identified.
- VIII. **Bibliography** – The bibliography is divided into two parts: Annotated References and Resources. The Annotated References includes abstracted references cited in this report. The Resources section includes online sources that can be used by practitioners to further investigate policies, programs, strategies, and regulations affecting migrant students.

There is a scarcity of research on instructional strategies and programs *specific* to migrant students. Therefore, this review presents strategies, techniques, and programs that have been found to be effective with migrant children and youth, as well as with high-risk students similar to migrant children, e.g., those who are affected by poverty, mobility, and interrupted schooling as well as those who come from families with diverse language and cultural backgrounds. Migrant educators and other stakeholders are encouraged to examine these practices and programs, determine their appropriateness to their specific migrant population, adapt them to fit their local context, and align them with the needs of their migrant student population.

II. Background

A. Background Information on Migrant Families

The biggest and most obvious problem faced by migrant families is economic. Employment for farmworkers is seasonal and inconsistent. In the *Profile of Hired Farmworkers, a 2008 Update* published by the US Department of Agriculture, Kandel (2008) reported that farmworkers are “among the most economically disadvantaged working groups in the US” Poverty among farmworkers is more than double that of all wage and salary employees. (Kandel, 2008; GOA, 2000)

Migrant workers and their families often battle financial solvency. In 2003, half of farmworker families earned less than \$10,000 (Housing Assistance Council, 2006). The National Agricultural Worker Survey (Carroll, 2005) found that in 2001 the average farmworker household income was between \$15,000 and \$17,499, well below the \$19,350 Federal Poverty Guidelines set for a family of four.

Further, many migrant students experience “educational disadvantages stemming from poverty and poverty-related health problems such as malnutrition, parasitic infections, and chronic illness, which can directly affect educational performance” (Kindler, 1995). Most farmworkers do not receive health insurance, paid leave, disability insurance, or other job benefits. Housing conditions of farmworkers are considered among the worst in the country (Housing Assistance Council, 2006).

As a result of poverty-related illnesses, along with occupation-related illnesses, the average life expectancy of migrant farmworkers is substantially below that of the general population. Infant and child mortality rates are substantially higher than those of the general US population (Government Accounting Office, 2000). Due to occupational hazards, including poverty, substandard living conditions, migrancy, and language and cultural barriers that they face, the average life expectancy of Migrant farmworkers is 49 years, compared with the national average of 75 years (Hansen and Donohoe, 2003).

Jensen (2009) identified four risk factors affecting children living in poverty that undermine good school performance: 1) emotional and social challenges; 2) acute and chronic stressors; 3) cognitive lags; and 4) health and safety issues. He argues that children raised in poverty often fail to learn healthy, appropriate emotional responses to everyday situations including those faced in classroom settings. He noted that acute and chronic stress experienced by children living in poverty “exert a devastating, insidious influence on children’s physical, psychological, emotional, and cognitive functioning—areas that affect brain development, academic success, and social competence.” He points out that a significant, lifelong correlation exists among socioeconomic status, cognitive ability, and performance.

The US ED Early Childhood Longitudinal Study on the kindergarten class of 1998-99 (US ED, 2004, 2010) reported that pre-kindergarten children in the highest socioeconomic bracket had statistically significantly higher cognitive scores than students in the lowest socioeconomic bracket. Using the same data set (US ED, 2000), it was reported that young adults living in families earning in the lowest 20% of all family incomes were six times more likely to drop out of high school than their peers from families in the top 20% of income distribution. Children from farmworker families are highly likely to come from the lowest 20% income bracket and more likely to drop out of high school than children from non-farmworker families. By comparison, the Findings from the National Agricultural Workers Survey (NAWS) 2001-2001 reported that the mean highest grade of farmworkers in 2001-2002 was seventh with 82% not completing the twelfth grade (Carroll, 2005).

Not only are there economic and health-related factors associated with poverty and the migrant lifestyle, these factors are exacerbated by the quality of education. Children from low-income families are more likely to receive poorer quality instruction, have fewer high-caliber teachers, and have access to fewer support services (Stullich, et al., 2007; Viadero, 2007). Teachers in schools designated in need of improvement under NCLB were less likely than those in non-identified schools to be designated as highly qualified. Children in high-poverty schools were found to be much more likely than their more advantaged peers to be assigned to novice teachers, teachers lacking subject matter knowledge, and teachers with lower academic skills (Peske and Haycock, 2006).

B. Background Information on the Migrant Education Program

The MEP is authorized under Part C of Title I of the ESEA of 1965, as amended by the NCLB Act of 2001. NCLB provides funds to SEAs to establish programs that meet the unique educational needs of migratory children and their families.

Federal funds are allocated by formula to the SEAs based on each state's per pupil expenditure for education and counts of eligible migratory children (ages 3 through 21) residing within the state. In 2010, nearly \$395 million dollars were appropriated by the Federal government to fund migrant program services (US ED OME website, downloaded on February 25, 2011). Funds allocated to migrant education programs are supplemental and should not duplicate services or resources already in place.

The MEP is administered at the Federal level by the OME, which is a component part of US ED's Office of Elementary and Secondary Education (OESE). The goal of the MEP is "to ensure that all migrant students reach challenging academic standards and graduate with a high school diploma (or complete a GED) that prepares them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment" (US ED OME website, downloaded on February 25, 2011). This goal reflects the Title I, Part C purpose to assist migrant students to:

overcome educational disruption, cultural and language barriers, social isolation, various health-related problems, and other factors that inhibit the ability of such children to do well in school, and to prepare such children to make a successful transition to postsecondary education or employment and ensure that migratory children benefit from State and local systemic reforms [Title I, Part C, Sec. 1301(4)(5)].

C. Impact of Shifts in the Agricultural Economy and Mobility of Farmworkers

Traditionally, migrant families have followed the growth cycles of crops across specific regions of the United States following "streams" traveling generally from south to north and back. Starting in the 1980s, this migration pattern changed with the increased mechanization of agricultural work, growth of large-scale agribusiness, and increased opportunities in other seasonal jobs. Many families travel from their homes directly to one destination and return to their homes at the end of the season, while some stay at one site and work on nearby farms (Housing Assistance Council, 2006).

In terms of large "sending state" demographics, there are 1.3 million farmworkers in California with 54% being involved in seasonal labor and 46% being migrant farmworkers. Texas has the second largest farmworker population reporting about 363,000 migrant and seasonal farmworkers followed by Washington (289,000), Florida (200,000) and North Carolina (156,000). As of 2008, the US Department of Agriculture reported that the distribution of farmworkers has not changed significantly in the past decade with six states (California, Florida, Texas, Washington, Oregon, and North Carolina) accounting for about half of all hired and contracted farmworkers (Kandel, 2008). The 2006 data contained in this report serves as an update to the 2000 Economic Research Service analysis of the 1998 Current Population Survey.

The Housing Assistance Council (2006) identified two factors affecting traditional migration patterns: technology and migrant workers possessing H-2A visas that allow them to temporarily reside and work in the United States. The Council reports technological advances including horticultural and market innovations that have made year-long seasons possible in many parts of the US. As a result, many farmers are using less labor-intensive crops and irrigation practices that reduce the need for migrant labor.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects a change in employment for agricultural workers between 2008 and 2018, largely reflecting agricultural workers in crops, nurseries, and greenhouses. "Fewer agricultural workers will be needed overall because of continued consolidation of farms and technological advancements in farm equipment that is raising output per farm worker. The agriculture industry also is expected to face increased competition from foreign countries and rising imports, particularly from Central America and China, because of trade agreements with those regions" (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011).

D. The Effects of Migrancy on Student Achievement

Migrant students may attend several schools during the academic year which results in the need for them to adapt to new classrooms, teachers, curricula, and school policies while making new friends and adjusting to unfamiliar neighborhoods and school surroundings. Mobility has been found to have a negative impact on academic achievement, academic progress, test scores, grades, graduation from high school, behavior, and non-academic outcomes such as increases in community involvement and accessing of local resources (Rumberger, 2011; Reynolds, et al., 2009). Walls (2003) stated that it can take four to six months for students to recover academically from a change in schools. While the research on mobility rarely addresses migrant children and youth, it is clear in concluding that for all highly mobile students who may move four to six times during a school year, the effects can be far-reaching.

In a review of 16 studies from 1990-2008, Reynolds, et al., (2009) found that frequent mobility was associated with significantly lower reading and math achievement and that each additional move added to a decline in achievement. Children who moved three times or more were found to have significantly higher dropout rates than students who were school stable. Several studies based on a national database of over 10,000 high school students found that school mobility between the first and eighth grades increased the odds of dropping out of school during high school, even after controlling for eighth-grade achievement and other factors (Rumberger and Larson, 1998; Swanson and Schneider, 1999; Teachman, Paasch, and Carver, 1996).

Mehana and Reynolds (2004) found that the average achievement level of mobile students exceeded that of only 40% of the non-mobile students. The authors equate this to a three to four month annual performance disadvantage in achievement. Average reading scores for students who moved three or more times were half of those attained by students who did not move. Three or more family moves were associated with grade retention. Researchers for the Family Housing Fund (1998) found that students who moved often had lower attendance rates that resulted in lower achievement.

Burkam, et. al. (2009) studied the impact of school mobility on children in grades K-3 using a nationally representative sample that was followed longitudinally. They concluded that:

- Changing schools during the kindergarten year has a small but lingering effect on reading development and negatively impacts mathematics development the following year and changing schools between the end of kindergarten and the end of first grade (for whatever reason) has only a negligible impact on cognitive development.

- Changing schools once during the first four years of schooling (for whatever reason) has no impact on cognitive development; however, changing schools during the first two years of schooling somewhat increases the risk of immediate grade retention.
- Children from lower-socio-economic Status (SES) experience even larger cognitive deficits when they change schools during kindergarten and children who repeat kindergarten may experience some cognitive benefits from changing schools.
- Children who change schools twice during the first two years of schooling experience greater cognitive difficulties.

Raudenbush (2010) found that migrant students tend to attend schools where large numbers of new students enter and leave during the school year. In these schools teachers may have difficulty maintaining a reasonable pace of instruction as new students may require substantial review of classwork covered or orientation to the expectations and classroom procedures. High mobility schools are more likely than other schools to be characterized by anti-social peer networks (South and Haynie, 2004) and highly mobile students are more likely than others to be victimized by violence (Fauth and Leventhal, 2005). High rates of mobility also may negatively impact school improvement efforts. Bryk, et. all (2009) conclude that staff and administrator time should be focused on responding to the needs of all students, regardless of their circumstances, to ensure that school improvement is accomplished. s must spend time meeting new parents, enrolling new children, and placing students in classes rather than providing instructional leadership (Bryk, et al., 2009).

In summary, the impact of shifts in the agricultural economy and mobility of farmworkers has affected migrant student achievement. The economic disadvantage of farmworkers is a struggle that perpetuates the cycle of poverty, resulting in their children exhibiting poor attendance, cognitive challenges, and poor academic performance in reading and mathematics, low rates of graduation, and high rates of drop out.

III. Research Question #1: What needs do highly mobile students exhibit that are different from those of other high risk students?

In 2002, the OME undertook a pilot project with four states to develop and field-test a statewide MEP comprehensive needs assessment (CNA) process. As a result of this pilot project, OME identified “conditions directly related to the migrant lifestyle that prevent migrant children from performing well in reading, mathematics, or to stay in school and graduate” (OME, 2005). OME has referred to these conditions as the Seven Areas of Concern. These seven concern areas serve as the focus of needs assessments and service delivery plans that OME has recommended SEAs to implement as part of the process for the delivery of MEP services to to meet migrant students’ unique educational needs.

While some students who are economically disadvantaged may exhibit needs related to one, or even a few, of the areas, the children of migratory farmworkers often have needs related to all or most of the seven areas. The Seven Areas of Concern include: (a) educational continuity, (b) time for instruction, (c) school engagement, (d) English language development, (e) education support in the home, (f) health, and (g) access to services.

Cutting across all seven areas of concern is the diverse culture of migrant families. An eighth area, Cultural Diversity, has been added to this section on needs in recognition of the unique culture of migrancy and mobility.

A. Educational Continuity

Migrant students' mobility contributes to a lack of educational continuity, especially when moves are made during the regular school year. They face differences in curriculum, instructional styles, academic standards, homework policies, and classroom routines. Because migration patterns do not follow the traditional school year, migrant students experience significant disruptions in their education which makes it difficult for most to receive enough academic credit to remain at grade level and graduate on time or at all (Kindler, 1995; Solis, 2004).

While there are fewer and smaller differences in educational programs between elementary schools attended by migrant students, by the time they reach high school, the differences between schools in terms of standards and curriculum, scheduling, course offerings, and graduation requirements are evident. With delays in the transfer of migrant records and the lack of school policies addressing the unique circumstances of migrant students, they routinely do not enroll in, complete, or receive credit for all the courses required for graduation (Solis, 2004; Salinas and Reyes, 2004). Consequently, about half of migrant students who enroll in high school do not graduate. Finding flexible alternatives to support secondary credit accrual or "credit recovery" has been an area of increasing focus in migrant education (Salinas and Reyes, 2004a).

Salinas and Reyes (2004b) contend that in order to serve migrant students effectively, educators must utilize unique approaches "rooted in educators' abilities to understand the migrant community and the curricular, instructional, and support system of migrancy. They found that "advocate educators knew how to alter or circumvent detrimental schooling practices by acting as agents of change, developing alternative schooling experiences, and valuing the human resources found within the migrant educational community."

In a study of district migrant education programs that share students who move back and forth between districts, Goniprow, et. al. (US ED, 2002) identified a number of conditions that led to educational discontinuity for migrant students: lost instructional time due to early withdrawal while families relocated, and lack of information to place students properly due to late re-entry, loss of course credits due to lack of information about courses taken elsewhere or inappropriate placements; missed opportunities to prepare for and take the State assessment exam; different high school course offerings; conflicts between need to work and to attend school; dissimilar language assistance programs for migrant students that are limited in English proficiency; variation in grade placement policies; different graduation requirements between schools and states; and lower academic achievement than that of other students.

The researchers found that due to discontinuity of education, migrant students had problems building on either the native language or in English due to placement in different kinds of language assistance programs. Students lost credits because they frequently were not placed in appropriate classes, especially at the high school level. They became discouraged because of

their lack of high school credit accrual for on-time graduation which, in some cases, led to dropping out or sometimes failing to attend school at all.

B. Time for Instruction

Closely related to educational continuity is the issue of instructional time. For mobile migratory children and youth, the amount of instructional time is an issue that affects students from early childhood through the secondary school years. Migrant students typically miss critical instructional time due to diminished access to information about educational options (for instance, summer school, preschool, after school programs). This is exacerbated by migrant students' patterns of late enrollment, absences, and early departure. Delays in the transfer of school and health records also result in keeping students from enrolling in schools and inappropriate placements in courses or programs that add to migrant students' loss of instructional time.

Migrant families often are unaware of early education programs in their new communities or arrive too late for, or are unable to enroll in, first-come-first-serve programs or programs with waiting lists. Costs for child care and early education also may present a substantial barrier. These services are critically important to migrant children, the population most likely to suffer from issues related to poverty and the least likely to have access to appropriate services (Chavkin, 1996; Lippman and Rivers, 2008). With access to early education programs and child care, migrant children would be better prepared for school readiness.

Because of the impact of lost instructional time, education programs for migrant students should include approaches and partnerships to address the diverse academic and socio-economic needs of the migrant families served (Canales and Harris, 2004; Illinois Migrant Council, 2002; Whittaker, 1997; Wolverton, 2009). Strategies for increasing time for instruction, discussed in greater depth in Research Question #4, shed light on ways to address the unique and diverse educational needs of migrant children and youth.

C. School Engagement

Migrant students often are marginalized in traditional school settings and experience isolation that is intensified by language barriers, achievement issues, retention, and other challenges. Factors that lead students to disengage from school and to drop out include: not feeling connected to the school, not seeing the relevance in the work they are doing, difficulty with enrolling in extracurricular activities due to the timing of enrollment and withdrawal, and pressures to work (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006, Solis, 2004).

Improving students' sense of belonging and self-worth, as well as the relevance of school work and doing well in school, can lead to higher levels of student engagement (US ED, 2002). Identification and relationships with caring adults, targeted activities designed to bring migrant students together, and activities focused on establishing and planning for future goals and leadership development are mentioned in the literature as possible strategies for addressing this area of concern (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris, 2003; Altschuld and Witkin, 2000; Witkin and Altschuld, 1995; US ED, 2006).

Researchers have discussed the need for migrant students to find and identify with a caring adult and have opportunities to validate themselves as individuals and as a group in school settings. Studies of a migrant student community in a high school that attained higher migrant graduation rates than national estimates showed the importance of personal relationships between students and MEP staff (Gibson, 2003; Illinois Migrant Council, 2003; Gibson and Bejinez, 2002; Kinser, Pessin, and Meyertholen, 2001). The authors suggest that caring relationships with adults in educational settings grant migrant students membership in the school community and access to institutional support.

Mentors also can help migrant students bridge the immense gaps between their home lives and the mainstream school culture. As a result, student motivation, participation, and achievement improve. Non-supportive relationships, as Valenzuela (1999) notes, can increase the marginalization and isolation of students outside the mainstream, as can pressures to assimilate.

D. English Language Development

Thirty-five percent of the approximately 444,000 eligible migrant children and youth identified during the 2008-09 school year were considered limited in English proficiency. Six states with over 1,000 eligible migrant students identified more than half of their migrant students as being limited in English proficiency: Colorado (50%), Iowa (61%), Montana (59%), New York (60%), Pennsylvania (75%), and Utah (75%). These percentages are underestimated because most states are not able to determine the English proficiency of preschool and out-of-school youth, most of which are described by states as English learners (ELs).

ELs face the challenge of learning a new language while learning grade-level content and skills. In order to learn these skills, students also must develop academic language proficiency which requires a greater mastery of linguistic features than does basic conversation. This includes the vocabulary, grammar, and phraseology used in instruction, textbooks, and exams. Scarcella (2008) cautions that ELs may also include struggling readers, learners with disrupted formal education, newcomers, and learners who plateau in their language development and never acquire academic English.

Low academic language skills were seen as the reason many ELs perform poorly in school. Wilkinson and Silliman (2000) noted that ELs lacking proficiency in academic language exhibited reduced participation in classroom activities and were unlikely to fully learn from classroom experiences. They found that this reduction in participation interfered with students' adjustment to school and impeded their academic achievement. They further noted that many ELs entering school speaking English fluently were still at risk for reading failure. This phenomenon is caused, in part, by marginal academic language proficiency—a condition exhibited especially by students who come from cultural and linguistic backgrounds that differed from the teacher and/or other students (Wilkinson & Silliman, 2000).

According to the Academic Language: Assessment and Development of Individual Needs (ALADIN) program disseminated by the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE) of the US ED (Kuehn, 2003), students who are underprepared in academic language

are: less able to distinguish between important and unimportant information, less able to recognize or produce correct affixes, misled by text cues such as bolding, are less able to restate and summarize information, more likely to misunderstand lecture and text meaning, and take fewer lecture and reading notes.

Short and Fitzsimmons (2006) estimate that adolescent immigrants make up 44% of all English learners. Morse (2005) states that “immigrant teens can face unique challenges related to language proficiency, cultural and social adaptation, and poverty. Newly arriving immigrant teenagers have a very limited time to learn English, study the required material for high stakes tests, and catch up to their native English speaking peers before graduation.” She identified several practices that schools can undertake to serve immigrant youth and their families. These include:

- School-based community centers to support assimilation of immigrant families, through English as a Second Language (ESL), parent workshops, computer training, translations, and referrals.
- Newcomer programs that provide intensive language development and academic and cultural orientation.
- Collaborations between educators, religious, and medical personnel with religious and cultural leaders in the community to plan programs for immigrant families.
- A five-year high school plan for immigrant students arriving too late to complete requirements in four years, or who need additional English language training.
- Specialists to assist teachers, for example, in literacy, special education, and ESL.
- Team teaching between general and special educators and ESL teachers.
- Alternative certification programs for immigrants who were teachers in their countries of origin.

Fránquiz and Salinas (2011) found that immigrant youth can succeed in school when provided instruction in academic language and historical thinking. They advocate the use of Web-based instructional programs that provide visually rich environments and engage students in challenging questions with primary documents. They further propose that teachers utilize students’ “bilingual literacies as resources for learning because there is limited time for student completion of high school degree requirements.”

In its CNA, the California Department of Education (CA DOE) (2007) found that although migrant ELs begin learning English at the same rate as other ELs, migrant students fall approximately a half year behind other ELs during the several years that it takes students to reach the advanced levels of proficiency. Although they were not able to identify the underlying reasons, they concluded “that migrant students” eventual attainment in [English Language Development] may be significantly lower than that of their counterpart non-migrant ELs” (CA DOE, 2007).

E. Education Support in the Home

Migrant parents often find it difficult to participate in their children’s education. Martínez and Velázquez (2000) suggest that diminished parent participation can be facilitated by schools

providing family involvement activities that are sensitive to their mobile way of life and culture. These include:

- Bilingual community liaisons can help bridge language and cultural differences between home and school
- Child care, transportation, evening and weekend activities, and refreshments can increase the likelihood of migrant parent participation
- Curriculum that reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of the migrant family can enhance learning--parents can more easily relate to such "homework" and will be more inclined to help their child with subjects that affirm their experiences
- Parent-teacher conferences can give migrant parents an opportunity to express ways they believe they can contribute to their children's education.
- Multiple, coordinated "second-chance" opportunities for education and training--at work sites, community centers, churches, and school sites--can be made available for both students and families
- Partnerships with the agriculture industry can help cultivate potential collaborative activities that allow schools to tap into parents' knowledge, skills, and talents through "flex time," (i.e., allowing parents to attend school activities during work hours).
- Parent workshops that include such activities as "sharing secret talents" help to expose untapped parent skills (e.g., singing, craftsmanship, crocheting, etc.) that can be tapped to benefit students and schools.

Many migrant parents believe that the schools are responsible for their children's academic learning and that their involvement would be counter-productive or even disrespectful of the role of their children's teachers (Chavkin, 1996). Migrant parents see a basic difference between "education" and "instruction," considering themselves responsible for their children's education (moral development, good manners, respect for others) while teachers are responsible for instructing their children in academic matters.

The farmworkers' daily work schedule leaves little time for parents to engage in learning activities with their children. Migrant farmworkers typically begin their work in the fields before dawn and return home late in the evening (Coalition of Immokalee Workers, 2009). Because of the long hours of labor, intensity of migrant work, and cultural differences, migrant parents' support of their children's learning in the home does not fit the traditional model of parent involvement as interpreted by US schools (Chavkin, 1996; Pappamihiel, 2004; Tinkler, 2002; Ward, 2002).

The literature on migrant education emphasizes the need for innovative, responsive, and culturally sensitive approaches for reaching out to migrant families. Emphasis in the research is on creating true partnerships with parents; that is, those that involve taking steps to understand culturally different definitions or perceptions about the school's and family's role in learning (US ED, 2002).

Lopez, Scibner, and Mahitivanichcha (2001), found that schools successful in involving migrant families had "school staff that were personally and systemically committed to meeting the multiple needs of these families. This process required an awareness of each family's needs,

and a capacity to mobilize multiple community social services to help meet each family's needs.” The authors postulate that there is a need to rethink the traditional concepts of parent involvement and promote dynamic programs that encourage greater accountability to all families.

Chavkin (1996) and Tinkler (2002) suggest that parent involvement training should focus on providing a welcoming school environment and working with parents to mutually define roles and ways they can become more involved in academic support for their children. While many schools assess parent involvement through attendance at formal events at the school, many parents prefer to provide support for learning in the home, needing training in areas such as tutoring and questioning techniques or homework checklists (López. 2001; Wolverton, 2009; Cranston-Gingras, 2008; Illinois Migrant Council, 2005).

In designing outreach there is a need to think about redefining and restructuring parent involvement activities and looking for new ways to get parents involved that focus on family needs—such as helping parents cope with the challenges of a migratory existence—rather than school needs (López, 2005; López, 2001; Martínez and Velázquez, 2000; Treviño, in Salinas and Fránquiz, 2006). The researchers suggest addressing the broad needs of families, for example, integrating parent involvement with efforts to increase access to adult education programming. The literature also encourages the recognition of diverse family structures, circumstances, and responsibilities, as well as the adoption of policies that encourage non-traditional family members to participate (Treviño, in Salinas and Fránquiz, 2006; Arias and Morillo-Campbell, 2008).

Professional development for migrant educators around parent involvement is critical to creating advocates for migrant students who can effectively reach out to migrant families (National Staff Development Council, 2011). The need for training extends across the school setting from staff working to identify and recruit migrant students, to administrators, classroom educators, and counselors. It should be designed to help school and district staff become aware of the specific difficulties and educational issues faced by migrant youth and their families (Ward, 2002) as well as the cultural expectations of the students and families they serve (Walls, 2003).

F. Health

Migrant children cannot fully participate in, and benefit from, school if they are not healthy. Many migrant children suffer health issues even before they are born. “Due to mobility, the pregnant farmworker woman and infant child face great obstacles in obtaining adequate and timely prenatal and postnatal care” (NCFH, 2009). Furthermore, as Gwyther and Jenkins (1998) point out, “the occupational hazards of farm work pose significant risks to pregnant women and children.”

Some of the occupational hazards faced by farmworkers include prolonged standing and bending, overexertion, extremes in temperature and weather, dehydration, chemical exposure, and lack of sanitary washing facilities in the fields (Ruíz, 2008). These occupational hazards can lead to spontaneous abortion, fetal malformation, or growth retardation and abnormal postnatal development. Data from the Pregnancy Nutrition Surveillance System found that of 4,840 migrant women monitored, 52% had less than the recommended weight gain throughout their

pregnancies, 24% had undesirable birth outcomes, 7% had low birth weight, 10% had pre-term births, and 7% were small for gestational age (NCFH, 2009).

Another issue affecting migrant students' health is food insecurity. This is defined as a lack of access to enough food to fully meet basic needs at all times due to lack of financial resources. In a studies of migrant and seasonal farmworkers, Weigel (2007) and Borre, et. al (2010) found that food insecurity affected a majority of migrant households with families experiencing hunger—the uneasy or painful sensation caused by lack of food. They also found widespread occurrences of adult obesity, elevated blood pressure, and blood lipid and glucose disturbances among the families, depression, nervousness, learning disorders, and symptoms suggestive of gastrointestinal infection.

G. Access to Services

Migrant students and their families encounter many barriers in accessing support services and resources needed to help children succeed in school. These include a lack of transportation; students' need to provide financial support to their families; making them unavailable to participate in academic activities after school; the lack of understanding of parents regarding the need for additional support; and the lack of space in after-school programs, especially if migrant students enroll after the beginning of the school year (CA DOE, 2007; US ED, 2001; Gibson, 2003; Durón, 1995; Martínez and Velázquez, 2000).

The migratory lifestyle, language barriers, and a lack of sufficient financial resources and health insurance impact migrant families' access to health services (Secondary Student Initiative, 2002; ERIC Clearinghouse, 2001). Health services for migrant children often are interrupted, abbreviated, or disjointed due to their mobile lifestyle. In a survey of 1,936 parents participating in Migrant Education Even Start, 11% of migrant parents reporting revealed that their preschool child had a medical need. Additionally, 32% of these children had not received adequate health attention.

Another health issue affecting migrant children is access to dental care. Quandt, et al. (2007) found that only 21% of farmworkers interviewed had received dental services within the past year, almost all in Mexico due to language and lower cost. Lombardi (2002) reported that the most common barriers to receiving proper oral health care were cost and time. Luke and Miller (2002) found that farmworkers who speak English were much more likely to receive dental services (57% vs. 34%) than those who are not proficient in English. Weathers (2003) noted that 79% of farmworkers had never had a dental exam.

A small percentage of migrant farmworkers gain access to health care services. Weathers (2003) found that only 20% of migrant farmworkers used any health care services in the preceding two years and only 42% of women in farmworker families sought prenatal care. In a study of 300 migrant children, these researchers found that 53% had an unmet need for health care in the last year and 34% had never had a "well child" examination.

The primary reasons cited for the lack of health care included insufficient financial resources and lack of health care insurance (CA DOE, 2007). Rosenbaum and Shin (2007) reported that

85% of migrant and seasonal farmworkers were uninsured, more than half the percentage found among low-income adults in the United States. Migrant children were almost four times more likely to be uninsured than other low-income children (85% vs. 22%).

Migrant workers face significant language barriers in accessing needed services. Approximately 90% read or write little or no English (Rosenbaum, 2005). Along with cost, migrant farmworkers reported language being a major barrier to obtaining adequate health care (Rosenbaum, 2005). Adding to this obstacle, many migrant families never or rarely had an interpreter available for medical appointments (Weathers, et. al. 2003).

H. Diverse Culture

Along with the seven areas of concern, OME identified “cultural adjustment” as creating unique educational challenges for children of migrant workers (OME, 2004). This category was investigated by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) (2011) who looked at culture as “the sum of one’s experiences, knowledge, skills, values, language, and interests.” They indicated that learning is greatest when the cultures of home and school connect, further asserting that abilities are developed through cultural experiences that affect thoughts and expression.

The National Education Association (2007) reported that “helping learners make the link between their culture and the new knowledge and skills they encounter inside the school is at the heart of ensuring that all students achieve at high levels.” It follows that conflicts between home and school occur because of cultural differences related to the characteristics of interpersonal relationships, standards of behavior, and the goals and objectives of education.

In a study of 149 Anglo and Latino high school students in California, Navarrete (2007) found that fatalism (the belief that there is little that can be done to change their fate), was indirectly associated with academic achievement (grade point average) through its effect on students’ perceptions of the causes of success and failure (e.g., innate ability). She concluded that interventions or educational programs for this population should be developed with an understanding of students’ cultural values as well as factors associated with SES. Having role models in the family, resources, social and economic expectations, and motivational processes were found to be key factors in designing proper strategies and programs.

Carter (2005) reported that cultural beliefs regarding the differences between minorities and the dominant culture determined how hard economically disadvantaged children worked at school. Akerlof and Kranton (2002) postulated that the effort students put into their studies depended, in part on, their cultural identity, and Lareau (2003) noted that cultural differences in the child rearing practices of poor, working-class, and middle class families contributed to differences in children’s successes in life.

Navarrete (2007) reported the need to study aspects of culture such as values, beliefs, and norms that affect psychological processes. She found that the research that attributed differences in academic achievement to race or ethnicity did not look at cultural and psychological constructs that led to stereotyping, labeling, and discrimination. Because they are

connected with areas of influence in the school and community, cultural differences can affect migrant students' academic achievement.

González, et al., (1994) argue against the belief, "that diverse minority students have language disadvantages and deficiencies in school-sanctioned knowledge that they bring from the home to the classroom". They believe that this perception has too often led to lowered academic expectations. They have developed a research model in which teachers enter minority households and discover knowledge and other resources and draw upon *funds of knowledge* that exist in minority students' households to modify and enrich their classroom practices. Teachers engaged in these activities typically view their students as competent participants in households rich in cognitive resources, and have consequently raise their expectations of their students' abilities.

Brown-Jeffy and Cooper (2011) promote culturally relevant pedagogy as "a way for schools to acknowledge the home community culture of the students, and through sensitivity to cultural nuances integrate these cultural experiences, values, and understandings into the teaching and learning environment." They believe that "educational processes and structures, especially those related to teaching or pedagogy, can make a difference in student achievement."

They identified five themes that encompass the conceptual framework of culturally relevant pedagogy: identity and achievement, equity and excellence, developmental appropriateness, teaching the whole child, and student-teacher relationships.

Villegas and Lucas (2002) identified six characteristics of Culturally Responsive Pedagogy.

1. Teachers recognize that the ways people perceive the world, interact with one another, and approach learning, among other things, are deeply influenced by such factors as race/ethnicity, social class, and language. This understanding enables teachers to cross the cultural boundaries that separate them from their students.
2. Teachers have affirming views of students from diverse backgrounds, seeing resources for learning in all students rather than viewing differences as problems to be solved.
3. Teachers have a sense that they are both responsible and capable of bringing about educational change that will make schooling more responsive to students of diverse backgrounds.
4. Teachers are familiar with their students' prior knowledge and beliefs, derived from both personal and cultural experiences.
5. Teachers see learning as an active process by which learners give meaning to new information.
6. Teachers design instruction that builds on what students already know while stretching them beyond the familiar.

Villegas and Davis (2008) advocate that school districts increase their efforts to recruit, hire, and retain teachers of color who can make a positive difference in the learning of students of color. They conclude that teachers who know their students well and are adept at communicating with them in culturally appropriate ways are better able to engage students in the learning process. They further propose that teacher preparation programs design programs specifically for

teachers of color that prepare them in to use their insights and experiences to make a difference in their minority students.

The seven areas of concern used to organize this section were identified in a pilot study conducted in 2002 of four states – Arizona, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Texas. Over the past several years, State MEPs have utilized the framework resulting from this pilot study to conduct their State comprehensive needs assessments (CNAs).

Recently, Evans, et. al. (2011) conducted a study to investigate the efficacy of areas of concern and their relative impact in Florida. Their analysis identified four factors that present barriers and challenges to migrant students and their families. Although these factors have some overlap with the Seven Areas of Concern, sufficient discrepancy exists to question the wide use of the seven areas alone in designing MEP programs. The four factors identified were:

- Mobility (found to have the strongest impact on the educational achievement of migrant students);
- Poverty and the economy;
- Lack of academic English; and
- Transportation and lack of access to services.

I. Section Summary

The needs of migrant students are clustered into the areas of concern, any one of which can have devastating effects on the overall achievement of academic and performance outcomes. While some students who are labeled at risk exhibit needs in one or more of these areas, migrant students—across the board—exhibit a preponderance of the need factors and therefore are placed at higher risk of school failure. If states continue to use the Seven Areas of Concern to guide the development of their service delivery plans, research is needed to investigate the fidelity of programs to their respective service delivery plans, to measure the impact that services have had on the seven areas, and to isolate other factors, such as diverse cultures, that have had an impact.

IV. Research Question #2: What instructional strategies has research shown to have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?

In order to help migrant children overcome academic barriers and achieve to high academic and performance standards, educators must implement strategies and programs that address migrant students' unique needs that stem from mobility, poverty, acquisition of academic English, and how schools perceive students coming from other cultures. Because there is a scarcity of research on strategies specific to migrant students, migrant educators must look to practices that are effective with high-risk students with similar characteristics and implement these practices within a supplemental model that does not supplant the non-migrant funded instructional services provided through MEPs.

The strategies and techniques presented in this literature review have been found to be effective with migrant children and youth, as well as with high-risk students affected by poverty and those who come from families with diverse language and cultural backgrounds. In spite of the scarcity of evidence-based research specific to migrant students, migrant students are held by states to the same high standards as are all students. Consequently, the practices and strategies found to be promising are contained in this section as a guide to service providers such as migrant program designers and educators.

This portion of the review of the literature on migrant education is divided into the following sections: a) **Preschool** (standards, best practices/strategies, and programs); b) **in-school elementary and secondary** (increasing literacy, developing language, and learning across the curriculum). Research Question #4 addresses evidence-based programs and strategies for OSY.

A. Preschool Students

Klien and Knitzer (2006) argue “that low-income children make gains in early literacy and early math when high-quality preschool programs include an intentional curriculum, and provide effective teacher professional development and supports.” An intentional curriculum includes activities and lessons that are planned, organized, sequenced, focused on academic readiness, and delivered through age-appropriate direct instruction. An example is *Partners for Literacy* that emphasizes language development and literacy skills, guided by positive adult-child relationships fundamental to learning language and literacy. Others key concepts include:

- Educational games rely on sequenced, integrated curriculum.
- All domains of child development are addressed.
- Adults provide scaffolding to promote early language and literacy.
- All staff must use culturally responsive practices, and the curricula must be appropriate for ELs.
- Parents and teachers engage in instructional conversation with children when reading to them.
- Parents and teachers use everyday care-giving routines as opportunities to foster language and literacy as well as social development.
- Teachers help children problem-solve and learn social skills.
- Teachers practice the 3 N’s (notice, nudge, and narrate) to help children learn to attend and follow directions (Klien & Knitzer, 2006). The 3N’s emphasize teachers actively engaging with young children through observation, systematically directing them toward their learning goals, and narrating individual student progress.

Espinosa (2010) uses the term “dual language learners” to refer to children who are learning two languages simultaneously or successively and are learning *through* two languages. She proposes literacy strategies for young dual language learners such as practicing pre-reading in the home language, identifying key words and building vocabulary systematically, using multi-sensory materials to build understanding of text (e.g., puppets, manipulatives), using interactive,

dialogic reading methods and a small group format, and providing opportunities for the application and practice of new vocabulary.

Reyes and Vallone (2007) further contend that two-way bilingual immersion programs offer countless opportunities for students to forge identities in supportive contexts. They indicated that conversations with parents and teachers of students in two-way immersion programs attest that participation in such programs can and do make deep and profound contributions not only to educational growth and the emotional health of children.

In its publication, *Preschool English Learners: Principles and Practices to Promote Language, Literacy, and Learning*, the CA DOE (2009) posited 10 principles to promote language development, literacy, and learning among preschool ELs:

1. Form meaningful partnerships among preschool programs and families.
2. Teachers understand cultural differences in language use and incorporate those differences into the daily routine.
3. Promote shared experiences in which language is used as a meaningful tool to communicate interests, ideas, and emotions.
4. Promote language development and learning through the creative and interactive use of language between preschool teachers and children.
5. Experiment with the use, form, purpose, and intent of the first and second languages.
6. Continue the use and development of the child's home language.
7. Code switching (the practice of using more than one language to express a thought or idea) is a normal part of language development for many bilingual children.
8. Coordinate and collaborate among families, teachers, and specialists to support the language and literacy development of children with disabilities and other special needs.
9. Engage daily in multiple literacy practices such as reading books, singing songs, and reciting poetry.
10. Offer a variety of opportunities for children to explore written materials and their meanings as well as the sounds of spoken language through rhyme and alliteration.

The CA DOE (2009) identified several research-based strategies that teachers can employ to support ELs in developing communication skills. These hold promise for migrant children, as well.

- Start with what the child knows – Use a few words in the child's home language (come, bathroom, food) to allow for low-level communication.
- Start slowly – Allow the child to become familiar with the classroom situation before approaching him or her with questions and directives in English.
- Use scaffold communication – Combine words with some type of gesture, action, gesture, or directed gaze.
- Provide safe havens – Allow the child to regain energy and focus by providing spaces and activities for participation with few, if any, expectations for verbal communication.

- Get help from English-speaking children – Show the child’s peers ways to communicate and ask questions to encourage interaction and provide additional language models.
- Expand and extend – Start with what the child already knows and expand on personal language. If the child says “cat,” the teacher can reply, “That is a black cat.”
- Raise expectations – Request an oral response from the child rather than only a gesture when he or she shows signs of readiness to talk.
- Use repetition – Say the same thing more than once to give the child an opportunity to understand what is being said.
- Talk about the here and now – Refer to the present situation to allow the child to understand the context of communication.
- Do fine-tuning – Restate the message in a form that the child can understand when he or she at first seems not to understand.
- Offer consistent routines – Help the child learn quickly where to go and what to expect to become included as a member of the group. Use the child’s name to invite participation in small-group activities.

B. School-aged Students

There are common strategies for improving student academic outcomes that can be employed across school-aged students and various programs that serve migrant students. Jachman (2002) noted, “Migrant students are capable of achieving as much as any other students. The real challenge is to provide consistent, long-term reading instruction.” Several strategies for increasing the literacy of migrant students include:

- Requiring students to write every day and provide feedback daily on their writing.
- Integrating and affirming the child’s language, culture, and lifestyle into the classroom. Model respect for diversity and sharing experiences and values.
- Identifying the strengths of migrant children in the classroom (e.g., adapting to new settings and knowledge) and validate and utilize these skills.
- Assigning older students to act as mentors to new migrant students.
- Personalizing lessons using students’ experience. This will help them understand ideas and transfer them to other content.
- Fostering independent learning and develop students’ metacognitive learning strategies to help them become independent learners. If students learn to recognize when they are approaching a learning obstacle, they can learn strategies to overcome it.
- Implementing appropriate assessment of language proficiency and academic needs.
- Conducting outreach to parents in a language that they understand.
- Providing staff development to help teachers and other staff serve migrant students more effectively using strategies that promote understanding.

Marzano et. al. (2000) synthesized the findings of over 100 experimental studies to identify the most effective instructional strategies that can be used by K-12 teachers in all subjects. Their efforts determined that the following research-based instructional strategies can produce

achievement gains in students when specific techniques are followed. For each strategy, they calculated the percentile point gain made by students using properly implemented techniques.

- Teaching specific vocabulary words important to what students are learning resulted in a gain of 32 percentile points. Included are: directly teaching critical terms and phrases, actively engaging students in learning new terms/phrases, exposing them to key details multiple times, engaging them in dramatic representations, providing clear generalization statements, using multiple examples, and helping students clear up misperceptions.
- Comparing, contrasting, classifying, creating analogies, and creating metaphors resulted in a gain of up to 45 percentile points. The aspects that were considered included using teacher-directed and student-directed classification, metaphor, and analogy tasks; and using graphic organizers with children.
- Teaching summarizing and note-taking strategies resulted in a gain of up to 34 percentile points. This includes rule-based summarizing (e.g., deleting trivial material and redundancies), using a series of questions designed to highlight critical elements of the information studied, using reciprocal teaching (i.e., summary statement, questioning, clarifying, and predicting), introducing note taking and helping students learn to take notes through an informal outline and pictures or graphic representations.
- Reinforcing effort and giving praise resulted in up to a gain of 29 percentile points by teaching students about the role that effort can play in enhancing achievement, having students assess their effort and achievement, personalizing recognition, using the pause, prompt, and praise strategy, and using concrete symbols of recognition.
- Homework and practice resulted in up to a 28 percentile point gain through establishing and communicating a homework policy, clarifying the purpose of homework assignments, using different strategies for giving students feedback on homework, asking students to chart their accuracy and speed, designing practice assignments that focus on specific elements of a complex skill or process, and helping students increase their conceptual understanding of skills or processes.
- Cooperative learning resulted in up to a 27 percentile point gain through using various student groupings and different group sizes; and combining cooperative learning with other classroom structures.
- Setting goals and providing feedback resulted in up to a 23 percentile point gain through the use of strategies such as setting goals specific enough to give direction, but general enough to allow flexibility; contracting with students for specific goals to accomplish and giving them a process to accomplish goals, providing feedback for specific types of knowledge and skills, and involving students in the feedback process.
- Generating and testing hypotheses and providing cues, questions, and advanced organizers resulted in up to a 23 percentile point gain. Specific strategies included the use of a variety of structured tasks, generating and testing hypotheses, and asking students to explain their hypotheses and conclusions.

One of CREDE's (2011) research-based standards for effective teaching and learning is to develop language and literacy across the curriculum. Indicators that support this standard result from effective and promising teacher practices designed to support learning. The teacher:

- listens to students talk about familiar topics such as home and community;
- responds to students' talk and questions, making responsive changes during conversation that directly relate to the students' comments; encourages student use of first and second languages in instructional activities;
- assists written and oral language development through modeling, eliciting, probing, restating, clarifying, questioning, praising, etc., in purposeful conversation and writing;
- interacts with students in ways that respect students' preferences for speaking such as wait-time, eye contact, turn-taking, or spotlighting;
- connects student language with literacy and content area knowledge through speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities;
- encourages students to use content vocabulary to express their understanding; and
- provides frequent opportunity for student interaction with each other and the teacher during instructional activities.

CREDE (2011) further asserts that "The high literacy goals of schools are best achieved in everyday, culturally-meaningful contexts." They maintain that for effective learning to occur, the teacher should begin activities with what students already know from home, community, and school; acquire knowledge of local norms and knowledge by talking to students, parents, other family members, community members, and by reading pertinent documents; assist students to connect and apply their learning to home and community; plan jointly with students to design community-based learning activities; provide opportunities for parents or families to participate in classroom instructional activities; and vary activities to include students' preferences.

Based on a review of several high-quality experimental studies with different interventions found to be effective with ELs, Gersten et. al., (2007) determined that these programs shared the following characteristics exhibited by teachers:

- provided multiple opportunities for students to respond to questions and to practice reading words and sentences, either in a small group or with a peer, providing clear feedback when students made errors.
- provided explicit instruction in all areas of reading, including explicit comprehension instruction and explicit vocabulary instruction.
- sufficiently covered five areas - phonological awareness, phonics, reading fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension that were implemented daily for at least 30 minutes in small, homogeneous groups of 3-6 students.
- provided daily explicit vocabulary instruction as a part of reading instruction and English language development; emphasized vocabulary instruction in all other parts of the curriculum, including reading, writing, science, history, and geography.
- provided vocabulary instruction emphasizing definitions that engage students in the use of word meanings in reading, writing, speaking, and listening with regular review.

- emphasized the acquisition of meanings of everyday words that native speakers know and that are not necessarily part of the academic curriculum.
- devoted about an hour and a half each week to instructional activities in which pairs of students at different ability levels/English language proficiencies work together on academic tasks in a structured fashion, practicing and extending what was already taught

Lee and Fradd (1998) propose an instructional model which they call “Instructional Congruence” for teachers to provide effective science and literacy instruction. They suggest that teachers integrate knowledge of students' language and cultural experiences, content learning, and literacy development which will help students learn content area concepts and vocabulary, engage them in content investigations cooperatively, developing thinking skills, and encourage them to talk about content areas with other students, their parents, and their teachers.

Hoover and Patton (2005) recommended differentiating curriculum and instruction as a means for justifying the discrepancies created by an assessment that may be linguistically and culturally biased. Recommendations for adapting curriculum to meet the needs of ELs with special needs involve:

- connecting content to students' backgrounds, cultures, and prior experiences to create authentic learning experiences;
- teaching multiple skills that can be maintained over time and transferred across subjects;
- integrating language acquisition and academic outcomes and having high expectations for student success; and
- engaging in active learning and inquiry-based instructional strategies.

To better serve the needs of late arrival immigrant students, Salinas, Sullivan, and Wacker (2007) advocate the reconceptualization of high school social studies curricula to “entail a body of knowledge and constructs that challenge marginalizing assumptions about power and the narrow tenets of citizenship.” They recommend that educators reconstruct curriculum from that of passive consumption to active and critically conscious deconstruction of the official school knowledge. They argue on behalf of a culturally-bound examination that will become inclusive and capable of interacting with physical, regional, human, spatial, and historical traditions and lenses of examination.

This section of the literature review presented instructional strategies that have been found to be effective with a variety of children. Migrant instructional staff should identify ways to utilize these strategies in their classrooms. MEP administrators need to develop tools to identify prospective teachers familiar with these strategies and to observe and evaluate teacher performance based on their implementation of these strategies. MEP regional and state directors need to identify long-term professional development that will provide teachers with the skills to successfully utilize these strategies.

Virtual schools that deliver online instruction can provide personalized instruction to migrant students that experience gaps in their education. Migrant students can integrate online courses

with traditional education programs to acquire needed credits and stay on course toward graduation.

Virtual education programs utilize a variety of online instruction models. Tucker (2007) identified several virtual schools using different models to provide instruction to K-12 students.

Virtual High School (VHS) is a membership-based supplemental program, where member schools contribute one of their classroom teachers to teach an online VHS class and provide a site coordinator to manage and oversee student participation at their school.

Florida Virtual School (FLVS) allows students to choose traditional, extended, or accelerated pace for a given course. The content stays the same but the time to complete the course is adjusted to meet a student's needs.

Performance Learning Centers offer students at high risk of dropping out a personalized program that combines the flexibility of online learning with the relationship-centered approach of a smaller, more individualized student environment.

University of California College Prep, California's statewide virtual program creates partnerships with local schools so that "school personnel are available to keep track of the online student's progress, proctor tests and exams, [and] advocate for the student."

Plazas Comunitarias is an online educational program offered through Mexico's Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP) for Mexican citizens living abroad. Youth and adults may continue their elementary and secondary education in Spanish as well as take courses in English as a second language, computer training, and job skills. Literacy, elementary, and middle school courses are free while high school courses are offered at a low cost (INEA, 2005).

V. Research Question #3: What evidence-based programs exist that have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?

By law, instructional services provided by the MEP must be supplemental to those services provided by the school district or local operating agency. Programs that have promise for helping migrant students succeed must be implemented in a migrant education program setting. As a supplemental program, ways the MEP might access eligible students is in: 1) preschool settings (where preschool is not otherwise offered by the school district), 2) before school programs, 3) after school programs, 4) short term programs (e.g., summer, intersession), 5) tutorial programs, and 6) programs geared to out-of-school youth. This section of the literature review looks at programs that can be implemented in these five venues.

A. Preschool Programs

There is limited research on preschool programs for pre-kindergarten aged migrant children; however, as the vast majority of migrant children are Hispanic, this body of literature can shed some light on programs that hold promise for young migrant children.

In a meta-analysis of the research on preschool programs that serve Hispanic children, Laosa and Ainsworth (2007) concluded that “When afforded the opportunity to access high-quality preschool education, children of Hispanic descent make significant gains in learning and development, including areas such as vocabulary and letter knowledge that are strongly predictive of later reading success.” Reynolds, et al. (2006) reviewed several successful programs serving young children and found that “extended early childhood programs can promote more successful transitions to school than preschool intervention alone.”

Characteristics they identified that work for young children include:

- focus on language-based school readiness skills;
- multiple years of services to facilitate successful transition from preschool to early elementary school;
- an intensive family support component that facilitates parent involvement and commitment to the child’s education, promoting parents’ personal growth; and
- the use of paraprofessionals and reduced class size along with small student-teacher ratios so that children can receive individualized attention with more individual learning opportunities.

The US ED’s What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) evaluates research on curricula and instructional strategies to identify effective educational practices and programs. The early childhood review includes programs for three to five year old preschoolers attending center-based programs. Interventions are included that have two or more studies that meet the WWC evidence criteria, with or without reservations.

The following four programs provide instructional strategies focusing on pre-kindergarten children that have demonstrated improved outcomes. For each of these curricula, the WWC improvement index is reported which lists the finding that represents the difference between the percentile rank of the average student in the treatment group and comparison groups. The improvement index can take on values between -50 and +50, with positive numbers denoting favorable results (WWC, 2011).

- Bright Beginnings (BB) is an early childhood curriculum, based in part on *High/Scope*[®] and *Creative Curriculum*[®], with an additional emphasis on literacy skills. It consists of nine thematic units to enhance children’s cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development. Each unit includes concept maps, literacy lessons, center activities, and home activities with special emphasis on the development of early language and literacy skills, and parent involvement (WWC, 2009).

As part of an initiative sponsored by the Institute of Education Sciences, the Preschool Curriculum Evaluation Research (PCER, 2008) Consortium conducted an experimental study of state pre-kindergarten classrooms in Tennessee using BB. Classrooms and control classrooms where teachers used teacher-developed curricula with a focus on basic school readiness. A positive impact was found at the classroom level on early literacy instruction and phonological awareness instruction for BB.

Based on one study (PCER, 2008), the average improvement index of BB on two measures of oral language was +4 percentile points; for print knowledge, +12 percentile

points. For phonological processing; and for math, the average improvement index on three measures was +4 percentile points (WWC, 2009).

- Phonological Awareness Training plus Letter Knowledge Training is a general practice aimed at enhancing young children's phonological awareness abilities, especially the ability to detect or manipulate the sounds in words independent of meaning—a precursor to reading. *Phonological Awareness Training* can involve various training activities that teach children to identify, detect, delete, segment, or blend segments of spoken words (i.e., words, syllables, onsets and rimes, phonemes) or that focus on teaching children to detect, identify, or produce rhyme or alliteration (WWC, 2006).

Based on three studies (Roberts and Neal, 2004; Pietrangelo, 1999, and Gettinger, 1986 cited in WWC, 2006), the WWC found positive effects with the average improvement index for print knowledge being +27 percentile points across the three studies; for phonological processing, +28 percentile points; for early reading/ writing, +19 percentile points; for cognition, +4 percentile points (WWC, 2006).

- Pre-K Mathematics is a supplemental curriculum designed to develop informal math knowledge and skills in preschool children. Math content is organized into seven units with specific concepts and skills from each unit taught through teacher-guided, small-group activities with concrete manipulatives. Take-home activities with materials that parallel the small-group classroom activities help parents support their children's mathematical development at home (WWC, 2007).

Starkey and Klein (2005, cited in WWC, 2007) reported a statistically significant positive effect for *Pre-K Mathematics* combined with *DLM Express* for a cohort combined across states using the Child Math Assessment as an outcome measure. Clements and Sarama (2006, cited in WWC, 2007) reported a statistically significant positive effect for *Pre-K Mathematics* combined with *DLM Express* using the Early Mathematics Assessment as an outcome measure.

The improvement index for math was +22 percentile points across the two studies (WWC, 2007).

- Sound Foundations is a literacy curriculum to teach phonological awareness to pre-literate children that focuses on phoneme identity (i.e., different words can start and end with the same sound). It asserts that phonemic awareness is necessary but not sufficient to reading, which also depends on the alphabetic principle—the association of sounds with letters and using those sounds to form words (WWC, 2007b).

Whitehurst, et. al. (1994, cited in WWC, 2007b) reported a statistically significant difference favoring the intervention group based on Print Concepts. The statistical significance of this effect was confirmed by the WWC who reported positive gain in writing. The improvement index for print knowledge was +24 percentile points with an early reading/writing gain of +20 percentile points.

B. Before and After School Programs

- Fast ForWord Language is a computer-based instructional program developed to build the cognitive skills students need to improve English proficiency and reading skills. It consists of seven game-like exercises, including nonverbal and verbal sound

discrimination, phonological processing, vocabulary recognition, and language comprehension (WWC, 2006b).

Scientific Learning Corporation (2004, cited in WWC, 2006b) reported, and the WWC confirmed, that *Fast ForWord Language* had a statistically significant and substantively important positive effect on English language development for elementary school ELs. The improvement index for reading achievement was +3 percentile points and +31 percentile points for math.

- Vocabulary Improvement Program for English Language Learners and Their Classmates (VIP) is a vocabulary development curriculum for ELs and native English speakers (grades 4–6). The 15-week program includes 30-45 minute whole class and small group activities aimed to increase students' understanding of target vocabulary words included in a weekly reading assignment (WWC, 2007e).

In a review of a study conducted by Carlo et. al. (2004, cited in WWC, 2007e), the WWC found that the average effect across the five measures of the domain indicated potentially positive effects on English language development. The improvement index for reading achievement was +19 percentile points and the +17 for English language development (WWC, 2007e).

- Corrective Reading is designed to promote reading accuracy (decoding), fluency, and comprehension skills of students in third grade or higher who are reading below their grade level. It has four levels that address students' decoding skills and six levels that address students' comprehension skills with all lessons being sequenced and scripted. *Corrective Reading* can be implemented in small groups of 4-5 students or in a whole-class format and is intended to be taught in 45-minute lessons 4-5 times a week (WWC, 2007h).

Torgesen, et. al. (cited in WWC, 2007h) reported statistically significant positive effects of *Corrective Reading* on the WRMT–R word identification subtest and TOWRE sight word efficiency subtest with the average improvement index for alphabets being +9 percentile points; for fluency, +11 percentile points; and for comprehension, +7 percentile points.

- Reading Mastery can be used as an intervention program for struggling readers, as a supplement to a school's core reading program, or as a stand-alone program. It is a direct instruction program designed to provide explicit, systematic instruction in English reading and is available in three versions, *Reading Mastery Classic* (grades K–3), *Reading Mastery Plus*, an integrated reading-language program for grades K–6, and *Reading Mastery Signature Edition* (grades K-5). It begins by teaching phonemic awareness and sound-letter correspondence and moves into word and passage reading, vocabulary development, comprehension, and building oral reading fluency. (WWC, 2006b).

Gunn et al. (2000, cited in WWC, 2006d) found that the intervention had statistically significant effects on reading achievement. After one year, three of the five outcome measures showed substantively important effects (word attack, reading vocabulary, and passage comprehension but not oral reading fluency or letter/word identification). The average improvement index for reading achievement was +27 percentile points (WWC, 2006d).

C. Short-Term Programs

- Summer Reading Book Distribution – Providing summer reading books to economically disadvantaged first and second-grade students for three consecutive years was found to significantly improve reading achievement. Each spring, students attended a book fair and were asked to select 15 books from the 400-600 books offered. Twelve of these books were distributed at no cost to the students on the last day of school (WWC 2010b).

Allington et. al., (cited in WWC, 2010b) found that students who received three consecutive years of free, self-selected summer reading books had statistically significantly higher reading test scores than students who did not receive summer reading books. The reported effect size of 0.14 is interpreted by the WWC as roughly equivalent to moving a student from the 50th percentile to the 56th percentile of reading achievement.

- Reading Recovery is a short-term tutoring intervention intended to serve the lowest-achieving (bottom 20%) first-grade students. The goals of *Reading Recovery* are to promote literacy skills, reduce the number of first-grade students who are struggling to read, and prevent long-term reading difficulties. It supplements classroom teaching with one-to-one tutoring sessions, generally conducted as pull-out sessions during the school day. Tutoring, which is conducted by trained *Reading Recovery* teachers, takes place daily for 30 minutes over 12-20 weeks (WWC, 2008b).

Based on five studies, the WWC found positive effects in alphabets and general reading achievement and potentially positive effects in fluency and comprehension. The average improvement index for alphabets was +34 percentile points across studies; for fluency, +46 percentile points; for comprehension, +14 percentile points; and for general reading, +32 percentile points across five studies (WWC, 2008b).

- Other summer programs not on the WWC, but which show promise for migrant students include Summer Success: Reading and Summer Success: Math (Houghton-Mifflin, 2010). These programs emphasize communication skills, content area direct instruction, diagnostic assessments, and games and manipulatives, and materials to focus on summer school programs. Summer Success: Reading also was found to be successful with migrant students (Montana MEP, 2008; Center for Summer Learning, Johns Hopkins University, 2009). The iRead summer program provides high quality, low cost resources through local libraries (Celano and Neuman, 2001; Krashen and Shin, 2004; Roman, Carran, and Fiore, 2010).

D. Tutoring Programs

- ClassWide Peer Tutoring (CWPT) is a peer-assisted instructional strategy designed to be integrated with most existing reading curricula. This approach provides students with increased opportunities to practice reading skills by asking questions and receiving immediate feedback from a peer tutor. The teacher creates age-appropriate peer teaching materials for the peer tutors that consider student language skills and disabilities (WWC, 2007i).

Greenwood et. al. (cited in WWC, 2007i) reported a statistically significant effect of *CWPT* on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills–Reading. According to WWC

analysis; however, the effect was not statistically significant (WWC, 2007i) while the improvement index for general reading achievement was found to be +14 percentile points.

- Sound Partners is a phonics-based tutoring program that provides supplemental reading instruction to students in grades K–3 with below average reading skills. It is designed for tutors with minimal training and experience. Instruction emphasizes letter-sound correspondences, phoneme blending, decoding and encoding phonetically regular words, and reading irregular high-frequency words, with oral reading to practice applying phonics skills in text. The tutoring can be provided as a pull-out or after-school program. (WWC, 2010). The average improvement index for alphabets was +21 percentile points across seven studies; for reading fluency, +19 percentile points; for reading comprehension, +21 percentile points; and for the one study examining general reading, +9 percentile points (WWC, 2010).
- Peer Tutoring and Response Groups aims to improve the language and achievement of ELs by pairing or grouping students to work on a task, whether students are grouped by age, ability, or mixed. Peer tutoring typically consists of two students assuming the roles of tutor and tutee, or "coach and player" (WWC, 2007d).

In a study of 117 elementary students, including students with disabilities participating in the class-wide Peer Tutoring Learning Management System, Greenwood, et. al., (2001, cited in WWC, 2007) found that students made considerable progress in mastering the curriculum over periods ranging from 15 to 21 weeks of school. The average improvement index for the English language development domain is +17 percentile points across three studies reviewed by WWC, (2007d).

- Twelve Together is a peer support and mentoring program for middle and early high school students that offers weekly after-school discussion groups led by trained volunteer adult facilitators. The program also offers homework assistance, trips to college campuses, and an annual weekend retreat. *Twelve Together* had potentially positive effects on staying in school suggesting that it may be effective at improving student graduation rates (WWC, 2007g).

At the end of the three-year follow-up period, Dynarski et al. (1998, cited in WWC, 2008) found that 8% of *Twelve Together* students had dropped out of school compared with 13% of control group students. The improvement index is +13 percentile points for staying in school (WWC, 2007g).

E. Alternative Secondary Programs

The programs and instructional strategies that follow focus on secondary students and have been found to provide evidence of positive or potentially positive effects that generate improved outcomes.

- High School Redirection is an alternative high school program for youth at risk of dropping out that emphasizes basic skills development (with a focus on reading) and offers extra-curricular activities. The schools operate in economically disadvantaged areas and serve students who have dropped out in the past, teen parents, students who have poor test scores, and those over-age for grade. Research produced positive effects

on students' likelihood of staying and progressing in school with participating students being more likely than control group students to have completed high school or obtained a GED (WWC, 2007f).

Dynarski and Wood (1997, cited in WWC, 2007f) found that *High School Redirection* youth were enrolled 39 more days on average in the first follow-up year than control group youth (110 days versus 71 days) and 17 more days on average in the second follow-up year (67 days versus 50 days). In addition, at the end of the third follow-up year, fewer *High School Redirection* youth had dropped out (43% versus 53%). The average improvement index for staying in school was +6 percentile points based on three studies; for progressing in school, +4 percentile points; and for completing school, +4 percentile points).

- Studies showed that Puente students were twice as likely to attend a state university as non-Puente students. "With respect to preparation for college, Puente students reported knowing more about what was needed to go on to college; they completed college preparatory coursework at much higher rates; they took college entrance exams in significantly higher numbers than either other Latino or non-Latino students; and they reported much more influence of counselors, teachers, and even parents than the other groups." (Gándara, Mejorado, Gutiérrez, and Molina, cited in WWC, 2009b).
- Accelerated Academic Academy (AAA) is a self-contained academic program designed to help middle school students who are behind catch up with their peers making it more likely that they stay in school and graduate. Teachers use nontraditional approaches (e.g., cooperative groups, instructional technology, and peer tutoring) plus counseling, attendance monitoring, and outreach to families (WWC, 2008; Promising Practices Network, 2008).

Dynarski et. al. (1998, cited in WWC, 2008) conducted studies in Georgia, Michigan, and New Jersey on the effectiveness of Accelerated middle schools. The Georgia, Michigan, and New Jersey studies all found that accelerated middle schools had statistically significant and substantively important effects on progressing in school. Based on the three studies of accelerated middle schools that met evidence standards, the average improvement index for staying in school was +18 percentile points and for progressing in school, +35 percentile points.

The programs included in this section may be considered appropriate for providing supplemental services to migrant children in the most common settings used by migrant education programs. Each of these programs has been reviewed by the WWC and determined to be effective, meeting WWC standards. The studies have been found to provide positive or potentially positive effects and improved outcomes. Numerous other programs reviewed were not included because they were either deemed not suitable for migrant education settings, not supported by research that met the WWC standards, or not able to demonstrate positive or potentially positive effects.

In summary, the research has shown that there are a number of instructional strategies that hold promise for migrant children and youth that are being delivered in preschool, school-based, and alternative programs. Instructional strategies described in the WWC as well as published research-based and promising practices offer guidance to help migrant students succeed in school and to assist out-of-school youth achieve their educational and career goals.

VI. Research Question #4: What services are likely to help migrant students overcome the obstacles created by a highly mobile lifestyle?

State MEPs administer various statewide program initiatives designed to meet the specific needs of students. State MEPs also assist local operating agencies with improving and coordinating the educational continuity of migrant children and youth. This section of the literature review first looks at promising practices in interstate coordination. This is followed by promising practices and procedures for identification and recruitment of migrant students, parent involvement, and professional development.

Because summer programs make up a large part of the instructional services offered in many states, this section also presents information useful to State MEPs in reviewing and approving summer supplemental instructional programs. The last part of this section is dedicated to the literature on out-of-school migrant youth the largest growing and perhaps least understood or least served segment of the migrant population.

A. Interstate Coordination

Goniprow, et. al. (US ED, 2002) studied several district MEP programs that share students who move back and forth between school districts to identify examples of promising practices in interstate coordination that help overcome the negative effects of educational disruption caused by students' migratory lifestyle. Four basic approaches were identified to enhance the continuity of instruction: 1) alignment of district policies, 2) improved student information exchange and access, 3) staff resources to promote credit accrual, and 4) opportunities for supplemental instruction. Below is a summary of the examples documented by the authors for enhancing the continuity of instruction for secondary-aged migrant youth.

- Alignment of District Policies – Limited English Proficient students placed according to home- base school's practices; agreement on grade placement policies; determined equivalencies of local language assessment instruments and information to ensure mutual understanding; and decision not to adopt a year-round school schedule.
- Student Information Exchange and Access – Examples include migrant-specific "Red Bags/Green Bags" used to transfer information about the students. For example, Texas used the Packet System, where the packets contained pertinent transcripts, withdrawal slips, test scores and vaccination and medical information. Migrant students and families pick up the bags from the school before leaving Texas; the e-mail transfer of student information using Student Identification Cards with e-mail addresses of teachers and an electronic student record "template"; staff send and follow-up on attendance data, grades, and credit accrual information sent to other districts; and staff calculate, award, and/or help students document partial credits accrued.
- Portable Curricula – Portable Assisted Study Sequence (PASS), a nationally recognized program offering mobile secondary students an alternative means of earning full or partial course credits through the completion of self-directed courses; University of Texas (UT) correspondence courses;
- Materials and Systems to Facilitate Participation – A pre-registration program at sending school district helps to facilitate enrollment in: receiving schools, Texas Migrant

Interstate Program (TMIP) for interstate coordination and alternative graduation plans, opportunities for supplemental instruction;

- Staff resources – Staff who are charged with communicating with other districts to determine appropriate courses for credit accrual; an annual credit accrual workshop;

B. Identification and Recruitment Services

The accurate identification and recruitment of migrant families is the prerequisite for providing needs-based services. Kerka (2004) presents several strategies for recruitment that begin with making connections with school and community agencies and relying on strong referrals and word of mouth. Other strategies that were found to be successful include:

- partnering with other service providers (e.g., social service agencies, migrant health programs) to recruit qualified individuals; and
- publicizing the program in locations where migrant children and youth may be reached: bus stops, clinics, community centers, churches, liquor stores; through public service announcements on radio stations and at sporting events; mass mailings and door-to-door distribution in targeted neighborhoods.

Over the past decade, OME funded interstate coordination MEP consortium incentive grants for collaborating State MEPs that have provided a lifeline for states to develop high quality materials and determine effective practices in identification and recruitment (Opportunities for Success for OSY, Solutions for OSY (SOSY), the Consortium and the Quality and Consistency in Identification and Recruitment Consortium (ConQIR), and the Consortium Arrangement for Identification and Recruitment (CAIR). These consortia have recommended that recruiting efforts be flexible, consider multiple locations, and collaborate and coordinate with various agencies providing services to the target population. (Information downloaded from the SOSY website on 3/15/11 at [ww.osymigrant.org](http://www.osymigrant.org), 2010 and at the ConQIR website at http://www.conqir-idr.org/consrt_coordinators.html) on 3/16/11.

Promising practices in recruitment call for recruiters to visit migrant camps and work locations, churches, community colleges, flea markets, supermarkets, places where money orders can be purchased, and other locations where children and youth gather (Melecio and Hanley, 2002). Kerka (2004) proposes using various age-appropriate incentives to bring families to the program and to continue their participation (e.g., resource bags, recognition or certificates for completion of interim goals, field trips, assistance with transportation and child care, and MP3 players loaded with curriculum materials). Incentives also can include instruction on farm safety, ESL classes, and subsidizing the cost of health clinic visits (Ward, 2002).

Agencies that can assist in recruiting efforts include Head Start centers, community health centers, unemployment offices, farms and ranches, churches, and other social agencies serving migrants (Interstate Migrant Education Council [IMEC], 2002; OSY Consortium, 2010; Sturko, 2005; Ward, 2002; Cornell University, 2005). Recruiters also should include MEP information with free resources useful to migrant families such as pamphlets with important phone numbers, information on locations and hours of consulate offices, bilingual dictionaries, and items that are useful at school and at work (ConQIR, 2007).

The IMEC (Ward, 2002) identified four models for recruiting: state, regional, local, and a combination, suggesting that the best model should be based on the state or local context. Identification and recruitment is widely discussed in training modules development under contract by the US ED (OME, 2010) and adapted for use by SEAs (e.g., Idaho State Department of Education 2008; Colorado Department of Education 2009; Arizona Department of Education 2009; and Kansas State Department of Education, 2010).

C. Parent Involvement Services

In a synthesis of the research on parent involvement, the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2002) concluded that students with involved parents, regardless of income or ethnicity, are more likely to have higher grades and test scores; pass their classes and earn credits; attend school regularly; have better social skills, adapt well to school; and graduate from high school and enroll in postsecondary education.

Bermúdez and Márquez (1996) found that ELs are considerably more likely to succeed in school when their parents are involved in their education. By helping with homework, attending school events, communicating with teachers and administrators, volunteering in school, and participating in school organizations, parents can help improve the academic success of their children. Most migrant parents want their children to succeed in school but may see their role in their children's education differently than do middle class, non-migrant parents and often lack the resources to help their children academically (Martínez and Velásquez, 2000). In addition to traditional school involvement, migrant parents can support their children's success in school through promoting a strong work ethic, encouraging civic responsibility, and teaching their children to respect others (López, 2001; IMEC, 2003).

The National Parent Teacher Association (PTA) (2009) established six standards that identify what parents, schools, and communities can do together to support student success. These include welcoming all families into the school community, communicating effectively, supporting student success, speaking up for every child, sharing power, and collaborating with the community.

The PTA standards are operationalized by Antuñez (2000) who posited six strategies to increase parent involvement and establish the trust and respect of parents. She concluded that successful strategies for parent involvement include translating parent meetings and informational materials into community languages, offering adult English classes and family literacy programs, making explicit unstated rules and behavioral expectations, inviting and encouraging parents to volunteer at the school, encouraging parents to form advocacy groups, and enabling them to share in decision-making about school programs and policies.

Martínez and Velasquez (2000) identified a number of strategies as promoting parent participation in school activities. Key strategies applicable to migrant parents are:

- Hiring bilingual community liaisons to bridge language and cultural differences between home and school.
- Providing child care, transportation, evening and weekend activities, and refreshments.

- Developing a curriculum that reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of the migrant family.
- Providing multiple, coordinated opportunities for education and training at work sites, community centers, churches, and school sites.
- Providing public computer centers to offer migrant students and their families continuous access to online links to college and ESL courses.
- Establishing partnerships with the agriculture industry to help cultivate potential collaborative activities that allow schools to tap into parents' knowledge, skills, and talents through flex time.
- Coordinating social and health outreach efforts with local school community involvement activities, making them less threatening to migrant parents who are hard to reach.
- Providing bilingual and Spanish language books in schools and public libraries to help promote family reading at home.
- Including transcribed library collections of oral family histories or experiences and providing parents, grandparents, and other family members with links to school and community that involves thinking "family" and not than just "parent" when planning involvement activities.
- Offering workshops or retreats at colleges and universities to help families experience an early orientation to the postsecondary education process.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2002) suggests that schools build partnerships with families that respond to their concerns and honor their contributions. They posited that to achieve a high level of parent involvement, schools should recognize that all parents—regardless of income, education, or cultural background—are involved in their children’s learning and want their children to do well.

The National PTA (2009) found that mutual trust between parents and school staff is key to involving parents in school activities. To build trust, schools must create a climate that makes all families feel welcome and respects and values the diversity of the families in the community. To create this environment in the schools, the National PTA recommended that schools be accessible and available; establish a family resource center; provide staff with professional development dealing with race, class and, culture; establish a parent help desk or welcome center; and develop customer service guidelines for school staff.

D. Professional Development to Improve Services

In a landmark report, the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (1996) identified teacher expertise as the single most important factor in predicting student achievement. The overall quality of teachers in school systems is of great concern to researchers and policymakers. The Center for Teaching Quality (2011) reported that the US has a long way to go to ensure that all students are taught by well-prepared and supported teachers that work in schools organized for effective teaching and learning. Berry (2008) stated, “poor children and children of color are far less likely than their peers to be taught by good teachers—no matter how ‘good teacher’ is defined.”

Rumberger and Gándara (2005) found that teachers of ELs are more likely to be inexperienced or uncertified and limited in pedagogical knowledge and skills than teachers of native English speakers. Furthermore, Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, and Driscoll (2005) found that the majority of teachers whose classrooms consisted of 26-50% ELs had less than two professional development sessions related to English language development in the previous five years.

The National Staff Development Council (Hirsh, 2009) defines professional development as “a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers’ and principals’ effectiveness in raising student achievement.” The Council specifies that professional learning must be a) aligned to rigorous state student standards and local school goals; b) facilitated by school principals or school-based staff development professionals; and c) occur several times per week among school-based teams. They posit that a professional development program should assess student, teacher, and school needs; define learning goals based on those needs; incorporate long-term evidence-based strategies; and include classroom-based coaching.

In a review of the evaluation studies of 25 mathematics and science professional development programs, the Council of Chief State School Officers (Blank, et. al., 2008) concluded that teacher professional development can have an effect on teacher content knowledge, instructional practices, and student outcomes. In a key study that influenced how professional development was delivered over the next decade and beyond, Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) found that short-term workshops do little to change teachers’ classroom behavior. They concluded that the most effective professional growth opportunities are those whose topics emerge from teacher interests, require a long-term commitment from all parties, and engage in clear measurement and evaluation of goals and teaching targets.

The following list synthesizes recommended guidelines (Lieberman, 1995; Corcoran, 1995; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; cited in Swanson, 1995; McREL, 1997; Vinton, 2008; Lopez, 2001) for effective professional development.

- It must engage educators in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection to understand the processes of learning.
- It must support teacher initiatives and align with school and district initiatives.
- It must be collaborative, engaging colleagues in sharing knowledge and providing opportunities to draw on the expertise of others in the professional community.
- It must be grounded in inquiry and reflection. Educators need opportunities to explore, question, and debate ideas before they can reach the comfort level required to implement them in their classrooms.
- It must be sustained, ongoing, intensive, and supported by modeling, coaching, and collective problem-solving to develop a strong sense of efficacy.
- It must provide of sufficient time and scope, and involve follow-up and practice to allow teachers to assimilate new learning.
- It must be content and context specific, taking into account the skills, understandings, knowledge, and attitudes of the learner.

- It must be supported by school and district leadership, establishing professional growth and problem-solving as a priority supported by rewards and incentives.

Antuñez (2009) identified the knowledge and skills that teachers of ELs need to effectively address student needs. Factors especially viable for migrant children and youth include an understanding of the demands that mainstream education places on culturally diverse learners and how differences in language and culture affect students' classroom participation; the needs and characteristics of students with limited formal schooling; an understanding and ability to address students from families with little exposure to the norms of US schools; and the capacity to make academic content accessible.

In 2009, the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), in conjunction with the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), revised their standards for English Language Development (ELD) teacher education to include what ESOL teachers must know and be able to apply in the classroom. The current TESOL/NCATE program standards are divided into five domains (TESOL, 2010).

Domain 1 - Language: Teachers know, understand, and use the major theories and research related to the structure and acquisition of language to help ELs develop language and literacy and achieve in the content areas.

Domain 2 - Culture: Teachers know, understand, and use major concepts, principles, theories, and research related to the nature and role of culture and cultural groups to construct supportive learning environments for ELs.

Domain 3 - Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction: Teachers know, understand, and use evidence-based practices and strategies related to planning, implementing, and managing standards-based ESL and content instruction.

Domain 4 - Assessment: Teachers demonstrate understanding of issues and concepts of assessment and use standards-based procedures with ELs.

Domain 5 - Professionalism: Teachers keep current with new instructional techniques, research results, advances in the field, and education policy issues and demonstrate knowledge of the history of ESL teaching. They use information to reflect on and improve their instruction and assessment practices and work collaboratively to improve the learning environment, provide support, and advocate for ELs and their families.

Further expanding on professional development practices, use of the Head Start Performance Standards requires programs to establish and implement a structured approach to staff development. The standards aim to provide educators with strategies to prepare young children for success in school. The Academy for Educational Development at Technical Assistance Center Region 12 (2008) presents the results of effective research-based practices in professional development.

1. Use many sources of data, including observations, performance appraisals, evaluations, and surveys as part of the process for determining individual and agency learning needs.
2. Develop, refine, and deepen staff content knowledge and the art of teaching.
3. Build cultural competence, examine beliefs, and challenge institutional barriers.

4. Use a coherent and long-term professional development process that provides for the allocation of sufficient time, funds, and materials for full implementation.
5. Prepare staff to work together to build expertise and develop leadership capacity.
6. Invite and build broad-based support of professional development from all sectors of the organization and community.

The guidelines proposed by these various organizations show promise for improving the quality of instruction for migrant children and youth.

E. Services for Out-of-School Youth

OSY have been underserved, in part because they are difficult to identify, recruit, and get back into school, have many unmet needs, and do not fit the traditional MEP mold of service delivery that includes school-based programs (Ward, 2002, SOSY, 2011). OSY have low educational attainment levels, yet many report an interest in improving their English or earning a GED in spite of the reality that many may be too old to attend traditional high schools or too young to enroll in adult education classes (OSY MEP Consortium, 2010).

The SOSY MEP Consortium (2011) identified the following needs of OSY: Flexible credit accrual options; Pre-GED and GED instruction; ESL; health education; life skills; advocacy; and transportation. Because of the nature of OSY, strategies to serve this population require cross strategies including targeted identification and recruitment, instructional services, and support services that are different than those for students attending school (BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center, 2009).

Another resource for OSY, the High School Equivalency Program (HEP) funded by the OME, serves more than 7,000 migrant students wishing to obtain the equivalent of a high school diploma or training. Major support services offered through the HEP are counseling, job placement, health care, financial aid stipends, housing for residential students, and cultural and academic programs (OME website, downloaded on 3/10/11).

The Portable Assisted Study Sequence (PASS) program is a workbook-based program for high school-aged migrant youth (National PASS Center website, downloaded on 2/15/11). Through PASS, migrant youth are able to earn secondary level credits to meet graduation requirements. Courses designed to parallel regular academic courses offered in secondary schools are competency-based, learner-centered, self-contained, and semi-independent, allowing students to complete coursework as they move (OSY Consortium, 2010).

Ward (2002) recommends that programs to serve OSY be structured to respond to the demographics of the service area with program length being based on the time the youth will live/work in the area. She noted that outreach programs can provide instruction in homes or camps; campus-based programs can bus OSY to a central location, or mobile classrooms and health vans can provide services to OSY living in remote areas.

Kerka (2004) recommends that programs serving OSY incorporate several elements to ensure success such as integrating job training with educational opportunities (for example, GED

instruction); providing intensive training and work experiences linked to real-world job opportunities with employers; ensuring that the curriculum is relevant, contextual and culturally sensitive; awarding academic credit for work-based learning; developing individualized action plans for each participant; and educating participants about the culture of work including dress, communication, anger management, conflict resolution, and attendance.

Numerous resources are available on the SOSY website (SOSY Consortium, 2011b) that states and local operating agencies can use to meet the needs of out-of-school youth.

Other strategies include mentors, counselors, and role models as an integral part of the program; encouraging positive peer support; communicating expectations at the outset of the program; offering a variety of career pathways from which to choose; involving youth in planning their education/career path; providing long-term follow-up support; and offering flexible scheduling.

F. Summer Programs

Summer programs historically have been a key element of migrant education services. During the summer, MEPs provide summer school classes and services to highly mobile children of seasonal farmworkers as well as to families that have settled out. In many states (e.g., California, Texas), summer services are required and are charged with offering the best possible programs for the longest possible time. Sloan, McCombs, et al. (2011) investigated the existing evidence on effective, viable, and sustainable summer programs. They determined that strategies for maximizing quality, enrollment, and attendance are critical to achieving benefits. Effective strategies utilized by programs include notifying parents early about the summer program, offering engaging enrichment activities, providing transportation, and offering full-day programs. They made the following recommendations for districts and providers that want to invest in a summer learning program.

- begin planning early in the school year;
- invest in highly qualified staff;
- embed promising practices into summer learning program such as small class size, involving parents, individualized instruction, aligning the school year and summer curricula, include content beyond remediation, and evaluate the effectiveness of the program; and
- consider partnerships with community-based organizations for stretching funding and programming options.

Researchers at the Center for Summer Learning at Johns Hopkins University (Bell and Carrillo, 2007) examined the effectiveness of several summer program models. They identified nine characteristics of effective summer learning programs and concluded that “programs that employ the attributes described by these characteristics, demonstrate success in two areas for their attendees: accelerating academic performance and supporting positive youth development.” The first three characteristics address a program’s approach to learning while the remaining six cover program infrastructure to ensure that the program achieves and maintains quality programming. The characteristics are:

- Intentional focus on accelerating learning;
- Firm commitment to youth development;
- Proactive approach to summer learning;
- Strong, empowering leadership;
- Advanced, collaborative planning;
- Extensive opportunities for staff development;
- Strategic partnerships;
- Rigorous approach to evaluation and commitment to program improvement; and
- Clear focus on sustainability and cost-effectiveness.

The National Summer Learning Association (2011) has developed quality standards for summer programs that are used by the association in training and in designing comprehensive assessment services to be provided to school districts. The standards provide that programs:

- Have a mission and vision statements grounded in the needs of the community that set annual goals for youth and for the organization that drive a continuous cycle of data collection, evaluation, and quality improvement with a formal structure for communication and data sharing with all key external partners.
- Maintain evidence that it is meeting its goals and addressing the needs of stakeholders.
- Develop and implement a clear strategic plan and share information about the program with key stakeholders to promote sustainability.
- Be designed to allocate enough time, staff, and resources to promote positive academic and developmental youth outcomes; and programming to build skills, knowledge, and behaviors that promote academic success and healthy development.
- Have a proactive summer program planning process inclusive of all key stakeholders and connected to the goals of the program; create a “summer culture” that is different from the school year and promotes a sense of community have a comprehensive structure in place for all programming throughout the summer, in advance of the session.
- Recruit and staff culturally-competent staff with relevant skills empowered to manage the program and has a voice in organizational decisions. Provide extensive opportunities for staff development and advancement before, during, and after the session.
- Build and maintain strong linkages with partners, including community organizations, the public school system, and government agencies, that are supportive of its mission and have a vested interest in the program’s success.
- Build and maintain strong linkages with families.
- Assess children and youth needs early in the program and develop individualized strategies for meeting program goals.
- Contain activity planning and execution that show intentional focus on meeting learning goals and use of research-based instructional methods; provide activities that show a blend of academic strategies and social/emotional development strategies throughout the entire day.

In summary, there is a considerable array of services that have been identified in the research that are likely to help migrant students overcome the obstacles created by a highly mobile lifestyle. The four basic approaches found to enhance students' continuity of instruction are further supported by migrant-specific practices such as targeted identification and recruitment and coordination between sending and receiving states. Enhanced professional development for general staff as well as migrant educators and other stakeholders and the meaningful involvement of migrant parents were shown to influence overall achievement. Because the MEP is a supplemental program, the successful services described in the literature, especially the before and after school services, summer programs, and services to preschool children and out-of-school youth hold described in this section noteworthy of diffusion to migrant education programs.

VII. Conclusions

This review of migrant education literature has revealed the overwhelming needs of migrant children and youth based on their low family income and disadvantaged economic status, the overwhelming percentage of students who come from homes where a language other than English is spoken, the effects of absences and mobility on students' continuity of instruction, and the low rates of achievement and graduation as well as poor academic achievement in reading and mathematics. These factors offer tremendous challenges to educators to design and implement the most meaningful instructional strategies, programs, and services to address these daunting needs.

Because of the paucity of research specific to the education of migrant students, this review and synthesis addressed literature not only with migrant children, youth, and families, but also with populations possessing similar characteristics such as children coming from high poverty homes, mobile children, and ELs. Migrant educators are encouraged to consider the strategies presented in Section IV and adapt them to their local situation. Likewise, the programs and services included in Section V and Section VI should be piloted in controlled settings and evaluated for their effectiveness with migrant students. Lastly, the parent involvement and staff development programs for migrant parents and staff should be further developed and adapted to local situations using the concepts presented in Section VI.

The Seven Areas of Concern form a tapestry of need indicators. Lack of educational continuity; decreased time for instruction; diminished school engagement; poor English language development; less educational support from the home; poor health, nutrition, and access to medical care and insurance; diminished access to services; and poor adjustment to the mainstream culture are factors that combine to isolate migrant children from meaningful participation in school and therefore, successful school outcomes. While some children exhibit some of these characteristics, migrant children as a sub-population possess all characteristics or the majority of them. This places them above all other students as being at high risk for educational failure.

To address these daunting needs, this literature review has identified instructional strategies that have been found to be successful with migrant students, or with students who possess similar characteristics, broken down for preschool and school-aged students. For preschool migrant children, the literature discusses language and literacy skill development using specific

curricula, learning across the curriculum using manipulatives and other hands-on materials, and age-appropriate direct instruction. For school-aged students, strategies that were found to hold promise include teaching specific vocabulary; facilitating higher order skills such as comparing and contrasting and using organizers; teaching summarizing and note-taking; providing reinforcement and recognition; providing homework and opportunities for practice; organizing learners into various group structures; providing organizational structures such as goal setting and contracting with students;

Evidence-based programs that show promise for migrant children and youth in a supplementary program structure were identified to include preschool programs, before-and-after school programs, short-term (e.g., summer, intersession) programs, tutoring, and alternative secondary programs. Extended early childhood programs that promote successful transitions to school beyond preschool intervention alone, were found to be characterized by being implemented over multiple years, containing an intensive family support component, and promoting parents' growth as well as that of their children. The literature reported on the importance of successful transition from preschool to early elementary school and the use of paraprofessionals and reduced class size to provide more individual learning opportunities.

Computer-based programs, corrective reading, showed promise for success in before and after school programs and short-term programs for migrant children and youth, especially, interventions such as reading mastery. Several summer programs, most suitable to many migrant education programs, have been found to raise student achievement in reading and math.

Several alternative secondary programs were found that hold promise for helping migrant student progressing in school and continuing to postsecondary institutions. These programs use non-traditional methods such as peer-tutoring, mentoring, cooperative groups, and special counseling approaches.

This literature review looked at services provided by State MEPs including interstate coordination, identification and recruitment, parent involvement, professional development, services for out-of-school youth, and summer programs and provides recommendations, many from national organizations, for improving these services. States should consider these recommendations as they develop or revise their service delivery plans.

In order to advance the field of migrant education, descriptive research is needed on the demographics and unique needs that characterize migrant students. In addition, the effects of mobility on the achievement of migrant students, the effectiveness of programs funded through migrant education funds, and the fidelity of the migrant education program (local and State) to the service delivery models developed by states should be investigated.

The following are specific questions suggested for further research. These questions should be investigated by migrant educators, administrators, and stakeholders, and disseminated within the migrant community.

- What are the effects of mobility on migrant student achievement when controlling for background characteristics that migrant students share with other socially disadvantaged children?
- What service delivery models are most effective with migrant out-of-school youth?
- What are the commonalities in the State MEP CNAs and statewide service delivery plans across the states with migrant education programs?
- What are the most commonly used supplemental services provided to migrant education programs?
- What are the effects of the most commonly used supplemental instruction programs on the reading and mathematics achievement of migrant students?
- What parent involvement strategies have been found to be successful for migrant parents/families?
- What are models of successful interstate coordination? What are their characteristics?

Studies on the effects of mobility on student achievement include mobility due to different reasons including moving to a better residence, job transfer, job loss of head of household, and moving to be near family. These studies suggest that student mobility negatively affects academic achievement. However, there is a lack of research on the effects of a migrant farmworker lifestyle on student achievement. It is not known if the mobility experienced by children of migrant farmworkers produces different academic and emotional effects than that experienced by non-migrant students.

Further, not all migrant students experience the same lifestyle or change locations with the same frequency. Research is needed to identify the differences in the effects of intrastate and interstate mobility, mobility during the regular school year vs. mobility during the summer term, short-term moves vs. long-term moves, and other types of mobility experienced by children of migratory farmworkers.

**Annotated Bibliography for the
Literature Review on Migrant Education
Contract ED-ESE-10-C-0084**

A. Annotated References

Ahn, C., Moore, M., & Parker, N. (2004). Migrant farmworkers: America's new plantation workers. *Food First: Background*, Spring 2004.

This article explores how trends in food production and developments in government policy foster conditions that make US farmworkers vulnerable for exploitation

Brown-Jeffy, S. & Cooper, J. E. (2011). Toward a Conceptual Framework of Culturally Relevant Pedagogy: an Overview of the Conceptual and Theoretical Literature. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 38 (1), 65-84. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/EJ914924.pdf>.

The authors present a conceptual framework of culturally-relevant pedagogy that is grounded in over a quarter of a century of research scholarship. By synthesizing the literature into the five areas and infusing it with the tenets of culturally-relevant teaching, the authors have developed a collection of principles that represents culturally relevant pedagogy.

Bryk, A. S., Sebring, P. B., Allensworth, E., Lupescu, S., & Easton, J. (2009). *Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Over a seven-year period the authors identified 100 Chicago elementary schools that had substantially improved—and 100 that had not. The authors identify a comprehensive set of practices and conditions that were key factors for improvement, including school leadership, the professional capacity of the faculty and staff, and a student-centered learning climate. In addition, they analyze the impact of social dynamics, critically examining the inextricable link between schools and their communities

Burkam, D. T., Lee, V. E. & Dwyer, J. (2009). School mobility in the early elementary grades: Frequency and impact from nationally-representative data. Workshop on the *Impact of Mobility and Change on the Lives of Young Children, Schools, and Neighborhoods*, June 29-30, 2009. Retrieved from:

<http://www.fcd-us.org/sites/default/files/BurkamSchoolMobilityInThe%20EarlyElementaryGrades.pdf>

This paper was prepared for the Workshop on the Impact of Mobility and Change on the Lives of Young Children, Schools, and Neighborhoods, June 29-30, 2009. Efforts by educational researchers, policy makers, and educators to improve the quality of learning and teaching in our nation's schools include a host of approaches, including large-scale policy initiatives (e.g., the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001) and local efforts (e.g. teacher professional development, curricular reform, using assessment to inform subsequent instruction, among others).

Bureau of Labor Statistics, US Department of Labor, *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2010-11 Edition, Agricultural Workers, Other*. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/oco/ocos349.htm>

The Occupational Outlook Handbook is a nationally recognized source of career information, designed to provide valuable assistance to individuals making decisions about their future work lives.

Carroll, D., Samardick, R.M., Bernard, S., Gabbard, S., & Hernández, T. (2005) *Findings from the National Agricultural Workers Survey (NAWS) 2001-2002*. US Department of Labor.

This report is the ninth in a series of Department of Labor publications on the demographic and employment characteristics of the nation's hired crop labor force. The findings come from the National Agricultural Workers Survey (NAWS), a nationwide, random survey that obtains information directly from farm workers.

Chavkin, N. & González, J. (2000). Mexican Immigrant Youth and Resiliency: Research and Promising Programs: ERIC Digest. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/2001-3/mexican.htm>

This digest reports that Mexican immigrants lag behind other immigrants in educational completion and score lower on reading and math achievement tests than other groups. But at the same time, researchers report the successes of many resilient youth who have overcome the toughest of odds to succeed. This digest examines both the research about resiliency and some promising programs for Mexican immigrant youth.

DiCerbo, P. A. (2001). Why migrant education matters. *Issue Brief No. 8, February 2001*. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. Retrieved from http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/files/rcd/BE020920/Why_Migrant_Education_Matters.pdf

This issue brief synthesizes information about programs, materials, and effective instruction for migrant students in the US. It includes characteristics of the migrant population, and funding for and participation in the Title I-C Migrant Education Program. Included are suggestions for improving instruction for migrant students and an evaluation checklist for migrant education materials.

Education Week. (2004). Achievement Gap. *Education Week, August 3, 2004*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/achievement-gap/>

This article discusses the "achievement gap" in education which refers to the disparity in academic performance between groups of students. It is most often used to describe the troubling performance gaps between many Hispanic and African-American students at the lower end of the performance scale, and their non-Hispanic white peers; and the similar academic disparity between students from low-income and economically well-off families. The achievement gap shows up in grades, standardized-test scores, course

selection, dropout rates, and college-completion rates. It has become a focal point of education reform efforts.

Family Housing Fund. (1998). A report from the Kids Mobility Project. Minneapolis, MN: Author.

This report describes the Kids Mobility Project, which was initiated by a group of local planners and researchers from various educational and community organizations in the Minneapolis, Minnesota area who wanted to learn more about the effects of changing residence on student achievement and adjustment. The project undertook two studies and a review of research on student mobility. The first study analyzed school data related to student achievement and mobility. The second study analyzed interviews with 100 mostly low income families about the impact of moving.

Fauth, R. C., T., Leventhal, T., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2005). Early Impacts of Moving from Poor to Middle-class Neighborhoods on Low-income Youth. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology* 26(4): 415-439. Retrieved from <http://phsj.org/files/Migrant%20and%20Seasonal%20Farm%20Worker%20Health/Migrant%20and%20Seasonal%20Farm%20Workers%20-%20JHCPU.pdf>

This study reports early impacts on the outcomes of youth from the Yonkers Project, a quasi-experimental study in which low-income Latino and Black families who resided in economically and racially segregated neighborhoods were selected via lottery to relocate to middle-class, primarily White neighborhoods.

Fránquiz, M.E. & Salinas, C.S. (2011). *Newcomers to the US: Developing Historical Thinking Among Latino Immigrant Students in a Central Texas High School*. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 34: 58-75.

The research project described in this article investigates how a teacher integrated language and content in a single subject area, social studies, in a high school newcomer classroom. Three extended lessons were presented to newcomer students in Central Texas who are native speakers of Spanish. The case study in the newcomer classroom documented immigrant students' use of digitized primary resources and document-based questions pertaining to the social crisis in Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1957; the civil rights concerns of the Chicano *Movimiento* of the 1960s and 1970s; and the US public's conflicting responses to immigration, particularly from Mexico, in the 21st century.

González, N., Moll, L.C., Floyd-Tenery, M., Rivera, A., Rendón, P., Gonzales, R. & Amanti, C. (1994). *Teacher Research on Funds of Knowledge: Learning from Households*, National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

The conceptualization of working-class Latino students' households as being rich in funds of knowledge has engendered transformative consequences for teachers, parents, students, and researchers. The qualitative study of their own students' households by teachers has unfolded as a viable method for bridging the gap between school and community. Teachers enter the households of two to three of their students as

ethnographers, that is, as learners of the everyday lived contexts of their students' lives. The focus of the home visit is to gather details about the accumulated knowledge base that each household assembles in order to ensure its own subsistence. Based on their experiences in the households and the study groups, teachers form curriculum units that tap into the household funds of knowledge. New avenues of communication between school and home have been constructed in a way which fosters *confianza*, or mutual trust.

Green, P. E. (2003). The undocumented: Educating the children of migrant workers in America. *Bilingual Research Journal*; v27 n1 p51-71, Spring 2003. Retrieved from http://brj.asu.edu/content/vol27_no1/documents/art3.pdf.

This article states that the education of undocumented or migrant children poses unique social, political, and educational problems for America's schools. It also states that social and educational opportunities are typically hindered by frequent moves, poverty, gaps in previous schooling, and language barriers.

Hansen, E. & Donohoe, M.(2003). Health Issues of Migrant and Seasonal Farmworkers. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved* 14(2): 153-164.

This paper describes the socioeconomic conditions under which the 3 to 5 million migrant and seasonal farmworkers in the United States live. Health consequences resulting from occupational hazards and from poverty, substandard living conditions, migrancy, language and cultural barriers, and impaired access to health care are described.

Housing Assistance Council. (2006). *USDA Section 514/516 Farmworker housing: Existing stock and changing needs*. Washington, DC. Author. Retrieved from <http://www.ruralhome.org/storage/documents/fwhousing.pdf>

This research, conducted by the Housing Assistance Council (HAC), identifies and analyzes the location and general characteristics of the 2004 portfolio of USDA funded farmworker housing. The report provides an overview of the Section 514/516 Farm Labor Housing stock, as well as an exploration of current trends in the migrant population.

Huang, G. (1993). Health Problems among Migrant Farmworkers' Children in the US. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/1993/migrant.htm>

This seminal digest summarizes information available at the time of the report on migrant children's health status, drawn from literature reviews and major primary published research.

Jensen, E. (2009). *Teaching with poverty in mind: What being poor does to kid's brains and what schools can do about it*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD Publications.

Veteran educator and brain expert Eric Jensen explains his theories of what poverty does to children's brains and why students raised in poverty are especially subject to stressors that undermine school behavior and performance. Jensen posits how the effects of poverty can be reversed when educators employ the practices of turn-around schools and schools that have a history of high performance among students raised in poverty. Drawing from research, experience, and real school success stories, Jensen explains what educators can do to improve the achievement of economically disadvantaged students.

Kandel, W. (2008). *Profile of hired farmworkers, a 2008 update* (Economic Research Report Number 60) [Electronic version]. Washington, DC: Economic Research Service, United States Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/key_workplace/559/

This 2008 profile serves as an update to the 2000 Economic Research Service analysis of the 1998 Current Population Survey using current data with expanded sections on legal status, poverty, housing, and use of social services. The report looks at recent economic and demographic trends, such as changing agricultural production methods that permit year-round employment, expanding immigrant populations in nonmetropolitan counties, and growing concerns over US immigration policies that have elicited increased interest in hired farmworkers.

Kindler, A. (1995). Education of migrant children in the United States. *Directions in language and education*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED394305.pdf>

This report discusses demographic characteristics of migrant students in the United States, their educational needs, the features of Federally-funded programs under the Migrant Education Program legislation reform, and suggestions for enhancing current migrant student performance. Demographics outlined include geographical distribution by state, age, and language of the program participants. Educational needs reviewed include factors of mobility, work and family responsibilities, poverty, and language and culture.

Lopez, G. R., Scribner, J. D. & Mahitivanichcha, K. (2001). Redefining parental involvement: Lessons from high-performing migrant-impacted schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(2), 253-288.

This article describes a study of parent involvement practices in four school districts with large numbers of migrant students who are high achieving. These school districts also had high levels of parent involvement, especially among the migrant families. The study found that the main reason these schools were successful in involving migrant families was that school staff were personally and systemically committed to meeting the multiple needs of these families. This process required an awareness of each family's needs, and a capacity to mobilize multiple community social services to help meet each family's needs.

Mehana, M. & Reynolds, A.J. 2004. School Mobility and Achievement: A Meta-Analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review* 26: 93-119.

This study evaluates the effects of school mobility on reading and math achievement in the elementary grades (kindergarten to sixth grade) using meta-analysis for studies dated between 1975 and 1994 with mobility defined as any change in schools. The sample sizes of the 26 studies examined ranged from 62 to 15,000.

Melecio, R. & Hanley, T. J. (2002). *Identification and recruitment of migrant students: Strategies and resources*. Office of Educational Research and Improvement, US Department of Education, Washington, DC. Retrieved from www.tn.gov/education/fedprog/doc/fpmepidentrecruit.doc

This digest provides an overview of how to develop a realistic and workable system for quickly finding and enrolling eligible migrant students. Section 1, "Knowing the Region/State," focuses on sources of information, cooperative extension programs, and other regulatory agencies. Section 2, "Planning and Logistics," explains what the recruitment plan should include. Section 3, "Audits," explains that an important part of any quality control system is an independent review or "friendly" audit. Section 4, "Conclusion," notes that a good recruitment system is changing and dynamic, needing adequate resources dedicated to its maintenance.

Morse, Anne (2005). A Look at Immigrant Youth: Prospects and Promising Practices. Children's Policy Initiative.

This paper outlines the demographics of LEP and immigrant youth and some of the challenges facing them and institutions that serve them, including requirements in the No Child Left Behind Act for assessments, staffing and parental involvement. The report also identifies some creative programmatic responses to serve LEP and immigrant children and their parents through newcomer schools, parent outreach and training, and after school programs.

National Center for Farmworker Health, Inc. (2009). *Migrant and Seasonal Farmworker Demographics*. Buda, TX: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.ncfh.org/docs/fs-Migrant%20Demographics.pdf>.

This document is a fact sheet including information on birthplace and age, gender and family, language and education, labor force, population demographics. Based on data from the National Agricultural Workers Survey, 2001-2002.

National Center for Farmworker Health, Inc. (2011). *About America's Farmworkers – The Human Cost of Food*. Buda, TX: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.ncfh.org/?pid=4>.

The NCFH provides information on farmworkers in the US including the history, population demographics, agricultural economy, housing, occupational safety and health, and insurance and assistance programs.

Office of Migrant Education (2011). In US Department of Education Website. Retrieved from: <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oese/ome/index.html>

The OME administers grant programs that provide academic and supportive services to the children of families who migrate to find work in the agricultural and fishing industries. The OME also administers a number of contracts and special initiatives.

Peske, H. G. & Haycock, K. (2006). *Teacher inequality: How poor and minority students are shortchanged on teacher quality*. Washington, DC: Education Trust. Retrieved from http://www.closingtheachievementgap.org/cs/ctag/download/resources/49/TQReportJune2006.pdf?x-r=pcfile_d

The report describes teacher distribution patterns nationally, along with selected findings in these pilot states and districts. The authors summarize evidence about how differences in teacher quality affect student achievement, especially among low-income students, students of color, and low-achieving students of all races;

Raudenbush, S.W., Jean, M., & Art, E. (2010). Year-by-Year and cumulative impacts of attending a high-mobility elementary school on children's mathematics achievement in Chicago, 1995-2005. In Duncan, G. & Murnane, R. (Eds.), *Social inequality and educational disadvantage*. Washington: Brookings. Retrieved from https://xteam.brookings.edu/eoac/Documents/mobility_raudenbush_jean.pdf

This paper investigates the question whether attending a school characterized by high levels of student mobility depresses learning in the general student population. The researchers look into whether and to what extent influxes of new students during the school year ("within-year in-migration") affect students' mathematics achievement each year and cumulatively during the elementary years.

Reynolds, A. J., Chen, C. & Herbers, J. (2009). School mobility and educational success: A research synthesis and evidence on prevention. Paper presented at the *Workshop on the Impact of Mobility and Change on the Lives of Young Children, Schools, and Neighborhoods, Board on Children, Youth, and Families*, National Research Council, June 29-30, 2009, Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://www.fcd-us.org/sites/default/files/ReynoldsSchoolMobilityAndEducationalSuccess.pdf>

This report assesses the effects of school mobility on achievement and dropout in 16 studies from 1990-2008 that included pre-mobility achievement. Thirteen of the studies found that mobility from kindergarten to high school was independently associated with outcomes. Findings indicated that children who moved three or more times had rates of school dropout that were nearly one-third of a standard deviation higher than those who were school stable. Frequent mobility was also associated with significantly lower

reading and math achievement by up to a third of a standard deviation. In marginal effects, each additional move was associated with a reduction in reading and math achievement of about one-tenth of a standard deviation. Evidence also is presented that mobility contributes indirectly to school performance and later well-being.

Rumberger, R. W., & Larson, K. A. (1998). Student mobility and the increased risk of high school dropout. *American Journal of Education*, 107(1), 1-35. EJ 583 043.

This study examines the incidence of student mobility between the 8th and 12th grades and its effect on high school completion using the National Educational Longitudinal Survey third follow-up. Findings suggest that student mobility is both a symptom of disengagement and an important risk factor for high school dropout.

Rumberger, R. (2011). Student mobility and academic achievement. *Appleseed Today*. St. Louis, MO: National Campaign for Public School Improvement. Retrieved from <http://www.projectappleseed.org/mobility.html>

This article examines the research on the academic consequences of mobility for elementary school students and discusses what schools and parents can do to mitigate the possible negative effects of changing schools.

Salinas, C. Educating Late Arrival High School Immigrant Students: A Call for a More Democratic Curriculum. *Multicultural Perspectives* (8), 20-27. November 2009.

Examining the vital relation between immigrants' race or ethnicity, language, documented or undocumented legal status, and multicultural citizenship education is essential in the reconceptualization of current curricula and practice. The analysis provides relevant critiques of the traditional American History and citizenship curricula that are often enacted in increasingly ubiquitous late arrival high school immigrant centers. The tensions provide educators with an opportunity to define and redefine American citizenship as a unique cultural, historical, and transformative learning opportunity via the broader use of World Geography Studies.

Salinas, C., Fránquiz, M., & Reidel, M. (2008). Geography approaches for second language learners: Highlighting content and practice. *The Social Studies*, 99(2), p. 71-76.

In this case study, the work of an exemplary high school social studies teacher is highlighted. In her class, late-arrival immigrant students participated in oral, writing, and demonstration activities as they learned the physical, cultural, and historical traditions of geography education. As newcomers to the English language, the students' orientation to US schooling was favorable because their teacher adapted her instruction with sheltering practices such as using realia, graphic organizers, hands-on activities, language and content objectives, and critical-thinking questions. Additionally, she valued prior learning from home, school, and community as a strong foundation to build new content-area knowledge in geography lessons.

Salinas, C. & Reyes, R. (2004b). Creating Successful Academic Programs for Chicana/o High School Migrant Students: The Role of Advocate Educators. *The High School Journal* 87(4), 54-65. The University of North Carolina Press. Retrieved June 26, 2012, from Project MUSE database.

This qualitative case study examines the educational struggles of Texas based Chicana/o high school migrant students and the noteworthy array of actions, responses, and relationship dynamics that result from the work of advocate educators. As migrant students move across our nation and enroll in high schools, they demand unique approaches that are rooted in educators' abilities to understand the migrant community and the curricular, instructional and support system needs of migrancy. Findings suggest that the participants included in this study had inherent and explicit understandings of the interplay between themselves and the Chicana/o high school migrant students they served. Likewise we also contend that they knew how to alter or circumvent detrimental schooling practices by acting as agents of change, developing alternative schooling experiences, and valuing the human resources found within the migrant educational community.

Salinas, C., Sullivan, C., & Wacker, T. (2007). Curriculum considerations for late-arrival high school immigrant students: Developing a critically conscious World Geography Studies approach to citizenship education. *Journal of Border Educational Research* 6(2), p.55-67.

This article describes a reconceptualization of World Geography Studies for late arrival immigrant students via unique views of citizenship, historical analysis, and ethnic/cultural examinations that can yield a more engaging and inclusive approach. The article describes a qualitative case study that looked at a more critically conscious approach to World Geography Studies that presents a more multicultural approach to democratic citizenship education.

South, S. J., & Haynie, D. L. (2004). Friendship networks of adolescents. *Social Forces*, 83(1), 315-350.

Drawing on the first wave of data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, this article examines differences between mobile and non-mobile adolescents in the size and structure of their peer networks, and in the degree to which parents know key members of their children's friendship networks. Special attention is given to variability in the effects of residential mobility and school transitions across key socio-demographic attributes such as age and sex, and by the level of mobility in the school context.

Stullich, S., Eisner, E., & McCrary, J. (2007). *National assessment of Title I, final report. Volume I: Implementation*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences. pp. 1-6. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pdf/20084012_rev.pdf

This congressionally-mandated study evaluates the implementation and impact of NCLB. The introduction included in this study summarizes NCLB's key provisions, reviewing major requirements and the timeline of implementation for these provisions. This section also discusses changes enacted by NCLB, comparing NCLB with the previous iteration of ESEA regarding assessments, accountability, and teacher quality provisions.

Swanson, C. B., & Schneider, B. (1999). Students on the move: Residential and educational mobility in America's schools. *Sociology of Education*, 72(1), 54-67. EJ 590 424.

This study examines the independent effects of residential and educational mobility for students who move to a new home but do not change schools, change schools but not homes, and change both. Findings indicate the negative short-term effects of mobility early in high school coupled with important long-term education benefits.

Teachman, J. D., Paasch, K., & Carver, K. (1996). Social capital and dropping out of school. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 58(3), 773-783. EJ 537 275.

This study examines the effects of various measures of social capital on the likelihood of dropping out of school early. Results indicate that specific indicators of social capital can account for all of the effect of attending a Catholic school, but for only a fraction of the effect of family structure on leaving school early.

US Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. (2001). *Dropout rates in the United States: 2000, NCES 2002-114*, by Phillip Kaufman, Martha Naomi Alt, & Christopher D. Chapman. Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2002/2002114.pdf>

This report is the 13th in a series of National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reports on high school dropout and completion rates. It presents data on the most recent year for which data are available (2000). In addition to extending time series data reported in earlier years, this report examines the characteristics of high school dropouts and high school completers and shows that while progress was made during the 1970s and 1980s in reducing high school dropout rates and increasing high school completion rates, these rates remained comparatively stable during the 1990s.

US Department of Education, Migrant Education Program (2004). Lessons learned in a comprehensive needs assessment pilot project. Draft report prepared by Alex Goniprow. Washington, DC: USDOE/OME.

The immediate objective of this pilot project was to develop knowledge and experience on how best to conduct an efficient and effective comprehensive needs assessment process. OME's ultimate goal, to strengthen and advance States' efforts to design and develop data-driven migrant education programs that attain the desired results, is supported by the goals of the pilot project.

Viadero, D., & Johnston, R. (2000). Lags in minority achievement defy traditional explanations, *Education Week*, 19 (28), pp. 1, 18-22.

This second in a four-part series on why academic achievement gaps exist, notes that standard explanations for why minority students trail behind non-Hispanic whites are not good enough. This suggests that no single explanation for the gap exists, but instead a multitude of factors are influential with poverty, though not the single most important cause, being a major contributor. Lack of access to challenging academic courses has a negative effect on minority students. Other barriers to achievement include high student mobility, poor teacher quality, parents who do not push their children to achieve, lack of access to preschools, racial stereotyping, academic losses over the summer, low teacher expectations, significant television viewing, and test bias.

Villegas, A. M., & Davis, D. (2008). Preparing teachers of color to confront racial/ethnic disparities in educational outcomes. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, and J. McIntyre, (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring issues in changing contexts* (3rd edition). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

This chapter assesses the merit of policies that aim to recruit more people of color into the teaching profession, reviews the impact of those policies, and identifies gaps in teacher education programs that require immediate attention if ongoing teacher recruitment efforts are to fulfill their promise to improve the school performance of minority students.

Villegas, A. M., & Lucas, T. (2002). *Educating culturally responsive teachers*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Offering a conceptual framework and practical strategies for teacher preparation in schools with increasingly diverse racial and ethnic student populations, this book presents a coherent approach to educating culturally responsive teachers. The authors focus on the importance of recruiting and preparing a diverse teaching force, as they propose a vision for restructuring the teacher education curriculum, reconceiving the pedagogy used to prepare prospective teachers, and transforming the institutional context in order to support the curricular and pedagogical changes they recommend.

Walls, C. A. (2003). *Providing highly mobile students with an effective education*. New York, NY: ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/2004-3/mobile.html>

The digest is a summary of the information presented in the monograph, "Students on the Move: Reaching and Teaching Highly Mobile Children and Youth". It describes the different reasons for high mobility and the characteristics of highly mobile families, explains the specific educational and social support needs of highly mobile students, and briefly reviews the findings on effective school programs and classroom practices.

Research Question #1: What needs do highly mobile students have that are different from other high risk students?

Akerlof, G. & Kranton, R. (2002) *Identify and schooling: Some lessons for the economics of education*. *Journal of Economic Literature*, Vol. XL (December 2002) pp. 1167-1201.

This review addresses noneconomic literature on education—by sociologists, anthropologists, reformers, and practitioners—to present a new economic theory of students and schools that integrates a sociological view of education with economic analysis. By reviewing literature outside of economics, this theory posits that where a student's primary motivation is his or her identity, the quality of a school depends on how students fit in a school's social setting.

Altschuld, J.W., & Witkin, B.R. (2000). *From needs assessment to action: Transforming needs into solution strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Going beyond the simple process of assessing needs to the implementation of solutions for resolving them, this sequel to the best seller, *From Needs Assessment to Action* illustrates how the results of needs assessments can be transformed into action plans for an organization and the procedures for facilitating that change.

Arias, B., & Morillo-Campbell, M. (2008). *Promoting ELL parent involvement: Challenges in contested times*. Boulder, CO: Education Public Interest Center. Retrieved from <http://epsl.asu.edu/epru/documents/EPSSL-0801-250-EPRU.pdf>

This brief analyzes characteristics of ELs and their parents; barriers to EL family engagement with schools; and characteristics of traditional and non-traditional parent involvement models. Diversity in EL parents and their communities speaks to the need for both traditional and non-traditional models for EL parental involvement. With a dual-model approach, variation in language proficiency is acknowledged, communication is facilitated and maintained, and communities are recognized and integrated within the school culture.

Borre, K., Ertle, L., & Graff, M. (2010) Working to eat: Vulnerability, food insecurity, and obesity among migrant and seasonal farmworker families. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine*. 2010 Apr; 53(4):443-62

This article describes a study of obesity and food insecurity in 36 Latino migrant and seasonal farmworker (MSFW) families working in North Carolina whose children attended Migrant Head Start. The authors found that 64% of MSFW families were food insecure; of those, 35% experienced hunger and 32% of pre-school children were food insecure. The authors concluded that community assistance is needed to reduce their risk.

Canales, P. & Harris, J. (2004). Migrant service coordination: Effective field-based practices. In Salinas, C., & Fránquiz, M. E. (Eds.) *Scholars in the Field: The Challenges of Migrant*

Education. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This chapter presents the case for the need for migrant service coordination to address the diverse academic and social-economic needs of migrant students. Discussed are six practices of effective MEPs: 1) recruiting and training formal and informal teams; 2) assessing migrant students' and families' needs; 3) collaborating with community organizations and service providers; 4) training for empowerment of educators, community members, parents, and students; 5) organizing for migrant student and parent self-advocacy; and 6) navigating via reflective evaluation processes.

California Department of Education. (2007). California migrant education program comprehensive needs assessment. Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/me/mt/documents/cnareport.pdf>

The purpose of the CNA is to identify the contemporary, unique educational needs of migratory children that must be met for those children to participate effectively in school. The information obtained as a result of the CNA is to be used in developing future state MEP plans to deliver services. Optimally, the data collected as part of the CNA will help state, regional, and local MEP agencies to establish programmatic and funding priorities.

Carter, P. (2005). *Keepin' It Real: School Success Beyond Black and White*. Oxford University Press. New York, NY.

Prudence Carter argues that what is needed is a broader recognition of the unique cultural styles and practices that non-white students bring to the classroom. Based on extensive interviews and surveys of students in New York, she demonstrates that the most successful negotiators of school systems are the multicultural navigators, culturally savvy teens who draw from multiple traditions to achieve their high ambitions.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (2011). Website retrieved from: <http://crede.berkeley.edu/research/crede/index.html>

The Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) focuses on improving the education of students whose ability to reach their potential is challenged by language or cultural barriers, race, geographic location, or poverty. CREDE promotes research by university faculty and graduate students and provides educators with a range of tools to help them implement best practices in the classroom.

Chavkin, N. F. (1996). Involving migrant families in their children's education: Challenges and opportunities for schools. In *Children of La Frontera: Binational efforts to serve Mexican migrant and immigrant students*. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED393648.pdf>

Following an overview of information on migrant families and children, this chapter describes strategies that administrators and teachers can use to promote family involvement in migrant students' education

Coalition of Immokalee Workers, (2009). Facts and figures on Florida farmworkers. Retrieved from <http://www.ciw-online.org/101.html#facts>

From the US Department of Labor, the Coalition prepared a factsheet on farmworker demographics including average income, sample workday, and statistics.

Cranston-Gingras, A. & Paul, J. L. (2008). Ethics and students with disabilities from migrant farmworker families. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, Vol. 27, No.1/1, p. 24-28.

This article presents a brief overview of the educational needs of migrant children with emphasis on the needs and ethical viewpoints affecting migrant students with disabilities. The article introduces an alternative ethical framework based on principles of care and hospitality to help guide decision making and policy development concluding that the education for migrant children with disabilities must be: (1) democratic, offering participation, voice, and agency that are socially empowering; (2) caring, providing a context that welcomes individual students and acknowledges and respects their identities and needs; and (3) effective, ensuring the presence of, and accountability for, individualized evidence based instructional practices.

Fredricks, J.A., Blumenfeld, P.C., & Paris, A.H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74, 59-109.

This article reviews definitions, measures, precursors, and outcomes of engagement; discusses limitations in the existing research; and suggests improvements. The authors conclude that, although much has been learned, the potential contribution of the concept of school engagement to research on student experience has yet to be realized.

Evans, L., Ban, R., Cranston-Gingras, A., Melecio, R., & Rivera-Singletary, G. (2011). Factors in academic achievement of migrant students. Unpublished Article.

In this study, researchers investigated the relevance and relative impact of the "seven areas of concerns" for Florida. Stakeholders including students, parents, administrators, teachers, and migrant advocates were interviewed regarding the challenges, barriers and areas of support for migrant students and their families. Findings indicate a negative impact of mobility and language issues and positive influence of migrant education personnel on migrant students' achievement.

Gibson, M. A. (2003). *Improving Graduation Outcomes for Migrant Children*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. Retrieved from <http://www.ael.org/digests/edorc03-2.pdf>

This digest explores several key factors that contribute to the academic persistence and achievement of high-school-aged migrant youth. The discussion draws from research in one California high school and from the broader literature on promoting educational success for working-class minority youth.

Gibson, M. A., & Bejinez, L. F. (2002). Dropout prevention: How migrant education supports Mexican youth. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 3, 155-175.

This article discusses the school performance of Mexican-descent migrant students in an ethnically diverse California high school. Despite their high risk for school failure, the migrant students persevere in school in significantly higher numbers than non-migrant Mexican classmates. The authors examine how the Migrant Education Program and its staff facilitate student engagement by creating caring relationships with students, providing them with access to institutional support, and implementing activities that build from and serve to validate students' home cultures. Together these foster a sense of belonging and community that lead students to persist in school despite the many obstacles they face.

Gwyther, M. E. & Jenkins, M. (1998). Migrant farmworker children: Health status, barriers to care, and nursing innovations in health care delivery. *Journal of Pediatric Health Care*. March/April 1998

This article presents a synthesis of the existing research on migrant demographics, major health risks, and geographic, financial, and cultural barriers to health care access. Innovative nursing strategies to enhance access and improve the health of migrant children are explored. These include the use of lay community outreach workers, the creation of alternative health care delivery models, and the development of information tracking systems.

Kindler, A. (1995). Education of migrant children in the United States. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED394305.pdf>

This report discusses demographic characteristics of migrant students in the United States, their educational needs, the features of federally-funded programs under the Migrant Education Program legislation reform, and suggestions for enhancing current migrant student performance. Demographics outlined include geographical distribution by state, age, and language of the program participants. Educational needs reviewed include factors of mobility, work and family responsibilities, poverty, and language and culture.

Kinser, J., Pessin, B., & Meyertholen, P. (2003). From the fields to the laptop. Learning and leading with technology, 28(5), 14-17, 48.

This article describes a project funded by the US Department of Education's Office of Migrant Education which provided secondary students with laptop computers equipped

with modems and software. Using laptop computers students were able to access an online curriculum that allowed them to take courses to meet their home base Texas high school graduation requirements, earn credit for graduation, and prepare for both proficiency and college entrance exams.

Lareau, A. (2003). *Unequal Childhoods: Class, Race, and Family Life.* , Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

This book is based upon a study of 88 families (of which only 12 were discussed) to understand the impact of how social class makes a difference in family life, more specifically in children's lives. The book argues that regardless of race, social economic class will determine how children cultivate skills they will use in the future

Lippman, L. & Rivers, A. (2008) Assessing school engagement: A guide for out-of-school time program practitioners. *Research-to-Results Brief. Publication #2008-39.* Washington DC: Child Trends. Retrieved from http://www.childtrends.org/Files//Child_Trends-2008_10_29_RB_SchoolEngage.pdf

This brief provides information on the importance of school engagement, how out-of-school time programs can affect school engagement, and how to measure engagement. It includes specific measures of school engagement from three surveys (School Engagement Scale, Patterns of Adaptive Learning Survey, and National Survey of American Families) and a list of additional resources on school engagement and motivation. The authors posit that students who are disengaged from school are at risk for poor academic achievement, skipping classes, sexual activity, substance use, and ultimately dropping out of school and that out-of-school time programs can play a role in increasing school engagement.

Kuehn, P. (2003). *Academic Language: Assessment and Development of Individual Needs (ALADIN).* New York, NY: Pearson Press.

This publication describes the ALADIN curriculum which builds academic language proficiency. The program was developed after extensive research on the differences between well-prepared and underprepared students and extensive analyses of the language tasks of the undergraduate classroom. Lessons include lecture note-taking skills, academic vocabulary building, reading skills with college texts, sentence complexity practice, and academic culture.

López, G. R. (2001). The value of hard work: Lessons on parent involvement from an (im)migrant household. *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 71, No.3, p. 416-37, Fall 2001

This qualitative study sought to expand the concept of "parent involvement" by illustrating ways that parents are involved in their children's educational development that lie outside of traditional school-related models. Rather than viewing involvement as the enactment of specific scripted school activities, the study describes how a migrant family interpreted involvement as a means of instilling in their children the value of

education through the medium of hard work, and viewed taking their children to work as a form of involvement. The study asserts that the findings not only challenge hegemonic understanding of parent involvement, but also open up new avenues for research and practice.

López, L. M. (2005). A look into the homes of Spanish-speaking preschool children. *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism*. Retrieved from <http://www.lingref.com/isb/4/108ISB4.PDF>

The purpose of this study was to better understand the home environment of a heterogeneous group of low-income Latino families living in the United States and how these environments play a role in children's language development, both in English and Spanish. Spanish-speaking mothers with children who attended preschool in the US were interviewed on language use, attitudes, beliefs, and expectations for their child's schooling and success, as well as immigration history and cultural influences. Important factors found in the study included parents' immigration status, education level, and motivation for achievement which were found to influence parents' emphasis on English or Spanish learning, and in turn their children's achievement in each language.

Lukes, S.M. & Miller, F.Y. (2002) Oral health issues among migrant farmworkers. *The Journal of Dental Hygiene*, 76, 134-140.

The purpose of this study was to determine utilization patterns of dental services, unmet dental needs, access to care barriers, and oral health behaviors as perceived by migrant farmworkers at a rural southern Illinois farmworker health clinic. The majority of migrant farmworkers in a southern Illinois community reported access to care barriers, and having never or episodically received dental services. Nearly half reported signs of periodontal disease.

Martínez, Y. G. & Velazquez, J. A. (2000). Involving migrant families in education. ERIC Digest. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/2001-3/migrant.htm>

This digest describes parent involvement in the education process from the perspective of parents and educators and offers strategies to enhance the experience of schooling for migrant students and their families. It supports that children of migrant farm workers, more than other children, confront a number of risk factors for school failure. Some of these factors include mobility, poverty, and lack of access to schooling. School-level data, however, indicate that educators frequently attribute school failure to a lack of parent involvement.

National Center for Farmworker Health, Inc. (2009). Migrant and seasonal farmworker demographics. Buda, TX: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.ncfh.org/?pid=4&page=5>

This document is a fact sheet including information on birthplace and age, gender and family, language and education, labor force, population demographics. Based on data from the National Agricultural Workers Survey, 2001-2002.

National Education Association. (2007) *Culture, Abilities, Resilience, and Effort (C.A.R.E.)*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

The C.A.R.E. Guide provides a multi-themed approach to closing the achievement gaps, focusing on culture, abilities, resilience, and effort. It focuses on the themes of cultural, economic and language differences; unrecognized and undeveloped abilities; the power of resilience; and the importance of effort and motivation. The guide advances the idea that if educators view these qualities of students as strengths rather than deficits, they can be successful in closing achievement gaps.

Navarrete, B., Betancourt, H., & Flynn, P. (2007). Culture and achievement motivation in Latino and Anglo American high school students. Poster session presented at the 24th *Interamerican Congress of Psychology*, Mexico City, Mexico. Retrieved from <http://www.cultureandbehavior.org/files/BrendaSIP07.pdf>

This research investigates the role of socio-economic and cultural factors that may contribute to motivational factors and academic achievement in Latino American and Anglo American high school students in California. A theoretical model for the study of culture was used to examine the proposed relations among socio-economic status and fatalistic cultural value orientations as determinants of stability of causal attributions for academic failure and student achievement. As hypothesized, findings supported the proposed effect of socio-economic status and fatalistic cultural value orientation on academic achievement through the mediating role of attributional processes.

Pappamihiel, E. (2004). The legislation of migrancy: Migrant education in our courts and government. In Salinas, C., & Fránquiz, M. E. (Eds.) *Scholars in the field: The challenges of migrant education*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This chapter outlines the Federal legislation affecting migrant education from the 1965 ESEA to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Also included are summaries of several groundbreaking court cases related directly to migrant students.

Quandt, S.A., Hiott, A.E., Grzywacz, J. G., Davis, S. W., & Arcury, T. A. (2007) Oral health and quality of life of migrant and seasonal farmworkers in North Carolina. *Journal of Agricultural Safety and Health*. (13)1:45-55.

This research describes the oral health problems experienced and oral health care received by Latino farmworkers in North Carolina, and explores the association between oral health and quality of life (QOL). Data were collected using face-to-face interviews from a representative sample of 151 farmworkers. Data included oral health-related QOL and general health-related.

Reynolds, A., Chen, C. & Herbers, J. (2009). School Mobility and Educational Success: A Research Synthesis and Evidence on Prevention. Paper presented at the *Workshop on the Impact of Mobility and Change on the Lives of Young Children, Schools, and Neighborhoods, Board on Children, Youth, and Families*, Washington, DC: National Research Council.

This report assesses the effects of school mobility on achievement and dropout in 16 studies from 1990-2008 that included pre-mobility achievement. Thirteen of the studies found that mobility from kindergarten to high school was independently associated with outcomes. Findings indicated that children who moved three or more times had rates of school dropout that were nearly one-third of a standard deviation higher than those who were school stable.

Rosenbaum, S. & Shin, P. (2005) Migrant and seasonal farmworkers: Health insurance coverage and access to care. Kaiser Commission on Medicaid and the Uninsured. Available online at <http://www.kff.org/uninsured/upload/Migrant-and-Seasonal-Farmworkers-Health-Insurance-Coverage-and-Access-to-Care-Report.pdf>

This brief provides an overview of migrant and seasonal farmworkers and the health challenges they face. It considers options for improving health coverage and access to care.

Salinas, Cinthia, & Fránquiz, M. E., (Eds.). (2004). *Scholars in the Field: The Challenges of Migrant Education*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This book collects the experience and scholarship of leading migrant educators to describe the struggles and resilience of migrant children and youth and the challenges of providing them with a coherent and high-quality education.

Salinas, C. & Reyes, R. (2004). Graduation enhancement and postsecondary opportunities for migrant students: Issues and approaches. In Salinas, C., & Fránquiz, M. E. (Eds.) *Scholars in the field: The challenges of migrant education*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This chapter addresses the plight of secondary education students moving across district lines and encountering challenges such as credit accrual and lack of academic resources. Also, the chapter looks at beneficial programs and how secondary educators can assist migrant students to be successful in school.

Scarcella, R. (2008). Academic Language: Clarifying Terms. *AccELLerate!*,(1)1, pp. 14-16. Washington, D.C.: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition. Retrieved from http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/files/uploads/17/AccELLerate1_1.pdf

This brief contains an outline of the types of language and cognitive knowledge, skills and strategies that English learners require to do well in content classes in the upper grades from grades four to 12.

Solis, J. (2004). Scholastic demands on intrastate and interstate migrant secondary students. In Salinas, C., & Fránquiz, M. E. (Eds.) *Scholars in the field: The challenges of migrant education*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This chapter provides an overview of specific challenges facing migrant secondary students. These include: late entry/early withdrawal; transfer of education records; schedule conflicts and course/grade equivalents; evening and summer school hindrances; and limitations imposed by living in migrant camps.

Tinkler, B. (2002). A Review of literature on Hispanic/Latino parent involvement in K-12 education. Denver, CO: Assets for Colorado Youth. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED469134.pdf>

This document presents a comprehensive review of the literature on parent involvement of Hispanic/Latino parents. The author concludes that the participation of parents in their children's education has positive impacts on school achievement, yet minority parental participation is decreasing. Parents and teachers have different perceptions of what constitutes parental participation with school personnel often misreading the reserve, non-confrontational manners, and noninvolvement of Hispanic parents to mean they are uncaring.

US Department of Education (2002), Office of the Under Secretary, The same high standards for migrant students: Holding Title I schools accountable, *Volume III: Coordinating the Education of Migrant Students: Lessons Learned from the Field*, Washington, D.C. Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/offices/OUS/PES/ed_for_disadvantaged.html

This report examines various approaches used to promote continuity of instructional service for migrant students. Case studies were carried out on four groups of two or three districts each that share migrant students over the school year ("trading partners"). The case studies revealed that the trading partners shared a set of common themes that led to the development of successful solutions for migrant students.

US Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education Division Office of Migrant Education. (2005). Education of Migratory Children: Maintenance and Transfer of Health and Education Information for Migrant Students by the States, Washington, D.C. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/reporttocongress.pdf>

Section 1308 (b)(4) of the ESEA requires the Secretary of Education to report to Congress the Department's findings and recommendations regarding the maintenance and transfer of health and educational information for migratory students by the States. This report: (1) reviews the progress of States in developing and linking electronic records transfer systems; (2) makes recommendations for the development and linkage of such systems; and (3) makes recommendations for measures that the Department and States may take to ensure continuity of services provided for migratory students.

US Department of Education Migrant Education Program (2005b). Lessons learned in a comprehensive needs assessment pilot project. Draft report prepared by Alex Goniprow. Washington, DC: USDOE/OME. Retrieved from: <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/53437634/lessons>

The immediate objective of this pilot project was to develop knowledge and experience on how best to conduct an efficient and effective comprehensive needs assessment process. With the OME goal to strengthen and advance States' efforts to design and develop data-driven migrant education programs that attain the desired results, this initiative sought to build State capacity to serve the needs of migrant children.

Valenzuela, A. (1999). *Subtractive Schooling: US Mexican Youth and the Politics of Caring*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

This book presents the findings of a three-year ethnographic investigation into the achievement and orientation of Mexican American students at a large urban school. The author provides a framework for understanding the patterns of immigrant achievement and US-born underachievement frequently noted in the literature and observed by the author in her ethnographic account of regular-track youth

Washington State Migrant Education Program (2010). Washington State Title I, Part C, Migrant Education Program: Videoconference August 20, 2010 [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from www.k12.wa.us

This PowerPoint presentation was used at a videoconference for Migrant Education Program personnel. Topics included: Priority for Services, End-of-Year Reports, On-line Service Delivery Plan Worksheet, and Calendar of Events.

Walls, Charles A. (2003). Providing highly mobile students with an effective education. ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/2004-3/mobile.html>

This digest is a summary of the information presented in the monograph, "Students on the Move: Reaching and Teaching Highly Mobile Children and Youth". It describes the different reasons for high mobility and the characteristics of highly mobile families. It also explains the specific educational and social support needs of highly mobile students and briefly reviews the findings on effective school programs and classroom practices.

Ward, P. A. (2002). Out-of-school youth: Proceedings report: Seminar on migrant out-of-school youth. Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC). Retrieved from http://en1.endiva.net/migedimec/files/literature/1492.5824_outofschoolyouth.pdf

This report summarizes questions and recommendations in four major areas: (1) identification and recruitment of out-of-school youth; (2) providing English instruction, basic skills instruction, health services, advocacy, and instruction in consumer skills; (3)

collaborating at the state and local levels; and (4) policy issues related to states' active recruitment of out-of-school youth, priority for service for out-of-school youth versus more traditional migrant students, whether out-of-school youth should be included in the high school graduation goal for migrant students, and expenditure of funds.

Weathers, A., Minkovitz, C., O'Campo, P., & Diener-West, M. (2003). Health service use by children of migratory agricultural workers: Exploring the role of need for care. *Pediatrics*. Vol. 111 No. 5 May 2003. Retrieved from <http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/content/full/111/5/956>

This article presents the results of a study of migrant families to assess the determinants of health services use among users and nonusers of health services and to evaluate the association between health status and health services use, while controlling for potential confounders.

Weigel, M., Armijos, R. X., Ramírez, Y., & Orozco, R. (2007). The household food insecurity and health outcomes of US-Mexico border migrant and seasonal farmworkers. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, (2007) 9:157–169.

This study examined the prevalence, predictors, and health outcomes associated with food insecurity in 100 migrant and seasonal farmworker households living on the US-Mexico border.

Wilkinson, L. & Silliman, E. (2000). Classroom language and literacy learning. In M. Kamil, P.B., Mosenthal, P.D., & Pearson, R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. III* (pp. 337-360). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

A considerable body of empirical sociolinguistic research now exists that focuses on the use of oral language in classrooms. This article reviews that research, its legacy, and its implications for understanding how children learn literacy. The historical roots of research on classroom language are examined, including the early sociolinguistic studies, which focused on language function, communicative demands of classrooms, and individual differences among students' language use.

Witkin, R. and Altschuld, J. (1995). *Planning and conducting needs assessments: a practical guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

The authors first introduce a three-phase model – pre-assessment, assessment and post-assessment - to clarify the distinctions between the needs of primary service recipients and the people and resources that exist. They go on to describe methods appropriate for gathering data for assessing needs and for causal analysis.

Witkin, R. and Altschuld, J. (2000). *From needs assessment to action: Transforming needs into solution strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

This book shows how the results of needs assessments can be transformed into action plans for an organization and the procedures for facilitating that change. The authors

provide definitions and a review of the concepts of needs assessment; examine the manager's perspective in needs assessment; describe the processes involved in using information to create action plans; and highlight the principles through case examples with analytical notes.

Research Question #2: What instructional strategies has research shown to have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?

California Department of Education (2009). *Preschool English learners: Principles and practices to promote language, literacy and learning*. Author. Retrieved from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/cd/re/documents/psenglearnersed2.pdf>

This publication provides teachers with the knowledge and tools to educate preschool ELs most effectively. It was developed by a group of experts who collectively brought strong, practical, academic, and research backgrounds to the topic of educating young ELs.

California Department of Education (2009b). *California Infant/Toddler Learning & Development Foundations*. California Department of Education Press. Retrieved from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/cd/re/itfoundations.asp>

The purpose of the *California Infant/Toddler Learning and Development Foundations* is to describe research and evidence-based expectations for the way most infants and toddlers make progress in the major domains of social-emotional, language, cognitive, and perceptual and motor development. This publication presents 28 foundations in four domains that describe the competencies that infants and toddlers typically attain in the first three years of life.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence - CREDE (2011). Website retrieved from <http://crede.berkeley.edu/research/crede/index.html>

This webpage describes the Standards for Effective Pedagogy and Learning developed by CREDE through an extensive analysis of the research and development literature in education and diversity. The Standards represent recommendations on which the literature is in agreement, across all cultural, racial, and linguistic groups in the United States, all age levels, and all subject matters. They express the principles of effective pedagogy for all students.

Espinosa, L. (2010). What does the research say about curriculum and assessment for young dual language learners? National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition. http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/files/webinars/20/Espinosa_Apr10.pdf

This publication summarizes a webinar focusing on how research can guide educational practices with children and families who speak a language other than English at home.

Gersten, R., Baker, S.K.; Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P.; & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective Literacy and English Language Instruction for English Learners in the Elementary Grades: A Practice Guide* (NCEE 2007-4011). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, US Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/>.

This guide was developed by an expert panel convened by the Institute of Education Sciences. It offers a set of five research-based recommendations that together constitute a coherent approach to a multifaceted problem. A summary of the research evidence and a *level of evidence* rating are provided for each recommendation. This Practice Guide is the foundation for all the Doing What Works content on teaching literacy to K-5 ELs.

Hoover, J., & Patton, J. (2007). Differentiating standards-based education for students with diverse needs. *Remedial and Special Education* 2004; 25; 74. Retrieved from <http://www.sagepub.com/eis2study/articles/Hoover%20and%20Patton.pdf>

The need to differentiate or adapt curriculum and instruction to meet special needs continues to challenge educators of students with high-incidence disabilities. The current emphasis on teaching and assessing standards requires knowledge and skills to differentiate standards-based education to successfully meet diverse needs in the classroom.

Instituto Nacional Para la Educación de los Adultos, (2005). Guía para la Operación de Plazas Comunitarias. Retrieved from <http://www.conevyt.org.mx/images/documentos/plazas/pdf/guiapc.pdf>

This guide was developed by the Mexican Government's Instituto Nacional Para la Educación de los Adultos (INEA) to outline the services offered by the Plazas Comunitarias and to assist agencies in Mexico and abroad in implementing Plazas Comunitarias at their sites.

Jachman, A. (2002). Negotiating la frontera: Reading and the migrant student. *SEDL Letter*, Vol. 14, No.3, December 2002. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Lab. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/pubs/sedl-letter/v14n03/4.html>.

Asserting that there are common strategies to improve student literacy that can be employed across grade levels and programs that serve migrant students, this article describes examples of successful programs for migrant students and successful reading instruction strategies (e.g., helping students overcome their fear and insecurities about their performance, integration and affirmation of students' culture in the classroom, parent involvement, fostering learning independence in students, coordinating programs across states).

Klien, L. & Knitzer, J. (2006). *Effective preschool curricula and teaching strategies*. National Center for Children in Poverty. Retrieved from http://www.nccp.org/publications/pdf/download_100.pdf

This issue brief, based on a meeting of a group of distinguished researchers, educators, and policymakers convened by the National Center for Children in Poverty (NCCP) explores lessons from research and practice about the role of an intentional curriculum and professional development and supports for teachers in closing the achievement gap for low-income preschool age children. The aim is to take stock of emerging knowledge about how to increase low-income children's achievement in early literacy and early math and to explore the implications for how administrators and policymakers can best integrate this knowledge into their decision-making.

Marzano, R., Gaddy, B., & Dean, C. (2000). *What works in classroom instruction*. McREL. Aurora, CO. Retrieved from <http://www.mcrel.org>.

This document synthesizes research findings from more than 100 studies involving 4000+ control groups. The study identifies nine instructional categories that strongly affect student achievement: identifying similarities and differences; summarizing and note taking; reinforcing effort and providing recognition; homework and practice; nonlinguistic representations; cooperative learning; setting goals and providing feedback; generating and testing hypotheses; and activating prior knowledge.

Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

This K-12 guide provides research evidence, statistical data, and case studies on effective classroom practices. The authors identify nine categories of instructional strategies that maximize student learning and explain the vital details about each, including: studies in effect size and percentile gain units; guiding principles for using the strategies; classroom examples of model instructional practice; and charts, frames, rubrics, organizers, and other tools to help teachers use the strategies right away.

Tucker, Bill, (2007). *Laboratories of Reform: Virtual High Schools and Innovation in Public Education*. Education Sector. Retrieved from: <http://www.educationsector.org/publications/laboratories-reform-virtual-high-schools-and-innovation-public-education>

This report focuses on virtual schooling as an avenue for reforming education in the public schools. The author argues that virtual schools are altering students' school experience by personalizing learning and extending it beyond the traditional school day.

Research Question #3: What evidence-based programs exist that have promise for helping migrant students succeed in school?

Laosa, L. M. & Ainsworth, P. (2007). Is public pre-K preparing Hispanic children to succeed in school? *Preschool Policy Brief*; No. 13, March 2007. New Brunswick, NJ: National Institute for Early Education Research. Retrieved from <http://nieer.org/resources/policybriefs/13.pdf>

This brief examines issues related to preschool participation by Hispanic children, including population trends, current patterns of disparities, Hispanic participation in preschool, their achievement in preschool education, the language issue, expanding access, and why quality matters. The brief concludes that research shows that, when afforded the opportunity to access high-quality preschool education, children of Hispanic descent make significant gains in learning and development, including areas such as vocabulary and letter knowledge that are strongly predictive of later reading success.

Preschool Curriculum Evaluation Research Consortium (2008). Effects of preschool curriculum programs on school readiness (NCER 2008-2009). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Research, Institute of Education Sciences, US Department of Education. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncer/pubs/20082009/index.asp>

This report provides the results of a study to evaluate the impact of each of 14 curricula implemented using a common set of measures with the cohort of children. This preschool initiative focused on the impact of the intervention curricula on students' reading and pre-reading, phonological awareness, early language, early mathematics knowledge, and behavior (including social skills and problem behaviors) at the end of pre-kindergarten and kindergarten.

Reynolds, A., Magnuson, K., & Ou, S. R. (2006). PK 3 Education: Programs and practices that work in children's first decade. FCD Working Paper: Advancing PK 3. No. Six. New York, NY: Foundation for Child Development. Retrieved from <http://www.fcd-us.org/sites/default/files/ProgramsandPractices.pdf>

This report reviews the knowledge base on the effectiveness of prekindergarten through grade 3 intervention programs and practices for young children making the transition to school. The coverage includes extended early childhood interventions, preschool programs, full day kindergarten, reduced class sizes in the early grades, parent involvement, instructional practices, and school transitions (student mobility). The review also documents new findings on PK-3 programs and practices from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study Kindergarten Cohort of 1998-1999.

What Works Clearinghouse (2006). Phonological awareness training: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/early_ed/phono_aware/

This report describes Phonological Awareness Training, a general practice aimed at enhancing young children's phonological awareness abilities. This practice refers to the ability to detect or manipulate the sounds in words independent of meaning and is a precursor to reading. Phonological Awareness Training can involve various training activities that teach children to identify, detect, delete, segment, or blend segments of spoken words (e.g., words, syllables, onsets and rimes, phonemes) or that focus on teaching children to detect, identify, or produce rhyme or alliteration.

What Works Clearinghouse (2006b). *Fast ForWord Language: WWC intervention report*. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang/ffl/

This publication describes Fast ForWord Language, a computer-based instructional program developed to build cognitive skills students need to improve English language proficiency and reading skills. It consists of seven game-like exercises, including nonverbal and verbal sound discrimination, phonological processing, vocabulary recognition, and language comprehension.

What Works Clearinghouse (2006c). *Instructional conversations: WWC intervention report*. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang/icll/

This publication describes Instructional Conversations, a practice to help ELs develop reading comprehension ability along with English proficiency. Instructional Conversations are small-group discussions in which teachers, acting as facilitators, engage ELs in discussions about stories, key concepts, and related personal experiences to allow them to appreciate and build on each other's experiences, knowledge, and understanding.

What Works Clearinghouse (2006d). *Reading Mastery: WWC intervention report*. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang/read_master/

This publication describes Reading Mastery, a direct instruction program designed to provide explicit, systematic instruction in English language reading. Reading Mastery is available in two versions, Reading Mastery Classic levels I and II for use in grades K–3 and Reading Mastery Plus, an integrated reading-language program for grades K–6. The program teaches phonemic awareness and sound-letter correspondence and moves into word and passage reading, vocabulary development, comprehension, and building oral reading fluency.

What Works Clearinghouse (2006e). *Achievement for Latinos through Academic Success: WWC intervention report*. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/dropout/alas/>

This publication describes Achievement for Latinos through Academic Success (ALAS), an intervention for middle and high school students designed to address student, school, family, and community factors that affect dropping out. Each student is assigned a counselor/mentor who monitors attendance, behavior, and academic achievement. The counselor also provides feedback and coordinates interventions and resources to students, families, and teachers

What Works Clearinghouse (2006f). Enhanced Proactive Reading: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang/epr/

This publication describes Enhanced Proactive Reading, a comprehensive, integrated reading, language arts, and English language development curriculum that is targeted at first-grade ELs experiencing problems learning to read through conventional instruction. The curriculum is implemented as small group daily reading instruction, during which ELs' instructors provide opportunities for participation from all students and give feedback for student responses.

What Works Clearinghouse (2007). Pre-K Mathematics: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/early_ed/prek_math/

This publication describes Pre-K Mathematics, a supplemental curriculum designed to develop informal mathematical knowledge and skills in preschool children. Mathematical content is organized into seven units in which specific mathematical concepts and skills from each unit are taught in the classroom via teacher-guided, small-group activities utilizing concrete manipulatives.

What Works Clearinghouse (2007b). Sound Foundations: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/early_ed/sound_found/

This publication describes sound Foundations, a literacy curriculum designed to teach phonological awareness to pre-literate children that focuses exclusively on phoneme identity (i.e., different words can start and end with the same sound). It works from the principle that phonemic awareness is necessary but alone not sufficient to reading

What Works Clearinghouse (2007c). Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/beginning_reading/circ/

This publication describes the Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (*BCIRC*) program, an adaptation of the *Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)* program that was designed to help Spanish-speaking students succeed in reading Spanish and then making a successful transition to English reading.

In the adaptation, students complete tasks that focus on reading, writing, and language activities in Spanish and English, while working in small, cooperative learning groups

What Works Clearinghouse (2007d). Peer Tutoring and Response Groups: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang_ptrg/

This publication, Peer Tutoring and Response Groups, aims to improve the language and achievement of ELs by pairing or grouping students to work on a task. Students may be grouped by age or ability or the groups may be mixed. Peer tutoring typically consists of two students assuming the roles of tutor and tutee, or coach and player.

What Works Clearinghouse (2007e). Vocabulary Improvement Program for English Learners and their Classmates: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/english_lang_vip/

This publication, Vocabulary Improvement Program for English Language Learners and Their Classmates (*VIP*), is a vocabulary development curriculum for ELs and native English speakers in grades 4–6. The 15-week program includes 30–45 minute whole class and small group activities that aim to increase students' understanding of target vocabulary words included in a weekly reading assignment.

What Works Clearinghouse (2007f). High School Redirection: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/dropout/hs_redirect/

This publication, High School Redirection, is an alternative high school program for youth at risk of dropping out. It emphasizes basic skills development (with a focus on reading) and offers extra-curricular activities. The schools operate in economically disadvantaged areas and serve students who have dropped out in the past, who are teen parents, who have poor test scores, and who are over-age for their grade

What Works Clearinghouse (2007g). Twelve Together: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/dropout/12_together/

This publication, Twelve Together, is a peer support and mentoring program for middle and early high school students that offers weekly after-school discussion groups led by trained volunteer adult facilitators. The program also offers homework assistance, trips to college campuses, and an annual weekend retreat. *Twelve Together* had potentially positive effects on staying in school suggesting that it may be effective at improving student graduation rates

What Works Clearinghouse (2007h). Corrective Reading: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/beginning_reading/cr/

This publication, Corrective Reading, is designed to promote reading accuracy (decoding), fluency, and comprehension skills of students in third grade or higher who are reading below their grade level. The program has four levels that address students' decoding skills and six levels that address students' comprehension skills.

What Works Clearinghouse (2007i). Classwide Peer Tutoring: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/beginning_reading/cr/

This publication describes *ClassWide Peer Tutoring (CWPT)*, a peer-assisted instructional strategy designed to be integrated with most existing reading curricula. This approach provides students with increased opportunities to practice reading skills by asking questions and receiving immediate feedback from a peer tutor. Pairs of students take turns tutoring each other to reinforce concepts and skills initially taught by the teacher.

What Works Clearinghouse (2008). Accelerated Middle Schools: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/dropout/ams/>

This publication describes Accelerated Academic Academy (AAA), a self-contained academic program designed to help middle school students who are behind catch up with their peers making it more likely that they stay in school and graduate. Teachers use nontraditional approaches (e.g., cooperative groups, instructional technology, and peer tutoring). The program also included counseling, attendance monitoring, and outreach to families

What Works Clearinghouse (2008b). Reading Recovery: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/beginning_reading/reading_recovery/

This publication describes Reading Recovery, a short-term tutoring intervention intended to serve the lowest-achieving (bottom 20%) first-grade students. The goals of Reading Recovery are to promote literacy skills, reduce the number of first-grade students who are struggling to read, and prevent long-term reading difficulties.

What Works Clearinghouse (2009). Bright Beginnings: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/early_ed/brightbegs/

This publication describes Bright Beginnings, an early childhood curriculum based in part on *High/Scope*[®] and *Creative Curriculum*[®], with an additional emphasis on literacy skills. The curriculum consists of nine thematic units designed to enhance children's cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development, and each unit includes concept maps, literacy lessons, center activities, and home activities. Special emphasis is placed on the development of early language and literacy skills, and parent involvement is a key component of the program

What Works Clearinghouse (2009b). High School Puente Program: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/dropout/puente/>

The High School Puente Program was found to increase Latino participation in higher education by raising student skills and aspirations through critical thinking and writing instruction, college counseling, and mentoring. High School Puente consists of a 9th- and 10th-grade college preparatory English class that incorporates Mexican-American/Latino and other multicultural literature; a four-year academic counseling program for students; and student leadership and mentoring activities with volunteers from the local community

What Works Clearinghouse (2010). Sound Partners: WWC intervention report. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/reports/beginning_reading/sound_partners/

This publication, Sound Partners, is a phonics-based tutoring program that provides supplemental reading instruction to elementary school students grades K-3 with below average reading skills. The program is designed specifically for use by tutors with minimal training and experience.

What Works Clearinghouse (2010b). Quick review of the report: Addressing summer reading setback among economically disadvantaged elementary students. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/publications/quickreviews/QRReport.aspx?QRID=158>

A review by the What Works Clearinghouse of a study which examined whether providing summer reading books to economically disadvantaged first- and second-grade students for three consecutive summers improved reading achievement. The study found that students who received three consecutive years of free, self-selected summer reading books had statistically significantly higher reading test scores than students who did not receive summer reading books.

What Works Clearinghouse (2011). What Works web page. US Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/>

The What Works Clearinghouse evaluates research on practices and interventions to let the education community know what is likely to work. For each practice, it issues a guide

and/or an intervention report that describes what the practice involves and what the research says. In addition, some of the website content is based on other information and materials from the Institutes for Education Sciences.

Research Question #4: What services are likely to help migrant students overcome the obstacles created by a highly mobile lifestyle?

Antuñez, B. (2000). When everyone is involved: Parents and communities in school reform. In *Framing Effective Practice*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse English Language Acquisition. Retrieved from <http://inpathways.net/6parents.pdf>

This report examines the benefits of parent and community involvement to students' academic success. It pays particular attention to EL populations. Some of the benefits includes: (1) when parents are involved students achieve more; (2) students whose parent are involved in their lives have higher graduation rates and greater enrollment rates in post-secondary education; (3) in programs that are designed to involve parents in full partnerships, student achievement for disadvantaged children not only improves, but can also reach levels that are standard for middle-class children; (4) students are more likely to fall behind in academic performance if their parents do not participate in school events, develop a working relationship with their child's educators.

Bell, S. & Carrillo, N. (2007). Characteristics of effective summer learning programs in practice. In *Summertime: Confronting risks, exploring solutions: New directions for youth development*, Number 114. Fairchild, R. & Noam, G. (Eds.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

This chapter presents nine characteristics of summer programs that lead to positive results for young people. Research demonstrates that programs that employ the attributes described by these characteristics demonstrate success in two areas for their attendees: accelerating academic performance and supporting positive youth development. The authors conclude that for young people to have maximum benefit, a program must endeavor to implement all of the characteristics.

Bermúdez, B. & Márquez, J. A. (1996). An examination of a four-way collaborative to increase parent involvement in the schools. *Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students*, 16, 1-16.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the effectiveness of a parent involvement program developed as a four-way collaborative effort among an institution of higher education, an urban school district, parents, and the business community. Barriers to parental engagement in the schools are discussed, including language skills, home-school partnership, knowledge of the school system, self-confidence, work interference, past experiences, and attitudes of school personnel.

Berry, B. (2008). Staffing high-needs schools: Insights from the nation's best teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 89, No. 10, June 2008, pp. 757-771.

With support from the National Education Association, the Center for Teaching Quality worked with more than 1,700 National Board Certified Teachers from five states in a series of State policy summits that provided teachers with the opportunity to examine the recruitment and retention research and take part in structured dialogues with policy makers.

Blank, R., de las Alas, N., & Smith, C. (2008). Does teacher professional development have effects on teaching and learning? Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers, Stanford, CA: Stanford Working Group. Retrieved from http://www.ccsso.org/Documents/2008/Does_Teacher_Professional_Development_2008.pdf

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) studied teacher professional development programs in mathematics and science through a grant from the National Science Foundation. States nominated professional development programs for the study, and to conduct the study, the CCSSO team has worked with state coordinators and local program directors and evaluators. The assisted education leaders in all states by providing a cross-state analysis of the quality of professional development programs and evaluations using a common rubric developed from recent research on program effectiveness.

BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center (2009) Success in secondary school and access to postsecondary education for migrant students: A policy brief. Mt. Morris, NY: National PASS Coordinating Committee.

This policy brief outlines strategic Federal, State, and local efforts that could greatly improve the national migrant student graduation rate. Policy recommendations regarding out-of-school youth are provided.

Carroll, T. G., Fulton, K. & Doerr, H., (Eds.). (2010). *Team Up for 21st Century Teaching and Learning: What Research and Practice Reveal about Professional Learning*. National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.

This volume contains the latest research on how learning teams can positively affect school culture, teacher retention, teacher effectiveness, and student achievement. This research is supported by three case studies written by practitioners in the field using teamwork to create successful learning cultures.

Center for Teaching Quality (2011). Center for Teaching Quality homepage. Retrieved from <http://teachingquality.org/>

The Center for Teaching Quality seeks to improve student learning and advance the teaching profession by cultivating teacher leadership, conducting timely research and crafting smart policy.

ConQIR (2007). Tip sheet: Recruiting 101. Consortium for Quality and Consistency in Identification and Recruitment. January 2007.

This document presents tips for preparing new recruiters, preparing to go out recruiting, networking, techniques for interviewing families, quality control, and recording information on migrant certificates of eligibility.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(8), 597 - 604.

In this article, the authors examine some design principles to guide policymakers and school reformers who seek to promote learner-centered professional development which involves teachers as active and reflective participants in the change process. The authors argue that professional development is not solely concerned with supporting teaching and knowledge. Support also is needed for teachers to reflect on their current practice and adapt new knowledge and beliefs to their own teaching contexts.

Gándara, P., Maxwell-Jolly, J., & Driscoll, A. (2005). Listening to teachers of English language learners: A survey of California teachers' challenges, experiences, and professional development needs. Santa Cruz, CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning.

This report presents the results of a survey of over 5,300 teachers in California teaching ELs in a variety of programs. It aimed to explore 1) the most difficult challenges teachers face in EL classrooms every day, 2) how teachers view their own knowledge and preparation for meeting the needs of these students, and 3) teachers' views on the professional development and other supports that best would help them meet those challenges. Educator responses to these questions provide the data for this report.

Hill, J. & Hayes, J. (2007). Out-of-school immigrant youth. San Francisco, CA: Public Policy Institute of California. Retrieved from <http://www.ppic.org/main/publication.asp?i=684>

This report examines young immigrants not in school and who receive few if any educational services. The authors also observe the Federal Migrant Education Program that is charged with helping this group. Using MEP and census data, the authors find that many out-of-school youth work, left school while quite young, and have very poor spoken English skills. Some are as young as 13, yet work and live without their parents. Many youth report wanting to continue their education. The authors conclude that if policymakers are to help this group, strategies in addition to traditional education models may be necessary.

Hirsh, S. (2009). A new definition of staff development, *Journal of Staff Development*, Vol. 30, No. 4, Fall 2009, pp. 10-16.

This article presents the National Staff Development Council's definition of "staff development" and is designed to facilitate the development, implementation, and ongoing assessment and refinement of collaborative professional learning in schools.

Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC). (2003). Migrant parent and family involvement research-related strategies to implement No Child Left Behind. Presented at the *Seminar on Migrant Parent and Family Involvement*, June 5-7, 2003. Interstate Migrant Education Council. Washington DC.

Retrieved from http://en1.endiva.net/migedimec/pub/LIT_0.asp

This document presents strategies to implement the requirement of NCLB for migrant parents. The research information presented was drawn from the summaries of current research presented at the Interstate Migrant Education Council's Seminar on Migrant Family and Parent Involvement by the following researchers: Joyce Epstein, Anne Henderson, Guadalupe Mendoza, Evangelina Orozco, Manuel Recio, and Lorrie Wolverton.

Kerka, S. (2004). Strategies for serving out-of-school youth. Ohio Learning-Work Connection, Ohio State University. Retrieved from <http://cle.osu.edu/lwc-publications/youth-information-briefs/downloads/Serving-Out-of-School-Youth.pdf>

This article presents strategies for recruitment, retention, education, and employment that address the challenges of serving out of- school youth.

Melecio, R. & Hanley, T. J. (2002). Identification and recruitment of migrant students: Strategies and resources. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, US Department of Education. Retrieved from www.tn.gov/education/fedprog/doc/fpmepidentrecruit.doc

This digest provides an overview of how to develop a realistic and workable system for quickly finding and enrolling eligible migrant students. Section 1, "Knowing the Region/State," focuses on sources of information. Section 2, "Planning and Logistics," explains what the recruitment plan should include. Section 3, "Audits," explains that an important part of any quality control system is an independent review or "friendly" audit. Section 4, "Conclusion," notes that a good recruitment system is changing/dynamic and needs adequate resources dedicated to its maintenance.

Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Technical Assistance Center (2006). *Professional Development Handbook for Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Programs*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development – TAC 12.

This handbook presents successful strategies and promising practices for partnerships, financial assistance options, and tools and resources used to overcome the challenges faces by Migrant and Seasonal Head Start programs.

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996). *What matters most: Teaching for America's future*. Report of the National Commission on Teaching & America's Future. Woodbridge, VA: Author.

A report from the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) calls attention to teacher quality as the key to improving education in the US. The Commission contends that the capability of the teacher has the strongest effect on student learning and that "recruiting, preparing, and retaining" quality teachers is the most important way to improve education. This report concludes that education reformers must provide the support and conditions essential for teachers to teach effectively. It maps out a plan for providing every child with high quality teaching by attracting, developing, and supporting excellent teachers.

National Parent Teacher Association (2009). Family-school partnerships: National standards for family-school partnerships. Alexandria, VA: Author. Retrieved from http://www.pta.org/national_standards.asp

This webpage presents the Parent Teacher Association's National Standards for Family-School Partnerships along with background on the development of the standards and an assessment guide that parents and educators can use to improve their local schools in relation to the standards.

National PASS Center Migrant Education, Portable Assisted Study Sequence (PASS) Program Retrieved from <http://www.migrant.net/pass/index.htm>

This document describes the Portable Assisted Study Sequence (PASS) Program that consists of self-contained, semi-independent study courses that enable students to earn secondary-level academic credits. Participating students generally take these courses in order to make up courses, meet graduation requirements, or cope with scheduling difficulties.

National Summer Learning Association. (2011). Quality standards. Baltimore, MD: Author. Retrieved from http://www.summerlearning.org/?page=quality_standards&hhSearchTerms=standards

This webpage presents the Association's standards for summer programs. The standards address purpose, finance and sustainability, planning, staff, partnerships, individualized instructions, intention of focus, integration of activities, and program culture.

Opportunities for Success for Out-of-School Youth (OSY) Consortium (2010). OSY literature review. Ft. Scott, KS. Author. Retrieved from <http://www.osymigrant.org/index.htm>

This document presents a review of the literature on migrant out-of-school youth. The purpose of this literature review is to help states better understand the out-of-school youth population.

Rodríguez, P. & García, A. (2002). *Region V Migrant education programs for out-of-school youth*. Retrieved from [http://migrant.kern.org/stories/storyReader\\$285](http://migrant.kern.org/stories/storyReader$285)

This document provides a listing of programs recommended by the Region V Migrant Education Program for meeting the unique education and support needs of the out-of-school youth population.

Rumberger, R. W. & Gándara, P. (2005). Seeking equity in the education of California's English learners. *Teachers College Record*, 106, 2032–2056.

The report first examines the achievement gap for ELs in California. Second, it reviews evidence in seven areas in which these students receive a substantially inequitable education as compared to their English-speaking peers, even when those peers are similarly economically disadvantaged. Third, it documents the State's role in creating and perpetuating existing inequities. Finally, it describes a series of remedies that the State could pursue to reduce these inequities.

Salinas, C. & Fránquiz, M. E. (Eds.) (2004). *Scholars in the Field: The Challenges of Migrant Education*. Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

This book collects the experience and scholarship of leading migrant educators to describe the struggles and resilience of migrant children and youth and the challenges of providing them with a coherent and high-quality education.

Sloan-McCombs, J., Augustine, C., Schwartz, H., Bodilly, S., McInnis, B., Lichter, D., & Brown-Cross, A. (2011). Making summer count: How summer programs can boost children's learning. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

This monograph presents a research study conducted by RAND to assess both the need for summer learning programs and the existing evidence on effective, viable, and sustainable summer learning programs in urban districts. Addressed are several research questions: (1) What is the nature of summer learning loss? (2) Are summer learning programs effective in improving student achievement? If so, What are the elements of effective summer programs? (3) How much do summer learning programs cost? (4) What are the facilitators and challenges to implementing summer programs?

Solutions for Out-of-School Youth (2011). Solutions for Out-of-School Youth consortium: Instructional materials webpage. Retrieved from <http://www.osymigrant.org/instructional.htm>

This webpage provides a listing of free instructional materials available for use with migrant farmworkers, especially those who are out-of-school youth.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2002). Emerging issues in school, family, and community connections. Austin, TX: National Center for Family and Community Connections with Schools. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/connections/resources/emergingissues.pdf>

The issues highlighted in this synthesis represent critical areas of work in family and community connections with schools where clarification, agreement, and further development are needed, as well as promising new directions that are emerging. After reviewing and examining a body of literature that included more than 160 publications, four key issues emerged: (1) Clarifying the Concept of Family and Community Connections with Schools (FCCS); (2) Measuring the Outcomes of FCCS; (3) Advancing the Research Base for FCCS; and (4) Critical Areas for Research in FCCS.

Swanson, J. (1995). *Systemic reform in the professionalism of educators*. Andover, MA: The NETWORK, Inc.

The overall goal of this study was to provide a systematic means of learning about the design, implementation, and impact of systemic reform efforts to enhance the professionalism of educators. This report describes indepth case studies of three school-university partnerships that have undertaken comprehensive reform initiatives to redesign the teaching and learning process for professional educators throughout their careers. It specifically focuses on preservice training, inservice training, and the working conditions of educators.

Sturko-Grossman, C. R. (2005). *Recruiting and retaining out-of-school youth*. Columbus, OH: Learning Work Connection, Ohio State University. Retrieved from <http://jfs.ohio.gov/owd/WorkforceProf/Youth/Docs/infobrief10-RecruitingRetainingOSY.pdf>

This article discusses strategies for recruiting and retaining out-of-school youth and proposes overcoming the reticence of these youth by using community outreach, appropriate incentives, and most importantly, youth-friendly interactions. The author concludes that these strategies can help gain the trust and the confidence of youth that is needed to ensure that a young is person prepared to successfully enter adult life.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., (2010) *TESOL/NCATE Standards for the recognition of initial TESOL programs in P-12 ESL teacher education*. Arlington, VA: Author.

The TESOL/NCATE Standards for P-12 Teacher Education Programs address the need for consistency throughout the US in how teachers are prepared to teach ESL to children in preschool through grade 12 in public schools. This comprehensive document contains detailed information on the revised standards (2009) as well as information for those preparing to submit program reports to NCATE.

US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2000). *ELS-K Base Year Public-Use Child File (CD-ROM and user's Manual)*. (NCES 2000-097). Washington, DC.

This study of the kindergarten class of 1998-1999 (ECLS-K) is an ongoing study by the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) that focuses on children's early school experiences beginning with kindergarten. The study follows a nationally representative sample of approximately 22,000 children from kindergarten through fifth grade.

US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2004). *Early Childhood Longitudinal Study-Kindergarten Class of 1998–99 (ECLS–K), Psychometric Report for Kindergarten Through First Grade*, NCES 2002–05, by Donald A. Rock and Judith M. Pollack, Educational Testing Service, Elvira Germino Hausken, project officer. Washington, DC: 2002.

This study of the kindergarten class of 1998-1999 (ECLS-K) is an ongoing study by the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) that focuses on children's early school experiences beginning with kindergarten. The study follows a nationally representative sample of approximately 22,000 children from kindergarten through fifth grade.

US Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. (2010). *Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 1998-99 (ECLS-K) Kindergarten Through Fifth Grade Parent and Teacher Social Rating Scale (SRS) Items and Restricted-Use Data Files*. (NCES 2010071). Washington, DC: Author.

This study of the kindergarten class of 1998-1999 (ECLS-K) is an ongoing study by the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) that focuses on children's early school experiences beginning with kindergarten. The study follows a nationally representative sample of approximately 22,000 children from kindergarten through fifth grade.

US Department of Education. (2002). Office of the Under Secretary, *The same high standards for migrant students: Holding Title I schools accountable, Volume III: Coordinating the education of migrant students: Lessons learned from the field*, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

This report examines various approaches used to promote continuity of instructional service for migrant students. Case studies were carried out on four groups of two or three districts each that share migrant students over the school year ("trading partners"). The case studies revealed that the trading partners shared a set of common themes that led to the development of successful solutions for migrant students.

Vinton, R. L. (2008) *Migrant Parent Involvement: Community, Schools, and Home*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS. Retrieved from <http://krex.k-state.edu/dspace/bitstream/2097/576/1/Robert%20Vinton%202008.pdf>

This study focused on migrant parent involvement in the educational experience of their children. Specifically, the study investigated parent involvement in the domains of (1) Community Setting, (2) School Setting, (3) and Home Setting, and its relationship to student achievement in reading and mathematics assessments.

Ward, P. A. (2002). Out-of-school youth: Proceedings report: Seminar on migrant out-of-school youth. Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC). Retrieved from http://en1.endiva.net/migedimec/files/literature/1492.5824_outofschoolyouth.pdf

This report summarizes questions and recommendations in four major areas: (1) identification and recruitment of out-of-school; (2) providing English instruction, basic skills instruction, health services, advocacy, and instruction in consumer skills; (3) collaborating at the state and local levels; and (4) policy issues related to states' active recruitment of out-of-school youth, priority of service for out-of-school youth versus more traditional migrant students, whether out-of-school youth should be included in the high school graduation goal for migrant students, and expenditure of funds.

B. Resources

American Youth Policy Forum, 1836 Jefferson Place NW, Washington D.C. 20036, (202) 775-9731, <http://www.aypf.org/>

This publication describes the AYPF focus on three overlapping themes: Education, youth development and community involvement, and preparation for careers and workforce development. AYPF publishes a variety of nationally disseminated youth policy reports and materials including “The Supports Needed for Migrant Secondary School Students”, “Addressing the Causes and Consequences of High Student Mobility: The Role of School Systems and Communities”, and “Educating the Heart.”

Association of Farmworker Opportunity Programs (AFOP), 1726 M Street Suite 800, Washington D.C. 20036, (202) 828-6006, <http://www.afoprograms.org/>

This publication describes the Association of Farmworker Opportunity Programs and its member organizations serve farmworkers in 49 states and Puerto Rico. They provide job training, pesticide safety education, emergency assistance, and an advocacy voice for the people who prepare and harvest the nation’s food.

Binational Migrant Education Initiative (BMEI), (202) 260-2063. <http://www2.ed.gov/admins/tchrqual/learn/binational.html>

This website describes the Binational Migrant Education Initiative helps students, teachers, school administration, and parents through several programs. Central components are the Binational Transfer Document, the Binational Teacher Exchange, Free Textbooks Distribution Program. Currently, 27 USstates and 31 Mexican states (all states except for the Yucatan) participate at some level in one or more parts of the binational initiative to assist students who go back and forth between Mexico and the US. Additional information can be found at <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/brdglanqbarriers/989>.

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), <http://www.cal.org/>

This website describes CAL, a private, nonprofit organization working to improve communication through better understanding of language and culture. Established in 1959, CAL is headquartered in Washington, DC. CAL has earned a national and international reputation for its contributions to the fields of bilingual, ESL, literacy, and foreign language education; dialect studies; language policy; refugee orientation; and the education of linguistically and culturally diverse adults and children.

Colorín Colorado, <http://www.colorincolorado.org/>

Colorín Colorado is a free web-based service that provides information, activities and advice for educators and Spanish-speaking families of ELs.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE), <http://crede.berkeley.edu/research/crede/index.html>

The Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE) is focused on improving the education of students whose ability to reach their potential is challenged by language or cultural barriers, race, geographic location, or poverty. CREDE promotes research by university faculty and graduate students and provides educators with a range of tools to help them implement best practices in the classroom.

Doing What Works, <http://dww.ed.gov/index.cfm>

Doing What Works (DWW) is a website sponsored by the US Department of Education. The goal of DWW is to create an online library of resources to help teachers, schools, districts, states and technical assistance providers implement research-based instructional practice. Much of the DWW content is based on information from the IES [What Works Clearinghouse](#) (WWC), a site that evaluates research on practices and interventions to inform the education community what is likely to work. For each practice, it issues a guide and/or an intervention report describing what the practice involves and what the research says.

**Early Education Initiative (EEI)/Publicly Funded Prekindergarten Education (Act 62),
Manuela Fonseca, Early Education Coordinator (802) 828-3850**

This statewide program coordinates early childhood special education services for children ages three through five. Services are administered by local school districts in conjunction with local early childhood service providers to ensure inclusive educational environments.

Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA), <http://www.idra.org/>

The IDRA is an independent, private non-profit organization dedicated to strengthening public schools to work for all children. It provides onsite training and technical assistance to more than 100,000 teachers and students across the country and to more than 1,600 school districts and other groups. Its services provide innovative, practical, and sustainable

solutions for the schools that need them most. IDRA's professional development services reflect a thorough knowledge of curriculum and assessment standards, and national standards such as the NCTM math, TESOL ESL, and ISTE technology standards.

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs, <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/>

OELA's National Clearinghouse collects, coordinates, and conveys a broad range of research and resources in support of an inclusive approach to high quality education for ELs. To fulfill its mission NCELA supports high quality networking among State-level administrators of Title III programs. In addition to SEA coordinators, NCELA serves other stakeholders involved in the education of ELs, including teachers and other practitioners, parents, university faculty, administrators and federal policymakers.

ESCORT State University of New York College at Oneonta, Bugbee Hall Oneonta, NY 13820, (1-800) 451-8058, <http://escort.org/>

ESCORT is a national resource center that maintains the National Migrant Education Hotline, conducts professional and program development activities, and provides technical and logistical support to the US Department of Education's Office of Migrant Education.

Even Start Family Literacy Program, Migrant Education Even Start Program, <http://www.evenstartnetwork.net/>

The Even Start Family Literacy program is a Federally-funded program model that integrates adult, parenting and early childhood education into a comprehensive family literacy program to break the intergenerational cycle of poverty and low literacy. Even Start programs offer educational services primarily children from birth through age 7 and their parents. Families are selected for services based on their level of economic and educational needs.

Farmworker Justice, <http://www.fwjjustice.org/>

Farmworker Justice is a nonprofit organization that seeks to empower migrant and seasonal farmworkers to improve their living and working conditions, immigration status, health, occupational safety, and access to justice.

Geneseo Migrant Center 27 Lackawanna Ave., Mt. Morris, NY 14510, (1-800) 245-5681, <http://www.migrant.net/index.html>

The Geneseo Migrant Center provides services to migrant farmworkers residing in the immediate service area of the Center as well as coordinating programs benefiting migrant workers on a regional, statewide and national level.

Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC), <http://en1.endiva.net/migedimec/pub/>

The mission of IMEC is to advocate policies that ensure the highest quality education and other needed services for the nation's migrant children.

LEARN-2-Succeed, <http://www.migrantreadingnet.com>

LEARN-2-Succeed is a Migrant Education Program Consortium Incentive Grant focusing on providing teachers with tools for quickly assessing and providing supplemental research-based literacy lessons to students in grades K-12 to improve their foundational literacy skills. Educators can use this site to quickly identify individual student literacy needs using Student Success Plans, enter students' missing skills into the website criteria, and access instructional lessons designed to improve specific literacy skills.

MASTERS (Mathematics Achievement and Success Through Engagement in Resources for Migrant Students), <http://projectsmart.esc20.net/>

MASTERS is a Migrant Education Program Consortium Incentive Grant designed in response to substantial needs identified in migrant students in the lead state of Texas and the consortium receiving states of Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Missouri, Montana, New York, Washington, and Wisconsin (plus Nebraska participating as a partner state not receiving CIG funds). The goal of MASTERS is to provide services designed (based on review of scientifically-based research) to improve the mathematics proficiency of migratory children whose education is interrupted.

Migrant Education Identification and Recruitment (ID&R) Initiative, <http://www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/identification.html>

The primary objective of the US Department of Education's identification and recruitment initiative is to help State Migrant Education Programs conduct timely and proper identification and recruitment of eligible migrant children. More information is available on the ed.gov website above.

Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Technical Assistance Center, <http://www.aed.org/Projects/migrantheadstart.cfm>

The Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Technical Assistance Center provides onsite training and technical assistance to Head Start programs that serve migrant and seasonal farmworker families and their children, from birth through age five, across the United States. The project's goals are to improve the quality of services to low-income children and their families and in turn promote social competence and school readiness in young children. Head Start programs receive a wide range of support in areas such as management, early childhood development, health services, transportation of young children, appropriate facilities, developmentally and linguistically appropriate services, working with young children with disabilities and building family and community partnerships

Migrant Student Graduation Enhancement Program,
<http://www.utexas.edu/ce/k16/migrant/overview/>

The mission of the Migrant Student Graduation Enhancement Program is to help Texas migrant students graduate from high school by providing opportunities to earn credit at any time and any place. The program offers 42 distance learning courses that are aligned with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills and help migrant students prepare for the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills. There is no cost or fee for migrant students to Enroll for the courses.

National Coalition for Parent Involvement in Education, 3929 Old Lee Highway Suite 91-A, Fairfax, VA 22030 (703) 359-8973, <http://www.ncpie.org/DevelopingPartnerships/>

NCPIE has provided a framework, policy guidelines, and keys to success for developing effective practices in family involvement. NCPIE is also developing a clearinghouse of resources to provide information about creating and sustaining effective family/school partnerships.

National HEP CAMP Association, (202) 778-0740, <http://www.hepcamp.com/>

HEP and CAMP are educational programs authorized in the Higher Education Act that serve students from migrant or seasonal farmworker families. HEP helps students who have dropped out of high school get their GED, and serves more than 7,000 students annually. CAMP assists students in their first year of college with academic, personal, and financial support.

National Migrant Education Hotline, <http://www.escort.org/?q=node/183>

The National Migrant Education Hotline provides a toll free number (800-234-8848) for migrant farm workers and their families to call anywhere in the country to help enroll their children in school and learn about migrant education program services.

National Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Association (NMSHSA), 1726 M St. NW Suite 602, Washington D.C. 20036, (202) 223-9889, <http://www.nmshsaonline.org/>

The National Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Association is made up of Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Directors, Staff, Parents, and Friends that meets regularly to discuss issues and concerns unique to Migrant and Seasonal Head Start children and their families.

National Association of State Directors of Migrant Education (NASDME),
<http://www.nasdme.org/>

NASDME is a professional organization of State officials charged with the administrative responsibilities under the MEP of using Federal monies effectively and productively to help all migrant children succeed in school.

National PASS Center Migrant Education, 27 Lackawanna Ave., Mt. Morris, NY 14510, (800) 245-5681, <http://www.migrant.net/pass/index.htm>

The National PASS Center (NPC) was established in 1997 to serve as a national clearinghouse and coordinating center for bringing PASS (Portable Assisted Study Sequence) courses into alignment with current academic learning standards. The PASS program consists of self-contained, semi-independent study courses, which enable students to earn secondary-level academic credits. Participating students generally take these courses in order to make up courses, meet graduation requirements or cope with scheduling difficulties.

Solutions for Out-of-School Youth (SOSY), <http://www.osymigrant.org/>

SOSY is a Consortium Incentive Grant funded by the Office of Migrant Education at the US Department of Education to build capacity in states with a growing secondary-aged migrant out-of-school youth population. The goal of SOSY is to design, develop, and disseminate a system to identify and recruit, assess, and develop/deliver services to migrant out-of-school youth; provide professional development to support these activities; and institutionalize SOSY services into State plans to elevate the quantity and quality of services to this large, underserved population.

Secondary Education for Migrant Youth, 810-A East Custer Avenue, Sunnyside, WA 98944, (888) 727-7123, <http://www.semy.org/>

The Office of Secondary Education for Migrant Youth (SEMY) serves middle school and high school migrant students and educators, administering programs to ensure that migrant youth have an opportunity to graduate. SEMY also serves as a clearinghouse for innovative strategies developed by educators and community activists to serve the educational needs of secondary-school aged migrant youth and to provide support and technical assistance to educators to help ensure that mobile interstate or intrastate students have the opportunity to graduate from high school.

What Works Clearinghouse, <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/>

The What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) evaluates research on practices and interventions to let the education community know what is likely to work. For each practice, it issues a guide and/or an intervention report that describes what the practice involves and what the research says. In addition, some content is based on other information and materials from the US Department of Education's Institute for Educational Sciences.

US Department of Education, Migrant Education Program (MEP), <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/mep/index.html>

The goal of the US Department of Education's Migrant Education Program is to ensure that all migrant students reach challenging academic standards and graduate with a high school diploma (or complete a GED) that prepares them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment. Office of Migrant Education funds support high

quality education programs for migratory children and help ensure that migratory children who move among the states are not penalized in any manner by disparities among states in curriculum, graduation requirements, or state academic content and student academic achievement standards.