STRATEGIES

For Teaching Limited English Proficient Students

GENERAL ESL STRATEGIES — Part I

ARIZONA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

June 1990

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Arizona Department of Education-Bilingual Unit Handouts

Related – Articles

INTRODUCTION

This packet was developed by the Bilingual Unit of the Arizona Department of Education. The purpose of the packet is to provide information and assistance to educators involved in the teaching of Limited English Proficient students. Material included in the packet is appropriate background reading for ESL teachers, bilingual teachers, regular classroom teachers, administrators and support personnel. An ESL curriculum guide is not included in the packet since ESL students follow the same Essential Skills required for all students in Arizona.

Permission is given to the recipients of the packet to reproduce the Arizona Department of Education-Bilingual Unit handouts for educational purposes with a citation reading, "From 'Strategies for Teaching Limited English Proficient Students, Part I: General ESL Strategies' Arizona Department of Education-Bilingual Unit, June, 1990." In reproducing a related article, the citation of the original source of the article must appear on the copy as it does in this packet.

Special acknowledgement is given to Connie Beyer, former staff member of the Bilingual Unit, for her original work on the development of the handouts in this packet and for her collection of the articles included within.

Arizona Department of Education

Bilingual Unit

(602) 542-3204

Nancy Mendoza	*Verma M. Pastor*
Deputy Associate Superintendent	Bilingual Director
Bonnie Middleton	*Ray Vernon*
Education Program Specialist	Education Program Specialist
Robert Sosa	*Dorothy Yancy*
Education Program Specialist	Program and Projects Specialist

ARIZONA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

BILINGUAL UNIT HANDOUTS

CURRENT TRENDS IN ESL

Teacher as Facilitator:

Traditionally, ESL teachers have assumed an authoritarian role in the teaching of ESL. Current research, emphasizing the innate ability of human beings to- acquire language, suggests that the role of the ESL teacher be modified to that of a facilitator. Teaching about language does not facilitate its use; language is acquired by using it naturally in a meaningful context. Studies indicate that language acquisition is a subconscious process and is not aided by drills and memorization. The teacher's role, therefore, becomes more subtle. Facilitators set up the most optimal conditions for acquisition to take place and provide comprehensible input. They collaborate with the students to help them say what they want to say. Teachers, acting as facilitators, support and encourage language development while meeting the individual language needs of each student appropriately. (See <u>Teachers as Facilitators</u> page 7)

High Expectations:

Limited English proficiency has often been mistakenly associated with limited academic ability. The abilities and strengths of ESL students have been minimized and expectations for academic success have been low. ESL students are often considered remedial students, receiving only the basics over and over again, while being denied opportunities for involvement in problem-solving activities and higher order thinking skills. Contrary to this view, current research indicates that these students should have access to a rich language environment and higher order problem-solving activities. Studies conclude that when ESL students are engaged in the authentic use of language, literacy, and problem solving, they will also learn the basics. Conversely, many students receiving intensive instruction in the basics still fail to learn them and definitely do not learn problem solving. High expectations are essential; there is a direct correlation between the level of expectation and student performance.

Language Acquisition as Process:

ESL students who are provided a nurturing, language-rich environment responsive to their needs will acquire English steadily and continuously. Language acquisition is a process; it takes time and cannot be rushed. Language acquisition occurs on a subconscious level. All students must be allowed to go through the process on their own time table. Just as babies crawl before they walk, ESL students must go through developmental stages in all areas of language development before they become fluent or literate. All ESL students are capable of becoming orally fluent and literate in English, provided they are given the time to work out the language for themselves at their own pace.

Peer Interaction/Cooperative Learning:

Language is social. Language acquisition cannot take place unless students are given ample opportunity to interact with others. Peer interaction, or cooperative learning, affords numerous occasions for meaningful communication to take place among students. It is especially important that ESL students interact with native speakers of English so that they may have appropriate models of the language. Small, heterogeneous groupings provide the ideal atmosphere for ESL students to acquire a second language, while providing significant benefits to native English speakers as well. Students who share knowledge must develop their thoughts more fully in order to express them, thus fostering the development of higher order thinking skills in all participants.

Comprehensible Input:

Language is acquired only through comprehensible input; students cannot retain what they do not understand. It is primarily the teacher's responsibility to be comprehensible, not solely the student's to comprehend. Making something comprehensible for ESL students means that the teacher must do whatever is necessary to ensure each student's understanding. This may include the use of concrete materials, visuals, demonstrations or body language for beginning students to the use of paraphrasing, providing cues or making connections for intermediate students.

Natural Language:

A second language is most easily acquired under conditions which closely approximate those found when acquiring the first language. Language is best acquired when it is real and authentic and there is a reason to be using it. When language is used naturally, students will acquire the grammatical forms and vocabulary that they are developmentally ready to pick up.

Integration of the Language Arts:

For many years, it was believed that language learning was hierarchical. ESL students received extensive oral language development in the second language before engaging in reading and writing activities. Research now shows that listening, speaking, reading, and writing must be integrated even for the beginning student. Skill in one area of the language arts reinforces skill in another area. Reading and writing activities for beginning ESL students can take the form of language experience stories, shared reading of children's literature, and invented spelling.

Holistic Instruction:

In the past, ESL has been largely preoccupied with learning individual sounds and words. Research suggests that this is an inefficient and inappropriate way to acquire language. Language is acquired through conversation, active participation, and interaction with others. Thematic units provide an excellent means of keeping language whole by providing opportunities for the integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as numerous content areas.

Importance of Affective Atmosphere:

The affective atmosphere of a language situation has as much to do with a student's ability to acquire language as the actual activity taking place. To optimally acquire a second language, students need. a nonthreatening, stress-reduced environment- one in which they can feel free to take risks and make mistakes without feeling embarrassed. In this type of environment, accent or grammatical errors are not corrected. Overt correction does not affect fluency and leads only to a hesitancy on the part of the students to speak the new language. The focus must always be on the meaning of what is said; form will follow function.

Content-Based ESL:

Historically, ESL students have often missed out on content area subjects while they were learning English. Once they "learned English" and appeared orally fluent, they were frequently mainstreamed to regular content classes, receiving no additional support. They immediately began to fail, falling further and further behind the other students academically. This is not surprising, since research indicates that it takes two to three years for a student to become orally fluent in a second language but five to seven years to become fluent in the academic and abstract language necessary for understanding content without help. Content and language must be looked upon as a dual curriculum. ESL students can acquire English while they are acquiring knowledge and, in fact, must if they are to progress academically.

TEACHERS AS LANGUAGE FACILITATORS

Children are born with a drive to make sense of the world. They are active "seekers of meaning" (Gordon Wells, *The Meaning Makers: Children Learning Language and Using Language to Learn, 1986).* Language is the medium human beings use to construct and reconstruct meaning. Children are able to and in fact <u>must</u>, figure out how language is organized for themselves. They are constantly hypothesizing about language based upon what they already know and the new information they receive. They have a natural predisposition for language acquisition.

The responsibility of the teacher is to be a facilitator of language-setting up the kinds of conditions that foster the natural process of language acquisition. These conditions vary according to the individual proficiency of each student but always involve collaboration and reciprocal communication between teachers and students or among peers. Language facilitators must be cognizant of how much and what kind of support to give students. They listen, observe, and monitor students to ensure facilitation that is appropriate to the linguistic level of the students. Even more importantly, through words and actions, they express their belief that children are intrinsically capable of continual growth in the language process. They enthusiastically affirm the process; they trust the process; and they honor the process.

The chart on the following page illustrates the modification of involvement on the part of the teacher as a child's language skills develop. At the beginning it is necessary for the teacher to do a considerable amount of modeling of language and to provide a wide range of language situations in which the student 'may be involved. As the student's language skills develop, the teacher monitors. the student's linguistic development and provides language activities appropriate to the particular level of the student. The level of involvement of the teacher does not change; the nature of the involvement does.

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Unit

TEACHERS AS LANGUAGE FACILITATORS

- Set up communicative situations conducive to nonthreatening conversations.
- Speak naturally, but adjust rate and complexity as necessary.
- Focus on meaning, not grammar or accent.
- Use context embedded language.
- Utilize body language, gestures and voice cues as appropriate.
- Talk about familiar topics—and build background knowledge for new topics.
- Repeat the message in various ways.
- Check for understanding.
- Listen attentively—respond to cues.
- Draw out language—prompt.
- Guess as. to the meaning adjust according to responses.
- Give specific feedback (This is what think you mean.)
- Collaborate—help them to say what they want to say.
- Offer lots of positive reinforcement.
- Expand on what they say—elaborate.

- Encourage exploration of language—risk taking.
- Give examples—make connections.
- Paraphrase—restate.
- Provide cues.
- Describe, define, explain.
- Give hints.
- Act as a resource.
- Encourage questioning.
- Remind.
- Ask open-ended and process questions.

Suggest	Direct attention to
Guide	Comment
Recommend	Elicit thinking
Challenge	Acknowledge

Encourage reflecting

Motivate

Support

Inspire

TIPS FOR TEACHING ESL STUDENTS

1. *Have high expectations.*

- Children are natural acquirers of language. Expect them to become proficient in English.
- By the time children come to school, most of them have already acquired a first language (L_1) successfully with no formal teaching.
- All concepts and skills learned in L_1 can easily be transferred to the second language (L_2).

2. *Make sure that students comprehend whatever they are expected to learn.*

- Students do not need to understand every single word they hear or read but must understand the general idea of what is being expressed.
- Use of the primary language promotes linguistic and academic development while ensuring comprehension.
- Whenever possible, teach at a level just a little above what the students already know.
- Use gestures, facial expressions, demonstrations, and tone of voice to help students understand the message you are trying to convey.
- Bring in real objects and other visuals.
- Provide real-life, hands-on experiences for the students.
- Repeat the message in various ways-paraphrase.
- Model what you want the students to do before asking them to do it.
- L_2 students take things very literally, so always check for understanding by asking specific questions.

3. *Remember that language is a process.*

- L_2 students start out in the silent stage, which may last from one day to a few months. They should not be forced to speak during this time but can follow comprehensible directions (TPR*) and listen to comprehensible stories, nursery rhymes, and songs. They will usually understand much more than they can express.

- Students will began speaking by using one- or two- word responses but will gradually progress to sentences and long phrases as they are ready.

4.   *Be a language facilitator.*

- Talk as naturally as possible with some adjustments in rate and sentence length as needed. Do not drill.
- Make language as meaningful as possible for the students.
- If the objective is to teach English speak only in English but do whatever is necessary to make it comprehensible to the students. If translation it always included, students will just wait for the translation and subsequently will not learn English as well.
- Collaborate with the students to help them say what they want to say.
- Expand on. their thoughts.

5.   *Provide a low-anxiety atmosphere.*

- L_2 students need a nonthreatening and stress-reduced atmosphere in order to acquire a second language.
- The focus of what a student says should always be on, the message. Only content is corrected, not grammar or accent.
- Students should be made aware that making mistakes is a necessary part of the language process.
- There is a delicate balance between over- and under-correction of errors. Error-correction is appropriate when it is meaningful <u>to the student</u>, and will solve a communication problem for the student.

6.   *Help the students develop high self-esteem.*

- Students need high self-esteem to acquire a second language.
- Language and culture are, part of a student's identity. In order to have a high self-esteem, they must see evidence that their language and culture are respected and valued.
- Students need to be successful most of the time to feel good about themselves.

7. *Emphasize peer-interaction.*

- Language is social. L_2 students must have numerous opportunities for interacting with peers, especially proficient English speakers.
- Research indicates that peer interaction is beneficial for all L_1 and L_2 students.

8. *Provide a variety of interesting, highly motivating activities.*

- Develop thematic units to cover concepts and vocabulary in interesting, meaningful ways.
- Use vocabulary boxes, dyadic activities, children's literature, guests and hands-on experiences to teach concepts and vocabulary.
- Allow students to practice concepts and vocabulary through the use of various games.

9. *Make sure students are receiving content instruction.*

- For beginning students, this is best done in the primary language.
- Content can be taught in L_2 if necessary but it must be made comprehensible.
- Modify content lessons by simplifying language. Utilize concrete objects, visuals and hands-on activities for maximizing comprehension.
- Make content as meaningful and relevant as possible for each student.
- Brainstorm to see what the students already know about the topic. Relate the topic to their personal experiences. Provide background experience- information or concept development- if necessary.
- Enlist the aid of peers, older students or adult volunteers.

10. *Introduce L_2 literacy from the outset.*

- The language arts, areas should be integrated. Skill increase the skill of the other areas.
- Students can read and write, in accordance development, about anything they comprehend in one area will with their own
- L_2 students need to experience authentic literacy. Sounding out words is not reading.
- Start to read good picture books to the students immediately, pointing to the pictures appropriately.

- Encourage students to read comprehensible stories, poems and songs along with you as this collaborative reading activity promotes development of independent reading proficiency.
- Have students dictate stories about home or classroom experiences. write down exactly what they say, read it back to them and then have them read it to you.
- Encourage students to write their own stories as soon as possible. Accept invented spellings as a natural part of writing development.

11   Continue to challenge students as they progress.

- L_2 students do not stay beginners forever. Use more sophisticated language and require higher cognitive processing skills as the students progress along the language continuum.
- As soon as possible, ask process questions which require more than one word to answer.
- Continue to make sure L_2 content is comprehensible even when students begin to speak fluently. It takes 2-3 years to learn to speak a second language but 5-7 years to learn the abstract and academic aspects of the language.
- Call attention to multiple meanings and idioms as they occur since they can seriously interfere with comprehension.

*TPR,   Total Physical Response, was developed by James Asher. Teachers or other students, demonstrate various concepts and then give directions to LEP students using those concepts. The students follow the directions by using their bodies or manipulating objects.

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Unit

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION CLASSROOMS

English as a second language (ESL) students have often experienced limited success in regular classroom situations. Many educators believe that this is the direct result of the conditions inherent in the transmission pedagogical model of teaching found in most traditional classrooms. The transmission model which has been used in the schools for generations envisions the teacher as the reservoir of all knowledge and the students as passive recipients of that knowledge. ESL students, as well as many other students in the school system, frequently do not succeed in transmission classrooms because they simply are not effective in promoting language acquisition.

Language acquisition classrooms are nontraditional classrooms designed to promote language acquisition in all students. These classrooms advocate an integrative and interactive pedagogical model of teaching based upon the latest research in language acquisition and literacy. They promote continuing language development for students who are progressing in their first language (L_1) as well as for those who are in the process of acquiring a second language (L_2). Teachers and students interact informally and see themselves as partners in learning. Authentic communication takes place frequently between L_1 and L_2 students in small heterogeneous groups.

Language acquisition classrooms are child-centered. They celebrate the value and potential of all students. The strengths and interests of each child are esteemed and respect for all cultures and languages is fostered. The atmosphere is nonthreatening and noncompetitive. In language acquisition classrooms, teachers take full responsibility for providing comprehensible input to all students regardless of their language ability. They provide a rich, literate environment in which all students can succeed.

THE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IN A LANGUAGE ACQUISITION CLASSROOM PROMOTES:

- the simultaneous integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.
- giving students sufficient time to go through the language process.
- the use of natural language for real communication purposes.
- comprehension of meaning as the goal of all language activities. Form will follow function.

- a variety of highly motivating activities using culturally and individually relevant materials.
- language development and content as a dual curriculum.
- curriculum organized around a theme.
- students reading and being read to every day.
- students writing every day.
- teaching not remediating.

TEACHERS IN A LANGUAGE ACQUISITION CLASSROOM:

- are facilitators of language
- model language, attitude, and ways to do things.
- are aware of cultural differences but do not stereotype.
- have an informal relationship with their students.
- accept all students wherever they are and build on their strengths.
- adapt their own language and the language program to the ability level of each student.
- do whatever is necessary to ensure comprehension for all students.
- relate new learning and concepts to students prior knowledge or build background knowledge if necessary.
- always check for understanding.

THE ENVIRONMENT OF A LANGUAGE ACQUISITION CLASSROOM SHOWS EVIDENCE THAT:

- each student's culture, language, and individuality are held in high esteem
- the affective atmosphere is non-threatening, stress-reduced, and pleasant.
- the room is student-centered.
- experiencing something is more meaningful than hearing about it.
- literacy is highly valued.
- there is a cooperative spirit.
- there is open communication among the teacher and the students.
- students are continually working together in small, heterogeneous
- groups or pairs to meet common goals.
- students are intrinsically motivated.
- older students, school personnel, parents, and members of the community are utilized as learning resources.

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Unit

IMPLEMENTING LANGUAGE ACQUISITION *

Oral Language/Listening:

1. Storytelling and drama

- students listen to and express themselves through plays, puppetry, role playing, flannel board and cardboard box TV stories, poems, songs, chants, jump rope rhymes, nursery rhymes

2. Teacher/student discussions

- talk together about the students' experiences in and out of the
- classroom, content areas, literature
- relate new concepts to personal experiences of the students or provide background experience if they do not have any

3. Films and videotapes

- stop the film at various places and have students discuss characters and events
- ask them to predict what might happen next
- ask them how they would have handled problems presented in the film

4. Listening centers

- have blank cassettes available for students to tell their own stories
- provide commercial or teacher-made tapes for students to listen to while they are reading their favorite stories

5. Surveys/Interviews

- have students interview or conduct surveys with peers, friends, school personnel, parents, relatives

6. Peer interaction

- social interaction is essential for language development
- *allow* students to learn *from* each other and with-each other
- encourage small, heterogeneous groups to discuss literature and
- content or work on projects together

Thematic Units:

1. Language activities

- teach concepts/vocabulary topic as they relate to a central theme or topic

2. Content areas

- incorporate social studies, art, music, health, math, cooking and science activities into the theme
- content and language development should always be integrated

3. Charts

- start unit by brainstorming and charting what students already know about the topic
- chart what they would like to find out; chart new vocabulary and illustrate

4. Choice

- choice creates ownership and relevancy
- whenever possible, allow students to pick the theme for the unit
- always permit some choices within the unit

5. Peer interaction

- everyone does not have to do identical activities small
- groups or pairs can do research or make special projects and report back to the class

Reading:

1. Good children's literature

- students should be read to every day by teachers, other adults, older students, peers
- students need time every day' to read silently for pleasure; teachers also read to themselves during this silent reading time

2. Pattern books, predictable books, big books

- read these over and over, encouraging the students to join in so they can experience quick success in reading
- predicting is an essential reading skill-ask often "What do you think will happen next?"

3. Shared reading

- students share self-chosen books with peers orally or by reading to them
- may tell about the story through various methods including dioramas, mobiles, illustrations, puppetry, or commercials

4. Retelling favorite stories/wordless picture books

- students retell stories they know well on a tape recorder
- students make up stories about the pictures in a wordless picture book
- an adult types the students' stories on several blank pages and makes them into books
- students illustrate the pages and then read their stories to their peers

5. Language experience stories

- experiences come from students' backgrounds or new experiences that the teacher provides
- students dictate a story about the experience to the teacher and the teacher writes or types it
- teacher reads it to the student and the student "reads" it from memory
- students share their stories with each other

6. Choral: reading

- proficient readers "carry" the less proficient readers for a while until all are reading together

7. Mapping

- students illustrate, or map the setting of the story

8. Literature studies

- several students individually read the same book
- students meet together regularly to discuss the book and related activities

9. Comparative literature studies

- teacher or students read several books by the same author and compare the stories
- students compare books by different authors but which have similar plots or characters

10. Literate environment

- classroom should give the message, "This is a room that loves language."
- a variety of reading materials are available representing different interests and reading levels
- there should be an abundance of books (trade books and student and teacher-made books)
- practical reading materials, e.g., newspapers, magazines, labels, menus, food boxes, and school announcements are available for reading
- centers for listening, writing, science, library are provided

Writing:

1. Invented spelling

- all students should be encouraged to write every day
- the process of writing is more important than the product
- making mistakes is an essential -part of the learning process

- in the beginning, the emphasis of writing is on meaning and communication (worrying about spelling or grammar detracts from this)
- students can spell the way they think a word is spelled and later read what they wrote to the teacher
- teachers can type the writing of beginning students using standard spelling if others will be reading it

2. Dialogue journals

- students write in their journals about anything they wish
- teachers respond as authentically as possible, making comments and asking questions
- grammar and spelling are not corrected, but the teacher may use misspelled words correctly in the response

3. Substitute writing

- students use the patterns found in their favorite books, but substitute characters or events with their own words

4. Wordless picture books

- in small groups, students look at all the pictures in the book, page by page, and then dictate a story to go with the pictures
- students can draw pictures similar to the ones in the book and then create a story by writing about what is happe95ning in each picture

5. Old books/basals

- use library discards and basals which have good pictures to create new stories
- cover up the words of the story so that only the pictures can be seen by the students
- have students write or dictate their own stories about the pictures

6. Logs

- students can keep individual or class logs, writing down their observations of plants growing, eggs hatching, or gerbils' daily activities

7. Correspondence

- students write to, and answer, letters from authors, important people, the newspaper, other classes, or students in their own class (message center, mailboxes)

8. Transformations

- students draw or trace an object or part of an object e.g., a circle, a turtle's tail, a leaf
- students make a totally different picture from the original. drawing
- students write or dictate, "This used to be a ____, but now it's a ____."

9. Talking murals

- students draw pictures of themselves, another person or an animal on a large mural
- speech bubbles are drawn above the heads of the characters
- students dictate or write in the speech bubble what they want the characters to say

10. Process writing

- students need to choose their own writing topics, whenever possible
- students experience the process of writing by writing a draft, revising, editing, and revising again before completing the final product

11. Peer conferencing

- peers read each other's work with the idea of "does this make sense?"

12. Teacher conferencing

- teachers can conference with a student alone or with the help of peers
- meaning and comprehension are the focus of the first conference

13. Grammar

- points of grammar can be discussed at the second conference, but choose only one or two areas of concern for the student to work on

14. Publishing

- some of the students' writing should be bound with attractive covers for the class library or for the students to take home

* The areas of language are separated for organizational purposes only. Integration of the language processes is essential in interactive classrooms.

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Unit

WHY JUAN CAN'T READ*

Classroom teacher to reading teacher: Miss Jones, I wonder if you can help me. I am having a problem with Juan's reading. I know that he can speak English. I hear him out on the playground all the time but when it comes time to read at reading time, he acts like he doesn't understand anything.

Reading teacher to classroom teacher: I know what you mean. I have been working with him all year on phonics and he seems to do fairly well. When I test him on his comprehension skills, though, he does very poorly. I was thinking about talking to you about having him tested. He may just be very slow.

Classroom teacher: You may be right but sometimes I think he just doesn't try. I don't know what his problem is!!

SOME FACTS THEY SHOULD KNOW

FACT #1: It takes 2-3 years to become fluent in a second language but it takes 5-7 years to become proficient in the academic and abstract aspects of the language.

FACT #2: Students may sound quite fluent when communicating face to face with their peers but still not comprehend the abstract language of reading.

FACT #3: Sounding out words is not reading. Comprehension occurs only when students understand the meaning of what they are reading.

FACT #4: The thousands of idiomatic expressions and multiple meanings commonly used in English often create huge stumbling blocks in comprehension for second language (L_2) students.

FACT #5: The authors of basal readers are limited to the number of new words they can add to a story. Therefore, they will often use the same words in several totally different contexts. The word "play" was used in a primer five different ways in one story.

FACT #6: L_2 students usually learn the most common meaning of a word. If it is not consciously pointed out to them that there are other meanings for this same word, they will continue to use that one definition every time they encounter that word. Obviously, comprehension suffers tremendously.

Let's take an example: <u>to take</u> *–to lay hold of*

take out a date	take the trouble
take off	take the time
take over	take a check
take in	take out a loan
take my advice	take a moment
take it or leave it	take it
take it lying down	take a drive
take a hint	take a drink
take a short cut	take the first step
take control of	take a suggestion
take turns	take a shot
take first place	take stock of
take up	take advantage of
take a job	take an order
take it up	take it back
take a deep breath	take a letter
take a chance	take a loss
take back	take a bus
take up a cause	take a picture
take the day off	take sides
take the elevator	take a number
take the lead	take a vote
take drugs	take a message
take a vow	take a class
take attendance	take your pick
take down the information	take a seat
take notes	take a trip
take out food	take the place of
take pride	take the cake
take out the garbage	take offense
take a break	take care of yourself
take a nap	take it easy
take shape	take a look
take heart	take part in
take a bath	take your temperature
take action	take away
take a hike	take a test

Take heart, there is an answer! It is hoped that no one *takes offense* but teachers could do a lot to *take control* of the problem. They could *take the trouble* to *take a look* at the multiple meanings and idioms which will be coming up in future stories. They could then *take the time* to teach the meaning of these words before the children come in contact with them. This gives them time to *take in* the meaning before they *take up* the job of actually reading the story. They will be able to *take advantage* of this extra help. The meaning of the story will start to *take shape* in their minds and they will be able to *take* an active part in the reading task. They will *take pride* in themselves and will soon *take off* in other areas as well.

* The title is a take off of the title, "Why Johnny Can't Read" which was used frequently in education several years ago. Juan is representative of children from all cultures and languages.

Arizona Department of Education
Bilingual Unit

CLASSROOMS THAT PROMOTE LITERACY

In an effort to ensure literacy for all students in Arizona, a K-3 literacy initiative was launched in February 1988 by the Arizona Department of Education.

The following guidelines, consistent - with Arizona's Language Arts Essential Skills, were established to describe the environment of a literate classroom.

1. Children's reading and writing products are displayed.

2. A comfortable book corner with a variety of reading materials invites children to read and share their reading.

3. An author's chair allows children to celebrate themselves as writers.

4. Furniture and furniture arrangements facilitate many reading and writing options and groupings.

5. Productivity is encouraged through typewriters or computers and a variety of tools, materials, and supplies; independent use of these is encouraged.

6. "Busy work" activities such as filling in the blanks, copying word lists, and other workbook or worksheet types of activities are limited; learning is for real purposes.

7. Interest centers entice children into science, drama, math, art, music, and social studies experiences, all with writing and reading possibilities.

8. Daily individual reading and sharing time is part of the routine; daily personal writing is as well.

9. Nonteacher-directed activities are encouraged: peer tutoring, cross-age tutoring, individualized work, cooperative learning, group work. Students serve as resources for their own and each other's learning.

10. Reading, listening, speaking, and writing are interrelated processes that are developed simultaneously in the context, of children's experiences; they are taught in an integrated fashion on a daily basis.

11. Students are afforded ample time to engage in literacy activities to pursue their own interests, and purposes.

12. Teachers demonstrate the process and products, of reading and writing by reading to and with the children and by writing in front of and with the children.

13. Students are self-directed and purposeful. They manage a significant portion of their own learning.

14. Out-of-school literacy events are brought into the classroom to ensure the authenticity of the learning process.

15. Content-area instruction is integrated with language arts instruction in meaningful ways to achieve the goals of both aspects of the curriculum.

16. Children have opportunities daily to develop social skills-cooperating negotiating, talking.

17. The teacher expects learning to take place, expects students to be readers and writers and members of the "learning club."

18. Learning is active, investigative, problem-solving, imaginative.

19. The teacher carefully observes students, learns from them, engages in "kid watching."

20. The teacher validates achievement (what students can do) and development, does not expect competence from the beginning encourages approximations.

21. The teacher views self as a learner and works for self-improvement keeps professionally up-to-date by reading professional material, attending conferences, and participating in teacher support groups. The teacher sees self as a researcher and classroom as rich in information about kids.

22. The teacher has prepared a curriculum guide or statement c objectives and rationale for others to use to investigate learning in the class.

23. The teacher sees language learning as a process.

24. Parents participate in the reading/writing programs in the classroom by coming to read and write with students.

25. Teachers regularly plan, teach, and evaluate instructional activities with other teachers.

26. Building administrators support and promote literacy by interacting with the students, reading and writing with them, supporting teacher collaboration, incorporating knowledge of effective literacy instruction into teacher evaluation, encouraging staff development, and allowing flexibility in time and materials.

27. Open access is the basic premise for library utilization.

28. The library is a hub of learning, with individual and group use of the library constant, library skills classes limited.

29. Aides and volunteers in the school assist with instruction on a one-to-one or small-group basis.

30. The school or district has a written curriculum that supports literacy.

31. The school or district has an assessment system (CUES) that supports literacy.

32. The school or district has a curriculum based on the Language Arts Essential Skills.

33. Students' experiences outside the classroom are highly valued as a primary basis for curriculum development and instruction.

34. School programs aim to empower students for effective participation and decision-making in their local community and society in general.

35. The natural language children bring to school is a valid and powerful tool for their language development and cognitive growth.

36. All students can experience success in the classroom and instruction is organized to promote this goal.

RELATED

ARTICLES

LIMITED-ENGLISH-PROFICIENT STUDENTS IN THE SCHOOLS: HELPING THE NEWCOMER

Prepared by Terry Corasaniti Dale
December, 1986

At The Beginning: Helping The Newcomer

In the 1980's, there is hardly a school in the United States which has not enrolled some number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. Administrators and teachers throughout the country are striving to meet the challenge of integrating these students from the beginning into the social and academic life of their-schools.

LEP students and their parents need a network of support to familiarize them with school routines, to help them understand and comply with school rules and regulations, to help them take advantage of many school related services and, ultimately, to successfully follow their designated course of study. There are a number of ways in which schools can provide such a network to make the transition to schooling in the United States easier.

What Administrators Can Do

One of the most important things administrators can do is to ensure that information about new LEP students is available to all school personnel, parents and students. As the "hub" of the information network, principals, counselors and office personnel should:

- Have available names of interpreters who can be called on to help register students; to work with counselors and teachers in explaining school rules, grading systems and report cards; and to help when students are called in for any kind of problem or in case of an emergency. Many school systems have a list of such interpreters which is kept in the central office. A school can augment this list or start its own with local business people, senior citizens, college professors, students, and parents who are bilingual and who are available before, during or after school hours. Responsible students who are bilingual can also serve as interpreters when appropriate.

- Have available for all teachers a list of LEP students that includes information on country of origin and native language, age, the last grade attended in the home country, current class assignments and any and all information available about the students academic background. Since new LEP students are enrolled in school throughout the year, updated lists should be disseminated periodically. School staff who are kept aware of the arrival of new LEP students can prepare themselves and their students to welcome children from different language and cultural backgrounds.

How The School Staff Can Help

The most important and challenging task facing schools with LEP students is finding expedient ways to integrate new LEP students into the academic activities of the school. In most cases, it is nearly impossible for schools·, to know in advance how many LEP students will enroll from year,. to year or to foresee what level of academic skills students will bring with them. Nevertheless, school staff need to have a set of well-planned procedures for placing students in the appropriate classroom, as well as procedures for developing instructional plans many of which must be developed on an individual student basis. School administrators should provide-staff with the time and resources to accomplish this. The following activities are suggested:

- Assess students level of skills (including reading and mathematics) in their native language.

- Assess students' English language proficiency, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. [It should be noted here that many school systems with large numbers of LEP students often have a center where all initial assessment is done and from where the information may be sent on to the receiving school. Schools in systems which, do not have such "in-take" centers must complete student evaluation themselves.]

- Conduct regular information discussion sessions with the school staff and resource people who know something about the students languages, cultures, and school systems in the various countries of origin. Many schools schedule monthly luncheon sessions where staff who are working in the classroom with the same LEP students may meet and compare notes. Such discussions usually focus on appropriate instructional approaches to be used with LEP students, or how to interpret student behaviors or customs that are unfamiliar to the teacher. These sessions can be

31

invaluable since they may constitute the only time that staff have the opportunity to consult one another, in addition to outside sources, on issues that are vitally important to classroom success.

What Students Can Do

A support network for LEP students is complete only when all students are included and allowed to help in some way. One way to involve the student body is to set up a "buddy system" which pairs new students with students not new to the system. Where possible, LEP students may be paired with responsible students who speak their native language. These student teams go through the school day together so that the newcomers may learn school routines from experienced peers who have gone through the adjustment period themselves.

New LEP students may also be paired with native English-speaking peers. In this way, LEP students begin to learn survival English at the same time that they are getting to know other students in the school. As tutors, student "buddies" may help newcomers with academic work, especially in classes where extra teacher help is not consistently available.

Teachers should initially establish buddy systems in their own classrooms, but student organizations, such as the student council, foreign language clubs, or international student groups can help maintain the systems.

A Final Note: Working Together

Administrators and teachers should encourage LEP students and their parents to participate in social and academic activities. A good way to get them started is to invite them to talk about the history, geography, literature and customs of their home countries in class. Such presentations should be a planned part of the curriculum throughout the year.

Many schools also plan special school assemblies (or even an entire day) to celebrate the cultural diversity of the student body or to spotlight outstanding work done by LEP students. Many other activities may be initiated which give LEP students and their English-speaking peers opportunities to interact and work together.

Schools which see LEP students and their families as rich sources of firsthand information about life in other countries and cultures are very often the most successful in helping LEP students to become productive, contributing members of the school community.

Resources

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education is a federally-funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally-funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities.   For information, write or call:

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
(202) 467-0867, or 800-321-NCBE
Editor's Note: Address and telephone numbers current as of June, 1990.

For Further Reading.

Educating the minority student: classroom and administrative issues. (1984) . Rosslyn, VA: Interamerica Research Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 260 600)

Golub, L..S. (1984). *The design, implementation and evaluation of a bilingual placement and monitoring center.* Lancaster, PA Lancaster School District. (EDRS Document Reproduction Service No. ED 262 055)

Gradisnik, A. and O. Eccerd (comps.). *(*1984). *Helping schools design and develop bilingual education programs.* Milwaukee, WI Midwest National Origin Desegregation Center, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee.

Lindfors, J.W. (1980). *Children's language and learning.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Ollila, L.O. (ed.). (1981). *Beginning reading instruction in different countries.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ovando D.J. (1985). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: teaching in multicultural contexts.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

NCTE TASK FORCE CALLS FOR CHANGES IN TEACHING ESL STUDENTS

by the NCTE Public Information Office

Growing numbers of language-minority students in American schools have prompted the Task Force on Racism and Bias in the Teaching of English to warn against classroom practices that members say frustrate students' desire to learn. The group, a part of the National Council of Teachers of English, has issued a pamphlet recommending teaching approaches that are proving to be effective for helping such students gain a command of written and spoken English. It is titled <u>Expanding Opportunities. Academic Success for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students.</u>

Students whose native language is not English need the same wealth of opportunities to practice speaking, writing, and reading English that other students in high-quality English programs enjoy, says Task Force Chair Roseann Duenas Gonzalez of the University of Arizona. "But not enough culturally divergent students have been allowed to participate in that kind of curriculum."

Instead, Gonzalez says, these students are often isolated in a special "track" and given "a structured, atomistic approach to language." While average and gifted students in good schools "read real stories and books, write about things they are interested in, do group work, and engage in projects," too many non-native speakers get "a lot of dull work—monotonous rote exercises . . . a grammar curriculum devoid of content. These students never get to take risks or experiment playfully with language. So in them, you see a deprivation of stimuli, almost a retardation.

The pamphlet calls for giving speakers of other languages and dialects at all levels of education daily opportunities to practice talking and reading in English about topics related to the students' lives. It calls for reading aloud frequently to give students a feel for the sounds and structures of written English. And it recommends collaborative writing activities in which peer interaction supports learning and practice of the new language. Implicit in such activities, the pamphlet says, is a recognition "that second-language acquisition is a gradual developmental process and is built on students' knowledge and skill in their native language. Effective teaching strategies are especially critical to the success of linguistically and culturally diverse students."

While the problem of restrictive English programs for culturally diverse students is "very pervasive," Gonzalez says, there are exceptions--"school systems and individual teachers who have happened on the idea that these students can and should be treated like everyone else. Rather than filling out exercise sheets, students should be encouraged to write journals, letters, and reports, create jokes and cartoons and ads-do all of the things we know help them develop their repertoire of language and their ability to organize their thoughts and expression. There is a large body of research that tells us good writers are people who write and read a lot— not people who have done a lot of exercises correctly. "

Gonzalez is director of the English as a Second Language program at the University of Arizona. Serving with her on the task force were Rafael Castillo, Palo Alto College, Oakland, California; Kris Gutierrez, University of Colorado, Linda Hogan, University of Minnesota; and Lawson Inada of Southern Oregon State College.

The text of the pamphlet follows. It also appears in the September 1987 issue of <u>College English,</u> *an NCTE journal.*

Expanding Opportunities: Academic Success, for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

The age of specialization has often encouraged educators to create separate and remedial ways of teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. This trend has led to the development of special books, programs, courses, and methods for such students. Some off these curricular approaches have impeded rather than fostered their intellectual and linguistic growth.

How can educators reverse this miseducation and develop responsible ways to meet the needs of these students? Research shows that culturally and linguistically diverse students can achieve academic success if appropriate strategies for teaching reading and writing are used. Effective teaching strategies are essential to especially critical to the success of linguistically and culturally diverse students. With this in mind, the Task Force on Racism and Bias offers the following suggestions for teaching writing and reading, and for selecting materials.

Teaching Writing

- Incorporate the rich backgrounds of linguistically and culturally diverse students by introducing classroom topics and materials that connect the students' experience with the classroom.

- Provide a nurturing environment for writing by introducing cooperative, collaborative writing activities which promote discussion, encourage contributions from all students, and allow peer interaction to support learning.

- Recognize that second-language acquisition is a gradual developmental process built on students' knowledge and skill in their native language.

- Provide frequent, meaningful opportunities for students to generate their own text.

- Replace drill and exercises with frequent writing by assigning topics for a variety of audiences and purposes.

- Respond supportively to the writing of students by acknowledging and validating their experiences, feelings, and ideas, and by evaluating students' writing in a way that fosters critical thinking.

Teaching Reading

- Incorporate the rich background of linguistically and culturally diverse students by introducing classroom reading materials that celebrate the students' cultural richness, by connecting the readings with the students' background knowledge and experiences, and by encouraging students to discuss the cultural dimensions of the text.

- Replace isolated series of discrete skill exercises and drills with actual readings by providing frequent opportunities for silent reading, by reading aloud frequently to allow students to become familiar with and appreciate the sound and structures of written language, and by recognizing that first- and second-language growth increases with abundant reading and writing.

- Use classroom writing as valid reading material.

- Increase students' understanding of reading materials by encouraging student-centered activities and discussions and by recognizing that experiences in writing can be used to clarify understanding of reading.

Selecting Materials

- Choose reading and writing that have more than token representation of works by nonwhite minorities and that reflect a diversity of subject matter, style, and social and cultural views.

- Use texts which present nonwhite students in a nonstereotypical manner and which accurately reflect their contributions to American culture, history, and letters.

- Select texts which present balanced and realistic views of nonwhite minorities.

- Select illustrations and photographs of nonwhite minorities which accurately portray historical and socio-economic diversity.

- Choose books in which language use is realistic, consistent, and appropriate to the setting and characters.

- Include materials which provide historical commentary and interpretations on the full range of minority perspectives on social and political history.

The Task Force on Racism and Bias realizes that many *variables affect the academic success of students. Learning is a progression in* which *all students develop at different times and through various teaching strategies. But a common factor that influences all student learning is a classroom teacher's attitude. If teachers show interest in the experiences of' all students, they pave the way for introducing students to other experiences. If teachers show understanding and acceptance of second-language development, students can acquire and learn to use another language. We urge teachers of all students to use the strategies recommended here.*

THE MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM

by Jean ZukowskilFaust Northern
Arizona University

The multicultural classroom varies along a broad continuum, from a classroom of 24 mainstream American students and one Vietnamese student to a classroom of an American teacher and thirty Chinese students, as well as every kind of mix in between. And if we consider the multitude of American subcultures, we all face multicultural classrooms all the time. The pervasive nature of this multiculturalism raises a number of questions for all educators and a number of problems that all educators have to deal with.

What are the dynamics of multicultural classroom? There are many joys and rewards, but what are the problems? How can the many aspects of an environment with more than one culture, language, value system, and understanding of reality be understood well enough by a teacher to ensure a stable setting for learning?

BACKGROUND

To begin, one must understand the complexity of the multicultural classroom (MCC), any learning environment in which there is at play more than one shared or one-sided system. If all the students speak different languages at home and a language of wider communication (LWC) at school, then the classroom is both multicultural and multilingual. Yet the situation that results in many a multicultural environment can be less obvious: if the teacher speaks the language of instruction nonnatively and the students all speak that language but natively, the situation is defined as multicultural. Even if the teacher and students all speak the same language, the LWC, but that language does not match the native culture of the participants, the situation is considered multicultural (as in the overlay of mainstream American culture on a Native American culture). The reason for considering such a school situation as a multicultural classroom is the tie between language and culture, a connection that affects every aspect of life, even the perception of truth.

Such a strong statement about language and culture requires some explanation. As is commonly agreed among linguists and social scientists, language is imprecise in any case; meaning is possible

38

only because language is approximate and because willingness to comprehend and process information is an active force among human beings in community situations. People from different communities and cultures will bring different assumptions and conventions for interpreting the message that is only incompletely conveyed by the language itself. In other words, the MCC might really represent a case of wider approximation and a need for greater willingness to participate. In such contexts the potential for misunderstanding is far greater than is found in the shared language and culture situation.

The most common roots of miscommunication are found where there are differences in the values and psycho-social expectations held by the majority of the members of the involved cultures. The more highly prized an expected social outcome is, the more likely any conflicting expectation will cause social imbalance. Clarification of the difficulties involved in intercultural communication requires that a set of preliminary assumptions be articulated:

- ***Every person is a reflection of the basic values of his/her own culture, and yet a unique interpretation of it.***

- ***The first step of understanding another culture is understanding your own.***

- ***Cultures are not right or wrong, better or worse, just different.***

- ***Life presents a certain number of problems that everyone must solve-and that any culture reflects a coherent way of dealing them.***

- ***Cultures are changing.***

- ***Cultures reflect the values and unspoken understanding of the people in that culture.***

- ***Problems arise out of differences in cultural perceptions.***

This base of cultural understanding can help us to be more conscious of both the conflict points and the teacher's role in the MCC. Given that there are certain identifiable areas that represent conflict points between cultures, the implications and ultimately a plan for managing them can be worked out. If the participant in the MCC, particularly the most powerful person in the setting—the teacher—is able to anticipate problems, then the potential for smoothing transitionary ripples is increased. The teacher in the MCC has not only the job of teaching content but also the responsibility for teaching target language, target culture, and coping strategies. The MCC teacher (every teacher?) should expect that the following

domains of interaction and perceptions are probably going to cause miscommunication and disharmony; they will be the seven conflict points:

1) Time and Appropriate Pace
2) Standards of Conduct
3) Communication
4) Attitudes Toward Work and Accomplishment
5) Relationships (Individualism vs. Group)
6) Use of Space
7) Authority, Control, and Power.

The relevance of the seven cultural conflict points listed above is great because people rarely articulate intellectual values and because so many cultural expressions can be found for these differences of social perception. The distinct solutions from different cultural groups to such conflict would also result in distinct affective responses, physical reactions, spiritual interpretations, and psychological/sociological redefinitions. In addition, because the focus of a classroom is likely to be on actual course content (what school achievement is based on) rather than on cultural conflict, it is not likely that the intellectual identification or attention to the conflict points (and their resolution will occur). The cultural issues are more likely to be ignored, buried, or denied. The frustration level of teacher and student is likely to increase.

There are two terms that are used in conflict management or problem solving that need to be defined. They sound very much alike, but one is passive and the other active. A problem can <u>diffuse</u>, that is just sort of go away, because no one deals with it and therefore the negative effects just hang in the atmosphere like droplets of water, ready for another issue to coalesce around. That diffusion is the passive process.

The active counterpart is <u>de-fusing</u>, treating the problem like a potential explosion, and going about handling the threat as a demolition expert would, by pulling out the fuse so that the danger is eliminated.

De-fusing in conflict management can occur when a person recognizes the conflict point, defines the conflict, and requests or initiates solution procedures. De-fusing, in direct contrast to diffusing negative energy, requires identification of the problem and commitment to working out the implications.

The identification part tends to be the more challenging aspect as fewer people are trained or naturally equipped to sense and analyze conflict points. In addition, there is far greater risk in de-fusing a potentially explosive situation than in pretending that it is not there. Indeed, the chances are that a classroom teacher, occupied with presentation of content and superficial maintenance of order, will perceive the cultural differences as thorns, as irritations, as annoyances and not as basic discrepancies between group expectations and values that are reducible to background culture differences. It therefore behooves the teacher in an MCC to learn about the points of cultural conflict, to keep awareness of these points high, and to learn to deal with the conflicts by naming the problem and inviting students and other participants to manage the difficulties as they occur.

POINTS OF CONFLICT

Conflict #1: Time, Timing, and Pace

The mainstream American cultural value is that time is money. Time is golden, not to be wasted. The high value on time means that negative attributes are assigned to anyone whose conduct reflects imprecise measurement of time such as might result in being late for an appointment (rudeness), stopping to talk with friends (dallying), or, coming too early (impertinence). Yet some languages do not have precision in time measurement. In Turkish simdi, usually translated as "now", means "any time now" or "I expect it will happen sometime in the next hours, day or year." In Mexico mañana in translation means "tomorrow" but is more accurately interpreted as "sometime soon." Putdown jokes about Anglo time versus Mexican, Navajo, Arab, (or any other subculture group`s) time reflect the difference between rigid American clock-run values and more flexible (and usually more humanistic) other-culture perceptions. Because of the emphasis on predictabilityof others' actions in a business-oriented society (US, Japanese, German...) adherence to a schedule takes on greater importance. In the less business-oriented societies, the people and their feelings can be considered first. If time is not money and is a gift to be given freely, then attitudes toward schedules are different and development of resources to entertain or occupy oneself is the norm as one learns to wait with patience.

Implication: In the mainstream Americana classroom, the student who pays more attention to interpersonal relationships than to time is likely to be judged harshly.

Conflict point #2: Standards of Conduct

In American mainstream society, conduct is a matter of politeness, a measure of socialization. In some other cultures, conduct is a matter of morality, judged on standards as strict as written statures. An important difference (of the many) is the concept related to self-esteem, sometimes called "face." Americans (and both Soviets and Germans) are used to more criticism from peers than either Japanese or Chinese. But even the tough-skin is a relative measure: Soviets are used to a lot more self-criticism and judgment from peers than Americans, for example; dredging out one's social inadequacies and inviting friends to join in is almost a parlor game in some levels of Soviet society. On the other hand, the American concept of a crisp presentation of criticisms, objections, or questions can be seen by others as an insensitive display of power, as lack of care, or as defective social manners. For the Oriental student, criticism, question, or objection can mean total loss of self-esteem.

Implication: The student in an MCC with a mainstream American teacher will be judged according to American cultural standards. The teacher will also be judged by the student: a Native American student might think the teacher is disrespectful for requiring something as common as eye contact or use of a student's first name; a French student might think of the teacher as taking all the joy out of life by sticking too deeply to a syllabus; a German student might criticize a teacher for being too familiar with the students; a Hispanic student might think the teacher driven by schedules and numbers as having no regard for the human spirit.

Conflict point #3: Communication

The mainstream value of honesty in American culture is tempered by the value of directness and frankness. Silence is difficult to process; when information is required, it must be given as soon as possible. Mainstream Americans are suspicious of any hint that there is a "hidden agenda" in an exercise.

Implication: In the classroom, the result might be that a student's unexpressed (suppressed) worries cause an unconscious rise in teacher annoyance level. Or a home-culture (acceptable) formula way of expressing an inadequacy might be construed as an evasion or even a lie: "I was uncomfortable last night" or "My father needed my help." From the student's point of view, a teacher who is open and willing to talk about anything might appear untrustworthy, abrupt, weak, incapable of socially acceptable behavior.

Conflict #4: Attitudes Toward Work

American society is based on a firm belief in the power of work. Like The Little Engine That Could, every mainstream child/product believes that hard work equals high achievement. The individual is taught to "take charge of your own life," do-it-yourself projects are, considered fun, self-determination and self-actualization are normal concepts. In some cultures, however, no matter how hard one works, there can be no success. There is never enough rain to grow crops, not enough money or market to make manufacture profitable. People who come from such cultures do not value work as a key to success for their language likely contains no such value or cultural apparatus. In the classroom this difference in attitude toward work can translate into not having any motivation, being lazy, being stubborn and uncooperative. In a culture that values being a solid member and contributor to a family from the age of reason on, a student's first allegiance might be to the family-as is often seen in Hispanic families.

Implication: In the classroom, the minority culture representative probably does not share the mainstream emphasis on work. The student may be judged lazy, uncooperative, sullen., stubborn, disinterested, or mentally retarded by the teacher.

Conflict point #5: Relationships

There are two main kinds of societies: the gemeinschaft and the gesellschaft. A characteristic of the rural traditional language/culture, the gemeinschaft, is that the individual defines the self in terms of relationships, connections that involve obligations for the person as the actor in a society. In other words, social groups are understood as operating through the members.

In a gesellschaft society, a technological society, an individual is more likely to define the self as an autonomous unit with social links to family, associates, and friends.

Implication: For the teacher in an MCC, the basic difference between the two types is the concept of self-reliance and independence. The product of a gemeinschaft Language/culture will relate vertically (student to teacher and not peer to peer) if the notion of a strong central leader is a cultural concept. If a sense of family is stronger, then horizontal relationships (peer to peer) will likely be stronger: In either case the student will have one pattern of

43

relationship down pat; an individual motivating force will more likely be missing and need to be developed. The motivation will have to come from either the teacher or from the peers.

In the gemeinschaft product, the motivation is already there-instilled by the culture; the get-ahead attitude will already have begun to work or have been rejected. The learning of social skills will be the obvious development area.

Conflict point #6: Use of Space

The mainstream American cultural value of space is that it relates to privacy and ability to work. Space is to be conserved, to be used carefully, to be broken up into chunks. Placement in space is translated into perception of importance and power. In a classroom, a group might value the front row, the back row, the seats in the circle farthest from the teacher or closest to the door or windows.

Primary placement is often a regionally defined value. However, the personal bubble is a universal perception. Within each culture is defined the amount of space that a person has around him or her that cannot be entered without expressed permission from the owner of that space. In Hispanic culture, for example, the person is likely to feel more comfortable closer to other people than would be comfortable for a mainstream American. The mainstream American, however, is not only likely to impinge on the space of many Native Americans, but he or she is also likely to "rush" into that space without the required "settling-in" period commonly perceived as proper among Navajos.

Implication: In a classroom, improper or unaware use of space and the reluctant juggling for comfort can disrupt classroom order (because people are always shifting about), can lead to misunderstandings of importance and social status given to other class members ("she put him in the front row so he must be more important than me"), and threats ("why is she always on my case?").

Conflict point #7: Authority, Control, and Power

In an egalitarian society, every person is like every other one: except in the multicultural setting. Because of mainstream culture values in the US, good honest work is fine for any person. The boss who rolls up his sleeves and works with employees is respected. The teacher who shows the students how to do the task--even getting dirty in the process-has no fear that face has been lost. The female art teacher or chemistry teacher who comes to class in slacks does not lose rapport with classes... except in some multicultural classrooms.

Implication: In a culture that separates work from power and expects no physical or dirty work from a leader, the fact that a teacher "works" with students is seen as a sign of weakness. For a student who believes that he or she has leadership potential, enthusiasm for "work" is wrong. A person who is learning to be a leader also learns to sit back and let someone else do it.

The teacher who displays what appears to be nonauthoritative behavior (working with, the students) is not a leader and not worthy of respect. Furthermore, displays of emotion like anger and frustration from the teacher result in yet more undermining of control potential. Power is to be worn like a mantle, with pride and distance.

CONCLUSION

How can the teacher of an MCC learn to handle the hot spots, the conflict areas? Here are some general suggestions:

- Know who your students are and learn about their home cultures. You can learn a great deal from a teacher who has taught them before, it helps to realize that behind nearly every difficulty the teacher has had with the class there is a conflict point.

- Ask about the seven points; what are the reactions and expectations?

- Start off with your own rules, but work toward making them as compatible as possible with all the cultures represented in the class.

- Go slowly at first until you are sure of the direction and the pace.

- Look for allies among the faculty, the staff, and the students. Observe teachers who are successful in the MCC setting and mark down the body language, the attitudes, the rapport building procedures they use. If possible, videotape yourself and compare your style to those who are having success with the students from other cultures.

- Learn how to de-fuse a potentially explosive situation. Establish an attitude that **"we are all different, but the differences among us are what make us interesting."** Be interested in the other culture- ask to learn, to be taught. Make social studies a focus of the classwork. Recognize and use the differences to build an accepting class atmosphere.

The multicultural classroom should be a rich cultural laboratory, a place where students and teacher can learn from one another and students can learn from students. Unidentified or ignored cultural conflicts can impede learning, but sensitive teachers can learn to observe and address the points of conflict, thus enriching their classrooms and their lives immeasurably.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Birdwhistell, Ray L. *Kinesics and Context: Essays on Body Motion Communication.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1960..

Byrd, Patricia, ed. *Teaching Across Cultures in the University ESL Program.* Washington, D.C.: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1986.

Morris, Desmond, et al. *Gestures.* 1st ed. New York: Stein and Day, 1980.

Condon, John C., and Fathi Yousef. *An Introduction to Intercultural Communication.* 1st ed. Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill, 1984.

Copeland, Lennie, and Lewis *Griggs. Going International: How to Make Friends and Deal Effectively in the Global Marketplace. 1st ed.* New *York:* Random House, 1983.

Robinson, Gail L. Nemetz. *Crosscultural Understanding: Processes and Approaches for Foreign Language, English as a Second Language and Bilingual Educators.* 1st ed. New York: Pergamon Press, 1985.

Samovar, Larry A.,, Richard E. Porter and Nemi C. Jain. *Understanding Intercultural Communication.* California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1981.

Stewart, Edward *C. American Cultural Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective.* Illinois: Intercultural Press, Inc., 1972.

Valdes, Joyce Merrill, ed. *Culture Bound: Bridging the Cultural Gap in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

KAN YU RET AN RAYT EN INGLES: CHILDREN BECOME LITERATE IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

SARAH HUDELSON
Florida International University

Current research on second language development in children has provided teachers and curriculum planners with multiple possibilities for innovations in classroom practice. In the case of oral language development in ESL, this research has made significant contributions both to classroom teaching and to the materials being published for classroom use. Classroom practices in literacy for ESL children, however, have not kept up with research. This article presents several general findings from recent research on second language reading and writing development in children. These findings suggest: that even children who speak virtually no English read English print in the environment; that ESL learners are able to read English with only limited control over the oral system of the language; that the experiential and cultural background of the ESL reader has a strong effect on reading comprehension; that child ESL learners, early in their development of English, can write English and can do so for various purposes. This article also presents classroom applications for each finding.

INTRODUCTION

During the last ten to fifteen years, significant studies in second language development have provided researchers and practitioners with important information about how children learn a second language. Often this information has been applied to ESL teaching practices and curriculum development. Unfortunately, many of the innovations in teaching children have been limited to or have focused upon oral language (Gonzalez-Mena 1975, Urzúa 1981, Ventriglia 1982), with less consideration given to innovation in literacy (reading and writing) practices. In spite of recent research that presents findings with implications for practice, children's ESL literacy is dominated by materials and procedures that have been created with the following perspective in mind: that ESL reading and writing should be strictly controlled so that errors do not occur; that children should be asked to read and write only what they have practiced orally in formal lessons; that early experiences with English reading should consist of "linguistic" materials that emphasize phonically and orthographically regular words; that there should be a time gap between the presentation of oral and written forms of English; that writing, especially at the initial stages, should consist of copying, filling in blanks, and taking dictation rather than

creating one's own messages; that reading and writing should always follow listening and speaking instruction, with writing always following reading. Reading materials such as The Miami Linguistics Readers (Robinett, Bell, and Rojas 1970), the Crane Reading System-English (Crane 1977), and the reading/writing components of programs such as Steps to English (Dernan 1983), English Around the World, (Marquardt, Miller, and Housman 1976), and YES English for Children (Mellgren and Walker 1977) exemplify this perspective. Aspects of this position have been articulated in methods textbooks such as those written by Ching (1976), Donoghue and Kunkle (1979), and Finocchiaro (1974), among others. Elley (1981) has suggested that the dominance of these kinds "of materials and approaches may be traced to the influence of the audiolingual school off language teaching, whose methods and principles Elley sees in practice in elementary second language classrooms and curricula around the world.

Until recently, the perspective delineated; above reflected our understanding of second language literacy development in children. However, in recent years researchers have made exiting discoveries about the growth of reading and writing abilities in children learning a second language. Many of these findings, in addition to coming from descriptive and classroom-based research, have direct implications for and applications to classroom practice. Without intending to reject outright all previous notions or efforts of the past, this article offers some alternative views of second language literacy development in children. This article, then, has two purposes: 1). to provide an overview of some findings of recent research in second language literacy (reading and writing), and 2) to provide some examples of how these findings speak to classroom practice.

RECENT RESEARCH

Finding/Generalization 1

Ever child who speak no or very little English are reading some of the print in their environment and are using that reading to increase their English. In the United States, non- or limited English-speaking children find themselves surrounded by English outside of school. These learners acquire a lot of English and often begin reading English from living and coping with English in their daily lives (K. Goodman, Y. Goodman, and Flores 1979).

A few years ago, in several settings, Y. Goodman investigated the print awareness of preschool, supposedly preliterate children, both native English speakers and non- or limited English-speaking children from such native language backgrounds as Arabic, Navajo, and Spanish. She found that even children who were virtually non-speakers of English in such isolated areas as the Navajo Nation in Northern Arizona could read items such as Crest, Coca Cola, McDonalds, Cheerios, Wonder Woman, Dracula and Spider Man (Y. Goodman 1980, Y. Goodman and Altwerger 1981, K. Goodman, Y. Goodman, and Flores 1979). They were able to do this because these items from the media and from real life were salient for them. Older non-English speaking children, too, have demonstrated an ability to read such environmental print items, even though they have resided in the United States for only a month or two (Hudelson 1981). An example comes from a case study of a third grader who, when asked by the researcher about English print in his neighborhood, could tell her that a sign that said BEWARE OF THE DOG meant "que no se acerque al perro" ('don't get close to the dog') and that TVs FIXED HERE meant "que se compongan televisiones aquí" ('televisions fixed here').

What does this mean for classroom instruction? For teachers who say that children are reading only because they see the entire label and therefore are not really reading, it means little. But for ESL teachers who take this as evidence that children are interacting with and learning from their environment, a host of instructional possibilities appear. Some examples appear below.

A first-grade teacher took her ESL children on a walking field trip around the school. The children had received no formal English reading instruction at the time of this activity. The children's job was to point out, read, and write down all of the English words they could find. If the children were unable to read the print they discovered, the teacher read the word for them. Considerable English vocabulary teaching occurred as the children developed their lists. The teacher read several words to the class (for example, fire extinguisher). Others she pronounced with standard English phonology and explained their meaning in English (custodian and caution). In some cases one child would read for the others. Back in the classroom, the lists were reread and the items were then used in categorizing activities.

In two first and second-grade classrooms, as a substitute for structured ESL time, teachers set up a class grocery store, requesting that students bring in items for the store (in the form of empty boxes,

cartons, tin cans, and so on), identify the items, arrange them on shelves as a grocer would, and role play grocer and customers. These children also had not received any formal English reading instruction. All transactions had to be conducted in English, and the customers' had to write out shopping lists before they went to the store in order to be able to buy their groceries. On the lists that the children wrote and read were such items as Coors Lite beer, pizza, soup, milk, and gum.

In a combination third-fourth grade, the teacher assigned students to bring in product labels, identify the products, and then describe them orally and in writing. One young writer, who read her paper to the class, described Trix cereal as soft (sofet), crunchy (cranchi), and lemon and orange flavored (flavert limen and oreng).
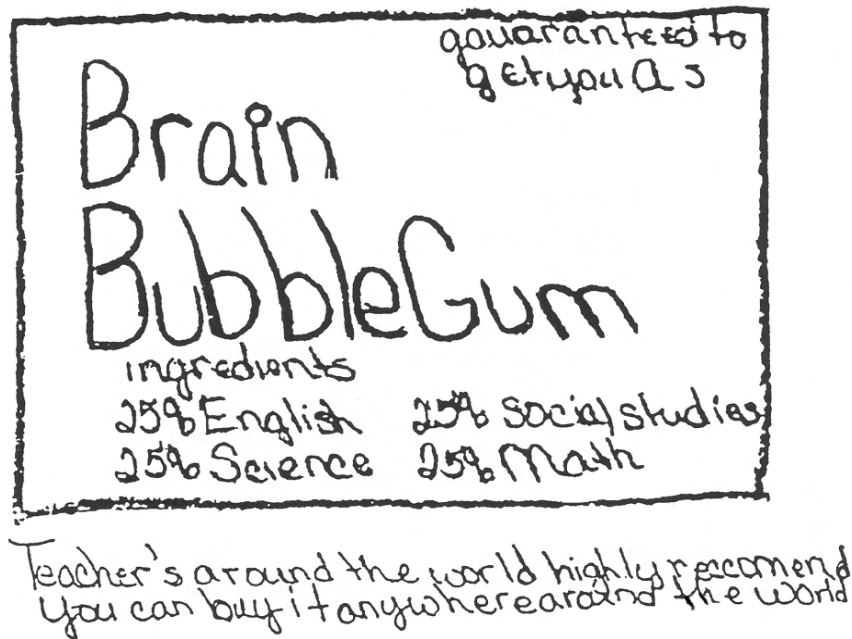
In a junior high school class, some advanced ESL students' working in small groups invented their own products and created commercial messages. Actual television commercials were used: for listening/speaking and reading activities before the students came up with their own inventions. One of the commercial messages is reproduced as Figure 1.

These are a few examples of ways in which ESL teachers have made use of their students' interaction with English environmental print. These teachers have taken advantage of what students already know (and are interested in) in their second language; they have validated this knowledge by bringing it into school and have used it as part of literacy instruction. This instruction has raised children's awareness of themselves as English readers while simultaneously developing and revealing their English vocabularies.

Finding/Generalization 2

ESL learners are able to read English before they have complete oral control of the language. As in a first language, reading in a second language is a psycho-sociolinguistic process, an interaction between reader, print, and the reading situation, and experience in which readers build meaning by interaction with print and by utilizing in these interactions their own background of experiences and personal information as well as their developing knowledge of the language (Grove 1981). Using their language and experiential background, readers predict their way through a text. As ESL readers build meaning, their own levels of language development and their own background influence what is created.

FIGURE 1

gouaranteed to
get you a s

Brain
BubbleGum
ingredients
25% English   25% social studies
25% Science   25% Math

Teacher's around the world highly recomend
You can buy it anywhere around the world

A clear view of the second language reader as a predictor presents itself when *miscue analysis*, a reading research technique originally developed to examine the oral reading of native speakers of English (K. Goodman and Burke 1973), is utilized. Miscue analysis requires that a person read a story orally and then retell the contents. Both the retelling and the reader's miscues (deviations from the printed text) are examined. In recent years, several researchers have used miscue analysis with ESL readers (Barrera. 1978, Clarke 1981, Connor 1981, Devine 1981, K. Goodman and Y. Goodman 1978. Mott 1981, Rigg 1977). Their research has yielded the following generalizations: 1) like native speakers, ESL readers make miscues when they read English; 2) some of these miscues change the meaning of what is being read, while others do not; 3) those miscues that change the meaning of what is being read are more likely to be self-corrected than those that do not; 4) some of the miscues that ESL readers make reflect the reader's English language development; 5) the ESL reader may be able to demonstrate more understanding of material that has been read if retelling is done in the native language rather than in English; 6) ESL readers do not need to pronounce the surface phonology of what they are reading as a native speaker would in order to understand what they are reading; and 7) ESL readers demonstrate greater comprehension of material that is culturally close to their own experiences.

These findings suggest several applications. First, ESL teachers do not need to wait until children are highly fluent in English before offering reading materials. Care must be taken in selecting the kinds of materials to be offered, but reading can and should begin fairly soon after children begin studying English. Second, teachers should avoid judging children's ESL reading ability on the basis of the number of oral reading errors the children make and/or on the basis of heavily accented reading. Informal reading inventories, widely used in elementary school classrooms (see Harris and Sipay 1979), suggest that teachers total the number of oral reading errors in order to determine whether a child is able to read certain material. Applying this practice to ESL readers can be especially misleading since ESL children make many surface errors that do not affect understanding. Rather, the teacher should consider the child's ability to talk about what has been read. Third, teachers should avoid interrupting ESL children while they are reading in order to correct them. Allowing children to make pronunciation errors does not reinforce incorrect English, and the practice of interrupting and correcting may actually disrupt rather than facilitate the readers' construction of meaning from a text. Fourth, in working with ESL children reading English, it is crucial to focus on comprehension of text material. An appropriate beginning is to encourage children to retell as much as possible of what they have read. Specific questions may also be asked, but its important that the children do as much of the talking as possible in response to a general request to "tell me everything you can about what you just read." Children's retellings often reveal what they do not understand as well as what they do. This information is valuable to the teacher in returning the children to the story to re-examine parts of the text. And fifth, when possible (either through the teacher or through peers), ESL children should be allowed to discuss texts in the native language as well as in English. In this way the teacher may get a more accurate picture of what children understand.

Finding/Generalization 3

Reading comprehension in a second language, as in a first, is influenced by the background knowledge and the cultural framework that the reader brings to the text (Grove 1981). Even quite proficient ESL readers recall more from a text based on their own culture than they do from a text based on a foreign culture (Steffensen, Joag-dev, and Anderson 1979, Steffensen, and Joag-dev 1981). In two studies of ESL readers, Johnson (1981, 1982) found that simplification of vocabulary and syntax were less important factors in ESL readers'

comprehension of a text than the cultural contents of the passage being read. She also found that real cultural experiences prior to reading (as contrasted to formal study of vocabulary items) had a positive effect on ESL students' reading comprehension of a passage linked to the cultural experience.

The classroom applications of these findings are several. First, whenever possible the teacher should select reading materials that reflect the children's cultural and experiential background. Children's comprehension also may be enhanced if the teacher utilizes the children's experiences as background preparation for reading. Making the children aware of what they already know about a topic contributes positively to subsequent reading comprehension. Second, as often as possible, if children are reading culturally unfamiliar material, teachers need to build a background of knowledge prior to reading. Ideally this will take the form of a real experience (as in Johnson's example of the Halloween carnival). Knowledge (and language) may also be built through television, films or filmstrips, demonstrations and materials shared with children. Third, instructional strategies that do not depend upon prepared texts but which utilize the readers' cultural and experiential backgrounds are also appropriate. Two such strategies are the use of key words and language experience stories.

Developed by Ashton-Warner (1963) as a way of teaching non-English speaking Maori children to read English, key words are words that individual children decide they want to learn to read because the words are personally important to them. On a daily basis, the teacher elicits a key word from each child. The teacher writes down each child's word on a card, which the child then retains in order to read the words over, copy them, make a picture of them, read them to others, write sentences with them, and so on. Since Ashton-Warner first proposed the use of key words, the practice has been used effectively in the United States as a beginning reading strategy for both native speakers of English and ESL children (Veatch 1979).

Language experience stories also utilize the students' knowledge and cultural background as well as their developing language (Murphy 1980, Feeley 1979, 1983). Research has shown that the language experience approach is an effective method for teaching reading both to native and non-native speakers of English (Colvert 1973, Hall 1979, Mallets 1977). Basically, the students have an experience which they discuss, after which they dictate to the teacher (scribe) what they want written about the experience. The teacher listens and transcribes the story exactly as the children dictate it. Because both the contents of the

stories and the language used come from the students, these stories are especially comprehensible, an important factor in working with ESL students.

Rigg (1981) has utilized language experiences with ESL learners of all ages. Using wordless picture books as the stimulus (experience), she has found that students are willing and able to use their background knowledge to create stories. To address the concern that accepting children's stories as dictated reinforces their incorrect language patterns, Rigg has demonstrated that first draft stories may be used as the basis for oral language activities (diagnosing which structures to practice from their dictations) as well as for revising and editing by the students. In the example below, a Russian-speaking student dictated two stories using picture stimuli. Each of the stories was subsequently corrected by the student without being prompted to do so.

First Effort	**Self-Revision**
Two ladies playing in tennis. In the hand they holding the rackets. One from they is coming to the ball.	Two ladies are playing in tennis. In the hand they are holding the rackets. One from they is running to the ball
The boy live in the ranch. He help for his parents. He give the food for the cocks... The cows ate the grass and he watch for them.	The boy lives on the ranch. He helps his parents. He gives the food for the cocks. The cows eat the grass and he watches them.

<div align="right">(Rigg 1981:85)</div>

The second drafts suggest that many ESL learners are able to reflect on the form of what they have said and have seen written down and that they are able to make revisions as they learn more English. The drafts also are useful to the ESL teacher as a way of documenting student learning.

Students learning English as a second language, then, show teachers both that they are able to read and understand some material in English that they do not yet control orally and that they are able to read English when the material comes from within themselves, that is, when the approach used is an organic one that relies on what the students know rather than on what they do not know.

Finding/Generalization 4

As in a first language, writing in a second language interacts with reading. The two processes are closely related and complement each other (Edelsky 1982, Staton 1981), Bissex (1980), Chomsky (1971), and Read (1975) have demonstrated that for some young native speakers of English, writing -the composing of one's own message- precedes formal reading. These messages generally are characterized by a variety of unconventional aspects (for example, spelling and segmentation) which signify that the young composers use their existing knowledge to solve their writing problems. These researchers have also shown that these young writers read their own creations, often before they read conventional English texts. Bissex discovered that Paul, the child in her longitudinal case study, used his writing as his personal reading material for several months.

What has been found for native speakers is also being shown to be true for child second language learners. For some ESL children, written expression in English may precede formal reading instruction (Edelsky 1982). For some, their English writing forms their first reading (Rigg 1981). For others, writing may help other school work (Searfoss, Smith, and Bean 1981, Staton 1981).

The classroom application is this: we should encourage ESL learners to write, to express themselves in writing as well as orally, and to use written expression as one means of developing English. The previous examples have shown that ESL speakers can write shopping lists and product descriptions based on environmental print. Other kinds of writing also have been encouraged by teachers who consider writing an integral part of second language development.

Figure 2 is a journal entry from a first-grade child enrolled in a bilingual program where initial literacy, including a great deal of writing, was in Spanish (see Edelsky 1981, 1982, 1983). With no formal literacy instruction in English, one day late in the spring the child produced this journal entry in English when the teacher asked the class if they could write in their journals in English rather than in Spanish.

In reading the entry, the influence of Spanish on English is obvious. But looking beyond the invented spelling, one is struck both by the ability of this child to express himself in English and to reveal what he already knows about English, without having received training in that language. This child was not afraid to try to write in English, and he read what he wrote.

FIGURE 2

Today is Wednesday.
la Tichrabrina motosrayco
damorosaycoes purti.
Mesesilba tucmaypicher
  chy Tayms
en gey mi cendi

Today is Wednesday.
La teacher bring a motorcycle
The motorcycle is pretty.
Mrs. Silva took my picture two times
and gave me candy

Older ESL students may express themselves more easily in writing than orally. The following journal entry was written by a fourth grader described by her teacher as extremely shy in class. At the time of the writing, this child had been in the United States less than two years. In her writing this child expressed several personal feelings that perhaps she was unwilling or unable to say out loud. Her incomplete mastery of English did not prevent her from using her journal to express some things that were on her mind.

> Some girl act beautiful cause shake their but and has feather back hear and act
> big. And they act smart ibe day I was playing woth Pola and somebody called me
> to the teetotter and told me not to play with pola because she would make me
> black. I feel that are are bad becuase they dress in tight pants tight shirt becuase
> they act that they could beet up everibody
>> Spelling, punctuation, and word
>> choice have not been changed.)

In the middle school settings.- inter-active journal writing has been used to promote student expression (Staton, Shuy, and Kreeft 1982). In this practice, students use daily journals to write to their teacher about whatever they choose to discuss. The teacher writes back to them responding to content, not form, and creates a written conversation. The use of interactive Journals has been studied using both native and none native speakers of English (Staton 1981, 1983). The findings suggest that ESL students are able to make progress toward understanding and producing more formal discourse by using the less formal, more "oral"

style of a journal. The research has also documented that, for ESL students, the journals become a vehicle for obtaining information about school subjects and about English (Staton 1981).

ESL writing may also play a role in content area construction. In second grade social studies, for example, a class of limited English speakers studied several Native American tribes. During class time set aside for ESL, the teacher told the class about each tribe, and the class then participated in such activities as creating sand paintings, constructing totem poles, and making dioramas. The teacher shared some books about Indians, but no formal reading was required. At the end of the unit, the teacher asked the students to write about something they had learned. One child wrote what appears in Figure 3, using writing to reflect upon what he had studied.

FIGURE 3
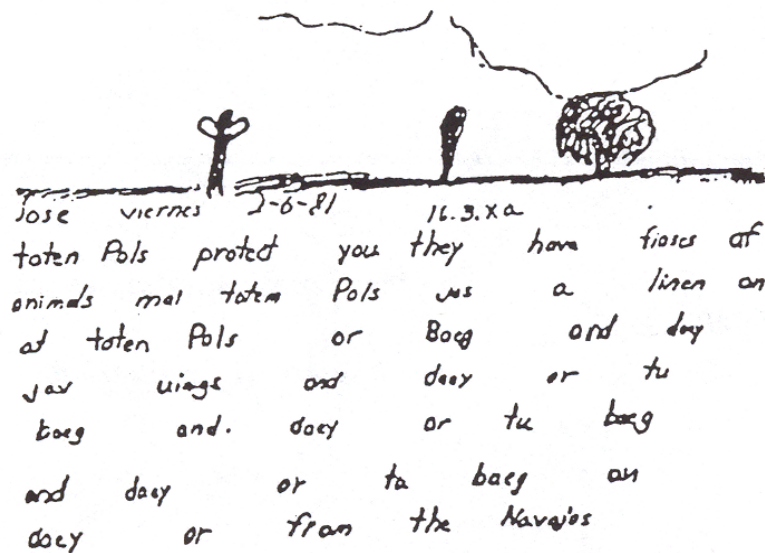
totem poles protect you. they have faces
of animals my totem pole has a lion on
it totem poles are big and they have
wings and they are too big and they are
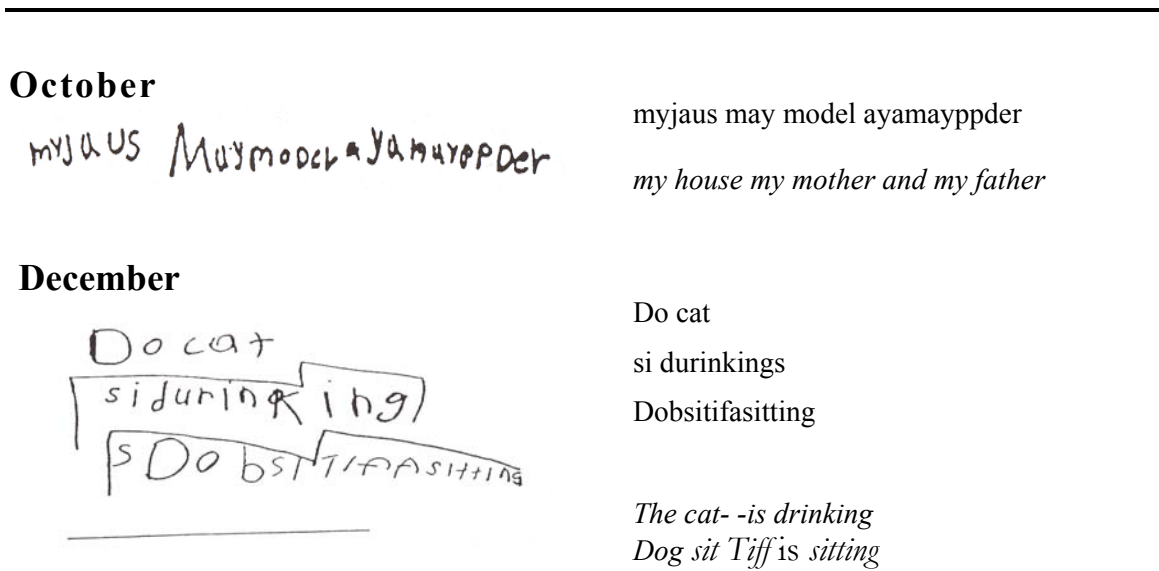too big and they are too big and they are
from the Navajos

For ESL students working with content area textbooks, the use of the "guided writing procedure" may contribute both to ESL students' understanding of text material and to their ability to express that understanding in-writing (Searfoss, Smith and Bean 1981) The guided

writing procedure involves children in brainstorming what they know about the topic they will read about, putting their knowledge in writing, reading and discussing the text, and writing again. Writing serves both to set expectations for reading and to provide a mechanism for rethinking the contents of the text.

Finding/Generalization 5 [1]

ESL learners can (and should) write English before' they have complete control over the oral and written systems of the language. Second language acquirers written products reflect their language development at a given point in time. As learners gain more control over the language, their writing will reflect this development (Hudelson 1983). Consider these examples (see Figure 4) from a second grader from Puerto Rico who was enrolled in a public school in Florida. They were gathered by an ESL tutor who encouraged the child's early and continued written expression but did not correct the writing efforts.

FIGURE 4

October

myjaus may model ayamayppder

my house my mother and my father

December

Do cat

si durinkings

Dobsitifasitting

The cat- -is drinking
Dog sit Tiff is sitting

---

[1] Although this generalization relates closely to the one just discussed, it merits separate 'comment because many elementary-level ESL teachers fear that if they allow children to write "incorrectly" they will contribute to the children's continued use of those forms.

Figure 4 (Continued)

March

My Haus is Red and dlue and Iigat faurr and three and I gat aporl dad is Haus my grandmother

My house is red and blue and I got flowers and trees and I got apples That is house my Grandmother

May

The Boe is fisehing
He goin to fo daun
He fo daun
He toaring to gereout
the wetre
the therein gad has fish

The boy is fishing
He going to fall down
He fall down
He trying to et out the water
The turtle got his fish

Other Samples from May

The dog going fighting with
the turtle
the turtle going bite
the dog
the boy going to
take the dog and the turtle going
bite the dog

The boy take the dog
He take the dog
he put he tail in the water
He fall down
He going jump to take
the dog to the water

The turtle dies
He going to XXXX out
The boy take the
turtle in 'his hand
and the frog and the
dog going walking
the boy digging the hole

In October this child hypothesized that English was spelled like Spanish, and while she was unable to write sentences she did come up with a phrase she knew. By December the overwhelming influence on her writing was the material (The Miami Linguistic Readers) she was reading in her classroom. She was willing to write only what she thought she could spell correctly, what she had copied in class. In February and March she began to use some of the words she had learned to read in her classroom, but she was also willing to predict the spelling of words that were in her oral vocabulary even though they were not in the spelling repertoire. As the school year continued, she used a combination of reading words, words from spelling, and words for which she invented the spelling. She also became more willing to venture beyond the safe topic of her house. Over time, both the quantity and quality of her writing improved. Although in May she still did not demonstrate complete control over the oral or written systems of English, she did exhibit growth in her ability to express herself in English. Additionally, her writing over time helps the teacher document her progress in English.

This child's writing was nurtured by a situation in which the adult working with her believed that she was capable of writing in English while still acquiring and refining the language. This ESL tutor encouraged the child's writing with the awareness that it would develop over time and believed that the mistakes this child made were an integral part of her growth as an English user.

Finding/Generalization 6

As many examples in this article illustrate, the processes of writing, reading, speaking, and listening in a second language are interrelated and interdependent. It is both useless and, ultimately, impossible to separate out the language processes in our teaching (i.e., to attempt to teach only listening or speaking or only reading or writing, although some elementary ESL curricula still try to do so), or to try to present ESL material in a linear sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The examples presented here refute both that separation and that notion of sequencing. Second language learners demonstrate that they are dealing with and making sense of language as a totality rather than dealing with the language processes as separate entities.

CONCLUSION

Research on second language literacy in children has the following applications. Teachers should: 1) give children credit for interacting with and acting upon their environment; 2) use the students' lives and living environments for, literacy experiences (that take advantage of what students know); 3) ask children both to respond to and to create meaningful language in meaningful contexts (that is, listening to or reading whole texts and writing for real purposes, as compared with filling in ditto sheets and labeling parts of speech); 4) realize that mistakes are a necessary part of second language development and, that they are critical to language growth; and 5) respond to student products, whether oral or written, more as work in progress (Graves 1982) than as final product by reacting primarily to what students are trying to express and only secondarily to form. These kinds of activities will help English as a second language learners in elementary schools to become the proficient users of English that all teachers want them to be.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THE AUTHOR

Sarah Hudelson, Research Coordinator at the International Affairs Center, Florida International University, has taught both at elementary and university levels. As a researcher, she has published in the area of bilingual children's native and second language development.

Editor's Footnote: As this document goes to press, Dr. Hudelson is Associate Professor in the College of Education, Division of Curriculum and Instruction, and is Program Coordinator for Multicultural Education at Arizona State University.

REFERENCES

Ashton-Warner, Sylvia. 1963. *Teacher.* New York: Bantam Books.

Barrera, Rosalinda. 1978. Analysis and comparison of the first language and second language oral reading behavior of native Spanish speaking Mexican American children. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

Bissex, Glenda. 1980. *GYNS AT WK.* Cambridge, Massachusetts Harvard University.

Press.

Ching, Dorothy. 1976. *Reading and the bilingual child.* Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Chomsky, Carol. 1971. Invented spelling in the open classroom: *Word 27: 1-3.*

Clarke, Mark. 1.981. Reading in Spanish and English: evidence from adult ESL students. *In Learning to read in different languages,* Sarah Hudelson. (Ed.), 69- 92. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Colvert, John D. 1973. An exploratory study to adapt the language experience approach to remedial 7th and 10th grade Mexican American pupils. Ph.D. dissertation, Arizona State University.

Connor, Ulla. 1981. The application of reading miscue analysis to diagnosis of English as a second language learners reading skills. In *Reading English as a second language: moving from theory,* C. W. Twyford, William Diehl, and Karen. Feathers (Eds.), 47-55. *Monographs in Teaching and Learning 4.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University.

Crane, Barbara. 1977. *Crane reading system-English .* Trenton, New Jersey: Crane Publishing Company.

Devine, Joanne. 1981. Development patterns in native and non-native reading. acquisition. In *Learning to read in different languages* Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 103-114. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Donoghue, Mildred R., and John F. Kunkle. 1979. *Second languages in primary education.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Edelsky, Carole. 1981. From "JIMOSALSCO" to "7 naranjas se calleron e el arbol est -triste en lagrymas": writing development in a bilingual program. In *The writing needs of linguistically different students,* Bruce Cronnell (Ed.), 63-98. Los Alamitos, California SWRL Educational- Research and Development.

Edelsky, Carole 1982. Writing in a bilingual program: the relation of L_1 and L_2 texts. *TESOL Quarterly* 16 (2): 211-228.

Edelsky, Carole. 1983. Segmentation and punctuation: developmental data from young writers in a bilingual program. *Research in the Teaching of English* 17 (2): 135-156.

Elley, Warwick. 1981. The role of reading in bilingual contexts. In *Comprehension and teaching: research reviews,* John T. Guthrie (Ed.), 227-254. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Feeley, Joan. 1979. A workshop tried and true language experience for bilinguals. *The Reading Teacher* 33 (1): 25-27.

Feeley, Joan. 1983. Help for the reading teacher: dealing with the limited English proficient (lep) child in the elementary classroom. *The Reading Teacher* 3 6 (7): 650-655.

Finocchiaro, Mary. 1974. *English as a second language: from theory to practice.* New Your: Regents Publishing Company.

Gonzalez-Mena, Janet. 1975. *English experiences.* Silver Spring, Maryland: Institute of Modern Languages.

Goodman, Kenneth, and Carolyn Burke. 1973. *Theoretically based studies of patterns of miscues in oral reading performance.* Detroit, Michigan: Wayne State University (ERIC document Reproduction Service ED 079708).

Goodman, Kenneth, and Yetta Goodman. 1978. *Reading of American children whose language is a stable rural dialect of English or a language other than English.* Washington, D.C.: NIB Final Report, C-00-3-0087.

Goodman, Kenneth, Yetta Goodman, and Barbara Flores. *1979. Reading in the bilingual classroom: literacy and biliteracy.* Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Goodman, Yetta. 1980. The, roots of literacy. Keynote address to the Claremont Reading Conference, March, 1980.

Goodman, Yetta, and Bess Altwerger. 1981. *Print awareness in preschool children: a study of the development of literacy in preschool children. Occasional Paper* 4. Tucson, Arizona: Program in Language and Literacy, Arizona Center for Research and Development.

Graves, Donald. 1982. *Writing: teachers and children at work.* Exeter, New Hampshire: Heinemann Educational Books.

Grove, Michael. 1981. Psycholinguistic theories and ESL reading. In *Reading English as a second language: moving from theory.* C. W. Twyford, William Diehl, and Karen Feathers (Eds.), 3-20. Monographs in Teaching and Learning 4. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University.

Hall, Maryanne. 1979. *The language experience approach for teaching reading: a research perspective:* Second Edition. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Harris, Albert J., and Edward Sipay. 1979. *How to reach reading.* New York: Longman.

Hudelson, Sarah. 1981. Beginning reading and writing in a second language. In *Reading: a foundation for success.* Fourth Yearbook of the Arizona State University Reading Conference. Tempe, Arizona: Arizona State University. Hudelson, Sarah. 1983. Janice: becoming a writer of English. Paper presented at the 17th Annual TESOL Convention, Toronto, Ontario, March, 1983.

Johnson, Patricia. 1981. Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and cultural, background of a text. *TESOL Quarterly* 15 (2): 169-181.

Johnson, Patricia. 1982. Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly* 16 (4): 5.03-516.

Kernan, Doris. 1983. *Steps to English.* Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mallett, Graham. 1.977. Using: language experience with *junior* high native Indian students. *Journal of Reading* 21 (1): 25-28.

Marquardt, William, Jean Miller*,* and Eleanor Housman. 1976. *English around the world.* Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman.

Mellgren, Lars, and. Michael Walker. 1977 *YES ; English for children.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Mott, Barbara. 1981. A miscue analysis of German speakers reading in German and English. In *Learning to read in different languages.* Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 54-68 Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Murphy, Barbara. 1980. Second language reading And. testing in bilingual` education. *TESOL Quarterly 14 (2):* 189-198.

Read, C. 1975. *Children's categorization of speech sounds.* Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Rigg, Pat. 1977. The miscue ESL project. In *On TESOL '77*, II. Douglas Brown, CarlosYorio, and Ruth Crymes (Eds.), 109-118. Washington,, D.C.: TESOL.

Rigg, Pat. 1981. Beginning to read in English, the LEA Way In *Reading English as a second language: moving from theory.* C. W. Twyford, William Dehl, and Karen Feathers (Eds.), 8.1-90. *Monographs in Teaching and, Learning 4.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University.

Robinett, Ralph, Paul Bell, and Pauline Rojas. 1970. *The Miami linguistic readers.* Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath Company.

Searfoss, Lyndon, Christine Smith, and Thomas Bean. 1981. An integrated language strategy for second. Language learners, *TESOL Quarterly* 15 (4): 383-392.

Staton, Jana. 1981. Literacy. as an interactive *process. The Linguistic Reporter* 24 (2): 1-5.

Staton, Jana. 1983. Dialogue journals: a new tool for teaching communication. *ERIC/CLL News Bulletin* 6 (2): 1-6.

Staton, Jana, Roger Shuy, and Joy Kreeft. 1982. *Analysis of dialogue journal writing as a communicative* event. Volumes I and II. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Steffensen, Margaret, Chitra Joag-dev, and Richard Anderson. 1979. A cross cultural perspective on reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly* 15 (10): 10-29.

Steffensen, Margaret, and Chitra Joag-dev. 1981. Cultural knowledge and reading: interference or facilitation. In *Reading English as a second language: moving from theory,* C. W. Twyford, William Diehl, and Karen Feathers (Eds.), 29-46. *Monographs in Teaching and Learning 4.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University.

Urzúa, Carole. 1981, *Using language purposefully.* Silver Spring, Maryland: Institute of Modern Languages.

Veatch, Jeanette. 1979. *Key words to reading: the language experience approach begins.* Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing.

Ventriglia, Linda. 1982. *Conversation of Miguel and Maria: how children learn a second language.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Prepared by Joy Kreeft Peyton   *April, 1987*

All teachers would like to have more time to communicate with their students, to learn about their backgrounds, interests and needs. The need to communicate is intensified with students learning English as a second language (ESL). At a minimum, they bring to school a different language and cultural background. They may also be non-literate in their native language, have had little or no schooling in their own countries, and possibly have suffered considerable trauma as they left their country to come to the United States. If they are new arrivals to the United States, they are adjusting to an entirely new way of life as they learn the language and begin to function in school. It is with these students that communication, on a one-to-one basis, is crucial-not only to help them adjust, but to help the teacher understand them and address their special needs.

Many teachers of such students—both in the mainstream and ESL classroom have found "dialogue journals," interactive writing on an individual basis, to be a crucial part of their teaching. Dialogue journals not only open a channel of communication not previously possible, but they also provide a context for language and writing development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, in interaction with a proficient English speaker, Because the interaction is written, it allows students to use reading and writing in purposeful ways and provides a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing that are done in school.

What Is A Dialogue Journal?

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly-daily, if possible, or at least two or three times a week-over a period of one semester or an entire school year. Students may write as much as they choose on any topic and the teacher writes back regularly to each student (each time they write, if possible) often responding to the student's topics, but also introducing new topics; making comments and offering observations and opinions requesting and giving clarification, asking questions and answering

student questions. The teacher's role is as a participant *with* the student in an ongoing, written conversation, rather than as an evaluator who corrects or comments on the writing.

The following examples, excerpted from the dialogue journal entries of two sixth graders from El Salvador and the. Philippines in a mainstream class of LEP students, illustrate the nature of the writing.

March 17

Claudia: *The new teacher or helper in our class is very good. I like her, don't you like her? Today she helped me and us a lot. But Tony didn't want help. Why doesn't Tony want us to help him?*

I will try & bring my lunch every day from now on because the turkey stew & other lunches put me sick. I hate them. When Jam very hungry have toy eat them but when I get to my house my stomach hurts & I am sick for 3 days. Can't the teachers protest or say something about the food that they give here?

What do you feed chickens here? We have a hen that layd an egg.

Teacher: The lunches are not that bad! I've eaten them sometimes. You are wise to bring your own lunch. That is usually what I do, too. You have such good food at home that nothing served here could taste so good!

Tony is embarrassed. He wants help, but he does not want anyone to know that he needs it. Offer to help him and if he says no then leave him alone. Chickens will eat scraps of bread, wheat, seeds, water and some insects.

March 18

Claudia: *but the hen has wat* it *looks like worms, do you know how to get the hen other stomach sickness or is it usual for her to be like that because she is laying eggs and she could even lay 30 eggs so I do not know if it is usual or if it is* a sickness *of her.*

oh poor hen she cooks & cooks when I say pretty hen in a low low voice & she looks like she is used to children because she is cook & cooking when I say pretty things. oh she's so nice.

Teacher: I've never heard of a hen having worms—but it is possible. Go to a pet shop or to a veterinarian and ask them. Who gave you the hen? Maybe they will know.

We say that a hen clucks. It is a pleasant little sound as though they are happy. The cackle when they lay an egg! That is usually loud! Does your hen cackle? I think hens like having people or other hens around, don't you?

<u>**April 7**</u>

    Ben: *I got a chance to look at all those weird bones. They're weird because I usually see them with their skin, bones, and hair and with their eyes or eyeballs. Where did you get all of those bones? Did you got them from the desserts? I feel sorry for the turtles or the animals that lived in the deserts and got run over by those cruel men and women. I like and loved tamed animals.*

    Teacher: Yes, I've collected the bones, and my children, as they've grown up, have found and brought me bones because they know I like to use them in teaching. Have you looked at the teeth? Some come to a sharp point and some are very flat with ridges on the top. All animals die- and if their bones are uneaten the sun and wind and rain clean and dry them out. So many of those animals may have died a natural death.

Through dialogue journals, students write about topics that are important to them as they occur in their lives, and explore them in the written genre that is appropriate. They are not constrained by teacher or curriculum-established topics or by a pre-set schedule of topics and genres that must be covered in sequence. Sometimes their concerns and interests are personal, as in Claudia's complaint about the food at school. Likewise, journal entries may relate to material covered in school, as in Ben's entry. At other times, activities and interests at home generate the opportunity for learning in the journal, as occurred through Claudia's discussion of her chickens. Students may write descriptions, explanations, narratives, complaints, or arguments with supporting details, as the topic and communicative purpose dictate. Entries may be as brief as a few sentences, or they may extend for several pages. Topics may be introduced briefly and dropped, or discussed and elaborated on by teacher and student together for several days.

Because the teacher is attempting above all to communicate with the student, his or her writing is roughly tuned to the student's language proficiency level. Just as they learn over time to adjust to each student's level of understanding in speech, teachers can easily become competent at varying their language in a dialogue journal to individual students to ensure comprehension (Kreeft, Shuy, Staton, Reed and Morroy, 1984). For example, in the exchange below from the dialogue journal of a student in the early stages of learning English, the teacher uses relatively simple syntax and words the student knows or has used in her entry. The same teacher's entry to Ben, above, is linguistically much more complex.

Laura: *Today I am so happy because yesterday my father sad he was going to b a new washengmashin [washing machine] then yesterday he came with a new car beg new car is a Honda and she has the radio. Leticia like to talk abowt me yesterda she sad every* thing *abowt my diat to the boy I danth like that*

Teacher: How nice! A new car! What color is it? Did you take a ride in the new car? I'm sure Leticia did not think when she told the boys about your diet! She is so thin she does not need to think about a diet so she does not understand how you feel. Tell her!

An, essential characteristic of dialogue journal writing is the lack of overt error correction. The teacher has sufficient opportunities to correct errors on other assignments; thus, the dialogue journal is one place where students may write freely, without focusing on form. The teacher's response in the journal serves instead as a model of correct English usage in the context of the dialogue. The teacher can however take note of error patterns found in the journals and use them as the basis for later lessons in class. Sometimes the same structures that the student has attempted to use are modeled by the teacher and more details added, as in this example.

Michael: *today morning you said this is <u>my lovely friends</u> right? She told me about the book story name is "the lady first in the air." She tell me <u>this lady</u> was first in the air, and she is flying in the Pacific ocean, and she lose it <u>everybody find her but they can't find it. They looked in the ocean still not here.</u> Did she know everything book?*

Teacher: <u>My lovely friend,</u> Mrs. P reads a lot. She has read the book about <u>Amelia Earhart.</u> It is a good story and it is a true story. <u>They looked and looked but they never found her airplane or her.</u> [Emphasis added.]

This example very clearly demonstrates teacher modeling. In most cases, such direct modeling of particular structures and vocabulary is neither possible nor desirable, for the journals would become stilted and unnatural. More often, modeling takes the form of correct English usage by the teacher, stated roughly at the student's level of ability, and relate to something the student has written about such as in the interchange with Laura cited above.

What Are- The Benefits to Students and Teachers?

Many teachers, from early elementary grades through adult education use dialogue journals to extend contact time with their

students and to get to know them in a way that may not be possible otherwise. Through the medium of the journals, they may discuss the student's native culture and language, problems in adjusting to the new culture and to school rules and procedures, and personal and academic interests. This information not only builds strong personal ties, but also gives students individualized access to a competent, adult member of the new language and culture. Through this relationship the student has the opportunity to reflect on new experiences and emerging knowledge and to think through with an adult ideas, problems and important choices (Staton, 1984b).

There are also benefits related to the management of a classroom with students of varying language and ability levels. All students, no matter what their language proficiency level, can participate in the activity to some extent. In classes composed of students with a range of ability levels, or into which students newly-arrived from other countries are enrolled throughout the school year, dialogue journals afford the immediate opportunity of participation in an important class activity. Since students' dialogue journal entries give continual feedback about what they understand in class as well as their language progress, the teacher receives information that leads to individualized instruction for each student, beginning through advanced.

Another major benefit has been observed in the areas of language acquisition and writing development. Dialogue journal interactions provide optimal conditions for language acquisition, both oral and written (Kreeft, 1984a, 1986; Staton, 1984a). For example, they focus on meaning rather than on form, and on real topics and issues of interest to the learner. The teacher's written language serves as input that is modified to, but slightly beyond, the learner's proficiency level; thus, the teacher's entries provide reading texts that may be even more complex and advanced than the student's assigned texts (Staton, 1986), but which are comprehensible because they relate to what the student has written. Beyond the modeling of language form and structure, the teacher's writing also provides continual exposure to the thought, style and manner of expression of a proficient English writer. As students continue to write, and read the teachers' writing, they develop confidence in their own ability to express themselves in writing. Teachers using dialogue journals report that their students' writing becomes more fluent, interesting, and correct over time, and that writing ability developed in dialogue journals transfers to other in-class writing as well (Hayes and Bahruth, 1985; Hayes, Bahruth and Kessler, J986).

How Much Time Is Involved?

The single drawback of dialogue journals is the considerable teacher time required to read and respond to student entries. However, those teachers who have been successful with dialogue journals report that the time is well spent, for the knowledge they gain about students' interests and problems and the feedback they receive about the activities and lessons of the day serve as the basis for future planning. They have also found ways to make the process more manageable. For example, teachers with many classes and students (especially at the secondary level), sometimes choose to keep journals with only one or two classes, or have students write two or three times per week, rather than daily.

Can Dialogue Journals Be Used with All Students?

Yes. Dialogue journals were first used successfully with sixth grade students, both native and nonnative English speakers (Kreeft, et al., 1984; Staton, 1980; Stator, Shuy, Kreeft Peyton, and Reed, 1987). They are now being used with ESL students, from elementary grades through the university (Gutstein, Melohi, Harmatz, Kreeft and Batterman, 1983); with adult ESL, students who are non or semi-literate in their native languages (Hester, 1986); with migrant children and youths (Davis, 1983; Hayes and Bahruth ,1985.; Hayes et al., 1986); with hearing-impaired children (Bailes, Searls, Slobodzian and Staton 1986) and adults (Walworth 1985), and with mentally handicapped teenagers, and adults (Farley,' 1986; Kreeft Peyton and Steinberg, 1985).

With non-literate students, there should be no initial pressure to write. Students can begin by drawing pictures, with the teacher drawing pictures in reply and perhaps writing a few words underneath or labeling the pictures. The move to letters and words can be made when students feel ready. At beginning levels the interaction may be more valuable as a reading event, with more emphasis placed on reading the teachers entry than on writing one. In classes where native language literacy is the focus; it is possible to conduct the dialogue journal interaction in the students native language. The move to English can occur in line with course objectives or student readiness.

Dialogue journals need not be limited to language arts or ESL classes. In content classes—science, social studies, literature, and even math—they encourage reflection on and processing of concepts

presented in class and in readings (Atwell, 1984), and because they bridge the gap between spoken and written language, they can be a way to promote abilities needed for composition (Kreeft, 1984b; Shuy, 1987).

How Do You Get Started?

- Each student should have a bound and easily portable notebook, used only for this purpose. Paperbound composition books that are large enough to allow sufficient writing and small enough for the teacher to carry home after class are best. A student may fill several notebooks during a term.

- The writing must be done regularly, but the frequency can be flexible, depending on the number of students in a class, the length of the class, the teacher's schedule, and the needs of the teacher and students.

- Most teachers prefer to give their students time to write during the class session. This time may be scheduled at the beginning of a class as a warm-up, at the end as a wind-down, or before or after a break as a transition time. Likewise, the teacher may allow the students to choose a time for making journal entries. Ten or fifteen minutes is usually adequate to read the teacher's entry and write a new one. Teachers usually respond outside class time.

- In the beginning stages, it seems desirable to set a minimum amount that students must write each time (such as three sentences), but the amount of writing beyond that should be up to each student. Students should understand, however, that long, polished pieces are not required.

- When introducing the idea of dialogue journals, the teacher should inform students that they will be participating in a continuing, private, written conversation, that they may write on any topic, and that the teacher will write back each time without correcting errors. The mechanics of when they will write, when the journals will be turned in, when they will be returned, etc., should be explained. When students are unable to think of something to write, the teacher might suggest one or two possible topics. It is important that everyone has something to write and that they feel comfortable with it.

- It is important that the teacher enter into the journal interaction as a good conversationalist and an interesting writer, and expect students to do the same. The goal is to be responsive to student topics and ask questions about them at times, but also to introduce topics and write about oneself and one's own interests and concerns. Teacher entries that simply echo what the student wrote or that ask a lot of questions (typical "teacher talk") can stifle rather than promote interaction.

- Finally, the teacher should relax and enjoy the writing! For many teachers, reading and writing in dialogue journals is the best part of the day—a wonderful time to reflect on the past day's work, to find out about the people with whom they are spending the semester or year, and to think about where their work together is taking them.

Resources

Cumulative past issues of Dialogue, a newsletter about dialogue journal research and practice, are available from the National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037. Write for current ordering information.

The only teacher handbook available to date is It's Your Turn Now: A Handbook for Teachers of Deaf Students, by Cindy Bailes, Susan Searls, Jean Slobodzian and Dana Staton (1986). Write the Gallaudet Pre-College Outreach Program, Washington, DC 20002 for a copy.

References

Atwell, N. (1984). Writing and reading literature from the inside out. *Language Arts*, 61(3): 240-252.

Bailes, C., S. Searis, J. Slobodzian and J.Stator. (1986*). It's your turn now: a handbook for teacher of deaf students*. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University.

Davis, F. (1983). Why you call me emigrant?: dialogue journal writing with migrant youth. *Childhood Education*, November-December, 1983.

Earley, J. W. (1986) Analysis of written dialogue of educable mentally retarded writers. *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded* 21(3): 181-191.

Gutstein,. S., C. Meloni, C. Harmátz, J. Kreeft, and H. Batterrnan. (1983). *Personalizing language instruction through dialogue journals*. Paper presented at the Seventeenth TESOL International Convention. Toronto, March, 1983. [ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 256 155]

Hayes, C. W, and R. Bahruth. (1985) Querer es poder. In J. Hansen, T. Newkirk and D. Graves (eds.), *Breaking ground: teachers relate reading and writing in the elementary school*. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.

Hayes, C.W., R. Bahmt , and C. Kessler (1986): The dialogue journal and migrant education. *Dialogue* 3(3): 3-5.

Hester, J. (1986): Features of semi-literate writing: one student's development. *Dialogue* 3(3): 5-7.

Kreeft, J. (1984a). *Dialogue journals and the acquisition of grammatical morphology in English as a second language.* Ph.D. dissertation, Georgetown University.

Kreeft, J. (1986b). Dialogue writing: bridge from talk to essay writing. *Language Arts* 61(2): 141-150.

Kreeft, J., R.W. Shuy, J. Staton, L. Reed, and R. Morroy. (1984). *Dialogue writing: analysis of student-teacher interactive writing in the learning of English as a second language.* National Institute of Education (NIE-G-83-0030). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. [ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 252 097]

Kreeft Peyton, J. (1986). Literacy through written interaction. Passage: *A Journal for Refugee Education.* 2(1): 24-29.

Kreeft Peyton, J. and R. Steinberg. (1985). "I can write!" Written interaction of mentally handicapped students. *Dialogue* 2(4): 3-5.

Shuy, R. W. (1987). The oral language basis of dialogue journal writing. In J. Staton et al., *Dialogue journal communication: classroom, linguistic, social and cognitive views.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Staton, J. (1980). Writing and counseling: using a dialogue journal. *Language Arts* 57(5): 514-518.

Staton, J. (1984a). Dialogue journals as a means of enabling written language acquistion. In J. Kreeft et al., *Dialogue writing: analysis of student-teacher interactive writing in the learning of English as a second language.* National Institute of Education. NIE-G-83-0030. Washington, DC; Center for Applied Linguistics. [ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 252 097]

Staton, J. (1984b). Thinking together: the role of language interaction in children's reasoning. In C. Thaiss and C. Suhor (eds.), *Speaking and writing, K-12.* Champaign, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Staten, J. (1986). The teacher as a reading text. *Greater Washington Reading Council Journal.* 11: 3-4.

Staten, J., R.W. Shuy, J. Kreeft Peyton, and L. Reed. (1987). *Dialogue journal communication: classroom, linguistic, social and cognitive views.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Walworth, M. (1985). Dialogue journals in the teaching of reading. *Teaching English to the deaf and second language students* 3(2): 21-25.

YES, TALKING!: ORGANIZING THE CLASSROOM TO PROMOTE SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

D. Scott Enright and Mary Lou McCloskey
Georgia State University

Recent research into the processes of children's first and second language development has yielded a number of insights which have been combined to create the communicative language teaching model. This model should be useful to English as a second language (ESL) teachers, both in planning their own instruction and in advising the increasing numbers of regular classroom teachers with limited English-speaking (LES) students in their classes. This article summarizes the central assumptions of the communicative language teaching model and specifies the potential difficulties that regular classroom teachers may face in adopting it. It then presents seven criteria to be used in organizing communicative classrooms and describes specific applications of these criteria to decisions about organizing classroom interaction and the physical environment.

INTRODUCTION

Limited English-speaking children have long been a part of the educational scene in English-speaking countries around the world, but only in the last 15 to 20 years has a clear national awareness evolved in the United States regarding the specific learning needs of these students. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, U.S. legislative and judicial mandates dealing with the rights of public school LES students to equal education opportunity led to the creation of bilingual education programs specifically designed for LES students. Until very recently, the federal legislation authorizing and funding these programs has required some form of instruction in two languages (the students' native language and English). Money for bilingual education programs has gone primarily to programs and classrooms with concentrations of students from a single language background (e.g., Spanish/English programs in Texas, Vietnamese/English programs in New York and California). With some notable exceptions (e.g., the Culver City, California, Spanish immersion program and the Fairfax County, Virginia, ESL program), second language instruction in these programs has been organized as a curricular subcomponent of the larger dual-language instructional model and has mainly consisted of formal, small-group instruction in

the vocabulary and syntax of English (Alatis and Twaddell 1976, Donoghue and Kinkle 1979, Legarreta 1979).

In 1985, the demography, politics, and pedagogy of bilingual education in the United States are changing. Department of Education census projections (Oxford, Pol, Lopez, Stupp, Peng, and Gendell 1981) indicate that the number of LES students in the American population between the ages of 5 and 14 will continue to rise dramatically for at least the remainder of this century. No longer are LES students concentrated in a very few states; rather, linguistic minority households are now found in communities across the country, in places where such differences have never existed or have been able to be ignored in the past. This trend has resulted in a much wider and a much more diverse distribution of LES students in the public schools than ever before, with more and more school systems each. year facing the enrollment of LES students from several different language backgrounds in various grade levels and schools.

As the numbers of LES students and the schools receiving them are increasing in the United States, educational programs in general are being trimmed. The prevailing federal as well as local philosophy appears to be to "mainstream" (to place in the regular school program) students with "special needs", including LES students. With regard to bilingual education the 1984 federal legislation authorizing the funding of bilingual program was amended to give local school systems much wider discretion in their choice of permissible instructional techniques, including those not making use of the students' native languages. Under these, revised regulations programs placing ESL students in regular school classrooms with instructional aides or resource teachers available to assist the regular classroom teachers are eligible for federal bilingual education assistance.

Together, these developments present ever–increasing numbers of regular classroom teachers and other public school personnel, who have little special training and few programs and materials, with the challenge of meeting the educational needs of LES students. ESL teachers, bilingual educators, and other ESL professionals are thus presented with a double challenge: to maximize their own language instruction and also to make instructional recommendations, based on what is known about children's second-language acquisition to other educators who have been charged with meeting LES students' needs. This article has been written to assist ESL professionals in meeting this double challenge.

THE GOOD NEWS: THE COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING MODEL

Fortunately, the recent literature examining the processes of language development (L_1 and L_2) has yielded a number of new insights which have the potential for being transformed into instructional practices for assisting LES students in both the ESL and regular classroom. Beginning in the late 1960s, researchers studying the language development of both young L_1 learners (e.g., Snow 1972, Clark 1973, Shatz and Gelman 1973, Wells 1974, Cook-Gumperz and Gumperz 1976) and young L_2 learners (e.g., Fantini 1976, Fillmore 1976, Genishi 1976, Cummins 1.979) began to shift the primary focus of research from the syntactic dimensions of linguistic performance to the semantic and social/contextual dimensions of language comprehension and performance. As several writers (e.g., Berko–Gleason and Weintraub 1978 for L_1 development and Lindfors 1980 for L_2 development) have already noted this shift has resulted in a substantial reconceptualization of how children (and perhaps all language learners) approach the language learning task. Earlier theories of children's language development were either strongly nativist (i.e., children acquire language through mere exposure and through the activation of an innate "language acquisition device") or strongly behaviorist (i.e., children develop language by having their verbal behavior conditioned and shaped by parents and other adult teachers). Increasing evidence from recent multidimensional, qualitative studies suggests that children's language development is a strongly interactive process, one which relies not only on specific (and perhaps innate) cognitive and linguistic mechanisms, but also on the child's active participation in a linguistic environment attuned to the child's communicative needs.

This interactive, communicative view of language development is expressed in a number of different forms today, ranging from those (like the social-interactive theories of Snow 1977 and Wells 1981) which place slightly more emphasis on linguistic input and what children take from their linguistic environment and the communicative encounter to those (like the "creative construction" theory of Dulay and Burt 1974) which place slightly more emphasis on cognitive/linguistic mechanisms and on what children bring to the linguistic environment and the communicative encounter. This view of language development has in turn been accompanied by a substantial reconceptualization of the whole notion of linguistic competence and language proficiency, with "language proficiency" being replaced by the wider construct of "communicative competence" in both the theoretical and popular literature.

As Savignon (1983) and others have pointed out an interactive communicative (one learns to communicate by communicating) view of the language learning process has been around for centuries. Several instructional applications of the communicative view have been proposed for adult and child L_2 learners, for example, Curran's (1976) Counseling Learning, Lozanov's (1979) Suggestopedia, and the Natural Approach (Terrell 1982, Krashen and Terrell 1983). Discussions of the theoretical assumptions and the teaching practices of a communicative model of language instruction abound in the current professional literature, including the pages of this journal (e.g Taylor 1983, Nattinger 1984, Richards 1984). Without attempting to present a comprehensive review of those discussions or to resolve any ongoing theoretical and methodological controversies, this article summarizes the assumptions of the general communicative model of language development and language instruction that most directly apply to promoting L_2 development in elementary school classrooms. These assumptions then provide the theoretical framework for various practical recommendations.

The key assumptions of the communicative language teaching model for elementary classrooms are as follows:

1. Children learn language as a medium of communication rather than as curriculum subject with sets of isolated topics, facts, or skills; thus language is viewed as a verb (doing language, or communicating) rather than as a noun (knowledge of a language). Similarly, language proficiency is defined as speakers' successful accomplishment of their communicative intentions across a wide variety of social settings. This is often referred to as communicative competence.

2. "Successful" communication, as used above to define language proficiency; includes taking one's respondent(s) into account, both as sender and as a receiver of a message. Wells (1981) refers to this important dimension of language proficiency, or communicative competence, as "establishing intersubjectivity " As- he explains:

> Any act of linguistic communication involves the establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver and the context or situation. The sender intends that, as a result of his communication, the receiver should come to attend to the same situation as himself and construe it in the same way. For the communication to be successful, therefore, it is necessary (a) that the receiver should come to attend to the situation as intended by the sender; (b) that the sender should know that the receiver is so doing; and (c) that the receiver should know that the sender knows that this is the case. That is to say they need to establish *intersubjectivity* about the situation to which the communication refers (1981:47).

Wells also maintains that successful communication can involve written as well as oral collaboration, the writer being the sender and the reader being the receiver. Thus for many proponents of the communicative teaching model, becoming a successful communicator in the L_2 is synonymous with becoming "literate" in the L_2. These theorists also view the processes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing as best developed simultaneously (e.g., Goodman, Goodman, and Flores 1979, Searfoss, Smith, and Bean 1981, Hudelson 1984).

3. Children learn language (i.e., how to communicate successfully) through purposeful interaction with the L_2 environment. This purposeful interaction involves exposure to language as communication as well as opportunities to practice language as communication in a wide variety of contexts.

4. The language as communication (or input) that children are exposed to in the L_2 environment will be most useful to them in learning to be successful L_2 communicators if it is meaningful and interesting, or, as Urzúa (1985) might refer to these two qualities in combination, if it is "real". Real input is language as communication that a) is largely able to be understood by children—what Krashen and his colleagues call "comprehensible input" (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982, Krashen and Terrell 1983); b) is closely tied to objects and enterprises in the children's world that they may simultaneously and subsequently use to express their own meaning intentions—what Brown (1973) calls the "here and now"; c) is adjusted to take into account children's previous linguistic experience (i.e., what and how they can communicate in their native languages as well as what and how they are presently able to communicate in the L_2); and d) takes into account children's previous cognitive, social, and cultural experiences.

5. As the last point implies, children bring a variety of backgrounds and lived experiences to the L_2 encounter. These lead them to use different socioaffective as well as cognitive approaches to the L_2 development task. At present, none of these approaches may be deemed inherently superior to the rest, although each may have different implications for instruction.

6. Children's L_2 development is a holistic process; that is, children use all of their available resources—linguistic and nonlinguistic, internal (cognitive, affective) and external (social, environmental)—to become successful L_2 communicators.

7. Children's L_2 development is facilitated by a comfortable classroom atmosphere, that is, one which encourages and celebrates efforts at communicating, one which focuses on the meaning of utterances rather than on their form, and one which treats errors as a normal part of the L_2 acquisition process.

THE BAD NEWS: THE DIFFICULTY OF IMPLEMENTING THE COMMUNICATIVE MODEL

Calling communicative teaching a model implies that its assumptions encompass a comprehensive new method rather than only a new syllabus or adjustments in the old one (Yalden 1982). Unlike many teaching approaches or curriculum packages, the communicative teaching mode does not require large purchases of special textbooks and equipment or the setting aside of special blocks of class time to "teach" it to segregated groups of students. What it does often require is an extensive reconceptualization of the overall instructional process by the teacher who put the model into operation and by the parents, administrators, and others who support them. Thus, the appeal of the communicative teaching model is, diminished by the potential difficulty of its implementation and at the same time enhanced by the potential economy of its implementation.

The largest difficulty, facing teachers attempting to adopt a communicative framework for their overall instruction is that they must deliberately overturn an enduring stereotypical image of what a "good" U.S public school classroom should be, an image realized in most U.S schoolrooms today (Sirotnik 1983). Even those teachers who become totally convinced that the communicative teaching model is the right thing to use in their classrooms will probably find it necessary to alter other equally strong and well–developed teaching beliefs and teaching pattern emanating from the stereotype of the "good classroom". They will also have to explain the changes dictated by this "new" model to others.

"No Talking"

A recent U.S. television commercial illustrates the pervasiveness of this stereotype and its unwritten conventions as well as the various difficulties teachers face in attempting to alter it. The advertisement is for an electronic teaching–aid toy called "Speak 'n Math," and in this particular commercial the comedian/actor Bill Cosby is the company's spokesman.

Now, one would surmise that the company that introduced Speak 'n Math (and its counterpart "Speak 'n Spell") was quite thorough in designing and developing the toy. The toy's primary function appears to be based on two well-grounded, cognitive-developmental principles, which are also a part of the communicative teaching model: 1) that learning is interactive and 2) that concepts and language are best learned in direct combination. Thus, in the case of Speak 'n Math, as the child taps out the components of an arithmetic problem, they appear on a tiny screen accompanied by an electronic voice naming them (e.g., "three," "plus," "two," and so on), and the child's answer to the problem is also orally evaluated by the electronic voice ("Correct; very good" or "Incorrect; try again").

But now let us examine the scenario in which this communicative toy is presented. The commercial opens on Cosby sitting at what appears to be the rear of an elementary school classroom, with his back to the children and the teacher, who are all busily engaged in what children and teachers do. How is this classroom scene arranged? (Readers might wish to imagine the scene for themselves before proceeding.) The students are all sitting at their own private desks, and the desks are all arranged in rows facing what appears to be the front of the classroom. There, awaiting their undivided attention, is the teacher, positioned at a large blackboard. Who is the teacher? The teacher is a woman, advancing in years, with spectacles and white hair arranged in a bun, and with a pointer and chalk in her hands. What does the teacher do? She commands the continued attention of the students by writing bits of information on the blackboard and by calling on a succession of students with upraised hands who take turns responding to her questions and other solicitations.

In this setting, Cosby begins his message about the wonders of Speak 'n Math. In a voice barely above a conspiratorial whisper, he explains how the small machine operates and promises that it will make learning math facts easier and more fun. After the commercial cuts away to provide specific product information, the scene returns to Cosby delightedly trying out the Speak 'n Math toy, pushing the buttons and listening to the electronic voice. Temporarily forgetting his whereabouts, Cosby raises his voice excitedly to urge us to buy this "neat" toy and try it out! At that very moment the commercial ends with a shot of the stern visage of the teacher, poking Cosby's shoulder and firmly intoning (much to the children's merriment and to Cosby's consternation) the sacred injunction of the U.S. public school classroom: "No talking!"

"The Way It Is" and "The Way It Spozed to Be"

The extraordinary irony of the Speak 'n Math commercial, and the premise on which its humor depends, is that its scenario directly contradicts the essence of the product it champions. In principle, the toy and the classroom share the same goal: to educate. The "joke" is that the classroom is the one place where the use of this educational toy is clearly forbidden.

Why is this contradiction so seemingly plausible that it appears, in a message broadcast to millions of North American homes? Probably because the commercial is a reasonable depiction of life in schools (or at a minimum, in U.S. public schools) as it exists today "the way it is." In this respect, it is an embodiment of the continuing misalignment of theory (in this case, the product) and practice (in this case, the classroom scenario) that exists in most U.S. schools. Certainly it may be doubted that most teachers today wear their hair in a bun, but it is much harder to doubt the practices depicted in the commercial, particularly the furniture arrangement, materials, and organization of interaction it portrays. We shall deal with these classroom. components later.

Our fear is that this same commercial might also be a reasonable depiction of life in the school as most people today believe it ought to be: "the way it spozed to be" (Herndon 1965). In that respect it represents the considerable challenge facing those teachers who hope to use the principles bound up in the Speak 'n Math toy to organize their entire classroom. If our fear is well–grounded, deciding to adopt a communicative framework will not only require thinking in new ways about how classrooms are supposed to be, it will also mean working to develop understanding outside the classroom for why they are supposed to be that way. Although both enterprises are crucial and present their own difficulties, in our limited space we can only deal in a preliminary way with the former.

ORGANIZING THE COMMUNICATIVE CLASSROOM

It is becoming increasingly apparent that the organization off the social environment of the classroom is under the control of the teacher and has important effects on the language development of students (Cathcart, Strong, and Fillmore 1980, Fillmore 1982, Johnson 1983, Enright 1984, Wells and Wells 1984). This is evident when the classroom depicted in the Speak 'n Math commercial is contrasted with classrooms where the communicative teaching model is being implemented (called hereafter "communicative" classrooms).

Communicative classrooms look different from other classrooms—they are filled with pictures and posters and interesting junk (otherwise known as realia and concrete referents). Often, communicative classrooms smell different from other classrooms—if, for example, a cookie–baking experiment has succeeded or a sulfurous science experiment has failed. Above all, communicative classrooms sound different from other classrooms—at one time reverberating with a panoply of different voices and conversations, at another time echoing with the combination of many voices into a single, larger one.

The primary reason for this contrast between communicative and other classrooms is that teachers who have adopted a communicative framework for their overall instruction make continual, conscious use of the double learning potential of every event in the daily life of the classroom. In accepting the first assumption of the communicative teaching model that language is best learned as a medium of communication rather than as a subject, teachers in communicative classrooms also accept the notion that second language instruction may be extended to the overall processes of classroom interaction. Thus, in communicative classrooms, the cleaning up at the end of a messy art project is viewed as having much the same language–learning potential as the art project itself in that both events require some use of language and interaction to exchange information and to accomplish specific goals. Teachers in communicative classrooms then organize and conduct these two very different events (and all other classroom events) with an eye toward exploiting their language-learning potential in addition to accomplishing their original purposes. In short, these teachers make communication a central goal and operating principle in their classrooms, even if doing so means relegating certain other goals and principles (e.g., tidiness, quiet) to less central positions.

As the previous discussion suggests, the transformation of any given classroom into a communicative classroom involves making changes in the way the classroom is organized before the students arrive for class as well as making changes within classroom events as they are being conducted when students are present. The remainder of this article is devoted to a discussion of the former organizational changes, beginning with some organizational criteria.

Criteria for Organizing the Communicative Classroom

The key theoretical assumptions of the communicative language teaching model may be translated into seven criteria for organizing instruction across the curriculum. We will briefly outline these seven criteria and then examine their application to organizing classroom interaction and arranging materials and the physical environment.

Criterion 1: *Organize for collaboration*. If language is thought of as a medium of communication and is learned through purposeful interaction and, exposure to real input, then teachers must organize their classrooms to facilitate collaboration. Collaboration signifies two-way classroom experiences in which learning takes place through the participation of teachers and students together. In the more ubiquitous one-way classroom experience, learning takes place through teacher exposition. Collaboration also signifies students' learning and interacting with other students as well as with adult instructors. What may be "cheating" in the regular- classroom is "helping" and "working together" in the communicative classroom. Finally, organizing for collaboration means providing more opportunities for children to practice and achieve the intersubjectivity that is an integral part of successful communication. As just one illustration of this criterion rather than merely providing a full-group lecture on mammals and reptiles, teachers might have groups of students discuss and categorize set of animal photos and explain their groupings to the rest of the class.

Criterion 2: *Organize for purpose.* If children learn language through collaborating with others in purposeful activity, then teachers must organize classroom activities that have specific purposes. Activities in the communicative classroom get something done: They result in a play performance or a bean harvest or, the right-sized gerbil pen, in contrast to a report on the components of theater, a choral science reading, or dittoed sheet of measurement problems. None of the latter activities is in itself inappropriate for use in the communicative classroom, as long as is embedded in a larger unit or plan. Using this criterion, teachers must always plan tasks that have distinct purposes rather than creating extrinsic reasons for the completion of tasks, such as distant goals and rewards ("You'll need this for high school.") or fear of adult authority ("You'll do this because I say you will").

Criterion 3: *Organize for student interest.* If the experiences and the input provided to children are more useful when they are interesting then teachers must organize their classrooms with students' interests

in mind. In the communicative classroom, it is not enough to plan the school year around adults' goals and interests, although these certainly need not be sacrificed to incorporate students' interests into the curriculum. Teachers must also plan activities that engage students fully in their own learning. This criterion should be paired with Criterion 2 (organize for purpose); both the topics and the purpose teachers choose for their classroom activities should be ones of interest to their students. Using Criteria 1 and 2, it would seem that having pairs of young students measure the heights of various schoolroom objects would be better than having students complete measurement worksheets. Using Criteria 1, 2, and 3, it would seem that also having young students guess their own and a partner's height and then measure each other to see how close their guesses were would be even better.

Criterion _4:_ _Organize for previous experience._ If children apply diverse linguistic, social, and cultural experiences to the language learning enterprise, then teachers must organize their classrooms to facilitate students' use of these experiences. Instead of waiting for students to adapt themselves as best they can to the new linguistic and cultural environment, teachers in communicative classrooms must adjust their own communication patterns and environment to permit the "bridging" (Ventriglia 1982) of the two worlds. At a simple level, teachers mindful of this criterion would use maps of every child's home country during a unit on maps. At a more complex level, teachers applying this criterion during a reading–group session would adjust their turn–taking patterns and other elements of participation to accommodate those patterns that LES children are accustomed to following (e.g., Au and Jordan 1981). In this way, teachers could introduce new language and ways of communicating while introducing new content.

Criterion 5: _Organize for holism_. If children use all their available resources to learn language, then teachers must use integrated rather than segmented curricula and learning activities in their classrooms. Teachers in communicative classrooms speak of developing "literacy" and "communicative competence" rather than of teaching "reading," "writing," and "language arts." Targeted learning goals, whether the development of skills such as composition and measurement or the development of knowledge such as the forms of punctuation and the kinds of measuring devices, should be taught in combination with one another. Children in communicative classrooms might hear a fairy tale about measuring, see a teacher demonstration of measuring; talk about, try out, and record a measuring project; and

85

read about and do more measuring on their own—all as part of fulfilling a school-district objective concerning measurement in yards and meters.

Criterion 6: *Organize for support.* If children learn language in pleasant and comfortable atmosphere, then teachers must organize the classrooms to support children's development of communication. This means that teachers must clearly indicate the value they place on children's efforts to communicate. They must provide multiple opportunities for children to succeed in their communicative efforts and make sure that public (i.e., in front of the entire class) requests for communication are comfortably within their students' communicative repertoires. Teachers must also provide multiple opportunities for children to fail in their communicative efforts. These opportunities should be limited, however, to more private and functional situations, where failures, whether grammatical errors or socially inappropriate utterances, can be given prompt feedback as a natural and necessary part of the situation. It is one thing for LES children to feel the need to clarify their pronunciation because , their partner at the other end of a walkie-talkie cannot quite understand them; it is quite another for them to feel the need to clarify their pronunciation because the entire class is listening and giggling as they recite the poem of the day.

Criterion 7: *Organize for variety.* If having a second language is defined as being able to communicate successfully across a wide variety of common, social settings and if children learn language through exposure to and practice of communication in diverse settings, then teachers must organize their classrooms with a. variety of materials, purposes, topics, activities, and ways of interacting in mind. In communicative classrooms, this criterion is applied in combination with the other six: For example, teachers organize activities with a variety of forms of collaboration, they organize several activities with different purposes appealing to diverse student experiences; and they organize a range of familiar and novel experiences in order to utilize and augment their children's previous cultural experiences. The classroom illustrations in this section are but a small sample of the multitude of activities that might be found in the communicative classroom.

Applying the Seven Criteria to Organizing a Communicative Classroom

In applying the seven criteria to their own situations, teachers may find it helpful to begin by looking at their organization of

interaction across the regular curriculum. They can then proceed to making decisions about materials and the arrangement of the physical environment that will complement that organization. It is imperative that in doing this, teachers examine and adjust their decisions about what the general rules governing classroom interaction should be as well as decisions about what the classroom events operating under those rules should be (Enright 1984).

Classroom rules: Yes, talking! All teachers have a set of rules for structuring classroom interaction in general. These rules are usually determined before students enter the classroom and are then adjusted slightly during the first few weeks of the school year to take into account specific group characteristics. The rules are quickly internalized by students and become tacit regulators of interaction for both the teacher and the students for the rest of the year.

We have seen that in the classrooms represented by the Speak 'n Math commercial, the primary rule governing classroom interaction is "No talking." For teachers who wish to apply the seven criteria to their classroom rules, just the opposite primary rule must be adopted: "Yes, talking," or, in the terminology of the criteria, "Yes, collaboration." Teachers who wish to use the communicative teaching model must not only permit talking and other forms of collaborating in their classrooms; they must dynamically encourage all forms of collaboration in daily classroom life. By mandating collaboration as a classroom behavior, teachers will progress significantly toward making the regular classroom a useful place for LES children to learn language.

Other classroom rules may be similarly adapted to support the criteria for organizing the communicative classroom. Whereas the rules "Don't get out of your seat" and "Do your own work" violate the seven criteria, the rules "Help each other without bothering each other" and "Use everything you can to learn" support them. We are not suggesting here that individualized work and silent activities are inappropriate for the communicative classroom. "All talking" would be as problematic for LES students as "no talking." Nor are we suggesting that one perfect rule or set of rules exists for governing interaction across all classrooms. Teachers must develop rules that best suit themselves and their particular classroom situations. What we do suggest is that teachers should carefully examine their implicit, interactive expectations, as expressed in general classroom rules, and adjust them in light of the organizational criteria we have provided.

Classroom events. Classroom events are the segments of the interaction that teachers use to carry out their daily classroom agendas. These events are defined by their grouping (who is to participate), their tasks (what is to be done and learned), their participant structures (how students are to interact), their materials, their physical arrangement, and their locale. Most teachers have a specific array of events that they repeatedly use throughout the entire school year, and they give names to the events they use most often (e.g., seat work, reading group, free time, class meeting).

Once again, it appears that in U.S. classrooms of today (and, we suspect in classrooms everywhere), the events used to organize interaction do more to repress than facilitate the practice and development of communication. Sirotnik (1983) identifies "teacher explaining, lecturing, and reading aloud" as the most common activity in U.S. public school classrooms, closely followed by "working on written assignments" and "preparation for assignments/instructions/cleanup" (24). Several investigators (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman, and Smith 1966, Flanders 1970 Mehan 1979) have also identified the "lesson" as a predominant classroom activity or event. In general; a lesson consists of a teacher lecture followed by a series of turn-taking sequences involving teacher solicitations student replies, and teacher evaluations of those replies. This is the classroom event that was depicted in the Speak 'n Math commercial. All of these events require an extensive amount of passive student participation with uniformly small amounts of collaboration, individualization (including use of students' previous experiences), intrinsic purposes, use of the whole environment, maintenance of student interest, and support. By definition the use of only two or three events to organize interaction throughout an entire year violates the organizational criterion of variety.

Teachers adopting the communicative language teaching model can manipulate all the various features of classroom events– grouping, tasks participant structures, materials, and physical arrangement—to fulfill the seven organizational criteria of the communicative classroom. Let us illustrate this for just the first criterion, collaboration. Teachers can use the grouping attribute of the classroom event to have students occasionally develop full– and small–group reports, projects, and written assignments in place of individual activities. Placing five students, together to write, a play will provide opportunities for collaboration (and thus for language learning) that assigning an individual composition will not. Similarly, the teacher's joining an activity as one of the participants

will markedly change the communicative requisites and the tenor of the discourse. (For dramatic example of this, see Ventriglia's [1982] description of a teacher joining a tea party in progress.)

The task of a given instructional event can also be manipulated so the collaboration is unavoidable; we call this "must" language. Imagine the collaboration and the language use that might occur if LES children were privately taught how to make a holiday art project and were then guided as instructional leaders to complete the projects with small groups of classmates! In like manner, asking the whole class or small groups of students to reach a consensus regarding the main cause of World War II and then to write essays on this topic would create "must" language that having the class write individual essays on the same topic would not.

The participant structures of an event can be adapted to require varying forms of collaboration. Contrast a teacher supervising pairs of students who are asking each other sets of study guide questions with a teacher asking those questions to a whole class and then calling on student volunteers. Even the participant structures of routine procedural events can be varied to create different forms on interaction and collaboration; for example, the usual one-way, full-group dismissal ("It's 3:30, so class is dismissed!") could occasionally be altered to require that each student provide a politeness formula (May I be excused?) or a patterned response to the same relevant question (e.g., What book did you check out today? or What do you want to start tomorrow?). (For further discussions and illustrations of participant structures, see Erickson and Shultz 1981 and Enright 1984.)

The materials of an event can be used to create collaboration. Having only one pair of scissors for a group of four students working on a cut–and–paste activity creates "must" language all by itself.

Finally, the physical arrangement of an event can foster collaboration. Having children sit on the carpet and face the teacher, standing at a blackboard, creates a different set of communicative contingencies than having children sit in a circle with the teacher.

Once again, we are not implying that one single set of classroom events will magically meet all English-speaking and LES children's needs. Teachers must organize a set of events to meet their students' particular needs within the constraints of their particular curriculum. Indeed, it should be noted that curriculum objectives are not listed as one of the features of events that must be changed to make the classroom more communicative and useful to LES students. It is not

what students study but how they study it that must be re–evaluated and adjusted in organizing events for the communicative classroom. We have merely provided some organizational criteria to guide those evaluation and adjustment endeavors.

The physical environment. As we have suggested classrooms where the communicative language teaching model is being implemented will of necessity look different from other classrooms. Just as the classroom environment in the Speak 'n. Math commercial is organized to support specific instructional assumptions and forms of interaction, so too must the communicative classroom environment be organized to support the assumptions and desired forms of interaction of the communicative language teaching model. This may be accomplished by applying the seven organizational criteria to decisions about how the classroom should be arranged and what it should contain. Figures1 and 2 present diagrams of two communicative classrooms. Let us examine the differences between the communicative classroom environment and other classroom environments by contrasting these figures with the Speak n' Math commercial's classroom.
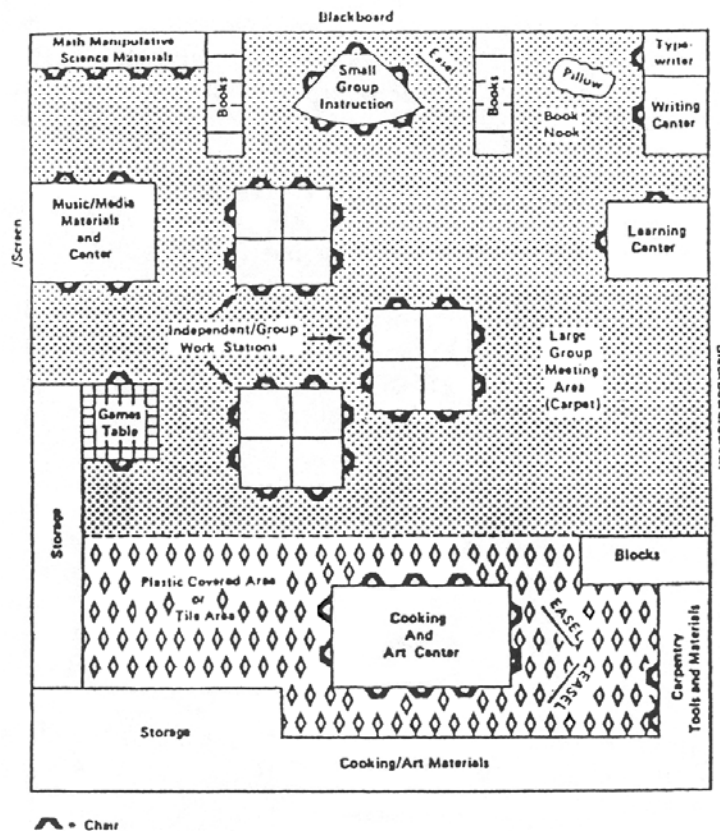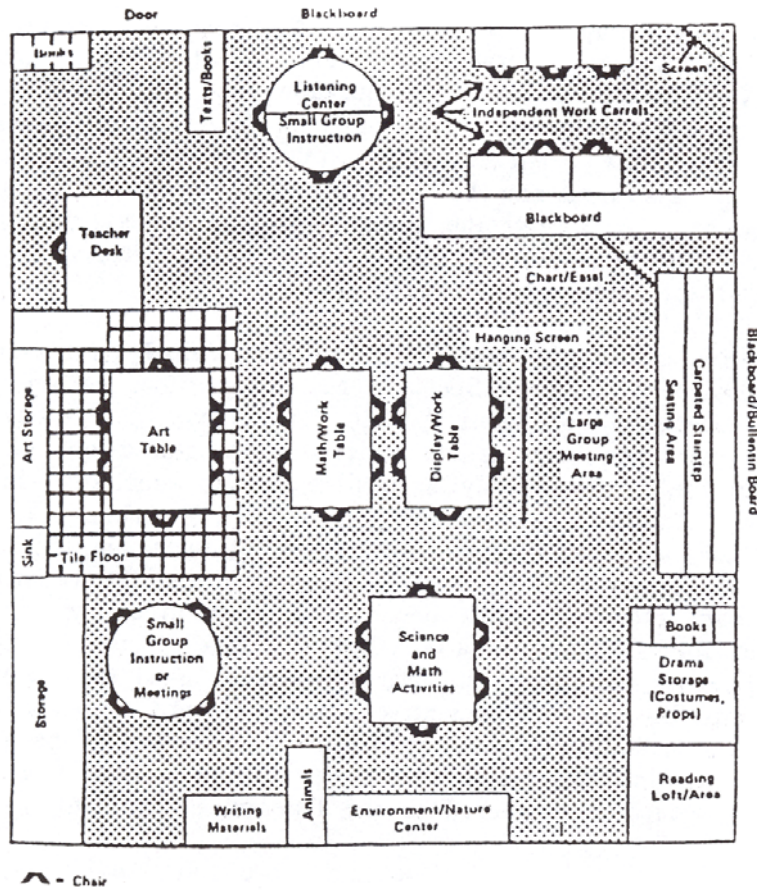
FIGURE 1

FIGURE 2

First, communicative classrooms are more *flexible* than other classrooms. In the Speak 'n Math classroom, desks are more or less permanently arranged in rows, and the teacher's desk and the blackboard are placed at the front of these rows. This arrangement facilitates the organization of the rules and events previously described by focusing students' attention away from each other and toward the teacher or their private seat work. In contrast, the communicative classroom is potentially many interactive environments in one. Space and furniture are arranged to create opportunities for a single event to occur or for many events to occur at the same time in an orderly manner with minimal distraction. In addition, the various areas of the classroom are organized so that their usual purposes and the forms of collaboration that are to be used in them are clear (Enight and Gomez in press). Most communicative classroom have signs around the room marking different areas, and teachers supply rules for how interaction may take place in these areas (e.g., in Figure 2 permissible drama/puppet

theater interaction is different from permissible reading-area interaction). The furniture and materials of communicative classrooms are also movable so that new events and interaction can take place. Lighter, smaller furniture is preferred over heavy, unwieldy, items. Also, much of the furniture and materials in communicative classroom's can be used by more than one person at the same time in order to permit the collaboration so necessary for language development. Thus in Figures 11 and 2, tables replace desks, or desks are moved together to create group work surfaces.

Communicative classrooms are also more functional environments than most other classrooms. In the Speak 'n Math classroom, the only materials present are textbooks, workbooks, pencils, and paper. Any other materials used in the classroom (such as art materials) are stored out of children's reach and are only immediately accessible to the teacher. In contrast communicative classroom environments provide easy access to materials that can be used to accomplish a wide variety of tasks and purposes. For example, in the classrooms depicted in Figures 1 and 2, art materials are given their own prominent area because of their diversity of uses: to create puppet shows (language arts), dioramas (social, studies), rocket and jet models (science and math), in addition to being used to create works of art. Most materials in communicative classrooms are stored openly, near where they are to be used (e. g., in Figure 1, supplies of paper, pencils pens, and binding materials would be in the writing area; in Figure 2, headphones would be anchored to the listening-center table).

In addition to being more flexible and more functional, communicative classrooms also tend to be more enticing places for students to be. In the Speak 'n Math classroom, where teacher exposition and student seat work prevail the walls tend to be unadorned, and materials are stored out the children's sight to keep them from. being "distracted" from the teacher and their work. Communicative classrooms are also organized to accommodate the use of teacher exposition (see the meeting areas in Figures 1 and 2), and student seat work (see the independent/group work stations in Figure 1 and the independent work carrels in Figure 2), but they are not organized exclusively for these kinds of events. As Figures 1 and 2 illustrate, many of the materials used in communicative classrooms are displayed and stored openly to encourage their use by children. Different kinds of enticing objects that encourage interactions are displayed and used in communicative classrooms, from games, cooking implements, and musical instruments (see Figure 1), to

filmstrips, blocks, and items from the natural environment (see Figure 2). The walls of communicative—classrooms covered with posters, displays of students' work, directions for learning centers, and other signs-are similarly used to entice students into collaborating and learning. In short, there is a lot of interesting stuff to talk about in communicative classrooms, and classroom rules and events direct the ways in which to talk about that stuff.

Finally, communicative classroom environments tend to be more student-owned than other classroom environments. As the previous discussion illustrates, teachers in communicative classrooms involve children in every way they can in the pursuit of the adult instructional agenda. Materials in communicative classrooms are chosen and arranged to be accessible to students as well as to teachers, to be used by students as well as teachers, and to be used to accomplish students' ideas and purposes as well as teachers'. Many of the materials and displays in communicative classrooms are student-created, in the same way that many of the events in communicative classrooms involve students' direct participation. If any single generalization can contrast the Speak 'n Math classroom with the communicative classroom, it is that the former is primarily organized with teachers (and their ease, comfort, interests, and goals) in mind and. the latter are organized with children (and their ease, comfort, interests, and goals) in mind.

CONCLUSION

In this article we have summarized some of the key assumptions of the communicative language teaching model and described some of the implications of those assumptions for organizing both the ESL and the regular classroom to assist the language development of LES children. Our work in this area is far from complete, and the discussion may have raised as many questions in readers' minds as it has answered. This may not necessarily be a bad state of affairs, however, if one accepts the notion that continual questioning and reflecting upon instruction are as beneficial to the teaching enterprise as adoption of any one particular model or another.

In organizing any classroom, communicative or otherwise, it is important for teachers to have a coherent set of assumptions about how teaching and learning proceed. In studying classrooms, it is equally important for researchers to take into consideration the specific implications of their discoveries for future educational practice. All too often in our specialized professional worlds, one or the other of these enterprises is neglected, to the detriment of

students. If we are to continue to strive to improve instruction, then efforts to relate research and practice, however tentative or incomplete, must be given the same value and careful consideration that are presently dedicated to the two enterprises separately. We will be satisfied if this article has contributed in a small way to these efforts.

THE AUTHORS

D. Scott Enright is Associate Professor of Early Childhood Education at Georgia State University and directs the BilinguallESL Teacher Training Project. He has conducted research and published articles on. Language use in elementary classroom and has taught bilingual elementary classes in New York, Colorado, and California.

Mary Lou McCloskey instructs and supervises Georgia State University Bilingual/ESL Teacher Training Project. She has taught at the elementary level and has conducted research on teacher training and on children's communication. She also develops curriculum materials for elementary ESL teachers and consults in schools on the implementation of a whole language curriculum.

REFERENCES

Alatis, James E., and Kristie Twaddel. 1976. *English* as *a second language in bilingual education. Washington,* D .C.: TESOL.

Au Kathryn Hu-Pei, and Cathie Jordan. 1981. Teaching reading to Hawaiian children: finding a culturally⁻ appropriate solution. In *Culture and the*

bilingual classroom studies in classroom ethnography Henry T. Trueba,

Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Bellack, Arno A., Herbert M. Kliebard, Ronald T. Hyman, and Frank L. Smith. 1966. *The language of the classroom.* New York: Teachers. College Press, Columbia University.

  Berko-Gleason, Jean, and Sandra Weintraub. 1978 Input language and the acquisition of communicative competence. In *Children s language,* Keith.

Nelson (Ed.), 171-222. New York: Gardner Press.

Brown, Roger   1973. *A first language.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard

University Press.

Cathcart, Ruth. W., Michael A. Strong, and. Lily Wong Fillmore 1980. The social and linguistic behavior of good language learners. In *On TESOL '79: the learner in focus,* Carlos A. Yorio, Kyle Perkins, and Jacquelyn Schachter (Eds.), 261-274. Washington D.C.: TESOL.

Clark, Eve V. 1973. What's in a word: on the child's acquisition of semantics in his first language. In *Cognitive development and the acquisition of language, T E* Moore (Ed.), 65–110. New York: Academic Press.

Cook-Gumperz, Jenny, and John J. Gumperz: 1976. Context in children's speech. *Papers on language and context 46*, Jenny Cook-Gumperz and John J. Gumperz (Eds.). Berkeley: University of California, Language, Behavior Research Laboratory.

Cummins, James. 1979. Linguistic interdependence and the education of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research* 49(2): 221-251.

Curran, Charles A. 1976. *Counseling-learning in second languages.* Apple River, Illinois: Apple River Press.

Donoghue, Mildred R., and John F. Kunkle. 1979. *Second languages in primary education.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Dulay, Heidi C., and Marina K. Burt. 1974. A new perspective on the creative construction process in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* 24(2): 253-278.

Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen. 1982. *Language two.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Enright, D. Scott. 1984. The organization of interaction in elementary classrooms. In *On TESOL '83: the question of control,* Jean Handscombe, Richard A. Orem, and Barry P. Taylor (Eds.), 23-38. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Enright, D. Scott, and Barbara Gomez. In press PROACT: six strategies for organizing peer interaction in elementary classrooms. *NABE Journal.*

Erickson, Frederick, and Jeffrey Shultz. 1981. When is a context? Some issues and methods in the analysis of social competence. In *Ethnography and language in educational settings*, Judith L. Green and Cynthia Wallat (Eds.), 147-163. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex.

Fantini, A.E. 1976. *Language* acquisition *of a bilingual child: a sociolinguistic perspective.* Brattleboro, Vermont: The Experiment Press.

Fillmore, Lily W. 1976. The second time around: cognitive and social strategies in second language acquisition. Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University.

Fillmore, Lily W. 1982 instructional language as linguistic input: second language learning classrooms. *In Communicating in the classroom,* Louise Cherry Wilkinson (Ed.), 283-296. New York: Academic Press.

Flanders, Ned A. 1970. *Analyzing teaching behavior.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Genishi, Celia S. 1976. Rules for code-switching in young Spanish-English speakers: an exploratory study of language socialization. Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Goodman, Kenneth, Yetta Goodman, and Barbara Flores. 1979. *Reading in the bilingual classroom: literacy and biliteracy.* Washington, D.C.: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Herndon, James. 1965. *The way it spozed to be.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Hudelson, Sarah. 1984. *Kan yu ret an rayt en Ingles:* children become literate in English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly* 18(2): 221-238.

Johnson, Donna M. 1983. Natural language learning by design: a classroom experiment in social interaction and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* 17(1): 55-68.

Krashen, Stephen D., and Tracy D. Terrell. 1983. *The natural approach: language acquisition in the classroom.* Hayward, California: The Alemany Press.

Legarreta, Dorothy. 1979. The effects of program models on language acquisition by Spanish speaking children. *TESOL Quarterly* 13(4):. 521-534. Lindfors, Judith W. 1980. *Children's language and learning.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Lozanov, Georgi. 1979. *Suggestology and outlines of suggestopedy.* New York: Gordon and Breach.

Mehan, Hugh. 1979. *Learning lessons.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Nattinger, James R. 1984. Communicative language teaching: a new metaphor. *TESOL Quarterly* 18(3): 391-407.

Oxford, Rebecca, Louis Pol, David Lopez, Paul Stupp, Samuel Perig, and Murray Gendell. 1981. *Projections of non-English language background and limited English proficient persons in the United States to the year 2000.* Rosslyn, Virginia: InterAmerica Researchi Associates.

Richards, Jack. 1984. - The secret life of methods. *TESOL Quarterly* 18(1): 7-23.

Savignan, Sandra J. 1981. *Communicative competence theory and classroom practice.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Searfoss, Lyndon W., Christine C. Smith and Thomas W. Bean. 1981. An integrated language strategy for second language learners. *TESOL Quarterly* 15(4): 383-389.

Shatz, Marilyn; and R. Gelman. 1973. The development of communication skills: modifications in the speech of young children as a function of listener. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development 35* (5, .Serial No. 152).

Sirotnik, Kenneth A. 1983. What you see is what you get: consistency, persistency, and mediocrity in classrooms. *Harvard Educational Review* 53(1): 16-31.

Snow, Catherine E. 1972. Mothers' speech to children learning language. *Child. Development* 43(2): 549-565.

Snow, Catherine E.1977. Mothers speech research from input to interaction. In *Talking to children: language input and acquisition,* Catherine Snow and Charles A. Ferguson (Eds.), 31-49. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, Barry P. 1983. Teaching ESL: incorporating a communicative, student-centered component. *TESOL Quarterly* 17(1): .69-88.

Terrell, Tracy. 1982. A natural approach. In *Innovative approaches to language teaching,* Robert Blair. (Ed.), 160-173: Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Urzúa, Carole. 1985. How do you evaluate your own elementary program? Look to kids. In *On TESOL '84,* Penny Larson, Elliot L. Judd, and Dorothy S. Messerschmitt (Eds.), 219-232. Washington D.C.: TESOL.

Ventriglia, Linda. 1982. *Conversations of Miguel and Maria: how children learn a second language.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Wells, C. Gordon. 1974. Learning to code experience through language. *Journal of Child Language* 1(1): 243-26.9.

Wells, C. Gordon. 1981. *Learning through interaction: the study of language development.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Cambridge University Press.

Wells, C. Gordon, and Jan Wells. 1984. Learning to talk and talking to learn. *Theory into Practice* 23(3): 190-197.

Yalden, Janice. 1982. Chicken or egg? Communicative methodology or communicative syllabus design. In *On TESOL '82: Pacific perspectives on language learning and teaching,* Mark A. Clarke and Jean Handscombe (Eds.), 235-242. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

COOPERATIVE LEARNING WITH LIMITED ENGLISH-PROFICIENT STUDENTS

Prepared by Evelyn Jacob and Beverly Mattson September 1987

Helping limited-English-proficient (LEP) students achieve academically and develop the English language skills necessary to successfully function in classrooms is a major educational concern. Theory and research indicate that cooperative learning methods may provide a way to achieve these dual goals for language minority students who have limited English proficiency.

What is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning involves small groups of two to six students in tasks that require cooperation and positive interdependence among individuals of each group. Students aid their peers in completing learning tasks and are rewarded for rendering that aid. Unlike the more traditional reward structures found in classrooms where students who work alone or in small groups are rewarded on an individual or a competitive basis, the cooperative reward structures used in cooperative learning place students "in a situation where the task-related efforts of any individual helps others to be rewarded" (Slavin, 1983, p. 4).

How Can Cooperative Learning Contribute To The Education Of LEP Students?

Although research on cooperative learning with LEP students is just beginning, the evidence suggests that cooperative learning methods can contribute in several important ways. First, they provide opportunities for face-to-face interaction among students around school tasks. Current research in second language acquisition suggests that such interactions are important for acquiring a language (Krashen, 1981). Second, the methods raise students' academic achievement levels (Slavin, 1983). Third, the methods improve intergroup relations and self-esteem (Slavin, 1983).

Cooperative learning methods can be used with all LEP students and in any type of program or class. The methods are helpful with students from kindergarten through college at all levels of proficiency, in ESL pullout classes, sheltered English classes, or mainstream classes. Subjects can include English as a second language or content areas such as math, science and social studies.

What Kinds Of Cooperative Learning Programs Are There?

While all cooperative learning methods apply the basic principle of cooperative task and/or cooperative reward structures, there are various kinds of cooperative learning methods. These differ in philosophy of education, nature of learning supported, kind of cooperation, student roles and communication, and teacher- roles (Kagan, 1985b). After a brief description of each major approach, we apply the method to a vocabulary lesson.

Peer Practice Group members drill and assist one another in learning predetermined content with the aim of bringing every student to his or her highest level of achievement. Examples of peer practice methods include Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) and Teams–Games Tournaments (TGT) (Slavin, 1986).

In a STAD vocabulary lesson a teacher first selects words for the students to learn and provides direct instruction on the words. Next, students work in their groups to reinforce and practice what the teacher has presented, often using study sheets prepared by the teacher. After the groups practice, each student takes an individual quiz. Results of the, quiz are used for individual grades and group scores. To calculate group scores, points are awarded based on differences between. each child's current score and previous performances; these points are then combined for a group score. Groups meeting predetermined criteria earn rewards and recognition.

Jigsaw. All groups are given the same task, for example, mastering a learning unit. Within groups each member is given primary responsibility for a unique part of the unit. Each group member then works in an "expert" group with members from other groups who have responsibility for the same content. After mastering the material in these expert groups, the students return to their "home" groups to present the material in which they are now expert. Students then take individual tests on the entire unit. Examples, are original Jigsaw (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978) and Jigsaw II (Slavin, 1986).

In an original Jigsaw vocabulary lesson, a teacher develops subsets of a word list derived from different narrative tests. Each group member is then given one text and set of words. Students then meet in their expert groups. to read the texts and learn the words. They look up definitions and put the words into new sentences. After

all students in the expert groups have learned the material, they return to their home groups to teach the others the words in their text. Each student then is tested on all the words.

Cooperative Projects. Students work to produce a group project, which they may have a hand in selecting. This approach emphasizes higher order skills such as analysis, evaluation, and synthesis. Usually, individuals within each group make a unique contribution to the group's efforts. In addition, groups frequently make unique contributions to the class as a whole without overt between-group competition. Examples are *Group Investigation* (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1979) and *Co-op Co-op* (Kagan, 1985a, 1985b).

In *Group Investigation* students help choose the words they investigate and learn. For example, after reading a story selected by the teacher, each student writes down a list of four words he or she wants to investigate. Each group compiles a composite list, removing redundant words. The whole class then uses these lists to create subgroups of words identified. Student groups select which subgroup of words they want to investigate. In addition to identifying definitions and parts of speech, student groups might examine synonyms and explore the subtle differences in meanings among them, or they might compare English words to similar words in their native languages. Each group decides what kind of final product to prepare. This might be writing a story using the words or constructing a bilingual dictionary. After each group has shared its product with the whole class, evaluation of products can be done by the teacher alone or jointly by teacher and students.

Learning Together. This is a framework for applying cooperative learning principles (D.W. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1975; D.W. Johnson, R. Johnson, Holubec, & Roy, 1984). It does not have a specific method of organization, but outlines decisions teachers need to make to apply cooperative learning. It emphasizes positive interdependence among students, individual accountability, and students' use of collaborative skills. Holubec (1984) applies *Learning Together* to a vocabulary lesson. The teacher assigns roles to each student in the groups. The roles are *starter* (gets group started promptly), *praiser* (encourages others), *checker* (makes sure everyone knows the words), and *mover* (writes for the group and keeps them on task) Students are given study sheets with the words. In groups, students provide parts of speech, write definitions, complete sentences with blanks, make up test sentences to exchange with other groups, and review the words. After

group work, students are tested individually, but each individual's final grade for the lesson is the average grade of their group. The teacher observes the groups working, acknowledging improvement in group skills and making suggestions for improvement.

Curriculum Packages. In addition to the methods discussed above, several curriculum packages are available. *Finding Out/Descubrimiento* is a science/math curriculum for bilingual Spanish–English students in Grades 2-3 (Cohen, DeAvila, & Intiti, 1981, cites in Xagan, 1986). While other packages can be used with LEP students, materials are provided only in English. *Team Assisted Individualization (TAI)* is a math program for Grades 2-7 (Slavin, 1985), while *Rotation Science Centers (RSC)* is for science in Grades 3 and upward (Kagan, 1985a). *Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)* is a reading/writing program for Grades 3–4 (Slavin, 1986.)

What Should Be Considered In Selecting Appropriate Cooperative Learning Methods?

Teachers need not select just one method; in fact, many use more than one approach with their students. The specific methods selected will depend significantly on a teacher's instructional goals—both for subject matter content and for communication experiences in English. Teachers may also take into account their objectives for development of collaborative skills; the ages, ethnicity, and levels of English proficiency of their students; the time allotted to a unit; and the daily schedule for an activity.

Subject matter goal. Peer practice methods appear best suited for learning basic skills and content with single right answers. *Jigsaw* methods are useful for mastering text, while *cooperative project approaches* are useful for analytic and creative thinking. *Learning Together* emphasizes the development of interpersonal and group skills. (See Kagan, 19.85a.)

Communication goals. In *peer practice* approaches, students assume roles of *tutor* and *tutee* with much of the interaction focused around drill and practice. In *Jigsaw* approaches, students may also assume roles of *expert consultant* and *team leader* in addition to *tutor* and *tutee.* Interactions may include expert presentations, discussion and analysis among experts, and tutoring. In *cooperative project approaches,* student roles are expanded further to include *investigator* and *resource gatherer.* Interactions also expand to include planning, decision making, critical analysis and synthesis, and creativity. (See Kagan, 1985b.)

How Can Teachers Implement Cooperative Learning Methods?

After selecting an appropriate method, teachers need to prepare the necessary materials and arrange the room to facilitate cooperative group work: This might involve developing study and quiz sheets for peer practice, or dividing up a text assignment into parts for *Jigsaw*. Rearranging the furniture may include placing tables and chairs in circles or clusters in discrete areas around the room.

Teachers need to divide the class into groups of two to six members, the specific size depending on the method chosen. Teachers generally use one of two methods: teacher-selected assignments or random assignment. In either case, groups should be heterogeneous with regard to ability, gender, native language, and English language proficiency.

Initially, teachers need to establish guidelines on how groups will function. Students should be told that each group member needs to assist other members of the group with understanding the material or completing the project. If students have not worked in cooperative groups before, teachers should conduct team-building activities before implementing cooperative learning.

After explaining the task and desired behaviors, teachers need to monitor and intervene in groups, both for accomplishment of academic tasks and for desired collaborative behavior. In some instances, teachers may need to assist students in resolving group difficulties.

After the groups have finished their work, they can be evaluated on task performance and on the way the groups functioned. Teachers may lead students in discussions regarding their perceptions of how well their group worked together.

Resources

A resource guide on cooperative learning for LEP students is available from Evelyn Jacob, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037. The guide lists practitioners and districts using cooperative learning with LEP students, associations for cooperative learning, training opportunities, and current, research projects. A good introduction to the use of cooperative learning methods with LEP students is Kagan's (1986) chapter.

References

Aronson, E., Blaney N., Stephan C., Sikes J., & Snapp M. (1978). *The jigsaw classroom.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Holubec, E.J. (1984). Vocabulary lesson. In R.T. Johnson & D.W. Johnson (Eds.), *Structuring cooperative learning: Lesson plans for teachers (pp. 155-165).* Minneapolis: Interaction, Books.

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson R. (1975) *Learning together and alone: Cooperation, competition,* and *individualization.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Johnson, D W., Johnson R., Holubec E.J., & Roy P. (1984). *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 241 516)

Kagan S. (1985a). *Cooperative Iearning resources for teachers.* Riverside, CA University of California, Riverside, Printing and Reprographics.

Kagan, S. (1985b). Dimensions of cooperative classroom structures. In R. Slavin; S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz–Lazarowitz, C. Webb, & R. Schmuck (Eds.) *Learning to cooperate, cooperating to learn* (pp. 67-96). New York: Plenurn. Kagan, S. (1986). Cooperative learning and sociocultural factors in schooling. In Bilingual Education Office, California State Department of Education (Ed.), *Beyond Language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students* (pp. 231-298). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Sharan S., & Hertz-Lazarowitz R. (1979). *A group-investigation method of cooperative learning in the classroom.* In S. Sharan, P. Hare, C.D. Webb, & R. Hertz-Lazarowitz (Eds.), Cooperation in education (pp. 14046). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University Press.

Slavin, R., & Kerwait, N.L. (1979). *An extended cooperative learning experience in elementary school.* (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 183 288).

Slavin, R. (1983). *Cooperative learning.* New York: Longman.

Slavin, R. (1985). Team-assisted individualization: Combining cooperative learning and individualized instruction in mathematics. In R. Slavin, S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, C. Webb, & R. Schmuck (Eds.), *Learning to cooperate, cooperating to learn* (pp. 177-209). New York: Plenum.

Slavin, R. *(1986). Using student team learning: The Johns Hopkins team learning project.* Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools, Johns Hopkins University.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT AND THE EDUCATION OF LIMITED-ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

Prepared by Carmen Simich-Dudgeon
December, 1986

Over the last two decades, there has been a growing body of research evidence suggesting that there are important benefits to be gained by elementary-age schoolchildren when their parents provide support, encouragement and direct instruction in the home, as well as maintain good communications with the school-activities which are known as "parent involvement." Such findings have led researchers and school personnel to apply parent involvement techniques at higher grade levels and with limited-English-proficient and non-English-proficient (LEP/NEP) students as well. The results to date have been encouraging.

What Activities Constitute Parent Involvement?

In general, parents may become involved by:
- providing a home environment that supports children's learning needs;
- volunteering to provide assistance in the school as teachers' aides, secretaries, or in other roles;
- becoming activists and decision-makers in organizations such as the local PTA/PTO, or community advocacy groups that advise local school boards and school districts;
- attending school-sponsored activities;
- maintaining open channels of communication with the teacher(s) and continually monitoring children's progress in 'school;
- tutoring the children at home, using specific learning activities designed by the teacher to reinforce work being done in school (Epstein, .1986).

While most of the activities listed above are undertaken on the initiative of parents, the last activity parent-as-tutor involvement is, or should be, initiated by the teacher. Schools with newly-established parent involvement programs have noted that parents are willing to become involved, but that they do not know how to help their children with academic tasks at home, and in general, are fearful of doing more harm than good. To counteract this, the teacher must maintain contact with the parents, giving specific assistance with materials and, tutoring techniques that will successfully reinforce the work being done in school (Simich, 1986; . Epstein, 1985a).

Parent involvement in the education of high school students, on the other hand, requires that the parent become co-learner, facilitator and collaborator, a means of support as the high school-age student develops independence and explores future educational options.

What Are Some Special Aspects of LEPINEP Parent Involvement?

For the growing numbers of limited- or non-English-proficient parents, parent involvement of any kind in the school process is a new cultural concept. Moreover, attempts by teachers and school officials to involve such parents in the education of their children is very often interpreted as a call for interference. The overwhelming majority of LEP/NEP parents believe that the school has not only the qualifications, but the responsibility to educate their children, and that any amount of parent "interference" is certain to be counter-productive. The most important task, then, in involving LEP/NEP parents in their children's education is to acculturate them to the meaning of parent, involvement in their new social environment.

While most LEP/NEP parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the typical parent involvement activities, they may be very successfully involved in parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can be taught to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. Additionally, bilingual community liaisons should be available to bridge language and cultural differences between home and school. An added advantage, of course, is that LEP/NEP parents improve their own general knowledge, language and survival skills as a result of their participation in the program.

What Evidence Is There to Support The Need for Parent Involvement?

Epstein (1985b) has concluded "the evidence is clear that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parent participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement, even after the students' ability and family socioeconomic status are taken into account." Moreover, there may be evidence to support the conclusion that the most useful variety of parent involvement is the contact that parents have with their children in the home when such contact is used to encourage and aid school achievement. Significant findings from several parent involvement programs show that:

Parent involvement in academic activities with children at home consistently and significantly improves parents' knowledge and expertise in helping their children, as well as their ability to effectively evaluate teachers' merits (Bennett, 1986);

- Direct parental involvement at home with children's school work has positive effects on such things as school attendance, classroom behavior, and parent-teacher relations (Gillum, 1977; Rich et al., 1979; Comer, 1980)

- Students who are part of parent involvement programs show higher reading achievement than children who are not. Hewison and Tizard (1980) found that "children encouraged to read to their parents, and to talk with their parents about their reading, had markedly higher reading gains than children who did not have this opportunity." Moreover, small group instruction during the school day by highly competent specialists did not produce gains comparable to those obtained in parental involvement programs. Results of a longitudinal study of 300 3rd and 5th grade students in Baltimore City show that from fall to spring, students whose teachers were leaders in the use of parent involvement made greater gains -in reading achievement than did students whose teachers were not recognized for encouraging parent involvement (Epstein, 1985b).

Do These Findings Apply to LEPINEP Students?

In the study conducted by Hewison and Tizard mentioned above, several of the participating parents were non-English-proficient and/or illiterate, a condition that neither prevented the parents from collaborating with the school, nor the children from showing marked improvement in reading ability.

A more recent study, the three-year Trinity-Arlington Teacher and Parent Training for School Success Project, has shown the most comprehensive findings, to date concerning parent involvement and limited-English proficiency. This project, the result of a collaboration between Trinity College in Washington, DC and the Arlington, VA Public Schools, was designed to facilitate the acquisition of English language skills by high school LEP students from four language backgrounds (Khmer, Lao, Spanish and Vietnamese) through the development of supportive relationships among the students, parents and school staff. The role of the parent as tutor was stressed and facilitated by community liaisons proficient in the native language of

the parents. Parents were shown how to collaborate, to be co-learners with their high school-age children in the completion of specially-designed home lessons from the Vocationally–Oriented Bilingual Curriculum (VOBC), a supplement to the ESL program which was in use at the implementation site.

Several locally-developed and nationally-validated measures of English proficiency were administered to the students. Additionally, both parents and students were administered a content test to provide evidence, of cultural knowledge gained as a result of the VOBC information exchanged between parent and student. The study showed positively that the VOBC home lessons reinforced ESL concepts and language skills taught to students during regular ESL classroom instruction. Significant gains were also recorded in the English language and survival skills of the parents and, as a result of their collaboration on the VOBC home lessons, parents and students alike learned a great deal about life in America and about the American school system.

In many LEP/NEP households parents worked two or three jobs and were often not available to work with their children on the VOBC home lessons. Likewise, many students were unaccompanied minors and/or heads of household, and did not have the luxury of parental involvement. Such cases highlighted another very important finding: in households where parents were not available to work with their children, interaction with guardians and siblings over the VOBC home lessons often provided the same positive reinforcement as when parents participated, possible evidence that home activities could be even more productive if the whole family were to be involved their completion (Simich, 1986).

How Can School Districts Initiate An LEP/NEP Parent Involvement Program?

To develop a parent–as–tutor collaborator or co-learner program, the collaboration of all school personnel is essential. Regular classroom teachers, ESL teachers, counselors and administrators should receive training in how to develop better home and school collaboration with LEP/NEP parents and how to involve them in the education of their children. An essential component of the parent involvement effort is the bilingual community liaison, a highly respected member of the parents language community who is knowledgeable about the American school system.

Information on the VOBC, Teacher's Guide to the VOBC, a training videotape to supplement the VOBC and other materials developed by the Trinity-Arlington Project may be obtained by writing the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1118 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037; (202) 467-0867 or (800) 321-NCBE.

References

Bennett, W.J. *(1986). First lessons: a report on elementary education in America.* Washington, DC: Department of Education.

Crespo, O.I. (comp.). (1984). *Parent involvement in the education of minority language children. A resource handbook.* Rosslyn, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 261 540)

Comer, J.P. (1980). *School Prose.* New York, NY: Free Press.

Epstein, J.L. (1986). Parent involvement: implications for limited-English proficient parents. In C. Simich-Dudgeon (ed). *Issues of parent involvement and literacy.* Washington, DC: Trinity College.

Epstein, J.L. *(1985b). Effects of teacher practices of parent involvement on change in student achievement in reading and math.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools.

Epstein, J.L. (1985a). Home and school connections in schools of the future: implications of research on parent involvement. *Peabody Journal of Education* (62): 18-41.

Gillum, R.M. (1977). *The effects of parent involvement on student achievement in three Michigan performance contracting programs.* Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting.

Hewison, J. and J. Tizard. (1980) Parental involvement and reading attainment. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (50): 209-215.

Rich, D., J. Van Dien and B. Mallox. (1979). Families as educators of their own children. In R. Brandt (ed.). *Partners: parents and schools.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Simich-Dudgeon, C. (1986). *Trinity-Arlington parent involvement project, Final Report.* Submitted to the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Affairs. Washington, DC: Department of Education.

A SHORT BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR MAINSTREAM TEACHERS WITH ESL STUDENTS

The NCTE/TESOL Liaison Committee, 1988

The following bibliography was developed by the Liaison Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The committee was formed to encourage the exchange of ideas among teachers of all levels who are concerned about the education of students for whom English is not the home language.

Allen, Virginia G. "Developing Contexts to Support Second Language Acquisition." *Language Arts,* 63 (1986): 61-66.

California State Dept. of Education. *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Minority Students.* Sacramento, CA: Bilingual Education Office. California State Dept. of Education, 1986.

Chamot, Ana Uhl, & Michael O'Malley. *A Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach: An ESL Content-based Curriculum.* Wheaton, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1986.

Cummins, Jim. "Empowering Minority Students: A Framework for Intervention." *Harvard Educational Review,* 56 (1986): 18-36.

Dialogue. Center for Applied Linguistics. 1118 22nd St. NW Washington, DC 20037. (Current rates: $6.00/year. Back issues $7/volume)

Edelsky, Carole. *Writing in a Bilingual Program.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex, 1986.

Enright, D. Scott, & Mary Lou McCloskey. *Integrating English: Developing English Language and Literacy in the Multilingual Classroom.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1988.

Enright, D. Scott, & Mary Lou McCloskey. "Yes, Talking! Organizing the Classroom to Promote Second Language Acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly,* 19 (1985): 431-453.

Freeman, David, Yvonne Freeman, & Roseanne Gonzalez "Success for LEP Students: The Sunnyside Sheltered English Program. *TESOL Quarterly* 21 (1987): 361-366.

Heath, Shirley Brice. "Literacy or Literate Skills? Considerations for: ESL/EFL Learners." In *On TESOL: A Brave New World for TESOL,* Penny Larson, Elliot Judd, and Dorothy Messerchmitt, (Eds.). Washington, DC TESOL, 1985.

Hudelson, Sarah. "Kan yu ret an rayt en ingles?" Children become Literate in English as a Second Language." *TESOL Quarterly,* 18 (1984): 221-238.

Issues in *English Language Development; Information Exchange;* 1986. Co sponsored by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education & Georgetown University Bilingual Educational Service Center.

Jagger, Angela, & M. Trika Smith-Burke. *Observing the Language Learner.* Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1985.

Johnson, Donna M., & Duane H. Roen (Eds.).: *Richness in Writing Empowering ESL Students.* NY: Longman, Inc., 1988.

Krashen, Stephen & Tracy Terrel. *The Natural Approach.* Oxford Pergamon Press, 1983.

Lindfors, Judith W. *Children's Language and Learning.* (2nd ed)Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1987.

Milk, Robert. "The Changing Role of ESL in Bilingual Education. *TESOL Quarterly,* 19 (1985): 657–670.

Q&.A and ERIC Digest. Washington, DC. ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages & Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics (Short 2-4 page articles on ESL by various authors).

Rigg, Pat, &⁻D. Scott Enright. *Children and ESL: Integrating Perspective.* Washington, DC: TESOL, 1986.

Spack, Ruth.. "Literature, Reading, Writing, and ESL: Bridging the Gaps. *TESOL Quarterly. 19* (1985): 5-14.

Urzúa, Carole. "A Language Learning Environment for All Children." *Language Arts,* 57 (1980): 38-44.

Ventriglia, Linda. *Conversations with Miguél and María.* Rowley, Mass: Addison-Wesley, 1982.

Wallace, Catherine. *Learning to Read in a .Multicultural Society: The Social Context of Second Language Literacy.* Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1986.

Wong-Fillmore, Lily. "Research Currents: Equity or Excellence?" *Language Arts,* 63 (1986): 474-481.

Wong-Fillmore, Lily, & Concepción Valadez. "Teaching Bilingual Learners." *In Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed). M. C. Whitrock (Ed.). NY: Macmillan, 1986.

NCTE
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, IL 61801

TESOL
1118 22nd St. NW, Suite 205
Washington, DC 20037

Reprinted with permission.

ALSO RECOMMENDED BY THE ARIZONA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION--BILINGUAL UNIT:

NABE (National Association for Bilingual Education)
Union Center Plaza
810 First Street, N.E., Third Floor
Washington, DC 20002-4250

Hudelson, Sarah. *Write on: Children Writing in ESL.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents, 1989.

Rigg, Pat, and Virginia G. Allen. *When They Don't All Speak English: Integrating the ESL Student into the Regular Classroom.* Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1989.