

Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit

for Primary Teachers



Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT)
Region IV Comprehensive Center at 
Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics

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**A resource guide for educators of
limited English proficient migrant students,
grades Pre-K - 6**

Third Edition, 1998

**Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT)
Region IV Comprehensive Center at AEL
Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics**

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The kit can be used by educators throughout the country for all limited English proficient (LEP) migrant children.

Additional copies can be obtained from

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Help! Kit

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Introduction to the Help! Kit

The first *Help! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit* was produced in 1989 by a task force of Virginia migrant educators who were getting an increasing number of requests from classroom teachers for information about and assistance with their limited English proficient (LEP) students. The *Help! Kit* has proved to be an excellent resource for teachers who are seeking ideas for recommended teaching strategies, lesson plans, and materials. This newly revised manual retains the original focus of providing helpful information to busy mainstream teachers who are seeking practical advice on how they can more effectively include, instruct, and nurture LEP students. It is important to emphasize that most of the strategies promoted here are recommended strategies for **all** students, not just LEP students.

The *Help! Kit* is designed to

- Provide mainstream teachers with teaching strategies and materials that benefit all students—particularly LEP students.
- Provide cultural information to help teachers better understand and appreciate language-minority students and their families.
- Introduce strategies to assist teachers with improving the reading and writing abilities of LEP students.

- Introduce math exercises and strategies that combine learning basic math skills with language development activities.
- Offer suggestions for how to encourage language minority parents to play an active role in their children's education.
- Propose alternative methods to monitor the progress of and evaluate LEP students, who often cannot be fairly measured with the same criteria as mainstream students.
- Provide a wealth of resources and references teachers can use to pursue more fully areas of interest covered in the *Help! Kit*.

The *Help! Kit* is divided into nine chapters. Resources related to the topics covered in a chapter can be found at the end of the chapter. The last chapter contains selected articles of interest for teachers who wish to pursue relevant and timely topics in a more in-depth way. As you make your way through the *Help! Kit*, keep reminding yourself that

“limited English proficient”
does **not** mean
“limited Thinking proficient”!

1

Migrant Students, Schools, and Culture



1. Cultural Differences

Traditions, family values, and individuals themselves vary greatly. Differences should not be interpreted as deficiencies nor cultures contrasted so as to imply that one is better than another. In trying to avoid culture-specific lists of behaviors—which can be interpreted as stereotyping—the following insights apply to students from many cultures. Students who have limited proficiency in English may or may not display the following behaviors:

- Some students are not accustomed to looking directly at an authority figure or an older person. They may feel more comfortable looking down or away. This is a sign of respect in some cultures.
- Many students who are limited in English refrain from asking for help and will not answer voluntarily. They may smile or nod, seeming to indicate that they understand what is being said, when in reality they do not. Make eye contact and smile, go over to the student's desk to offer individual coaching and questioning, and assign the student a peer tutor (selecting someone who really wants to take on that responsibility). If the tutor knows the student's native language, so much the better.
- Some students may be apprehensive about speaking out in a group, either because the teacher—who is seen as a respected “elder”—is present, or because they may not have a specifically meaningful thing to say. Silence may—in some students' cultures—be a sign of respect rather than a sign of an inability or a refusal to participate. Many students have experienced teacher-centered classrooms in their native countries and are not comfortable with being asked to take an active role.
- Due to cultural background, some students may not be accustomed to physical education activities and may resist participating at first.
- Cultures perceive personal space differently. Comfortably close in one culture may be perceived as an

invasion of space or an aggressive posture in another. Allow time and provide opportunities for adjustment to these differences—for both LEP students and other students in your classroom.

- Many LEP students prefer to work cooperatively on assigned tasks. Others may prefer to work individually. What may look like cheating to a teacher is actually a culturally acquired learning style—an attempt to “mimic,” see, or “model” what has to be done. This is an attempt to participate in the learning process, not do the wrong thing.
- Cultural groups have differing attitudes toward the importance of time and being on time. Students may arrive at school late on a consistent basis. Some students may be absent quite frequently due to activities that the family finds more important than school, e.g., babysitting younger children or working. This does not mean that they don't value education. It is simply an attempt to survive economically and to adapt to the mandatory educational system of the United States (not the case in many other countries). They also need time to adjust to the fact that there may be legal consequences for parents who don't send their children to school regularly (an entirely new expectation for them). Use an interpreter if necessary to inform parents of these expectations and educational policies.
- Misunderstandings due to communication problems or cultural differences are quite common. Practice patience and understanding as these students adjust to new situations. Use an interpreter to address abstract or complex behaviors or situations. Recognize that in the transitional second-language acquisition and acculturation period, unintentional “mistakes” will be made, especially as students first transfer what they know as acceptable behaviors from their own culture to the U.S. classroom or school.

2. Four Stages of Acculturation

The challenge of learning a new language and the culture that goes with it is one that all LEP students face. They require a period of adjustment to the new and baffling ways of saying and doing things that they encounter every day. Four successive stages that each student will pass through on the road to acculturation have been identified:

1. **Euphoria.** During this initial phase the students will experience a period of excitement over the newness of the surroundings.
2. **Culture Shock.** This term refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis. Culture shock is associated with the learner's feelings of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness. Persons undergoing culture shock view their new world with

resentment and alternate between being angry at others for not understanding them and being filled with self-pity.

3. **Anomie.** This is a stage of gradual—and at first tentative and vacillating—recovery. This stage is typified by what is called “culture stress”: some problems of acculturation are solved while others continue for some time. As individuals begin to accept the differences in thinking and feeling that surround them, they slowly become more empathic with other persons in the second culture. Anomie might be described as a feeling of homelessness, where one feels neither bound firmly to one's native culture nor fully adapted to the second culture.
4. **Assimilation or Adaptation .** This fourth stage represents near or full recovery as shown by acceptance of the new culture and self-confidence in the “new” person who has developed in this culture.

Excerpted from *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, H. Douglas Brown, 1994, Prentice Hall Regents, 1-800-223-1360.

3. Learning the Students' Names

The first order of business is to make sure that you know how to pronounce a student's name. The easiest way is to ask the student what his or her name is—listen carefully and repeat it until you've gotten it. If they prefer a nickname, that's fine, but it should be of their choosing. Getting the name right seems like a small thing, but

remember what it feels like to you when someone mispronounces or misspells your name. It's important that the teacher model the correct name for the other students, just as she should help the LEP student to learn how to pronounce names in English.



4. Characteristics of Migrant Students and Parents

Students

Migrant students are students who move with their families as many as two or three times each school year. Their parents are usually farm workers who are compelled to move frequently in order to harvest and/or process seasonal crops. A family who spends the winter in Florida picking oranges begins to move north in the spring to pick peaches in Georgia and then to New York in the fall to pick apples. Once the apples are picked and the cold weather begins, the migrant family heads back to Florida until the following spring, when the cycle begins again.

This means that migrant students—who are primarily of Mexican, Central American, or Puerto Rican origin—will move **through** your school without ever finishing a grade, and may or may not come back the following year after encounters with other schools. These students—whose English proficiency is often limited—face the challenge of adapting to a new school, new teachers, and new classmates many times each year. It is essential to find out what each student knows both from schooling in the home country and schooling in the United States. In this way, you can contribute in a meaningful way to maintaining the educational continuity that is vital for these students to succeed.

Parents

The parents of migrant students work very hard, make little money, and often live in substandard housing. They tend to come from rural areas of their native countries and often have a marginal level of education because they had to begin working at a young age. The vast majority of migrant parents speak Spanish, while some speak an indigenous language or Haitian Creole.

They know little about schooling and the requirements that your school system may have. Find out about these parents and communicate with them. You will probably need to ask a bilingual person to help you know what language is used in the home, and what the parents know about the schools. The bilingual person may be an ESL teacher or aide, a migrant education specialist, or a volunteer. With the help of a bilingual person, you can either send notes home or call in order to maintain contact with them. Remember, migrant parents want what's best for their children, and you should keep them informed and elicit their support. (See Chapter 7, “Fostering Home-School Partnerships,” for more in-depth information.)

5. Home Language

In the homes of most migrant children, the principal language is Spanish. On occasion, the family members communicate using an indigenous language (Mixteco, Kanjobal), although they often know Spanish as well. This is important because you cannot assume that a Mexican or Central American student who enters school will be fluent in Spanish. Find out the language(s) used in the home and the child's schooling history to determine how much Spanish the student knows.

In the migrant community, the parents—as a rule—have limited proficiency in English. Their literacy level in Spanish may also be quite limited. They often rely on their children who have learned English in U.S. schools to translate for them—thus placing their children in adult roles and situations very early. Generally speaking, the children who have lived in the United States the longest are the ones who use the most English, although their Spanish remains essential as a means to converse with their parents and older relatives.

“My family and I still do things together here; they are just different things from what we did in Mexico. When we first moved here, we all worked together. We worked in the cebollitas (green onion) fields. We worked as a family because it's faster. We helped each other. One person pulls the onion out of the ground, the other person shakes it, another cleans it, and then one of us ties them up together. I think doing things working together is important. It makes our family stronger. Sometimes we stay home and I help my father work on our car. We try to eat dinner together, and when my parents aren't working too late, we go to church together.

My parents don't think I should work in the fields when I get older. They tell me that I shouldn't lose a career like a lot of people in the fields. They've also told me that some people get sick because of the work they do in the fields. I think they tell me these things for my well-being, so that I'll study and finish high school.”

Victor Machuca—a migrant student—talks about his family. (*Voices from the Fields*, S. Beth Atkin, p. 50)

6. Do You Have Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students?

Most limited English proficient students speak another language in their homes. If you've ever studied a foreign language, you surely remember what a painstaking discovery process it is. Keep in mind that it generally takes from **5-10 years** for a second language learner to perform like a native speaker **academically**. Usually, the

younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch up." Be patient with yourself and your students. Maintain high yet realistic expectations, and remind yourself frequently that "limited English proficient" *does not* mean "limited Thinking proficient."

Here are some basic suggestions for working effectively with LEP students:

1. Be warm and welcoming. Speak clearly and simply; using gestures when possible.
2. Assign buddies and peer tutors to LEP student (bilingual ones when possible). Be sure to include the child in all class activities.
3. Encourage the student to share his/her language and culture with you and your class. Don't tell LEP children that they shouldn't use their native language; this negatively affects their sense of identity and they may become ashamed of their first language. We want them to grow up knowing and valuing two languages (at least!), not just English.
4. Focus attention on key vocabulary. Use pictures, charts, graphs, and stories to teach vocabulary in context.
5. Keep talking to the student. It is normal for him/her to experience a "silent period" that can last for days, weeks, or even months. If a child in the early stages of learning English is reluctant to speak in English and shows clear signs of anxiety, do not force production.
6. Arrange for the student to receive intensive help with English whenever possible.
7. Instead of using textbooks with LEP students, try making use of your school library. Almost any topic or subject area you're teaching is contained in a children's book that generally has more pictures and simplified English. Many textbooks are available in Spanish editions.
8. Use a grading system that shows progress, but does not unfairly compare your LEP student with his/her peers' performance. Standardized tests are usually not a valid measure of an LEP student's performance; these test scores should not be used for placement purposes.
9. Many LEP students have either repeated a grade or have been placed in lower grades in the erroneous belief that they will learn English more quickly. Keep these students at grade level, while modifying and adapting their assignments, and offer additional help with English as frequently as possible.

7. Will the LEP Student Understand My Classroom Rules and Follow Directions?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much as other students do. Indeed, the LEP students should learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be confusing, the LEP student should understand your expectations from the very beginning.

Displaying charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treats," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to fol-

low verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for example, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

While others are doing seat work, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, work on a computer, or illustrate a topic.

Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, add, subtract. Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When the student recognizes these words, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

8. Spanish - Español

Common Expressions

Hola	Hello
Por Favor	Please
Buenos Días	Good Morning
Muchas Gracias	Many thanks
¿Cómo Estás?	How are you?
Bien	Good, fine
Me Llamo	My name is
¡Muy Bien!	Very good!
¿Cómo Te Llamas?	What's your name?
Adiós	Goodbye
¿Dónde Está?	Where is?
Hasta Mañana	See you tomorrow
¿Comprendes?	Do you understand?
Si, Comprendo	Yes, I understand
No, No Comprendo	No, I don't understand

Classroom Expressions

El Maestro, La Maestra	Teacher
El Papel	Paper
La Ventana	Window
La Puerta	Door
La Pluma	Pen
Las Tijeras	Scissors
El Autobús	Bus
El Lápiz	Pencil
La Pizarra	Chalkboard
La Bandera	Flag
La Silla	Chair
La Tiza	Chalk
La Regla	Ruler
La Mesa	Table
El Teléfono	Telephone
El Baño	Bathroom
Los Crayones	Crayons
El Agua	Water

Commands

Escucha	Listen	Es La Hora De	(It's time to:)
Mira	Look	Dormir	To sleep
Dame	Give me	Jugar	To play
Levántate	Get up	Trabajar	To work
Vamos Afuera	Let's go outside	Leer	To read
Siéntate	Sit down	Hablar	To speak
Silencio	Be quiet	Escribir	To write
Quita, Deja	Stop, quit it	Dibujar	To draw
		Comer	To eat

Colors

Rojo	red
Amarillo	yellow
Negro	black
Café	brown
Verde	green
Azul	blue
Blanco	white

Days of the Week

Lunes-Monday
Martes-Tuesday
Miércoles-Wednesday
Jueves-Thursday
Viernes-Friday
Sábado-Saturday
Domingo-Sunday

Months

Enero-January	Julio-July
Febrero-February	Agosto-August
Marzo-March	Septiembre-September
Abril-April	Octubre-October
Mayo-May	Noviembre-November
Junio-June	Diciembre-December

Numbers

1-Uno	10-Diez
2-Dos	11-Once
3-Tres	12-Doce
4-Cuatro	13-Trece
5-Cinco	14-Catorce
6-Seis	
7-Siete	
8-Ocho	
9-Nueve	

9. Identifying and Placing Limited English Proficient Students

Why should you identify limited English proficient students?

You should identify language minority migrant students who need ESL instruction, or those who will be reasonably expected to have difficulty in the regular classroom due to limited English proficiency, because failure to do so will jeopardize their future in school.

How can you assess English language proficiency?

There are several oral language proficiency tests that will help you determine if your students are non-English speaking, limited English speaking, or fluent English speaking. Valid and reliable assessment instruments are

1. BINL (Basic Inventory of Natural Language). Checkpoint Systems, 1558 N. Waterman, Suite C, San Bernardino, CA 92404
2. IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test. Ballard and Tighe, Inc., 580 Atlas St., Brea, CA 92621, 1-800-321-4332
3. LAS (Language Assessment Scales). CTB/McGraw Hill, Del Monte Research Park, 2500 Garden Road, Monterey, CA 93940, 1-800-538-9547

What else should you know about the student?

Important factors in gauging the student's ability are age, previous education in native country, previous education in the United States, and proficiency in the home language.

What should you consider when placing a student?

Remember that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited Thinking proficient." A 10-year-old student may speak very little English, but he/she may also have the experience, interests, and maturity of a fourth grader. He/she may be even further ahead on some subjects than U.S. fourth graders. When placing students, you should consider the following:

Student factors

- The extent and continuity of previous education
- Language proficiency in English
- Language proficiency in home language
- Degree of home support for second language learning

Teacher factors

- Knowledge of the language acquisition process
- Cross-cultural skills
- Flexibility in teaching and modifying lessons and assessments
- Empathy for the LEP migrant student

How do you determine appropriate placement for LEP students?

You will need a wide variety of information to make an informed decision (see p. 10). Generally, physical education, art, music, science, and math teachers model, act out, gesture, show diagrams, do experiments, or ask other students to show what is expected of the class. These subjects are good for LEP students to take with peers. For reading, writing, or social studies, you might consider using bilingual aides, a sheltered class, a pull-out class, or in a combined grade level—say 3,4, and 5—plac-

ing students at a lower level. These are the most “language-laden” classes, and are apt to place a burden on students until they can gain more proficiency in English.

Student/Home Language Survey

Most often when a student arrives in school a student or home language survey is completed to determine if the child speaks another language in the home. Attached are two such surveys, one in English, and one in Spanish.



Student Language Survey

Student's Name _____ Date _____

School _____ Grade _____

Teacher _____

Circle the best answer to each question.

1. Was the first language you learned English? Yes No
2. Can you speak a language other than English?
If yes, what language? Yes No
3. Which language do you use most often when you speak
to your friends? Other English
(Specify: _____)
4. Which language do you use most often when you
speak to your parents? Other English
(Specify: _____)

Adapted from *The Identification and Assessment of Language Minority Students: a Handbook for Educators*, Hamayan et al., 1985. Illinois Resource Center, Arlington Heights, Illinois.

Encuesta Del Idioma

Nombre del/de la estudiante _____ Fecha _____

Escuela _____ Grado _____

Maestro/a _____

Indica la mejor respuesta para cada pregunta.

1. ¿Fue español el primer idioma que aprendiste?

Sí No

2. ¿Puedes hablar otros idiomas aparte del inglés y español?

Sí No

Si respondiste que sí, ¿cuáles otros idiomas puedes hablar?

3. ¿Cuál (es) idioma(s) usas cuando hablas con tus amigos?

Español Inglés Otro _____

4. ¿Cuál (es) idioma(s) usas cuando hablas con tus padres o familiares?

Español Inglés Otro _____

Adapted from *The Identification and Assessment of Language Minority Students: a Handbook for Educators*, Hamayan et al., 1985. Illinois Resource Center, Arlington Heights, Illinois.

Language Minority Student Information Sheet

Student's Name _____ Age _____ Grade _____
School _____ Academic Year _____

1. What language do you speak most often at home?
2. What language do you speak most often with your friends?
3. How many years have you been in school in your native country?
in the United States?
4. What grade were you in at the last school you attended?
What is the name of the last school you attended?
5. Can you read in Spanish (your native language)?
Is your reading ability: Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Very Limited _____?
6. Can you write in Spanish (your native language)?
Is your writing ability: Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Very Limited _____?
7. Do you think that you need help learning English? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, in which areas do you need the most help?
Speaking
Listening
Reading
Writing

Comments _____

10. Grade Retention: A Common Yet Misguided Option

Description of the Problem

Statistics show that very few migrant students graduate at age 20, and almost none have graduated at older than 20 (Bigler and Ludovina, 1982). Therefore, **any child who is placed two or more years below his/her grade level is virtually doomed to drop out** of school. Even one year, with the added possibility of losing another year because of migrancy or credit loss in the upper grades, may doom a child to dropping out.

Why Are Migrants Older Than Their Peers?

- They look young (are small).
- The family members do not speak English and do not protest the placement.
- The school personnel think that they will learn English faster in lower grades.
- The students have never or rarely attended school.
- The students or parents inform the school of the last grade attended (which may not be equivalent, or may reflect a year of traveling, or sporadic schooling).
- The schools group migrant children with other migrant or LEP students.

The Story of Maria Gutierrez

Sooner or later you will face the dilemma of where to place and whether to promote your migrant students. See if you recognize Maria:

Maria Gutierrez is being retained in kindergarten this year. Last year Maria was very shy and did not talk much throughout the year. Maria had never used scissors (her mother did not allow it) and she did not know all of her alphabet when she entered kindergarten for the first time. At home Maria is a very normal child and in fact she often helps care for her three-year-old brother. With other children, Maria appears to be as alert and active as her playmates and she often emerges as a leader. School tests show her to be of average intelligence, despite the possibility that the testing may be skewed by the fact that Maria is bilingual.

When the teacher informed Maria's parents that she was to be retained, she did not say it was due to English language development or inability to perform

the required kindergarten tasks (often uncited reasons for retention); she merely said that Maria was immature, and small for her age and that she felt she would benefit from another year in kindergarten.

What Maria's teacher did not say and probably does not know is that

1. Maria's chances of dropping out of school have just been increased by 50% because she is retained.
2. No research data indicate that retaining Maria will in any way improve her educational performance.
3. The psychological and emotional impacts of retention are real. Estimates indicate that, next to parent divorce, this is the most traumatic of common events that could happen to Maria.

11. When are Special Education Referrals Appropriate?

Specialists assume that approximately the same proportion of very bright individuals, cognitively limited individuals, language disabled individuals, etc. will be found in any population. Statistically, about 12% of the language minority population in the United States may require special education. In some school districts, language minority students are over-represented in special education, while in other districts there may be an under-representation of handicapped language minority students.

The Prereferral Process

This is a screening and intervention process that involves identifying problems experienced by students in the regular classroom, identifying the source of the problems (student, teacher, curriculum, environment, etc.) and taking steps to resolve the problems in the context of the regular classroom. This process seeks to eliminate unnecessary and inappropriate referrals to special education.

Assessment and Referral

A referral to special education should happen only after all other avenues have been explored, and you con-

clude that the child's needs cannot be met by the regular education program. Confirmation of a handicap and identification of its specific nature are provided by a comprehensive assessment of the student. **All referrals of LEP students to special education should include the results of tests in the child's native language and in English**, and all records and reports on which the referral is based. **Verify the appropriateness of the school's curriculum, the qualifications and experience of the teacher, and the appropriateness of instruction provided to the student (e.g., continuity, proper sequencing, the teaching of prerequisite skills)**. Document the child's problems across settings and personnel and provide evidence that the child's difficulties are present in both languages, and that he or she has not made satisfactory progress despite having received competent instruction. However, because many of these children are losing or have not fully developed first language skills, it may be difficult to ascertain that the learning difficulty exists across languages. The ESL teacher, bilingual education teacher, and classroom teacher who work regularly with the LEP student will have the most important school-based observations and input in the assessment process. This, coupled with input from parents and guardians, becomes the foundation for the assessment process.

Excerpted from *Referring Language Minority Students to Special Education*, ERIC Digest, P. Olson, 1991, Center for Applied Linguistics.

12. What Specific Activities Will Prepare the LEP Student for School?

Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of

policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

In Class

- Class rules: Rewards, enforcement, consequences.
- School conduct.
- Morning rituals: Greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework.
- Library conduct: check out, book return.
- Field trips/permission slips.
- Gym: Participation, showers, attire.
- School photographs: Dress, payment.
- Substitutes.
- Seat work/group work.
- Tests, quizzes, reports.
- Grades, report cards, incompletes.
- Treats.
- Free time.
- Teams: Choosing, assigning.
- Standardized testing and exemptions.
- Exams.
- Special projects: Extra credit, double grades.

In School

- Breaks: Bathroom, water, recess.
- Cafeteria routines: Line formation, lunch passes.
- Fire drills.
- Assemblies: Pep rallies, awards, awards ceremonies.
- Contests and competitions.
- Holidays: Festivities, traditions.
- Fund raisers.
- Routine health exams, screening.
- Suspension.
- Guidance counseling.
- Disciplinary methods: In-school suspension.
- Free lunch: Income verification.
- Family life education: Sex education.

After School

- Parent conferences and attendance.
- PTA meetings.
- Proms, dances, special events.
- Field days.
- Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
- Detention.
- Summer school.

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2

Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the Mainstream Classroom



In most school districts, English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual staff and resources are limited. LEP students may be “pulled out” of the mainstream classroom for brief periods of time to receive intensive English instruction, but in

reality, the students spend most of the school day in their regular classrooms. Classroom teachers can use many strategies and resources to help LEP students feel welcome and to promote their linguistic and cognitive development.

1. Practices of Successful Teachers of Language Minority Students

1. Rather than relying solely on language to facilitate learning, these teachers use a variety of activities and learning opportunities for students (e.g., visuals, physical activity, and nonverbal cues).
2. When they do use language, they do not rely solely on English, but allow and encourage students to use their native languages as needed to facilitate learning and participation.
3. When these teachers use English, they modify its complexity and content so that students understand and can participate in classroom activities.
4. They also do not rely only on themselves as the sources of knowledge and learning, but encourage interaction among students; bring in older and younger, more proficient and less proficient students from other classes; and involve paraprofessionals and community members in classroom activities.
5. They encourage authentic and meaningful communication and interaction about course content among students, and between themselves and students.
6. They hold high expectations of their students, challenging them to tackle complex concepts and requiring them to think critically, rather than eliciting a preponderance of one-word responses to factual questions that do not require higher order thinking.
7. In content classes, they focus instruction squarely on the content itself, not on English. At the same time, they build English language development into their instruction in all classes, including content classes.
8. They recognize student success overtly and frequently.



2. The Role of Culture in the Classroom

Culture in the classroom should be much more than holidays and food. Using cross-cultural strategies in the classroom helps students from diverse backgrounds begin to understand and value each other's cultural perspectives. This makes them more comfortable in the school environment and thus able to learn more effectively.

Why is it important to be aware of the cultural differences among your students and to incorporate cross-cultural strategies into your classroom? Consider this example of a problem caused by a lack of awareness of cultural differences.

An ESL teacher whose students recently arrived from the Middle East came to a lesson in the textbook on the use of “need” and “want.” The lesson was based on vending machines—“I want a ham sandwich, so I need 3 quarters and a dime.” None of the students, however, had ever seen a vending machine or had ever eaten ham, and could not imagine such a food that came out of a machine. The lesson was meaningless for them.

Storytelling

Ask students to tell a story—perhaps a folktale—that is popular in their culture. Allow them to tell it first in their native language, then in English. You might work with them on the English version before they deliver it to the class. Students will develop confidence when allowed to try out a story in their more comfortable language. Their classmates will enjoy figuring out the story and may want to discuss how aspects of the story are similar to those of ones they know.

Show and tell

Ask students to bring in something representative of their culture or country (e.g., a map or flag, clothing, a craft, a holiday decoration). They can tell the class how the object is used, where it came from, how it was made, or why it is important in their culture.

Culture in content areas

Culture is content for every day, not just special days. Use every opportunity you can find to communicate your multicultural perspective. In social studies, supplement your text with materials that show the history and contributions of many peoples. In math and science, take into account other countries' notation systems. Incorporate arts and craft styles from many countries into your fine arts program. Read literature from and about your students' countries of birth.

Misunderstandings

Ask students to think of incidents that involved some kind of cultural misunderstanding and to share them with the class. Did the misunderstanding involve words, body language, rules of time or space, levels of formality, or stereotypes about a culture? Try to use the incidents to help all students see the importance of being flexible in encounters with people from another culture.

Tips for using language minority students as resources in your classroom

Make use of your students' language and cultural knowledge!

Create a supportive environment in the classroom so that the language minority students feel they have a lot to offer and feel comfortable sharing with classmates.

Consider anthropological topics that move beyond geography and general history of students' countries (although these have a role, too). Focus at times on human behavior: family structures, housing arrangements, fuel/food gathering, etc.

Have students bring in traditional handicrafts, artwork, and other locally produced products from their countries.

Incorporate music and drama from the students' countries into your lessons.

Ask students to compare and contrast aspects of American culture with aspects of their own culture.

Since many of your language minority students may have little experience and/or knowledge about their native countries, give them the opportunity to include their parents and relatives as resources for the classroom.

Invite parents to talk about such topics as language, culture, family structure, customs, or agricultural products in their country. Encourage parents to get students involved by bringing in handmade materials, demonstrating food-making processes, or teaching a native dance.

Assign students to conduct oral interviews of family members or community members from their ethnic group to get first-person accounts of, for example, what it was like in Vietnam during the Vietnam War or what life

is like for a rug weaver in northern Afghanistan. You can follow the *Foxfire* interviewing model.

Encourage native speakers of other languages to serve as language resources for you and the other students. Your students' multilingual skills can be a real asset to the class. For example, when teaching a unit about agricultural crops, find out how to say *corn*, *wheat*, *rice*, and *coffee* in the languages of your students. Are any of the words similar to English? You can use your students as "native informants" if you want to teach an "introduction to language" unit where students are introduced to all the languages spoken in the class.

Have students work on research reports in heterogeneous, cooperative groups so that language minority students serve as resources in each group.



3. Helping LEP Students Adjust to the Classroom

LEP students are faced with the challenge of learning English as well as the school culture. Teachers can help them adjust to their new language and environment in the following ways:

Announce the lesson's objectives and activities

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

Write legibly

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

Develop and maintain routines

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

List and review instructions step by step

Before students begin an activity, teachers should familiarize them with the entire list of instructions. Then, teachers should have students work on each step individually before moving on to the next step. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

Present frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson

Teachers should (1) try to use visual reviews with lists and charts, (2) paraphrase the salient points where appropriate, and (3) have students provide oral summaries.

Present information in varied ways

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

Excerpted from *Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques*, Deborah Short, 1991, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

4. Recommended Classroom Strategies

Using a learner-centered approach to teaching provides LEP students with a greater opportunity to interact meaningfully with educational materials as they acquire English and learn subject matter.

Most of the following recommended strategies are

promoted as good teaching strategies for all students.

This is an important point because teachers don't usually have the time to prepare a separate lesson for their LEP students and/or to work with them regularly on an individual basis.

A. Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR activities greatly multiply the amount of language input that can be handled by beginning LEP students. Students become ready to talk sooner when they are under no pressure to do so. TPR activities tie comprehension with performance by eliciting whole-body responses. Students build self-confidence along with a wide-ranging passive vocabulary base as they "learn by doing."

TPR activities help the student adjust to school. Teachers can prepare students to understand the behavior required and the instructions they will hear in mainstream classrooms, in the halls, during fire drills, on trips, etc. Teachers can develop their own scripts that provide students with the vocabulary related to everyday situations such as watching TV, using a pay telephone, getting ready for school, etc.

Seven basic steps outline the strategy:

1. **Setting up.** The teacher sets up a situation in which students follow a set of commands using actions, generally with props, to act out a series of events—for example, shopping for groceries, taking the school bus, or preparing a sandwich.
2. **Demonstration.** The teacher demonstrates or has a student demonstrate the series of actions. Students

are expected to pay careful attention, but they do not talk or repeat the commands.

3. **Group live action.** The group acts out the series as the teacher gives commands. Usually this step is repeated several times so that students internalize the series thoroughly before they produce it.
4. **Written copy.** The series is put on chart paper or on the blackboard for students to read and copy.
5. **Oral repetition and questions.** After students have made a written copy, they repeat each line after the teacher, taking care with difficult words. They have ample opportunity to ask questions, and the teacher points out particular pronunciation features such as minimal pairs (soap/soup or cheap/sheep).
6. **Student demonstration.** Students are given the opportunity to play the roles of reader of the series and performer of the actions. The teacher checks comprehension and prompts when needed.
7. **Pairs.** Students work in groups of two or three, one telling or reading the series, and the other(s) listening and responding physically. During the group work time, the teacher can work individually with students.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Stand up.
Sit down.
Raise one hand.
Put your hand down.
Raise two hands.
Put your hands down.
Touch your nose.
Touch your ear, etc.

Second example:

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn around.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, touch the ground.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, read the news.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, shine your shoes.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, go upstairs.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say your prayers.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn out the light.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say goodnight.

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

First example:

Watching TV

1. It's time to watch your favorite show. Turn on the TV.
2. This is the wrong show. You hate this show. Make a terrible face. Change the channel.
3. This show is great! Smile! Sit down in your favorite chair.
4. This part is very funny. Laugh.
5. Now there's a commercial. Get up and get a snack and a drink. Sit down again.
6. The ending is very sad. Cry.
7. The show is over. Turn off the TV.
8. Go to bed.

Second example:

Good Morning

1. It's seven o'clock in the morning.
2. Wake up.
3. Stretch and yawn and rub your eyes.
4. Get up.
5. Do your exercises.
6. Enter the bathroom.
7. Wash your face.
8. Go back to your bedroom.
9. Get dressed.
10. Make the bed.
11. Go to the kitchen.
12. Eat breakfast.
13. Read the newspaper.
14. Go to the bathroom and brush your teeth.
15. Put on your coat.
16. Kiss your family good-bye.
17. Leave the house.

B. Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning has grown in popularity because it has proven to be effective for both academically advanced and lower achieving students. In addition to promoting learning, this system fosters respect and friendship among heterogeneous groups of students. For this reason, cooperative learning offers much to teachers who are trying to involve LEP students in all-English classroom activities. Also, some language minority students come from cultures that encourage cooperative interaction, and they may be more comfortable in an environment of shared learning.

Cooperative learning includes the following basic elements:

Heterogeneous groups of students with assigned roles to perform

Cooperative learning consists of student-centered learning activities completed by students in heterogeneous groups of two to six. Through a shared learning activity, students benefit from observing learning strategies used by their peers. LEP students further benefit from face-to-face verbal interactions, which promote communication that is natural and meaningful. When students work in heterogeneous groups, issues related to the capabilities and status of group members sometimes arise—cooperative learning addresses these issues by assigning roles to each member of the group. Such roles as “set up,” “clean up,” and “reporter” help the group complete its tasks smoothly. They provide all members with a purpose that is separate from the academic activity and enable them to contribute to the successful completion of the learning task.

Lessons structured for positive interdependence among group members

After establishing student learning groups, teachers must next consider structuring the lessons to create a situation of positive interdependence among the members of the groups. Several strategies encourage students to de-

pend on each other in a positive way for their learning: limiting available materials, which creates the need for sharing; assigning a single task for the group to complete collaboratively; and assigning each student only a certain piece of the total information necessary to complete a task, such as reading only a portion of an assigned chapter or knowing only one step in a complex math problem. Students are made responsible for each other’s learning and only through sharing their pieces of information will the group be able to complete the assignment.

Identification and practice of specific social behaviors

The third basic element in cooperative learning classrooms is the social behaviors necessary for success in working cooperatively. These behaviors include sharing, encouraging others, and accepting responsibility for the learning of others. They must be overtly identified by the teacher, practiced in non-threatening situations, and reinforced throughout the school year.

Evaluation through whole-class wrap-up, individual testing, and group recognition

The fourth feature of cooperative learning is evaluation, which can be done at three levels. The success of shared learning activities is judged daily in a wrap-up or processing session. At the end of the cooperative lesson, the entire class reconvenes to report on content learning and group effectiveness in cooperation. The teacher conducts a classwide discussion in which reporters tell what happened in the group activity, successful learning strategies are shared, and students form generalizations or link learning to previously developed concepts.

Even though students work collaboratively and become responsible for each other’s learning, individuals are still held accountable for their own academic achievement. The scores students receive on tests form the basis of class grades, as they do in a traditional classroom.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Numbered Heads Together

This is a simple structure, consisting of four steps:

1. Students number off.
2. Teacher announces a question and a time limit.
3. Students put their heads together to come up with the answer.
4. Teacher calls a number, calls on a student with that number, and recognizes the correct answer.

Second example:

Pairs-Check

Pairs-Check is one way of ensuring that there will be helping among students and that all students will stay on task when they are asked to complete mastery-oriented worksheets. The instructions on a math worksheet might read as follows:

“You are to work in pairs in your teams. Person one in the pair is to do the first problem, while person two acts as a coach. Coaches, if you agree that person one has done the problem correctly, give him or her some praise, then switch roles. When you have both finished the first two problems, do not continue. You need to first check with the other pair. If you don't agree on the first two problems, figure out what went wrong. When both pairs agree on the first two problems, give a team handshake, and then proceed to the next two problems. Remember to switch roles after each problem. Person one does the odd-numbered problems; person two the even-numbered problems. After every two problems, check with the other pair.”

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

Roundrobin

Roundrobin and Roundtable (Kagan, 1989) are simple cooperative learning techniques that can be used to encourage participation among all group members, especially LEP students. Teachers present a category to students in cooperative learning groups, and students take turns around the group naming items to fit the category. The activity is called Roundrobin when the students give answers orally. When they pass a sheet of paper and write their answers, the activity is called Roundtable.

Good topics for Roundrobin activities are those that have enough components to go at least three times around the circle with ease. Therefore, with cooperative groups of four or five students, the categories should have 12 to 15 easy answers. Topics to use for teaching and practicing Roundrobin could include

- Things that are green.
- Things found in a city.
- Words beginning with A.

Students are usually given a time limit, such as one or two minutes, to list as many items as they can. However, each student speaks in turn so that no one student dominates the list. Roundrobin and Roundtable often help pupils concentrate on efficiency and strategies for recall. During the wrap-up, teachers can ask the most successful team to share strategies that helped them compile their list. Other learning groups will be able to try those strategies in their next round. Roundrobin or Roundtable topics are limited only by the imagination. Here are a few sample categories for various content areas. They are ordered here from simplest (or useful in lower grades) to most advanced (or useful at higher grade levels).

(continued)

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

(continued)

Geography and Social Studies

- Places that are cold
- Inventions
- State capitals
- Rivers of the U.S.
- Countries that grow rice
- Rules of England
- Lands where Spanish is spoken

Language Arts and Literature

- Compound words
- Past tense verbs
- Homonyms
- Characters in Dr. Seuss books
- Metaphors
- Fictitious detectives
- Works of Shakespeare

Science

- Things made of glass
- Parts of the body
- Metals
- Elements weighing more than oxygen
- Invertebrates
- Essential vitamins and minerals
- NASA inventions

Math

- Fractions
- Pairs of numbers whose sum is 23
- Multiples of 12
- Degrees in an acute angle
- Prime numbers
- Important mathematicians
- Formulas for finding volume

Jigsaw activities

Jigsaw activities (Slavin, 1981; Kagan, 1989) are designed to emphasize positive interdependence among students. A jigsaw lesson is created by dividing information to be mastered into several pieces and assigning each member of the cooperative group responsibility for one of those pieces.

For example, in a study of planets, one student would be responsible for finding out the mass and major chemical elements on each planet; another would be responsible for finding distances from the sun and between planets and their orbits; a third student would find out the origin of planet names; and the fourth would research satellites. After reading the appropriate chapter in the textbook, students become experts on that one aspect of their study unit. In class, the following day, students meet with other classmates who had the same assignment in expert groups. These groups review, clarify, and enhance their understanding of the topic before returning to their cooperative teams. Once students return, they are responsible for “teaching” the information to their teammates and adding their piece to the jigsaw puzzle.

Student team members’ expertise can be developed in a number of ways. In the method described above, all students read the same material— a chapter in the text— but each focuses on a specific area. Expertise can also be formed by giving individual students a part of the total information to share with the others. This second method may involve only a short reading assignment and may be more useful for LEP students or native English speakers who are at low reading levels.

For example, if the learning task were to punctuate a group of sentences, each student on the team could be given a few of the rules for punctuation. The team would have to share their rules with each other in order to complete the task. This same kind of division could be made of steps in a sequence or clues to a mystery. By dividing the information into a jigsaw activity, the teacher ensures that students become positively interdependent on each other to complete the assignment. Each individual feels important because he or she holds a key to the solution,

and the other group members actively encourage him or her to share it.

The following lesson is an example of a jigsaw ac-

tivity. It consists of a logic problem with different clues given to each group member. It is geared for a second- or third-grade level.

Sample Lesson: Jigsaw Logic Problem I

Logic problems can easily be divided into jigsaw activities by separating the various pieces of information and clues. The following logic problem is first presented as a whole, then split into a jigsaw activity.

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A and each was in a different subject: either math, English, or history. The

subject in which each student got the A is his or her favorite subject. From the clues below, tell which subject is each student's favorite.

1. Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.
2. Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.
3. David got a D in history.

Student 1

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Each student received only one A. Marie's favorite subject is the one David hates.

Student 2

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. The subject in which each student got an A is his or her favorite subject. Luc knows all the times tables and loves long division.

Student 3

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. Problem: Which subject is the favorite of each student?

Student 4

Marie, David, and Luc got report cards yesterday. The A's were only in math, English, and history. David got a D in history.

Solution:

Luc got an A in math (clue 2).
Marie got an A in history (clues 1 and 3).
David got an A in English (process of elimination).

C. Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach has a number of features that enhance whole language learning for LEP students. Students learn that what they say is important enough to be written down; they learn how language is encoded by watching as their oral language is put into print; and they use familiar language—their own—in follow-up activities.

Suggested steps:

1. The “experience” to be written about may be a drawing, something the student brought from home, a group experience planned by the teacher (field trip, science experiment, party, etc.), or simply a topic to discuss.
2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience. Beginning students might draw a picture of the experience and then label it with help from the teacher, aide, or volunteer.
3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated. (Do not correct the student’s grammar while the story is being written down.)
4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along. With young children at the very beginning levels, it may be necessary to read back each sentence as it is dictated.
5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.
6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.
7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. A good way to introduce this is to discuss the experience, write a group experience story, and then have students write their own stories.
8. Students can rewrite their own previous stories as their language development progresses, and then illustrate them to make books for other students to read.

Follow-up activities

Select follow-up activities based on student levels. *Beginning students* might search for certain words and underline them, read the story in chorus, or participate in an oral close activity.

Intermediate students might unscramble sentences, choose words and make cards for a word bank, or match sentence strips to sequenced pictures from a story.

Duplicate the story and have students use small copies for reading, selecting, and practicing vocabulary words. Children may enjoy making covers for their own copies of the story, illustrating the pages, and taking the books home to read to family members.

For students who are in content-area classes but have limited literacy skills, the Language Experience Approach could be a strategy that an ESL teacher or other support staff could use to have the students dictate the main points of a lesson. This approach would not only help students focus on comprehension and retention of important subject matter, but would help improve their reading and writing abilities as well.

D. Dialogue Journals

A dialogue journal is a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly (daily, weekly, etc., depending on the educational setting) over a semester, school year, or course. Students write as much as they choose and the teacher writes back regularly, responding to students' questions and comments, introducing new topics, or asking questions. The teacher is a participant in an ongoing written conversation with the student, rather than an evaluator who corrects or comments on the student's writing.

Many teachers of LEP students have found dialogue journals—interactive writing on an individual basis—to be a crucial part of their classes. Dialogue journals not only open a new channel of communication, but they also provide another context for language and literacy development. Students have the opportunity to use English in a non-threatening atmosphere, while interacting with someone who is proficient in English. 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.

Tips for using dialogue journals

1. Make sure each student has a notebook to use in journal writing.
2. How you begin a dialogue journal depends on the age and literacy development of your students. Younger students can draw a picture and write about it. You can help older students get started by writing the first entry for their response. Something special about yourself usually elicits a good response.
3. Be sure students know that they can write about anything in their journals, that they won't be graded, and that nobody but you will read them.
4. Students can write during class at a specified time, when they have free time, or outside of class.
5. Be sure to respond to each journal entry. It is better that students write once or twice a week, and for you to respond each time, than writing every day and getting only one response a week. With pre-literate students, you must write your response while they are watching, sounding it out as you write, and point to the words as you reread your response.
6. Never correct student entries. You may ask about meaning when you don't understand something, but don't make comments such as "not clear" or "not enough detail." If a student uses an incorrect form, you may provide the correct form if your response seems natural to do so.
7. Try not to dominate the "conversation." Let the student initiate topics. Too many questions in your responses will result in less language produced by the student, not more.
8. The more often students write and the longer they continue writing, the greater the benefits of journal writing.

**Excerpt from a dialogue journal between a teacher and Claudia,
a sixth grade student from El Salvador:**

Claudia: The new teacher of 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 I am very hungry I have to 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.

E. Games

Games are a fun and effective way to promote language learning. Action games such as "Simon Says" and "Duck, Duck, Goose," along with finger games such as "Where is Thumbkin?" and "The Itsy Bitsy Spider," are appropriate for early elementary students. Index-card games based on categories and "Twenty Questions" or "What's My Line?" are examples of games that are suit-

able for upper elementary students. Games are especially helpful when the repetition of words or concepts is necessary to increase a student's knowledge of vocabulary and concepts that require memorization. It is recommended that competition be downplayed for most games, that the rules be few, and that they be clearly explained and demonstrated before play is begun.

Examples for Early Elementary Classes

First example:

Who Took the Cookie?

Group: Who took the cookie from the cookie jar?
(Children clap in rhythm)

Leader: Bobbie took the cookie from the cookie jar.

Bobbie: Who, me?

Group: Yes, you.

Bobbie: Couldn't be.

Group: Then who?

Bobbie: Maria took the cookie from the cookie jar.

Maria: Who, me? (Etc.)

Second example:

Five Little Monkeys (Finger Play)

Five little monkeys, sitting in a tree (hold up hand with fingers spread apart)

Teasing Mr. Alligator: "Can't catch me!" (wag pointing finger back and forth)

Along came Mr. Alligator, hungry as can be (rub tummy)

(Put hands together like an alligator mouth and snap shut quickly)

Four little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

Three little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

Two little monkeys, sitting in a tree . . . etc.

One little monkey, sitting in a tree . . . etc. (clap hands)

"Ooops, you missed!"

Third example:

A La Rueda De San Miguel

A la rueda de San Miguel
todos traen su caja de miel.

A lo maduro, a lo maduro,
que se voltee (student's name) de burro.

The children form a circle and join hands. After each verse, someone puts a student's name in the last line, e.g., "Que se voltee **Maria** de burro." **Maria** then has to turn and face away from the circle and join hands again. The game continues until everyone is turned facing away from the center of the circle. At the end, while still holding hands, everyone backs toward the middle of the circle and attempts to sit down.

Examples for Upper Elementary Classes

First example:

Concentration (with index cards)

Prepare index cards: one set with pictures of related items such as fruits, clothing, animals, etc. and a matching set with words that correspond to the pictures.

On the back side of the pictures, write “P.”

On the back side of the words, write “W.”

Once the students are familiar with the words, turn the cards over and mix them up, and line them up in a grid.

Each student is instructed to turn over one “P” card and one “W” card. If they match, the student keeps them and takes another turn. If they don’t match, the student turns them over and the next student has a turn.

Second example:

I’m Going to My Grandmother’s House

Students sit in a circle and go in order.

The first person says, “I’m going to my grandmother’s house, and I’m going to take an (apple).” (The item chosen must begin with the letter “A.”)

The second person says the entire sentence and adds an item beginning with the letter “B.”

The third person says the sentence with a “C” item, etc.



If You Want to Know More About These Strategies

1. Resources for Total Physical Response

Nelson, G., & Winters, T. (1980). *ESL Operations: Techniques for Learning While Doing*, Newbury House.

Ramijin, E., & Seely, C. (1988). *Live Action English*, Delta Systems Co., 1-800-323-8270.

2. Resources for Cooperative Learning

Cochran, C. (Summer 1989). *Strategies for Involving LEP Students in the All-English-Medium Classroom: A Cooperative Learning Approach*, Program Information Guide - No. 12, National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

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3

Promoting Literacy (By Any Means Necessary)



1. The Great Debate

The field of reading has been embroiled in a controversy surrounding the superiority of either a phonetic approach or a whole-word approach to early reading instruction. Most recently a commissioned report on phonics instruction resulted in the publication of *Beginning to Read* (Adams, 1990), which found that while phonics knowledge is essential for children's success with reading and writing, children must also be taught to read for purpose and meaning.

Given the importance of phonics knowledge in early reading, the current debate can no longer be whether this type of instruction is important, but rather which approaches to teaching phonic relationships are most effective. Advocates of whole language suggest that phonics should be taught in the context of reading and writing activities and should not be isolated. Materials such as worksheets and flashcards are considered inappropriate.

Excerpted from *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 50, No. 8, May 1997.

Instead, the learning of skills emerges naturally from activities in which the class is engaged (Goodman, 1990). Others, however, contest that teaching phonics only through naturally occurring activities in context is not systematic enough and leaves a lot to chance. These writers argue that most children need some direct, systematic, sound-symbol instruction to learn to read (Adams, 1990).

A third position takes a “middle-of-the-road” approach to literacy instruction. This so-called “Combination Approach” (McIntyre & Pressley, 1996) proposes integrating the best strategies from both whole language and explicit approaches. With this combined approach, phonics instruction can include both functional and in-context experiences as well as explicit, systematic instruction. The combined approach also emphasizes the selection of instructional strategies that are most appropriate for individual children.

2. The Importance of Using a Student's Native Language As a Learning Tool

When a student's native language is used correctly in educational programs, it is of tremendous benefit. It can catalyze and accelerate second language acquisition. When we give students good instruction through their first language, we give them two things:

First, we give them knowledge. This can be subject-matter knowledge or knowledge of the world in general. The knowledge students get in their first language can make second language input more comprehensible. A student at grade level in math, for example, thanks to quality education in his or her first language, will be able to follow a math class taught in the second language much better than a student who is behind in math. The first child will not only get more math, he or she will make more progress in second language acquisition because he or she will get more comprehensible input.

Second, quality education in the primary language helps the student develop literacy in the second language. We can distinguish two kinds of literacy—basic reading ability and problem-solving ability.

1. Basic Literacy

Basic literacy is the ability to read and write. Showing how the first language helps develop basic literacy is a two-step argument: If we learn to read by reading, it will be much easier to learn to read in a language you know, since the print in that language will be more comprehensible.

Excerpted from *Fundamentals of Language Education*, Krashen, S.D., 1992.

sible. Once you can read, you can read. This ability transfers rapidly to other languages you acquire. If the goal is second language literacy, a rapid means of achieving it is building reading ability in a student's first language.

2. Ability to Use Language to Solve Problems

The second kind of literacy is the ability to use language—oral and written—to solve problems and make yourself smarter. Clearly, this kind of competence also transfers across languages. If you have learned, for example, to read selectively or have learned that revision helps you discover new ideas in one language, you will be able to read selectively and revise your writing in another language. In other words, once you are educated, you are educated.

If these principles are correct, they suggest that quality programs for second language acquirers will have the following characteristics:

- They will supply comprehensible input in English—in the form of good beginning language classes, sheltered subject matter teaching, and a print-rich environment in the second language.
- They will help the student develop literacy in the native language, through free reading and effective language arts programs—literacy that will transfer to the second language.

The Elements of a Balanced Approach to Reading

Phonological Awareness

- Rhymes
- Alliteration
- Syllable counting

Print Awareness

- Shared books
- Environmental print
- Concept of a word

Alphabetic Awareness

- Recognition of upper- and lower-case alphabet
- Letter/sound mapping
- Alphabetical order

Orthographic Awareness

- Spelling patterns
- Identifying word families
- Decoding skills

Comprehension Strategies

- Story discussion
- Prediction/Foreshadowing
- Main idea

Reading Practice

- Guided reading
- Sustained Silent Reading
- Paired reading

3. Recommendations for Teaching Reading to LEP Students

Approach reading through meaningful text

Let the LEP student practice whole sentences useful for everyday life. Phrases that can be used with other children will interest the LEP student because of the need for them. Start with sentences, then go to individual words for phonics contrasts. Many LEP students have difficulty distinguishing one English sound from another—especially the sounds that don't exist in their native language.

For example, Spanish speaking students will have a particularly hard time with English vocalic contrasts because in Spanish there are only five vowel sounds while English has eleven. Spanish-speaking students may not hear the difference between: bit & bet, boat & bought, or bat & but. Students must be able to hear the vowel distinction before they are expected to produce it.

Read authentic literature, and minimize the use of worksheets

Phonics worksheets are often baffling and anxiety-producing for LEP students because they are processing the sounds through a different language “filter” than their English-speaking peers.

Don't automatically place the student in a low ability group

Good readers can provide better models, stimulation, and help for the LEP students.

Introduce words orally before incorporating them in to a reading lesson

The most effective teaching technique is to “go from the known to the unknown.”

Begin with pattern and predictable books

These are excellent for beginning readers of any language.

Teach individual words in context

This way, LEP students can relate new words to meaningful situations.

Don't ask a student to read aloud for purposes of testing comprehension

The danger is that a student may become a word caller and will not concentrate on meaning. LEP students who are forced to read aloud worry about pronunciation and what other classmates' reactions will be. A student who is self-conscious about pronunciation will not think about meaning.

Don't worry about “native-sounding” pronunciation

If the LEP student can be understood without difficulty, then correcting his or her pronunciation is not necessary. As they gain more exposure to English over the years their pronunciation will improve. There is some evidence that a LEP student who begins to study English after about 12 years of age is likely to retain for life some degree of a foreign accent when speaking English.

4. Suggested Resources and Activities to Help Promote Literacy

1. Predictable Books

A. Fairy Tales (These are fun to act out using simple props.)

Little Red Riding Hood

Little Red Hen

Goldilocks and the Three Bears

Three Little Pigs

Bilingual Fables (Fabulas Bilingues) such as *Tina the Turtle* and *Carlos the Rabbit* are available from National Textbook Company (1-800-323-4900).

B. Children's Literature

Goodnight Moon - Margaret Wise Brown

Brown Bear, Brown Bear - Bill Martin, Jr.

The Very Hungry Caterpillar - Eric Carle

Green Eggs and Ham - Dr. Seuss

Caps for Sale - Esphyr Slobodkin

C. Big Books

In a Dark, Dark Wood

Mrs. Wishy-Washy

One Cold, Wet Night

The Big Toe

2. Songs

Hokey-Pokey...great for teaching body parts
The Mulberry Bush
Ten Little Indians
Old MacDonald Had a Farm
She'll Be Comin' 'Round the Mountain
Three Blind Mice
I'm a Little Teapot
Itsy Bitsy Spider

"Skip to my Lou"

(for beginning consonant sounds)

Who has a word that starts with /k/?

Starts, starts, starts with /k/?

Who has a word that starts with /k/?

Skip to my Lou, my darling!

(Call on or toss a ball to a student who knows a word that starts with /k/. The word is repeated, and used in the song.)

Cat is a word that starts with /k/.

Starts, starts, starts with /k/.

Cat is a word that starts with /k/.

Skip to my Lou, my darling!

(Let's try it as a whole group with /b/)

"Skip to my Lou"

(for ending consonant sounds)

Who has a word that ends with /t/?

Ends, ends, ends with /t/?

Who has a word that ends with /t/?

Skip to my Lou, my darling!

Cat is a word that ends with /t/.

Ends, ends, ends with /t/.

Cat is a word that ends with /t/.

Skip to my Lou, my darling.

Hap Palmer records are highly recommended and make learning fun. One example is *Learning Basic Skills Through Music*.

Jazz Chants for Children by Carolyn Graham incorporate the rhythms of American English and repetition of words and sounds to make an entertaining and effective learning tool. Student books and cassettes of *Jazz Chants for Children*, *Jazz Chant Fairy Tales*, and *Jazzy Chants* are available from Delta Systems Co., Inc. (1-800-323-8270).

3. Poems

- 1, 2 buckle my shoe
- 3, 4 shut the door
- 5, 6 pick up sticks
- 7, 8 lay them straight
- 9, 10 a big fat hen.....have the students com-

pose their own class poem.

4. Nursery Rhymes

Jack and Jill
Mary Had a Little Lamb
Little Jack Horner
Jack Be Nimble

Poetry that accompanies any classroom activity is fun and promotes language acquisition. Two suggested poetry books are *Where the Sidewalk Ends* and *A Light in the Attic* by Shel Silverstein.

5. Rhymes for Practicing Spanish Vowel Sounds

A

Mi gatita enferma está,
No sé si se curará,
O si al fin se morirá,
mi gatita enferma está.

E

A mí me gusta el café
No sé si lo tomaré,
o si, al fin, lo dejaré,
a mí me gusta el café.

I

Mi sombrero perdí,
Con un lazo de carmesí,
y un ramito de alhelí,
mi sombrero perdí.

O

Tengo un bonito reloj,
Mi papá me lo compró,
y ayer tarde se paró,
tengo un bonito reloj.

U

Ayer cantaba el cucú,
En el árbol de bambú,
¿Dime si lo oíste tú?
Ayer cantaba el cucú.

Tres Tristes Tigres

Tres tristes tigres tragaban trigo,
en tres tristes trastos en un trigal.
En tres tristes trastos en un trigal,
tres tristes tigres tragaban trigo.

¿Cuántos Cuentos?

Cuando cuentas cuentos,
cuenta cuántos cuentas,
porque cuando cuentas cuentos,
nunca sabes cuántos cuentos cuentas.

5. Reading Aloud

Fluent early readers are children who have been read to. Although reading aloud is important for all students, it is especially important for second language learners, who have not been introduced to the English language on the knee of someone who loves them most of all. If a teacher reads aloud daily and well, students who are learning English will mirror the teacher's enthusiasm for the English language and for reading. In addition, they will be motivated to read for pleasure by associating reading with warm moments spent with a caring adult. They will learn about holding and using books. They will acquire the vocabulary and structures of the language, as well as a sense of the structure of stories.

Here are a few pointers for improving your read-aloud sessions:

- 1. Make your reading time a close, happy, comfortable one.** You may choose to sit in a special “author’s chair” when you read. Seat the students comfortably near you. At various times read to the whole class, small groups, and individuals. Invite special individuals — the principal, the district supervisor, your best friend — to read aloud to your class.
- 2. If you are using books or magazines with pictures, make sure that all the students can see the pictures easily.** Select books that have large, clear pictures to share with the whole group. After you have read them aloud, make books with smaller pictures available so that students may enjoy them at their leisure.
- 3. Select books that you like.** Work with your librarian to find good books that suit your taste and your students’ interests and ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Use references such as *The Read-Aloud Handbook* (Trelease, 1982). Choose books with clear, realistic pictures that tell a story by themselves to help English learners follow along.
- 4. Share books with small groups often.** By doing this, you can monitor your students’ interests and interact frequently with individuals about books.
- 5. Introduce books carefully.** Give your personal introduction to a book you have carefully selected and can’t wait to share with students. Bring the author and illustrator to life by telling who they are and what they do. In most school and public libraries, references such as *About the Author* are available for your background reading. Students will learn that books are written by real people, and that they, too, can learn to write books.
- 6. Activate background knowledge and focus students’ attention before beginning the story.** Before reading, introduce the topic by asking students what they know about it from their own cultural experiences. For example, when introducing *Amelia Bedelia Plays Ball* by Peggy Parish, have students share what they know about team sports or games from their own heritage. With young and/or beginning language learners, props or “realia” are very helpful. Bring in a toy mouse when reading *If You Give a Mouse a Cookie* by Laura Joffe Numeroff, or keep a spider in a screen-covered aquarium as you read *The Very Busy Spider* by Eric Carle. Follow up a trip to the zoo by reading *I am Eyes: Ni Macho* by Leila Ward.
- 7. Reading aloud well comes to few of us naturally, so practice.** Pay attention to your voice. Develop your expressiveness, varying pitch, volume, and pace of reading. Create different voices for different characters. And don’t read too quickly — English learners need time to build mental pictures of what you are reading.

Suggestions for book selection for students who are acquiring English:

- 1. In selecting books for readers at different stages in their language development, pay attention to your students' response to the books.** Read books that hold students' attention. Don't worry about a few passages or words that students don't completely understand. You want to stretch students' attention spans and challenge them. Don't, however, shoot way over students' heads and frustrate them. Retell events before and after reading the story to help beginning and intermediate students know what is going on. Watch students' faces as you read. If a number of students are frustrated or bored, stop and review the plot. If many students are not enjoying the book, find another selection.
- 2. For beginning language learners, start with wordless books (such as Mercer Mayer's), simple predictable picture books (such as the Big Books put out by several publishers), and rhymes (such as Mother Goose) and other poems.** When reading aloud, encourage beginning listeners to ask questions and make contributions, and don't hesitate to read favorite stories over and over. Encourage students to join in on predictable lines like, "I think I can, I think I can" from *The Little Engine that Could* by Watty Piper or "I meant what I said and I said what I meant," (from *Horton Hatches the Egg* by Dr. Seuss).
- 3. As your students learn to love and listen to books, move up to short storybooks** by such authors as Dr. Seuss, Bill Peet, Tomie de Paola, Ezra Jack Keats, and Judith Viorst, to mention just a few. The Children's Book Press in San Francisco is publishing beautiful picture books by and about people from many cultures. Keep reading poetry to the students, too (try Arnold Adoff, Charlotte Zolotow, Kara Kuskin, and X. J. Kennedy), and share interesting selections from nonfiction picture books and students' magazines (perhaps nature books such as *Zoobooks*, *Ranger Rick*, or *National Geographic World*).
- 4. Focus on one author or subject for a while.** Give students repeated exposure to a favorite author, and read a number of books on a common topic or theme, so that language learners can hear the same terms and concepts used in different contexts. Their comprehension will grow as they build on previous experience. Help students compare and contrast different works by an author or different authors. Choose books purposefully to help students discover themes, formats, styles, and types of literature used.
- 5. Make your story selection multicultural.** Find and read stories that present different countries and ethnic groups, including those represented in your class. Look for books that show people of different cultures respecting one another's differences yet working and living together. *Abiyoyo*, by Pete Seeger, is an excellent example of such a book.

6. Shared Reading

Shared reading is an effective literacy development strategy for groups of students functioning at a wide range of levels. Beginning language learners hear the rhythm of the language along with much repeated vocabulary. Intermediate students can use reading-like behavior while reciting from the books or following the teacher. The pace, positive teaching, and meaningful context all maintain student attention and promote rapid learning.

Shared reading requires teacher-made, student-made, or published poster-sized books that can be seen

and read by a group of students or by the whole class at once, or text on a transparency for the class to use. The text should be well written, appealing to students, and predictable, using rhyme, rhythm, repetition, and clear illustrations to make the content accessible to students who are learning English. Big books or language experience charts authored by the teacher, students, or both together are also appropriate for shared reading. Students can also hold individual copies of the same piece.



A sample daily shared reading session might look like this:

- 1. Tune in.** Get students' attention by beginning with familiar songs and poetry using a pointer to follow along on enlarged print charts.
- 2. Share favorite stories.** With students, re-read familiar stories, poems, and songs in unison. Encourage students to choose their favorites. Between readings, point out elements of reading using the various cue systems: semantic, context, syntactic, and graphophonic. Teach students directional conventions, prediction, self-correction, sight vocabulary, letter-sound associations, letter names, conventions of punctuation, and intonation patterns in the context of reading.
- 3. Introduce a new story.** Introduce the topic so that children can put it in a familiar cultural context. Gathering mussels from underneath the ice as described in *The Very Last First Time* by Jan Andrews may seem very alien to some students, but they can identify with the "first" time they were considered old enough to do something without adult supervision. Help the students use picture cues and word-solving strategies in the context of the new piece, modeling how print is unlocked and building up anticipation so that the students can't wait for the new story.
- 4. Read aloud.** Give a dramatic model reading of the story from beginning to end. Students may begin to chime in on repeated sentences or phrases. Then have students share ideas and feelings about the story. Follow with a second choral reading, and perhaps a third, with students doing more of the reading each time.
- 5. Students read independently.** Have the students read or "pretend read" familiar stories individually or in small groups. Encourage them to play the role of the teacher pointing at the text as they read to one another. Make these stories available to students during Book Sharing Time.
- 6. Students respond through follow-up activities.** Have students participate in related arts activities: painting, mural-making, dramatization, puppetry, mime, all based on the story's theme and plot. For example, after shared choral reading of the Navajo chant "There Are No People Song," the students might videotape the chant or perform it for visitors or another class.
- 7. Adapt trade books.** After much exposure to a book through shared reading, encourage students to innovate on the literary structure of a shared book by writing or dictating adaptations of favorite books or poems. They can make their adapted trade book as a class, in small groups, or independently with you or another adult. For example, the students who read the Navajo chant might collect and write down chants from their own cultures of origin.

7. Teaching Story Structure

Students learning to read English as a second language have some disadvantages in relation to native speakers. ESL students lack background knowledge of the culture, which is the context of written and spoken English. Furthermore, a particular content schema or structure may be culturally specific and not be part of the language learner's cultural background.

Through careful choices of texts and careful introduction of these choices, teachers can both provide students with literature they can comprehend and help students acquire the necessary background cultural knowledge and schemata of written English. The particular schema that is addressed in this section is that of story structure or story grammar. Native language speakers often have acquired a concept of how a story is structured in their language before they reach school age. The grammar of a narrative has been described in a number of ways, but is usually given steps similar to these seven:

1. **setting** - where the story takes place
2. **initial event** - the event that spurs the protagonist into action
3. **simple reaction** - an emotional response to the initial event
4. **goal-setting** - a decision to do something about the problem set up by the initial event
5. **attempt to reach the goal** - the main character tries to solve the problem
6. **outcomes** - consequences of the attempts
7. **reaction** - the protagonist's reaction to the events in the story

Advanced learners, with help and support, can understand and use all seven steps. For beginning and intermediate students, use simpler story "maps" to help students understand the structure of stories and write their own.

What kinds of literature will help your students acquire story structure?

The following literature types are appropriate both as read-aloud selections and as books for the beginning reader:

1. **Select reading materials that reflect students' cultural backgrounds.** Include stories that take place in students' native countries, stories that students may have heard or read in their native languages, stories with characters from the students' native cultures, or stories about children or adults who experience a new culture. Sources for multicultural literature are suggested at the end of this chapter.
2. **Select books about experiences common to all cultures and about cultures and people represented in the class.** Student's own writings are also excellent sources.
3. **Select books that provide students with needed cultural background.** Think about experiences that will help students deal with their new culture, and select literature or help students write language experience stories about them.
4. **Choose predictable books and poems.** Because predictable books have student-oriented vocabulary and content, and repetition of language, they are very appropriate for beginning and intermediate students. By the time a teacher has read a few pages of one of these books, students begin to predict what will come next. Use well-illustrated works when possible. Pictures provide visual cues to the story structure.
5. **Choose wordless picture books.** Wordless books like those by John Goodall and Anno tell a story with pictures, and give the student valuable opportunities to construct the language to go with them.

6. **Encourage narrow reading.** Reading on a single topic or focusing on works of a single author will help minimize interference from the text, and thus be more efficient for second language learners. If your students take a liking to Langston Hughes, read them as many of his works as you can find. Libraries have reference series to help you (e.g., *Something About the Author*). If a group of students is interested in tornadoes, help them find every book and article they can on the topic. Let them become experts.

What can you do when presenting the literature to help students acquire story structure?

1. **Use cueing strategies.** Use verbal cueing strategies such as changes in voice for various characters, pauses to indicate changes in events and dramatic moments, and exaggerated intonation for key words and concepts. Use nonverbal cueing strategies, such as pointing to illustrations or parts of illustrations and using

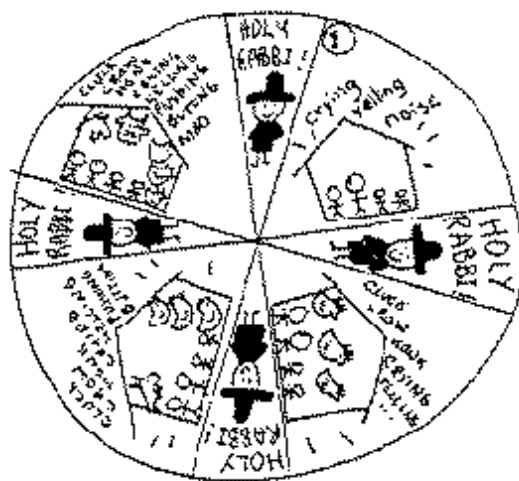
facial expressions, gestures, and actions to accompany key events in the story.

2. **Use questions as a “scaffolding” technique** to clarify meanings of words, to develop concepts, to encourage both literal and inferential comprehension, to relate the story to the students’ own experiences, and to bring out the story map, or the elements of the story grammar (examples of both are included below).

3. **Use diagrams or charts of the story map to provide students with visual pictures of the structures of stories.** After you have introduced some simple story diagrams, use the strategy inductively by having students suggest the parts of the map as you draw them. Students can also make their own maps and diagrams of popular stories. Story diagrams are an appropriate pre-writing as well as pre-reading and review strategy. Diagrams of three stories of varying complexity are shown here.



Line story - the story has a cumulative linear sequence.
There was an Old Woman Who Swallowed a Fly



Circle story — the story ends back where it begins
It Could Always Be Worse
A Yiddish folktale by Margot Zemach

More complex story with all the basic elements. Most folktales, short stories, and novels include these parts, sometimes in repeated and more complex patterns. As you begin, help students pick out essential

elements. The diagram can become more and more complex as stories and students' understanding of concepts deepen.

John Henry	
Setting/Characters	John Henry, steel driving man, is born. Railroad is his destiny.
Initial Event/Problem	The Captain introduces the steam drill.
Reaction	John Henry is angry.
Goal-Setting	John Henry swears to beat the steam drill.
Attempt to Reach Goal	John Henry races the steam drill, driving spikes through rock in the tunnel.
Outcomes	After a great struggle, the steam drill breaks down. John Henry wins.
Reaction/Resolution	John Henry dies from the effort, but is recognized by all.

8. Process Writing in Multicultural, Multilingual Classrooms

An integrated approach to writing has many advantages for language learning. Students begin reading with words that they have written and that are in their own speaking vocabularies. They learn reading skills, such as phonics, in a purposeful, meaningful context and so are more prepared to comprehend what they read. Students become more independent language learners through writing and become aware of their own writing strategies. They learn to use many resources including peers, teachers, other adults, and reference works. Students who write frequently learn spelling and grammar skills better when they use them in composition than when they are drilled in these skills without the opportunity to compose.

Students need daily experiences with composition. Like learning to speak a first or second language, learning to write is a gradual developmental process. Just as we are thrilled with a baby's first attempts at speech, we should be delighted by a student's first attempts to write. For beginning students, composition may consist of dictating and/or writing in a native language. Students may progress to labeling pictures in English and writing important words, such as family names. Gradually, given encouragement and ample opportunity to write, students begin to write longer pieces about topics that are familiar and important to them.

Begin by creating a climate that promotes writing. A writing classroom is a classroom where:

- 1. Students' writing is valued.** Teachers are genuinely interested in what students have to say and encourage this interest among students. Students' attempts to write and to progress in writing are celebrated, and mistakes are seen as a natural part of the development process. Select a place of honor — an author's chair or stool — where students can sit when they share their writing with the class.

You may sit in this same chair when you represent the author in read-aloud activities.

- 2. Students write frequently for an authentic audience.** Their writing is meaningful, purposeful, and about topics they choose. Not only teachers, but peers, parents, and persons in the school and greater community provide an audience for student writing.
- 3. The environment is language- and literature-rich.** Students are surrounded with examples of good writing by both published authors and peers. Students are read to daily, and books, authors, and writing are hot topics for discussion.
- 4. The environment is print-rich.** The physical environment offers many reasons and opportunities to read and write. The room has interesting charts, books, labeled posters, and written instructions or rebus signs and symbols at a learning center. Much of the writing posted around the room is the students' own work. Students have many occasions to write. Beginning students might sign their names on an attendance sheet in the morning and write or copy their own notes to parents to give them important information about school events. Intermediate and advanced students might write messages to teachers and peers, letters to request information on a topic they are studying, records of their favorite sports teams, essays for job or school applications, letters to pen pals and family members, or journal entries about literature and content areas.
- 5. Students write in many modes.** Students write lists; informative pieces; personal narratives; descriptions of persons, scenes, or events; directions; reports; notes; outlines; letters; poems; jokes; etc. Your students are very different from one another; a wide range of writing activities will help you address each student's learning style.

The Writing Process

Six steps in the writing process are described here: prewriting, drafting, sharing or conferring, revising, editing, and publishing. Not all steps are used with all types of writing; neither are all used with every piece a student writes. Certain stages may be changed or omitted depending on the student's age and proficiency at writing. For example, young children or inexperienced writers are not expected to use revision extensively and often publish "first drafts." Experienced writers, on the other hand, often do not need elaborately structured prewriting experiences but can prepare to write privately.

Step 1. Prewriting

Prewriting experiences help students to develop the need and desire to write and to acquire information or content for writing, as well as necessary vocabulary, syntax, and language structures. To help students get ready to write, provide:

- a. Talking and listening time, including language experience activities.
- b. Shared experiences such as trips, plays, interviews, cooking demonstrations, or films.
- c. Wide exposure to literature appropriate to the students' age and language proficiency. For beginning second language learners, include predictable books and wordless books.
- d. Drama activities, including role-playing, mime, and storytelling.
- e. Opportunities to study, discuss, and map story patterns and structures (see Story Structure).
- f. Semantic mapping to elicit vocabulary and organize ideas.
- g. Opportunities for students to prepare for writing by exploring what they know — their own personal experiences or subjects they have studied in depth.
- h. "Freewriting" — having students write anything that comes to them, without stopping, for a short period of time.
- i. "Sunshine Outline" — this graphic technique for outlining helps students generate information to prepare for writing by asking the basic newswriter questions. The students draw rays coming from a sun and write a question word on each ray: who, what, when, where, why, how. Then the students write a phrase or two that answers each question and use this outline to write their pieces.

Step 2. Drafting

When drafting, students write quickly to get ideas down, working for fluency without worrying much about mechanics. They are encouraged to think of writing as mutable, not as "done" once it is put to paper. Students are encouraged to spell based on the sound of letters and words that they know.

Remember to:

- a. Write along with the students. Model being a writer and produce your own pieces to share with students.
- b. Encourage students to "spell as best they can," using their knowledge of the alphabet, phonics, familiar words, and information around the classroom. Your students may be a little frustrated with this at first, but if you persist in not providing too much help, they will become more confident writers. They may use dictionaries, thesauruses, and the spell-check feature on the computer to edit and revise at later stages in the writing.
- c. Provide writing experiences daily. Journals or learning logs may be helpful.
- d. Encourage students to refer back to maps, webs, jot lists, outlines they have made during prewriting.

Step 3 - Sharing and Responding to Writing

In this step, students share their writing in small groups, large groups, or individually with the teacher. Teacher and students give one another encouragement and feedback or input in preparation for revision. Suggested activities follow.

- a. To model and teach the conferencing process, share and discuss an anonymous piece of writing (written by you or by a student from another class or year). An overhead projector is very helpful in this activity. Model giving encouraging and specific responses in writing.
- b. Use peer conference groups and train students to use “PQP” in their responses to others’ writing—Positive feedback, Questions to clarify meaning, and suggestions to Polish writing.
- c. Have students read their writing aloud in regular individual or small group conferences. Reading aloud helps students evaluate their own writing in a situation where they can get suggestions from others. Begin peer conferences by demonstrating appropriate skills as in (a) above. Motivate students through your regard and respect for their writing. Begin with pair groups and short, structured times (e.g., five minutes), during which each partner finds something he/she likes about the other’s piece.
- d. Respond to students’ writing in interactive journals (see *Dialogue Journals*, p. 31).

Step 4. Revising Writing

In this step, students revise selected pieces of writing for quality of content and clarity of expression. Not all pieces are revised, only those in which the student has a particular interest and for which the student has a particular audience in mind. Revision activities include:

- a. Demonstrating revision techniques such as using editorial symbols on the overhead or physically cutting

and pasting a chart-sized paper or transparency to rearrange text.

- b. Using a word processor to make revisions.
- c. “Mini-lessons” — demonstrations/discussions of qualities of good writing (e.g., clarity, voice, sense of audience, appropriate sequencing, word choice, lead, ending, transitions) in preparation for revision. Focus on one skill per writing project; as students accumulate skills, they can revise for these aspects in their writing.
- d. Students applying revision guidelines and suggestions to their own work. When appropriate, encourage students to share (Step 3) and revise (Step 4) several times until they are satisfied with the content of their work.

Step 5. Editing

In this step, students, with the help of peers and teachers, fix up mechanics of usage and spelling. Editing standards are different for students of different ages and at different stages in their writing. This step is only carried out when there is a purpose and an authentic audience for the writing, i.e., a piece is going to be published. Editing activities may include:

- a. Making a chart for classroom walls or folders that list editing skills that have been taught and that students may use as a checklist when they edit.
- b. Creating an editing center with resources: editing chart, dictionary, thesaurus, grammar reference, computer with spell check. Alternatively, students could keep a chart of editing skills they have acquired.
- c. Conducting editing mini-lessons and conferences with individuals, small groups, and full groups. You might require an editing conference before a student’s final draft.
- d. Helping students make personal spelling, translation,

or picture dictionaries for their use in checking spelling or usage.

e. Peer edit exchanges or conferences.

Step 6. Publishing

Through publication, the writing is presented to the public and celebrated. Although new language learners' writing is often published in draft form, writing of older and/or more proficient writers will be revised and edited before publication. Middle and high school students probably need some protection from adverse audience response — perhaps an editing conference with you before work is prepared for presentation to outsiders.

Publishing gives students an authentic reason to write. Publish students' writing often. Parents might be willing to help you with the mechanics of bookbinding. This is a way for parents who may lack confidence in English to help the teacher and contribute to their children's literacy development. See the boxed list of suggested ways to publish student writing.

Ways to Publish Student Writing

- Put writing on walls and in halls
- Read writing aloud to the class, over the loud-speaker, at PTA meetings, or at assemblies
- Write stories or folk tales to share with younger students
- Make a video of students reading their pieces
- Bind students' writings into individual books
- Bind contributions from each student into a class book, such as a poetry anthology, short story collection, or nonfiction collection
- Put cards and pockets in the backs of student- or class-made books for check-out from the class library
- Make a class newspaper or literary magazine
- Put student-made posters, book jackets, charts, etc. on the wall
- Mail letters
- Print a useful book to sell or give away in the community, such as an ethnic restaurant guide, a multicultural cookbook, or a local history

Resources for Reading Aloud

Hudelson, S. (1985). Beginning Reading and the Bilingual Child. *Dimensions*, 13, 510-514.

Smallwood, B. A. (1990). *The Literature Connection: A Read-Aloud Guide for Multicultural Classroom Reading*. Addison-Wesley (1-800-552-2259).

Trelease, J. (1982). *The Read-Aloud Handbook*. New York: Penguin Books.

Recommended Anthologies

Fadiman, C. (1985). *The World Treasury of Children's Literature (Vols. 1 - 3)*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Koch, K. & Farrell, K. (1985). *Talking to the Sun*. New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston.

Prelutsky, J. (1983). *Random House Book of Poetry for Children*. New York: Random House.

Resources on Process Writing

Calkins, L. (1986). *The Art of Teaching Writing*. Heinemann (1-800-541-2086).

Hudelson, S. (1984), "Kan yu ret an rayt en Engles: Children Become Literate in English as a Second Language," *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(2).

Krashen, S. (1984), *Writing: Research, Theory and Applications*. Pergammon Press.

References

Georgia Department of Education. (1992). *English to Speakers of Other Languages Resource Guide*, Twin Towers East, Atlanta, GA 30334.

Krashen, S.D. (1992). *Fundamentals of Language Education*, Laredo Publishing Co., 22930 Lockness Ave., Torrance, CA 90501.

McCloskey, M.L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies*, Educo Press, Atlanta, GA.

9. English as a Second Language Library Resource List (Multicultural/Bilingual/Books in Spanish)

Reference Books

Diccionario Bilingue Ilustrado (Lectorum)

Level One: 250-word picture dictionary (Grades K-2)
(0-8325-0052-6) \$8.95

Level Two: Alphabetical dictionary with Spanish &
English sentences (Grades 2-4) (0-8325-0053-4)
\$8.95

Level Three: Formal dictionary with guide words,
phonetic pronunciations, and definitions in
Spanish (Grades 4-8) (0-8325-0054-2) \$9.95

Bantam Spanish-English Dictionary (Lectorum) (0-
553-26370-6) \$3.95

The New Oxford Picture Dictionary (English/Spanish
edition) (Grades 6 & up) (Oxford University Press)
\$9.25

Ingles Para Latinos (Barron's) (0-8120-4781-8) \$9.95
This book is designed for people who are literate in
Spanish and who want to practice English on their
own.

Enciclopedia Juvenil Oceano (Lectorum) (84-7764-
483-7) \$150.00
A six-volume encyclopedia in Spanish.

Multicultural stories

Ancona - *Pablo Remembers the Fiesta of the Day of the
Dead* (Lectorum) (English and Spanish editions
available) \$12.00

Silverthorne - *Fiesta! Mexico's Great Celebrations*
(Lectorum) \$5.55

Hewett - *Hector Lives in the U.S. Now - The Story of a
Mexican-American Child* (Lectorum) \$11.15

Hispanic-Americans: Grades K-3 (7 books, 1 of each
title) (Sundance) (LAO7894) \$27.95

Hispanic-Americans: Grades 4-6 (7 books, 1 of each
title) (Sundance) (LA O7803) \$21.95

Spier - *People* (Also available in Spanish from
Lectorum under the title of *Gente*) \$14.35

Bilingual Stories

Selena! by Clint Richmond (a bilingual biography of
the Texas singing star) (Pocket Books) \$5.99

Family Pictures (Bilingual/English-Spanish)
(Lectorum) \$5.95 (paper) \$13.95 (hardcover)

Uncle Nacho's Hat (Bilingual/English-Spanish) (Perma-
Bound) \$11.50

The Woman Who Outshone the Sun (Bilingual/English-
Spanish) (Lectorum) \$5.95 (paper) \$13.95 (hard-
cover)

Carlos and the Cornfield (Bilingual/English-Spanish)
(Chiquilibros) \$14.95

Books in Spanish for Children who are Literate in Spanish

Fairy Tales in Spanish (Troll Associates) (MC-PD226)
(9 books) \$26.66

El Gran Capoquero (Chiquilibros) (Grades 3-6) \$4.95

Ramona y Su Padre - (translated Beverly Cleary book)
(Lectorum) (Grades 3-6) \$6.35

Las Telarañas de Carlota - (translation of *Charlotte's
Web*) (Lectorum) (Grades 4-6) \$6.35

Un Puente Hasta Terabithia - (translation of *A Bridge
to Terabithia*) (Lectorum) (Grades 6-8) \$9.95

Cesar Chavez y La Causa (Lectorum) (Grades 2-4)
\$9.95

Cuentos y Leyendas de Amor Para Niños (short stories)
(Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 & up) \$12.95

Cuentos de Espantos y Aparecidos (short stories)
(Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 & up) \$12.95

Un Grillo en Times Square (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 &
up) \$4.95

Una Boda Desmadrada (Chiquilibros) (Grades 6 &
up) \$6.95

Publishing Companies

Barron's - 250 Wireless Blvd., Hauppauge, NY 11788,
516-434-3311.

Celebration Press - One Jacob Way, Reading, MA
01867, 1-800-792-0550.

Chiquilibros - Call 1-800-454-2748 for information
on how to order books.

Delta Systems Co., Inc. - 1400 Miller Parkway,
McHenry, IL 60050, 1-800-323-8270.

Lectorum - 137 West 14th St., New York, NY 10011,
1-800-345-5946.

Oxford University Press - 2001 Evans Rd., Carey, NC
27513, 1-800-451-7556.

Perma-Bound - Vandalia Road, Jacksonville, IL
62650, 1-800-637-6581.

Pocket Books - 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New
York, NY 10020.

Sundance Publishing - 234 Taylor St., P.O. Box 1326;
Littleton, MA 01460, 1-800-343-8204.

Troll Associates - 100 Corporate Drive, Mahwah, NJ
07430, 1-800-526-5289.



4

English in the Content Areas



1. Introduction

The aim of school is to teach students the **content** of everyday living, (e.g., math, science, social studies, literature). The language of that content is the focus of this chapter. A child who possesses the skills in social language, (e.g., the language of the playground or the grocery store) does not necessarily possess academic language. BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) is the language most students use for face-to-face social communication. By the time they exit ESL class, they should have this language. CALP (Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency) is the language necessary for success in academic or cognitive domains.

In Pre-K through second grade, vocabulary and language development (both social and academic) is the main focus of instruction. In their study of academic language, Collier and Thomas say if Pre-K through second grade is taught with big books and music, with an emphasis on what things mean, students have a good head start toward gaining academic language.

It is in the primary grades 3-5 (6) where there is a divergence. Vocabulary, the most common aspect of the language of these domains, gives good examples. For instance, *math has many ways to say the same thing*. Students must know that addition can be signaled by **any** of these words: add, plus, combine, sum, and increased by. Similarly subtraction can be signaled by these words: subtract from, decrease by, less, take away, minus, differ, or less than.

In science, logical connectors such as “because,” “however,” “consequently,” and “for example,” indicate the nature of the relationship between the parts of a text

or experiment. An experiment itself is formulaic, and language is used to express it: hypothesis, experiment, conclusion.

For social studies it is not only the vocabulary, but all the background knowledge many migrant students do not possess. For instance, one mentions the Fourth of July to an American student and it conjures up thoughts of the founding of this country, the Declaration of Independence, the Revolutionary War, etc. For a migrant student it may mean very little.

This is a very quick overview of just one aspect of what makes subject matter so hard for LEP students. Added to this are the semantics and discourse features of language, and the use of vocabulary in differing contexts. (Think of the word “power” as in the “powers of the president”; or “power” as in “the electric power company”; or “power” as in “4 to the highest power.”) These vocabulary differences are bewildering to many LEP students.

Research shows that language is effectively learned when it is a vehicle of instruction, not the object; students reach a high level of second language development while mastering subject matter. Input is made comprehensible through a variety of means: demonstrations, visual aids, graphic organizers, hands-on materials, and manipulation of the content. Schema, or background knowledge, is built before a topic is introduced, so students are able to process material from the “top down,” i.e. having general knowledge of the broad picture before studying the details.

The following lessons should give you, the teacher, a start on integrating language and content.

2. Basic Principles

Students are still learning English and the style of the American educational system, so teachers should present information as clearly and systematically as possible. Remember to:

Announce the lesson's objectives and activities

It is important to write the objectives on the board and review them orally before class begins. It is also helpful to place the lesson in the context of its broader theme and preview upcoming lessons.

Write legibly

Teachers need to remember that some students have low levels of literacy or are unaccustomed to the Roman alphabet.

Develop and maintain routines

Routines will help LEP students anticipate what will happen (e.g., types of assignments, ways of giving instructions) without relying solely on language cues.

List instructions step-by-step

It helps to familiarize the students with each step individually and not require them to find the answer or complete the whole process from the start. This procedure is ideal for teaching students to solve math and science word problems.

Present information in varied ways

By using multiple media in the classroom, teachers reduce the reliance on language and place the information in a context that is more comprehensible to the students.

Provide frequent summations of the salient points of the lesson

Teachers should

- try to use visual reviews with lists and charts;
- paraphrase the points where appropriate; and
- have students provide oral summaries themselves.



3. Mathematics

Purpose

The set of activities presented below shows how mathematical concepts and skills can be integrated into language learning so that students learn the academic language necessary for mathematics instruction.

The activities presented here deal with the mathematical topic **Identifying Geometric Shapes and their Attributes**.

Grades 1-2

content focus: identifying shapes

language focus: labeling shapes

Materials

You'll need a class set of attribute blocks, or sets of cardboard shapes that differ by size, color, and shape.

The Basic Approach

1. Divide students into small groups, each with a set of attribute blocks or cardboard shapes. Ask students to divide the blocks into 3 groups. (Students should discover on their own that the attributes are color, shape, size).
2. Leave each student with a set of blocks that differ only in shape (not in color or size). Name the shapes: "This is a circle. What is this?" Have the students answer until they learn the names of the various shapes. "This is a _____."
3. Provide additional practice by giving simple commands: "Put the square on your head. Hold the triangle in your left hand."

Extensions and Variations

1. Provide written labels on cards. Have the students match attribute blocks to word cards. Students can work in pairs.
2. Have students write the word for each shape their partners show them.
3. Have students practice with worksheets that require them to draw or label shapes: "Draw a red circle. Label the square."

Grades 3-6

content focus: identifying common attributes through set intersection

language focus: describing, giving reasons

Materials

Sets of attribute blocks or cardboard shapes
Flannel graph with construction paper shapes

The Basic Approach

1. Divide students into small groups. Have the students divide their attribute blocks into two groups, (e.g., all shapes that are squares and all shapes that are blue). Illustrate what they have found on flannel graph.
2. Ask students if some of the blocks could belong to both groups or sets, (e.g., the squares that are blue). "Are there some blocks that can belong to both sets? What are they? Why can they belong to the first set? To the second set?"
3. Explain the meaning of mathematical terms such as

set, intersection, and complement. Have students give their reasons for the intersection of the sets, (e.g., “Because these are squares and they are blue”).

4. Ask students other questions about the elements of the sets. “How many yellow elements are there in the complement? What squares are not in the intersection?”
5. Illustrate the intersection of the two sets with a Venn Diagram or a Carroll Diagram.

Extensions and Variations

1. Have the students make attribute chains with a set of blocks. For example: “Put a small blue circle on the table. Find a shape that is different in only one way.” Have the student put his/her choice next to

the blue circle, e.g., a small red circle. Have the other students state whether they agree that this choice is different in one way or not. “Yes, because they are both small circles; the only difference is color.” Continue the chain, with students providing reasons for their choices.

2. Then change the chain pattern to two different (e.g., medium red triangle, then a small blue triangle), and finally three different (e.g., small yellow circle, then a big red square). In each case, have students provide the reasons for the various sequences of shapes (e.g., “The second element matches the first in color and shape; the third matches the second in shape and size”). This activity can become a game for small groups, and students may try to “trick” each other by putting down a wrong block to get rid of theirs first or by giving a wrong reason.

Lesson adapted from Gilbert J. Cuervas, Theresa Corasanti Dale, Richard Tokar, Gina Richardson, and Karen Willetts

4. Science

Purpose

This strategy can be used to integrate language and content instruction in science classes with a laboratory focus. The approach takes standard laboratory experiments and integrates language learning. The following activity illustrates the implementation of the strategy at the primary school level for a specific scientific concept: *Air has pressure because it weighs something.*

Materials

water
pencils and paper
towels
medium-size glasses (glass or plastic - styrofoam doesn't work)
pans or sinks
stiff cards of various sizes, (e.g., index cards)

The Basic Approach

For students at **beginning proficiency levels**, conduct the following experiment (Steps 1-7). The steps for the basic experiment are appropriate at the elementary

school level. The primary cognitive focus is observation, which can be expressed linguistically through simple unstructured discussion and/or note-taking activities, and by asking yes-no questions or giving imperatives.

- Step 1: Write on the board and state orally: "Air has pressure because it weighs something."
- Step 2: Put water in the glass until it comes to the top.
- Step 3: Push the card over the top of the glass.
- Step 4: Hold your hand over the card. Turn the glass of water upside down. Be sure to leave your hand on the card.
- Step 5: Remove hand and ask students to comment on what they have observed, eliciting relevant vocabulary and concepts.
- Step 6: Divide class into small groups (2-3 students each). Each group is asked to reenact the experiment, keeping a record of when it does and doesn't work.
- Step 7: Reconvene class and have group members relate results.

Extensions

The instructor may want to incorporate some higher level cognitive focuses at the **intermediate proficiency level**. In that case, the following steps may be added to the basic experiment. (Refer to steps 1-7 on p. 64.)

- 4b. Ask them to predict what will happen.
- 6b. Tell groups to record results on a prepared form that classifies what happens under different conditions. For example:

glass not filled to the top with water _____

card not large enough to fit over rim _____

hand removed too quickly _____

card not stiff enough _____

- 7b. Ask students to relate what happened under the varying conditions and to provide an explanation.

At the **advanced proficiency level**, the experiment can be expanded to include the following steps:

Lesson adapted from Patricia Chamberlain, Mary Ellen Quinn, and George Spanos

- 6c. Have students write their own conclusions.
- 6d. Assign a group recorder the task of collecting all the conclusions, writing down, and reporting to the group the various conclusions. Students in each group then add hypotheses and conclusions.
- 7c. Have each group make a report to the class. This may be structured according to a standard reporting format.
- 7d. Collect written group reports and return them at a later date with comments and perhaps allow for further discussion.

Variations

A related activity would be to take an empty clear glass, turn it upside down, and push it down into a pan of water. Demonstrate that the water doesn't go in to the glass (or only slightly), because air pressure prevents it. Use similar steps as above, eliciting verbal responses and explanations from the students at the appropriate level of proficiency. Variations will, of course, depend upon whether the class is an ESL class or a mainstream class, as well as upon the nature of the specific experiment being used.

5. Social Studies 1

Purpose

This strategy introduces and reviews important events, people, dates, and concepts in the social studies content area using color-coded sentence strips. By manipulating sentence fragments, the teacher can focus on both content information and language development. Examples of language development objectives may include:

- develop sentence structure and vocabulary
- review WH-questions
- promote oral language proficiency and the transition to reading/writing

Language Level

Beginning to Intermediate

Educational Level

Grade one or higher

Materials

Strips of colored paper and colored cards
Colored markers
Pocket chart (optional) for visual display
Magnetic tape (optional) for display of cards/sentences on magnetic chalkboard or thumbtacks for display on bulletin board.

The Basic Approach

This strategy involves the use of color-coded sentence strips to present content information and develop a variety of language skills.

Step 1: Prepare the following materials:

- color-coded strips with content information
- color-coded WH-question cards that correspond to specific sentence parts on the colored strips
- color-coded word cards that contain key words/phrases from the target sentences

Example:

Cortez	went from Cuba	to Mexico	in 1519	to look for gold.
blue	red	green	purple	orange
Who	from Where	Where	When	Why
blue	red	green	purple	orange

Alternate question cards:

What was his name?	What country was he from?	What place?
blue	red	green
What year?	What reason?	
purple	orange	

Step 2: Introduce content information on “World Explorers” to students by:

- a. Separating target sentences into fragments; building up sentences by taping or tacking strips to board as they are added; having students repeat or read fragments as they are added.
- b. Eliciting appropriate responses to WH-questions about the contents; asking questions about each segment as it is added; **then** reviewing by asking basic questions.
- c. Eliciting appropriate WH-questions to correspond with given content information; and pointing to the answer and having students supply the question.
- d. Distributing question cards and word cards to students for physical response drills; having student with question card stand up and ask; **then** student with appropriate answer stand up and respond.
- e. Distributing word cards to students so they can reconstruct target sentences by standing up in correct order.

Step 3: Encourage student interaction with color-coded cards and sentence strips. Have students pair up to practice with each other.

Step 4: Move from oral practice into writing activities:

- a. Have students write appropriate content information or WH-question following an oral cue.
- b. Have students write target sentences when given a word or phrase as an oral stimulus.
- c. Have students create new sentences (following the structural pattern) when given additional content information.

Extension

Model other similar sentences for an oral and/or written review. For example:

- Cabot went from England to America in 1497 to find a trade route.
- Cartier went from France to Canada in 1534 to find a trade route.

Ask questions: who? what country? where? when? why?

Other Uses

This strategy could be easily adapted to other social studies units as well as other content area subjects.

Lesson adapted from Melissa King, Stephen Mathiessen, and Joseph Bellino

6. Social Studies 2

Purpose

This strategy uses visual representations known as “semantic webs” to portray the relationships among various components of a content lesson. Presentation of content via semantic webs helps students develop the skills of organizing information and comparing/contrasting information as related to key concepts. At the same time, language development occurs through:

- vocabulary development
- practice in clarifying and describing relationships

Language Level

Intermediate to advanced

Educational Level

Grade 2 or higher

Materials

- Paper and pencil
- Ruler
- Templates with shapes/configurations (optional)

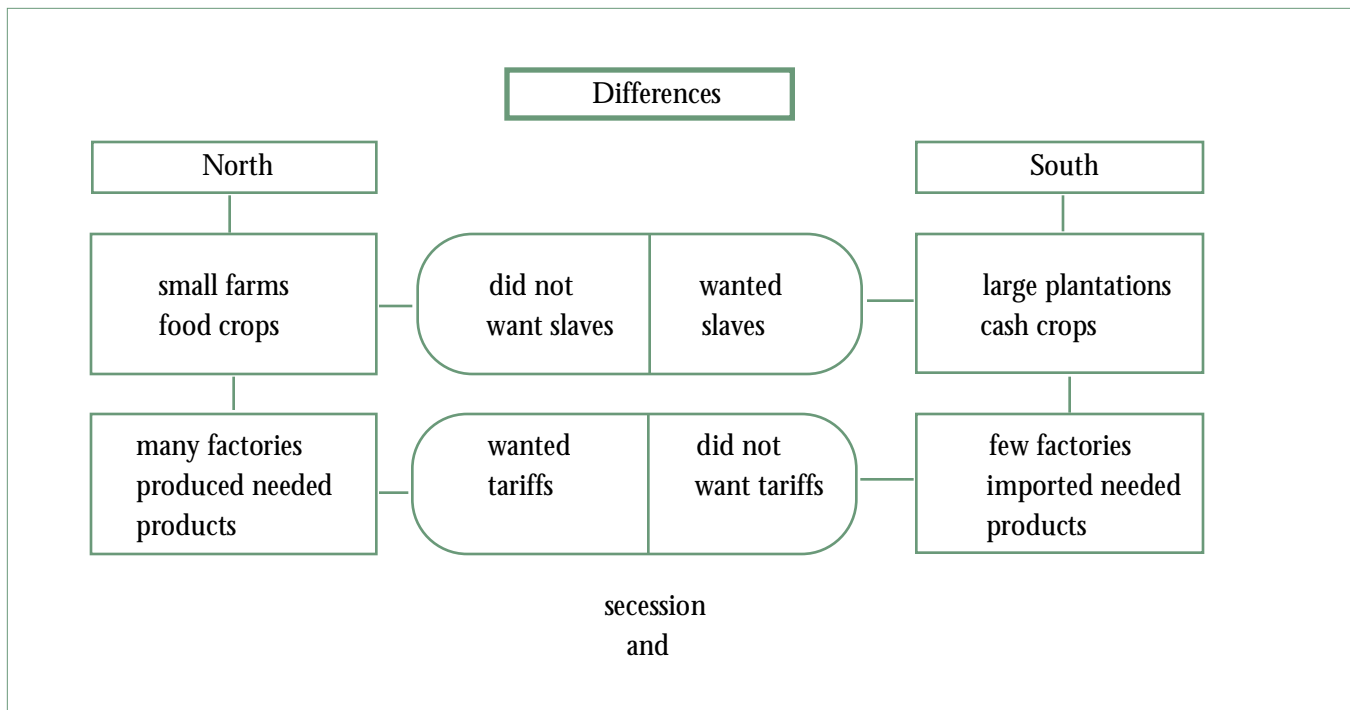
The Basic Approach

This strategy uses a visual scheme to represent relationships among important events, people, or other historical facts and concepts; for example, the following content focus can be considered:

DIFFERENCES between the North and the South led to disagreement over socioeconomic policies and eventually led to the secession of the Confederate states.

Step 1: Review the unit to be studied and identify key concept(s).

Determine important relationship(s) in the unit and list the target categories.



Step 2: Present this semantic web to students.

Encourage student discussion of content and concepts represented.

Ask such questions as:

- What states are in the North? in the South?
- Where are there small farms? large plantations?
- What are crops? goods? tariffs?
- Who wanted slaves but did not want tariffs?
- If appropriate to student level, ask them to generate sentences and/or a paragraph to explain relationships illustrated in the web, or to read a related text.

Step 3: Ask for elaboration of ideas represented in web.
For example, ask students which major differences between the North and South led to war.

If a related reading has been assigned, present a blank web or one with gaps and ask students in groups to fill in details based on this reading.

Other Uses

This strategy could easily be adapted to other social studies units as well as other content area subjects. It can serve as a prereading as well as a review activity. This strategy is excellent for developing pros and cons, for clarification, and for analyzing paragraphs for major ideas and supporting ideas.

7. Integrated Content Lesson

The Very Hungry Caterpillar

This lesson may take two or three days. Possible break points are suggested in the text.

Age/Grade Level

Ages 6-8

Grades 1-2

Content Objectives

Science:

Identify some common foods

Recognize stages of life of a butterfly

Social Studies:

State and sequence days of the week

Math:

Sequence pictures using the numbers 1-5

Art:

Draw favorite foods

Thinking:

Sequence stages of life of a butterfly

Solve a word puzzle

Language Objectives

Listening/Speaking:

Listen to a story

Respond to oral commands

Retell a story

Repeat choral parts of a story

Reading/Writing:

Dictate a story similar to *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* using favorite foods

Read number words (one to five)

Read/recognize days of the week

Language structures:

Monday, he ate..., Tuesday he ate...

First, next, then, last

Did he...?

Yes, he did. No, he didn't.

Vocabulary:

Review food words

Egg, caterpillar, cocoon, butterfly

first, next, then, last

ate, crawl

Materials

The Very Hungry Caterpillar by Eric Carle (NY: Crowell, 1987)

picture cards of life cycle of a butterfly

vocabulary pictures of foods

magic markers, crayons, glue

word cards for days of the week

cotton ball sprayed with hair spray (optional)

A. Motivation

1. Show students the cover of the book, *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*. Ask:
What is this?
If the students don't respond correctly, say,
This is a caterpillar.
Tell them they will make caterpillars now.
 2. Have students make an accordion fold caterpillar.
Have students color the face. Show students how
to accordion fold the strip to make the caterpillar.
Paste the heads on the caterpillar bodies.
- Hold up your finished caterpillar and say:
Look at my caterpillar.
Show me your caterpillar.
Make your caterpillar move.
How does the caterpillar move?
If the students don't know, say, "He crawls."

B. Presentation

1. Show students the cover of *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*. Tell students this is a caterpillar, pointing to the word on the cover. Ask:
What do you know about the caterpillar?
Where can you see a caterpillar?
Tell the students **caterpillars come from eggs**.
 2. Show students a picture (from the picture cards) or model of an egg.
What is this?
(If students don't say, tell them, "This is an egg.")
Ask Levels I and II (beginning):
Is something inside?
Ask Levels III and IV (intermediate):
What is inside?
 3. Read the title of the book. Ask students to predict what the story will be about. (Check to see if students know the word "hungry.")
 4. Read the story *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*, showing students the pictures. When finished, ask students, **Did you guess the story? Were you right?**
 5. Reread the story, encouraging students to join in chorally in the patterned parts. Use a cotton ball sprayed with hair spray (if available) to demonstrate what a cocoon looks and feels like.
 6. Ask comprehension questions with **did**. Try to elicit short answers with **did** and **didn't**. Model if necessary.
Did he eat an apple?
Did he eat a pencil?
Did he eat pears?
Level I: Nods yes or no
Level II: Yes or No
Levels III, IV: Yes, he did. No, he didn't. Or number.
Level IV: Yes, he ate....**How many did he eat?**
 7. Focus on the past tense of **eat**. Point to pictures and say:
What does the caterpillar eat?
He eats plums.
What did the caterpillar eat yesterday?
Yesterday, he ate plums.
- Use the pattern with some other food items (review) and have students repeat and/or create their own sentences

(continue pointing to pictures and/or use other food picture cards).

Did the caterpillar eat bananas? pears? strawberries?

Level I, II: Nods, says yes or no.

What did the caterpillar eat?

Level III, IV: He ate bananas... pears... strawberries.

Did the caterpillar grow big?

Level I: Nods yes

Level II: Yes.

Why did the caterpillar grow big?

Level III: He ate.

Level IV: He ate (a lot of) food.

8. Point to each picture in order and say:

First, it's an egg.

Next, it's a caterpillar.

Then, it's a cocoon.

Last, it's a butterfly.

9. Repeat this procedure, having students point to each picture and repeat the sequence aloud.

Level I: Points

Level II: Repeats key vocabulary

Level III, IV: Repeats sentences

(If you are using this lesson over two days, this would be a good break point. At the beginning of the next class, ask the students to retell the story briefly, reviewing the key vocabulary.)

C. Application

1. Distribute pictures of the egg, caterpillar, cocoon, and butterfly to students. As the students respond to questions, have the students come to the front of the room and stand in the correct sequence.

Ask:

- Who has the butterfly?**
- Who has the caterpillar?**
- Who has the egg?**
- Who has the cocoon?**

Ask the remaining students:

- What is first?**
- What is next?**
- What is next?**
- What is last?**

Level I: Points to correct student

Level II, III: Says egg, caterpillar, etc.

Level IV: First, it is an egg, etc.

2. Number five areas of the blackboard to represent the days of the week (Monday through Friday). Ask students to repeat the days of the week. Distribute word cards for Monday through Friday; ask students to place the word cards under the appropriate number on the blackboard (make sure Monday is #1).

3. Distribute to students the picture cards showing the foods the caterpillar ate. Tell students:

**Find all the students who have the same food.
Stand together.**

(Give students time to group themselves).

**Count the number of students in your group.
Match the number of students in your group to
the numbers on the board.
Stand in front of the correct number or day of
the week.**

Have the students retell the story by looking at their classmates. Model the first sentence:

Monday he ate one apple.

4. Say:

**Who can tell me something the caterpillar ate?
Do you eat...?
What do you eat?
What food do you like best?**

Have students draw their favorite food for the caterpillar to eat. Give students the art materials. After the pictures are complete, have students (with assistance, if necessary) label or dictate food labels or sentences for the pictures, *He ate...* Have students retell the story with their favorite foods.

D. Review/Assessment

1. Make a ladder chart on the blackboard like this.

Monday, he ate _____.
 Tuesday, he ate _____.
 Wednesday, he ate _____.
 Thursday, he ate _____.
 Friday, he ate _____.
 Saturday, he ate _____.
 Sunday, he ate _____.

Distribute to students picture cards showing the foods the caterpillar ate. Have students place pictures on blackboard in blanks. When the chart is complete, ask questions like:

Did the caterpillar eat?

What did he eat first?

What did he eat next?

What did he eat last?

Level I: Nods yes or no; points to the picture.

Level II: Says yes or no; names the food.

Level III, IV: Yes, he did. No, he didn't. He ate _____.

2. Use ladder chart to assess knowledge of numbers.

Ask questions like:

Did the caterpillar eat two plums?

Level I: Nods, says yes or no.

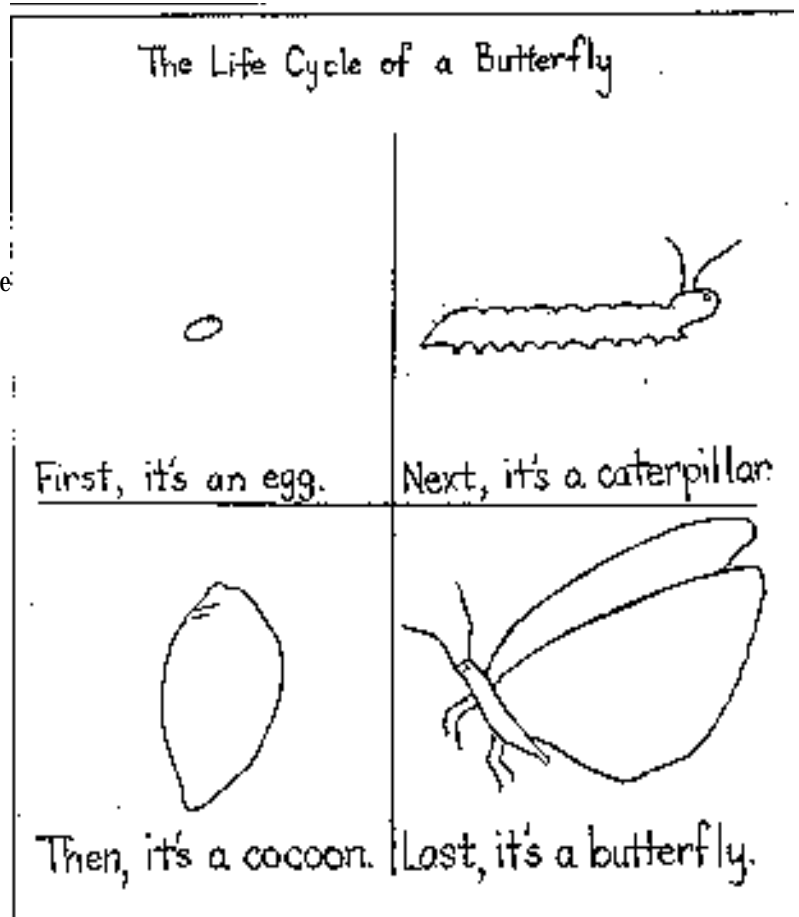
How many plums did the caterpillar eat?

Level II: Two.

Level III, IV: He ate two plums.

3. Ask students to sequence the picture cards showing the life cycle of a butterfly.

Lesson adapted from Center for Applied Linguistics



8. Adapting Materials

Sometimes, written materials need to be adapted before students can comprehend them. If you are the ESL teacher, make sure to collaborate with your content colleagues to identify the language and/or academic difficulties that

particular subjects or courses may present for the migrant students. Make sure each paragraph begins with a topic sentence to help students orient to the subject matter. Use shorter paragraphs that eliminate relative clauses, and the passive voice, if possible. Replace potentially ambiguous pronouns, (“it,” “he/she”) with the noun to which they refer (“Plymouth Rock,” “Mr. Mustard”). Below are some guidelines for rewriting and adapting, as well as one social studies and one science adaptation.

- Put the topic sentence first, with supporting detail in the following sentences.
- Reduce the number of words in a sentence and the number of sentences in a paragraph.
- Consider word order. There is no need to be fancy with the position of clauses and phrases. Use the subject-verb-object pattern for most sentences.
- Simplify the vocabulary that will be used, but retain the key concepts and technical terms.
- Do not use a lot of synonyms in the body of the text.
- Introduce new vocabulary with clear definitions and repeat those new words as frequently as possible within the text passage. Try to help students connect new vocabulary with known vocabulary.
- Use the simpler verb tenses such as the present, simple past, and simple future.
- Use imperatives in materials that require following directions, such as a laboratory assignment.
- Write in the active voice, not the passive. For example, instead of writing “*The Declaration of Inde-*

pendence was signed by John Hancock,” write, “John Hancock signed *The Declaration of Independence*.”

- Use pronouns judiciously, only in cases where their antecedents are obvious.
- Be careful with indefinite words like “it,” “there,” and “that” at the beginning of sentences. Instead of writing “There are many children working on computers,” simply write, “Many children are working on computers.”
- Eliminate relative clauses with “who,” “which,” or “whom” wherever possible. Make the clause into a separate sentence.
- Minimize the use of negatives, especially in test questions (e.g., “Which of the following is *not* an example of ...”). If negation is necessary, use the negative with verbs (e.g., *don’t go*), rather than negations like *no longer* or *hardly*.
- Preserve the features of the text that convey meaning. For example, it is important to familiarize the students with sequence markers (e.g., *first, second*), transition words (e.g., *although, however*), and prioritizing terms (e.g., *most important*), since they need to learn how to recognize and use them. The degree of sophistication for these features, however, should reflect the students’ language proficiency.

9. Sample Adaptations

A. Upper Elementary Social Studies

The following is an original passage from *United States History 1600-1987* (INS, 1987: 6).

Virginia

The first permanent colony was Jamestown, Virginia (1607). These colonists came from England to try to make

money by trading with Europe. They believed they would find gold and silver as the Spanish had found in South America, and then they would be rich. When they got to Jamestown, most of the men tried to find gold. They did not want to do the difficult jobs of building, planting food crops, and cutting firewood. One of the colonists, John Smith, saw how dangerous this could be. He took charge and made everyone work to survive. He is remembered for his good practical leadership. Still, less than half of the colonists survived the first few years. Only new settlers and supplies from England made it possible for the colony to survive. The discovery of tobacco as a cash crop to be traded in Europe guaranteed that the colony would do well.

Massachusetts

Many of the colonists came to America to try to find religious freedom. The Catholics had troubles in England and other parts of Europe. The rulers of these countries told their citizens that they must go to a specific church and worship in a certain way. Some people

believed differently than their rulers and wanted to have their own churches. The first group to come to America for religious freedom was the Pilgrims in 1620. They sailed across the ocean in the *Mayflower* and landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Before landing at Plymouth, the Pilgrims agreed on the government they wanted. The agreement was called the Mayflower Compact. It had two important principles:

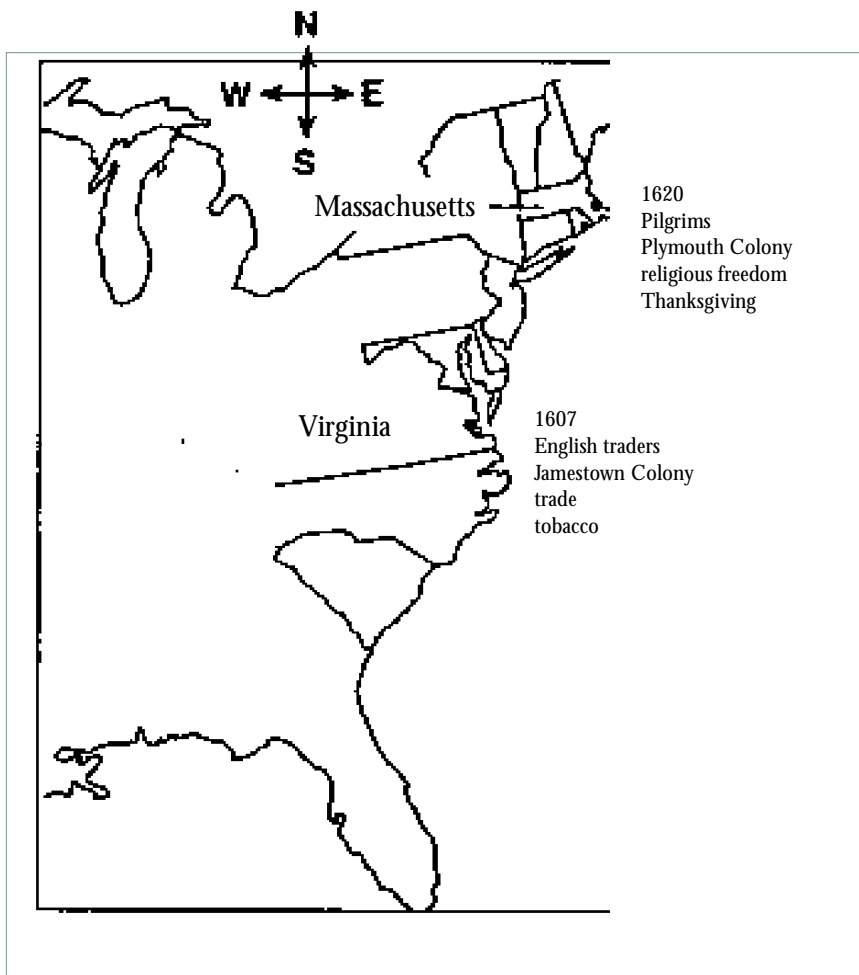
- the people would vote about the government and laws; and
- the people would accept whatever the majority chose.

The adaptation of the above passage was developed for advanced beginner/low intermediate-level LEP students.

The First Two Colonies

This map shows the first two permanent English colonies in North America.

This layout, using a map and organizing the information about each colony in a comparable manner, of-



fers the LEP students access to the pertinent details of the passage. The map places the colony names in context. The inclusion of the compass symbol can lead to a class activity on map skills.

Both a language and a social studies teacher could use this adaptation in the classroom. The language teacher may ask students to use the information to write sentences comparing the two colonies or may encourage predictions about the seasons according to the different latitudes of

the colonies. The social studies teacher may expand on this material by having groups of students research one of the colonies in more detail. Since the students will have already been presented with this background information, they have a schema upon which to add and link more facts and impressions.

B. Using Outlines

The outline can be used by a language or a content teacher in a pre-reading activity. Students may be asked

to discuss their knowledge of fossils first. Then the information they discuss could be referred to as the class reviews the outline. The pictorial adaptation can help explain key vocabulary. It also organizes the fossil sources into two categories—water and land. After a class discussion, the students may be asked to read the original passage.

The outline is a useful model for teaching study skills and students will become familiar with it if outlines are used regularly. As a post-reading activity, a teacher may ask students to create their own outline. This process should be introduced slowly. For example, the teacher may provide a partially completed outline the first time and ask students to finish it. The next time, students

may work in pairs or small groups to create an outline. At a later date, students might write an outline on their own.

The following is an original passage from *Science 3* (Scott, Foresman, 1986: 129).

C. Elementary Science

The following is an original passage from *Science 3* (Scott, Foresman, 1986: 129).

Do You Know?

Some Buildings Contain Fossils

Buildings made of limestone or marble might contain fossils. You might find fossils in rock cut to make space for

new houses. When a road is cut through a hill of rock, fossils can sometimes be found. Broken pieces of rock and stone that you find on the ground might contain fossils. You might also find fossils if you walk along a stream, a river, a lake, or an ocean.

If you go fossil hunting, like the people in the picture, watch for shapes that look like pieces of plants, animals, or shells. These shapes were formed from animals or plants that once were alive. You might even find the shape of an animal's footprints as a fossil. But you will probably not find many complete fossils. They get broken in the earth over time.

What can you do if you find fossils, such as those in the picture? First, record the place where you found your fossils. Then, find out the names of your fossils. You might find a book which will help you label the fossils

that you find.

In some parts of the country, fossils are very common. If you observe carefully, you might find fossils that can help you learn how some animals and plants might have looked years ago.

The adaptation that follows is designed for third and fourth graders. It shows an outline of the original passage and a pictorial representation.

Fossils

I. Types of Fossils

- A. Plants
- B. Animals
- C. Shells

II. Places where fossils are found

WHERE FOSSILS ARE FOUND

A. Water

1. streams
2. rivers
3. lakes
4. oceans

B. Land

1. rocks
2. fields
3. mines
4. building sites

III. Ways to identify types of fossils

- A. Record the place you find a fossil
- B. Look in reference and library books
- C. Take fossil to a museum

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5

Promoting Mathematics (By Any and All Means)



1. Introduction

New standards for mathematics require students to do much more than be able to perform mathematical calculations in isolation. There is now a much a broader view of what “mathematics” encompasses, including the application of mathematics in other disciplines such as science, the humanities, and social sciences; identifying problems that can be solved using mathematics; mathematical reasoning; and using mathematical tools such as graphs to communicate ideas. In addition, students must be able to demonstrate their understanding of math in a variety of ways, such as creating tables and charts, as well as writing descriptions of processes they have used to solve a problem.

In contrast to math taught as computation, the more recent understanding of achievement in math necessitates much more application of computation in a variety of situations, as well as communication and cooperation

among students. Our earlier view of math as a universal system relatively independent of language has been replaced by the view that math, like other content subjects, has a specialized vocabulary, common grammatical patterns and rules for constructing arguments.

These new definitions of mathematical literacy impact all of our students who must learn “to speak math,” that is, learn a specialized vocabulary, particular grammatical constructions, as well as learn to defend solutions to problems. Many students, including LEP students who are still acquiring academic English, need explicit and detailed practice in how to understand word problems, use strategies to find solutions, and communicate their solutions mathematically and in writing. All students benefit from hands-on, cooperative math projects that grow out of real-world situations and have multiple paths toward solutions.

2. Cultural differences in math symbols or in problem-solving procedures

In some Spanish-speaking countries, a period is used to separate multiples of a thousand, and a comma is used in decimals. The opposite is the case in the United States. For example:

“five thousand, four hundred and thirty seven” is represented as 5.437 in some Spanish-speaking countries but as 5,437 in the United States

“four and one half” is represented as 4,5 in Spanish, but as 4.5 in the United States

The operation of division is represented as
$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 4 \overline{)32} \end{array}$$

in the United States, but as
$$32 \overline{)4} \quad 8$$
 in some Spanish-speaking countries.

Cultural differences in math curriculum

In the United States, the units of measurement (pounds, feet, inches) are unfamiliar to students who have learned the metric system. In addition, U.S. schools devote extensive practice to fractions, in part because of our system of measurement. U.S. teachers often refer to “half a foot”; international teachers may refer to “5 millimeters” rather than “half a centimeter.”

3. Instructional suggestions for teaching math to LEP students

The lessons and suggestions that are included in this section of the *Help! Kit* exemplify a multifaceted approach to teaching math to all students, based on the goals of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM):

- 1. Learn the value of math.** Students should learn the relationships and applications of mathematics in academic subjects such as science, social science, and the humanities, and the applications of math in everyday life.
- 2. Become confident in one's own math ability.** Students should learn to use math to solve real-world problems.
- 3. Become math problem-solvers.** Students should learn to solve complex problems that require sustained effort over a period of time, and tackle problems that require cooperation with others to solve.
- 4. Learn to communicate mathematically.** Students should learn to use math symbols and tools (such as equations or graphs) to communicate mathematical ideas in writing and in discussion.
- 5. Learn to reason mathematically.** Students should learn to make predictions, gather evidence, and build an argument to support their conclusions.

The example lessons in this section demonstrate the NCTM goals in that the lessons involve hands-on projects, manipulatives, the solving of word problems, and practice with the language of math.

Hands-on projects

To achieve these goals, students should learn through hands-on, cooperative activities and discussion based on real-world situations. Involve groups of students in researching questions of importance to the school community, for example, doing a user survey of cafeteria menus. Students survey peers to create graphs of favorite foods, together with a written and oral report of the results of their survey. This information is then shared with cafeteria staff.

Manipulatives

In the classroom, make a variety of objects and purchased math manipulatives available so that students can gradually come to understand abstractions. For example, allow students to play with the concept of place value through physically grouping beans or counters into groups of 10s and 1s to represent numbers such as 34.

4. Math-specific language and problem solving

Explicitly practice math language, such as “table,” “area,” or “operation,” distinguishing the mathematical definitions of these terms from their use in everyday language. Provide extensive practice with the steps of problem solving following the examples presented in the sample lessons below. Have students work in groups to solve and

then discuss problems, and then have them create their own word problems. Practice with grammatical constructions found in academic or formal writing such as comparatives or sentences with “if..then” clauses. Ask LEP students who have learned other methods for solving problems in their home countries to demonstrate those methods.

5. Problem solving

The steps in solving a mathematical problem are all important. Skip one and you miss part of the solution. The following are steps for teaching problem solving to LEP students that would be good in solving any math problem.

How to teach problem-solving steps to LEP students

1. **Understand the question** . Teach students to understand the problem through elaboration and imagery. Then rewrite the question as a statement.
2. **Find the needed information** . Help students to use

selective attention (e.g., disregard irrelevant data or number distractors to find needed information).

3. **Choose a plan** . Have students identify the operation and what the problem calls for, then choose a plan, (e.g., write a number sentence, identify parts of the problem, work with a peer, make a table, make a list).
4. **Solve the problem** . Students write out the steps of the problem and solve it, using cooperation to review the steps they have taken.
5. **Check the answer** . Students use a variety of approaches to verify their answer.

6. Adapted math lessons for ESOL students

A. ESOL Adapted Math Lesson

Grade 1

Materials:

- index cards for each student
- one-hole punch for each student
- a pencil for each student
- overhead projector

Lesson Objectives:

Students will demonstrate an understanding of basic addition facts.

Procedure (5 minutes):

1. Teacher provides each student with a hand-held hole punch and an index card.
2. Teacher models using her own hole punch and index card.
3. Using TPR, teacher introduces and reinforces basic vocabulary. Teacher says, "Look at my hole punch." (She holds up the hole punch.)
"Show me your hole punch." "Hold up your hole punch." (Students hold up hole punches.)
"Look at my index card." (She holds up her index card.)
"Show me your index card." "Hold up your index card". (Students hold up index cards.)
"Show me your hole punch." (She waits, then models by holding up her hole punch.)
"Show me your index card." (She waits, then models by holding up her index card.)
4. Still using TPR, the teacher continues.
"Watch me punch three holes in my card." (While the teacher punches, she counts.)
"One, two, three."
5. Teacher places her punched card on the overhead. The light will shine through the punched holes. She points to the holes and counts, "One, two, three holes."
6. Teacher says,
"Punch three holes in your card." (Using another card, teacher models while students punch their cards.)
7. Teacher says,
"Count the holes with me. Count the holes in your card." (She points to the overhead holes.) "One, two, three holes."
8. Teacher moves the punched card on the overhead to the left half of the screen. On the right half of the screen where the light is not covered, she writes the numeral "3" next to the three holes as she again counts to three.
9. "Look at the three holes in my card. Look at the three holes in your card." (Points and models.)
10. "Watch me punch two holes in my card. Watch me punch two holes under the three holes." (Teacher removes card from overhead and punches two holes in her card under the three holes she previously punched. She replaces the card on the overhead and covers the three holes previously punched with another card so only the two just-punched holes show through.)
11. "Look at the two holes in my card; one, two holes." (Points and counts.)
"Punch two holes in your card." (Models and counts.)

12. Teacher moves the card to the left of the overhead screen and counts the two holes showing through on the overhead. Teacher writes the numeral “2” to the right of the two holes under the three holes.

13. Teacher removes the index card covering the three holes. She counts,

“One, two, three, holes...” (She points to the numeral “3”.)

“...plus...” (She adds an addition sign to the left of the numeral “2”.)

“...one, two holes.” (She points to the numeral “2”.)

“Three plus two...” (She points to each as she says it.)

“Count all the holes with me. One, two, three, four, five.” (Points and counts; repeats.)

14. “Three plus two equals (points to each as she says it then writes the equals lines under the “2” to form the equation) FIVE!” (She writes the numeral “5” under the equation on the right side of the screen.)

15. “Pick up your pencil. Count with me.” (Students pick up pencils.)

16. Teacher covers equation on right of screen. Teacher covers two bottom holes, leaving only the three holes showing through.

“One, two, three. Write the number 3 on your card.” (Teacher uncovers the numeral “3” on the right of the overhead. Then the teacher repeats the last command and models by writing the numeral “3” on her card. She shows what she has written on the card to the class. Students write on their cards.)

“Three plus...” (She uncovers the addition sign and writes one on her card. Students write on their cards.)

(Teacher uncovers the two holes)

“One, two...” (She writes “2” in her equation and uncovers the “2” on the screen. Students write on their cards.)

“...equals...” (She uncovers the equals sign and writes one on her card. Students write on their cards.)

“...five.” (Uncovers, writes and models. Students write.)

17. Students now have a card with three holes punched in a line with two holes punched under them and the simple addition fact $3+2=5$ written on it. Follow the procedures to explore two other simple addition facts: $6+3=9$ and $4+3=7$.

(Total lesson time: 20 minutes.)

Follow-Up Lesson

Teacher reviews, following the above procedures for one equation, then repeats, reducing modeling following the model outlined below:

1. Teacher says, “Six...plus...three.”

2. Students punch one line of six holes followed by one line of three holes.

3. Teacher puts punched card on the overhead and says,

“Six...” (points to and counts six holes)

“...plus three...” (points to and counts three holes)

“...equals...one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, NINE!” (points and counts)

Students will join in counting aloud at their own pace depending on their levels of language proficiency. They should be encouraged to join in when they are ready, but not forced.

4. Teacher and students write equation.

Lesson adapted from Lynda Franco, Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics.

B. ESOL Adapted Math Lesson

Grade 2 Basic Bar Graph Activity

Materials

- an apple, an orange, and a banana (other fruit pieces may be added or substituted)
- survey sheet (sample follows) for each student and an overhead copy for the teacher
- worksheet (sample follows) for each student and an overhead copy for the teacher
- a pencil for each child
- colored markers or crayons for each child
- an overhead and markers

Objectives

- The students will survey the class orally to gather information.
- The students will compile information gathered into a bar graph.
- The students will explain (in writing or orally) the meaning of the data displayed on their bar graphs.

Procedure

This lesson is a practice lesson that follows an introductory lesson about bar graphs. The students have looked at bar graphs in a previous lesson and discussed the meaning of the information displayed in those graphs. In this lesson, the students will gather information and create their own bar graphs for display and interpretation.

1. The teacher shows the class the apple, orange, and banana. The teacher names each fruit as she picks it up and shows it to the class.
2. To elicit oral answers, the teacher asks individual students if they like the fruits:

Teacher: “Adela, look at this apple. Do you like apples?”

Adela: “Yes, I like apples.” (Teacher accepts any comprehensible answer such as “Yes.” or “Yes, I like.” and continues by modeling.)

Teacher: “Yes, I like apples, too. Adela likes apples.”

(Teacher repeats with another student and continues with the remaining two fruits.)

3. The teacher makes a statement.

Teacher: “I like apples best. Francisco, which fruit do you like best?”

Francisco: (for example) “I like bananas best.” (Teacher accepts any comprehensible answer)

Teacher: “Francisco likes bananas best. I like apples best.”

Teacher repeats, asking a few more students their preference of the three fruits, and models acceptable answers.

4. Teacher tells the class that today they will be gathering information and making a bar graph to display what they find out. The teacher asks the class to listen to a question, but to think of their answer only. They will have a chance to say their answer soon. Here is the question:

“Which is your favorite fruit?”

5. Teacher provides each student with a copy of a survey sheet. (See Sample on p. 89.) The survey sheet has the name of each child in the class listed with the teacher’s name at the top. (Providing sheets with the names in different orders will assist greatly in this activity.)

6. The teacher displays a copy of the survey sheet on the overhead. The teacher asks herself:

“Which is your favorite fruit?”

She provides the answer, “My favorite fruit is an apple.”

Teacher checks the “apple” column next to her name.

7. Teacher directs the students to get up and go around the room asking every student in the class, “Which is your favorite fruit.” Teacher reminds each student to give the same answer every time he or she is asked the question. Teacher monitors group activity, directs students to check the correct box and include all students and completes the activity herself, checking on her overhead copy.
8. When everyone has been asked, the students return to their seats. The teacher displays her overhead copy, covering it so only the information in one column at a time shows.
9. Teacher directs, “Count how many people say the apple is their favorite fruit.” Teacher counts down the column and writes the number at the bottom in the “total” box. Teacher directs students to do the same on their papers.
10. Teacher uncovers the next column. Teacher directs, “Count how many people say the banana is their favorite fruit.” This time the teacher directs students to count and write on their papers first. Then she counts her column and writes the numbers at the bottom.
11. Teacher uncovers the last column and follows procedures above to have students total the column.
12. Teacher asks questions using “pair share” strategy. (Put students in pairs and have them discuss the answer to the questions before calling on a student to answer.)
“Which fruit do students like best?”
13. Teacher provides graphing sheet and markers or crayons. Teacher displays her graphing sheet on the overhead.
14. Teacher asks:
“How many students like apples best?”
(students answer)
15. Teacher counts UP from the bottom of the “apple” column on the worksheet to the number the class found. She draws a line at the top of that number box. Then she colors in the column (using any choice of color) up to that number to form a bar. Teacher directs students to do the same.
16. Teacher asks, “How many students like bananas best?”
(students answer)
17. Teacher directs students to make the bar for the banana column. Then she does the same on her overhead copy.
18. Repeat procedure for the remaining orange column.
Each student now has a completed bar graph of the information gathered in the activity. Teacher asks a student to review the steps followed to complete this activity. (This may be followed up by a written explanation at the teacher’s discretion.)
19. Teacher asks, “What do our graphs show us?” (Students respond in pairs, writing their ideas on a separate piece of paper.)
The teacher then asks pairs to answer the question. Teacher writes ideas on the board. For example:
More students like apples than bananas.
Students like apples best.

Lesson adapted from Lynda Franco, Region XIV Comprehensive Center/Center for Applied Linguistics.

Follow-Up Activity

The activity following this lesson should repeat the same procedures with five different fruits (for example, a mango, a kiwi, a peach, a cherry, and a grapefruit). This time the students will need less modeling and can get to the information gathering sooner. Display the graphs

created along with the explanations of the meanings of the data.

Students should be asked to create their own title for their graphs. They can also be asked to create their own graph sheet if provided with rulers.

Sample Survey Sheet

	Which is Your Favorite?		
	Apple	Banana	Orange
Teacher's name			
Ana			
Josefa			
Chabeli			
Carlos			
Luis			
Marisol			
Kim			
Quan			
Antonio			
Alexa			
Barney			
Total			

Sample Graphing Sheet

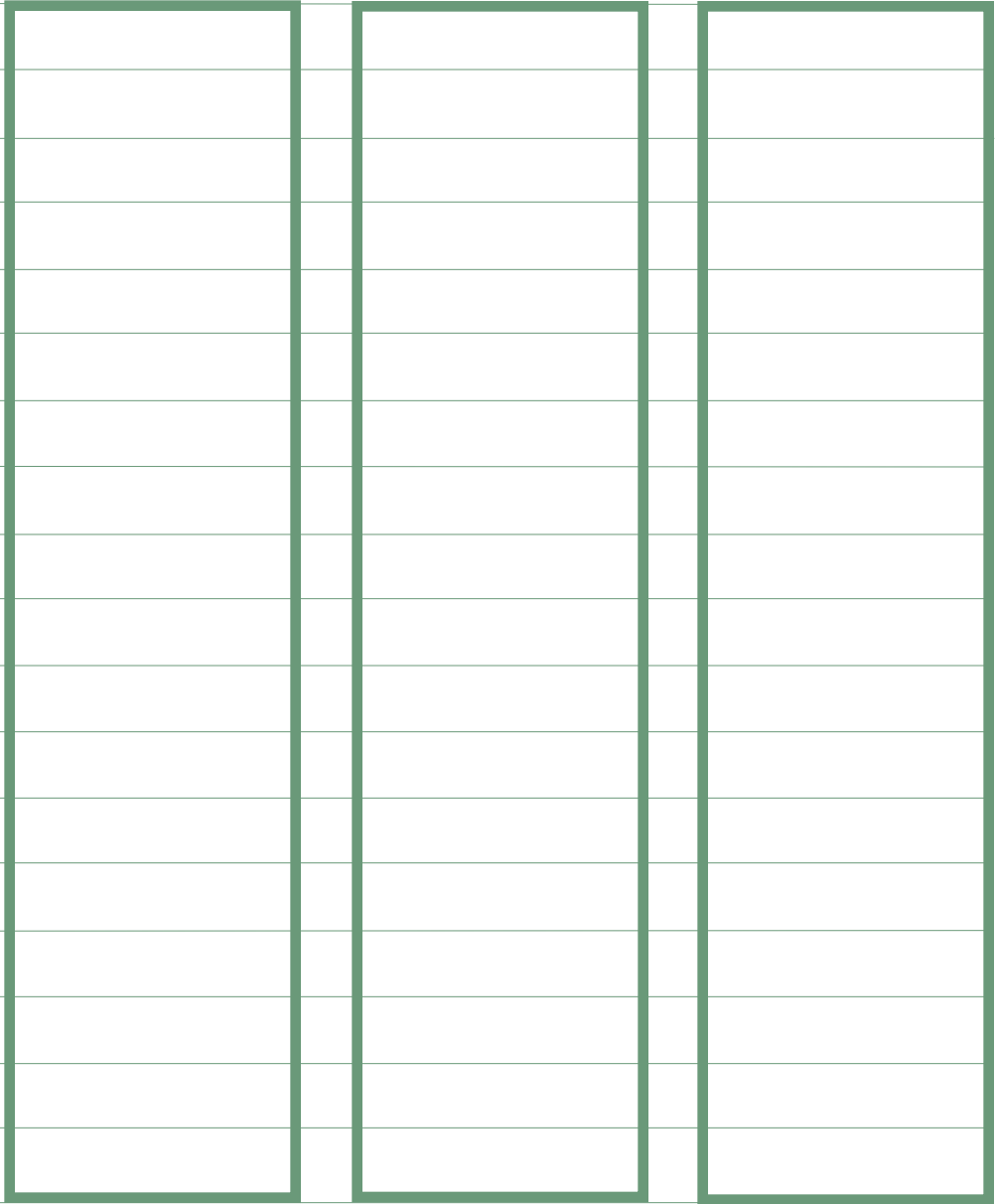
Our Favorite Fruits

Apple

Banana

Orange

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18



C. The Fence

You Will Need

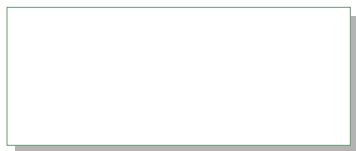
About 25 toothpicks. (Paper clips, beans, crayons, wooden blocks, etc., will work as long as all pieces are the same size.)

The Problem

Your school is planning to build a new sandbox for the playground. A low fence needs to be built around the sandbox to keep the sand in. The builders need to know how much fence material to buy. The principal knows you like math and has asked you to help with the project.

The sandbox will be a rectangle.

A rectangle looks like this:



It will be 6 feet long and 4 feet wide.

How many feet of material will be needed to build the fence around the sandbox?

Pretend that each toothpick is one foot long.

Make a rectangle with your toothpicks that is 6 feet long and 4 feet wide.

Count the number of “feet” there are around the outside of the rectangle.

How many feet of material did you use to build your fence?

If you used 20 feet of materials, you built a perfect fence.

Reach for the Stars

How many sides are 6 feet long? How many sides are 4 feet long?

Can you solve the problem without counting toothpicks?

On the Job

All kinds of jobs require measuring and counting skills: carpenters, electricians, and engineers need these skills to build houses, office buildings, and schools. Farmers need to be able to measure the land for their crops. A seamstress or tailor needs to be able to measure cloth.

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C-1. La Cerca

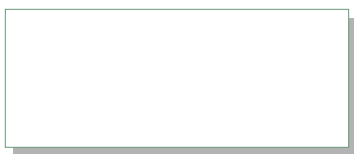
Udin. Ecesitará

Aproximadamente 25 palillos de diente. (Tanto los sujetapapeles, frijoles, lápices de pastel, bloques de madera, etc., funcionarán mientras todas las piezas sean iguales de largo.)

Su escuela está planeando construir una nueva caja de arena para el campo de juego. Se necesita construir una cerca baja alrededor de la caja de arena para mantener la arena adentro. Los constructores necesitan saber cuánto material tienen que comprar para la cerca. El director sabe que a Ud. le gustan las matemáticas y le ha pedido que ayude con el proyecto.

La caja de arena será rectangular.

Este es un rectángulo:



La caja se medirá 6 pies de largo y 4 pies de ancho.

¿Cuántos pies de materiales se necesitarán para construir la cerca alrededor de la caja de arena?

Suponga que cada palillo de diente es un pie de largo.

Haga un rectángulo con sus palillos de diente que sea 6 pies de largo y 4 pies de ancho.

Cuente el número de “pies” que hay alrededor de la parte de afuera del rectángulo.

¿Cuántos pies de material usó para construir la cerca?

Si usó 20 pies de material, construyó una cerca perfecta.

Alcance las Estrellas

¿Cuántos lados son 6 pies de largo? ¿Cuántos lados son 4 pies de largo?

¿Puede Ud. solucionar el problema sin contar los palillos de diente?

En El Trabajo

Gran cantidad de trabajos requieren medidas y habilidades de contar: carpinteros, electricistas, e ingenieros necesitan estas habilidades para construir casas, edificios de oficinas y escuelas. Los agricultores tienen que ser capaces de medir la tierra para sus cosechas. La costurera o el sastre necesita poder medir la tela.

D. Guess What!

You Will Need

Uncooked pasta in 3 colors, paper, pencil, a bag you can't see through.

Game One: For Younger Children

You will need several pieces of pasta in 2 different colors.

Player one puts 7 pasta pieces in a bag. The pieces can be any combination of the 2 colors: 0 & 7, 1 & 6, 2 & 5, 3 & 4.

Player two dips his or her hand into the bag and, without looking, pulls out one piece of pasta. *Player two* then records the draw and replaces the piece of pasta in the bag.

Player one shakes the bag.

After 4 rounds of pulling, recording, and replacing, **player two** makes one guess about the combination in the bag. If the guess is wrong, **player two** plays 3 more rounds and guesses again.

If still not successful, **player two** pulls 2 more rounds and guesses again.

This game can be varied by changing the total number of pasta pieces and the possible combinations.

Game Two For Older Children

You will need several pieces of pasta in 3 different colors.

Player one puts 12 pasta pieces in a bag. The pieces can be any combination of colors such as 0,3,9; 4,4,4; 2,5,5; etc. There are many more possibilities.

The rest of the game is played in the same way as for game one.

On the Job

Probability is the chance that a certain thing will happen depending on the conditions. A weather forecaster uses probability to predict the chance for rain. A dietician uses probability to predict how much of a certain food to prepare for your school cafeteria. A store owner uses probability to figure out how much stock to order.

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D-1. ¡Adivine Que!

Ud. Necesitará

Pasta cruda (fideos, macaronis) en tres colores, papel para sacar notas, un lápiz, y una bolsa de papel opaco para esconder los pedacitos de pasta.

Primer Juego: Para niños menores

Ud. necesitará muchos pedacitos de pasta de dos colores diferentes.

El primer jugador pone 7 pedacitos de la pasta en la bolsa. Los pedacitos pueden ser de cualquier combinación de los dos colores: 0 & 7, 1 & 6, 2 & 5, 3 & 4.

El segundo jugador mete su mano adentro de la bolsa y, sin mirar saca un pedacito de pasta. Entonces *el segundo jugador* toma nota del pedacito que se sacó y vuelve a poner el pedacito de pasta en la bolsa.

El primer jugador sacude la bolsa.

Después de cuatro vueltas sacando, tomando notas, y reponiendo, *el segundo jugador* trata de adivinar la combinación en la bolsa. Si no acierta, *el segundo jugador* juega tres vueltas más y trata de adivinar otra vez.

Si todavía no tiene éxito, *el segundo jugador* saca 2 vueltas más y trata de adivinar otra vez.

Este juego se puede variar cambiando el total de pedacitos de la pasta y las posibles combinaciones.

Segundo Juego: Para niños mayores

Ud. necesitará muchos pedacitos de pasta en tres colores diferentes.

El primer jugador pone 12 pedacitos de pasta en la bolsa. Los pedacitos pueden ser de cualquier combinación de colores, tales como 0,3,9; 4,4,4; 2, 5,5; etc. Hay muchas más posibilidades.

El resto del juego se juega de la misma manera que el primer juego.

En El Trabajo

La probabilidad es la casualidad de que cierta cosa pasará dependiendo de las condiciones. Un pronosticador del clima utiliza la probabilidad para predecir la casualidad de lluvia. Un dietético usa la probabilidad para predecir cuánta cantidad de cierta comida debe preparar para la cafetería de su escuela. El dueño de una tienda usa la probabilidad para calcular qué cantidad de mercancía ordenar.

E. Shape Town

Language Focus: The city; shapes

Critical/creative thinking component

Application skills: estimating how many beans will fit on and around a shape

Analysis skills: comparing the frequency of shapes seen in the environment

Content area: Math

Materials: One copy of “Shape Town” blackline master for each student; different shapes cut from construction paper; beans; one copy of “Most Often Seen” blackline master for each student.

Part 1: Shape Town

Stimuli Directions: Distribute copies of blackline master “Shapetown.” Call students’ attention to the illustration by displaying it on the overhead projector. Use the illustration and stimuli given below to introduce the primary activity. Select stimuli according to the linguistic level of the group.

Preproduction Stimuli

Prompt nonverbal, active participation.

Show me an oval-shaped house. (Lead action.)

Open one of the diamond-shaped windows. (Point to window and pantomime opening it.)

Push one of the circular shopping carts from the grocery store. (Point to cart and pantomime pushing it.)

Pull out some of the mail from the mail bag shaped like a hexagon. (Point to mailbag and pantomime pulling out a letter.)

Trace the perimeter of a square stop sign. (Point to stop sign and use your finger to trace.)

Early Production Stimuli

Prompt one- or two-word responses.

Is the diamond-shaped window (point) open or closed?

Are the rectangular tires (point) on a car or an air-

plane?

Is the circular mail (point) near the post office or the bank?

Is the traffic signal (point) shaped like a circle or a triangle?

Is the stop sign (point) shaped like a rectangle or a square?

Speech Emergence Stimuli

Prompt short answers to literal questions.

What shape are the homes? (Trace the outline of a home with your finger.)

What shape are the tires? (Trace the outline of a tire with your finger.)

Where are the circular shopping carts? (Point to the front of the grocery store.)

What is shaped like a hexagon? (Trace the outline of a tree or the mailbag.)

What is shaped like a square? (Trace the outline of the stop sign.)

Intermediate Fluency Stimuli

Prompt detailed answers to higher-level thinking questions.

What might be different about living in an oval-shaped house?

Why do you think our shopping carts are rectangular instead of circular?

What shapes would you use to construct a traffic signal? Why?

How are a triangle and a square alike? How are they different?

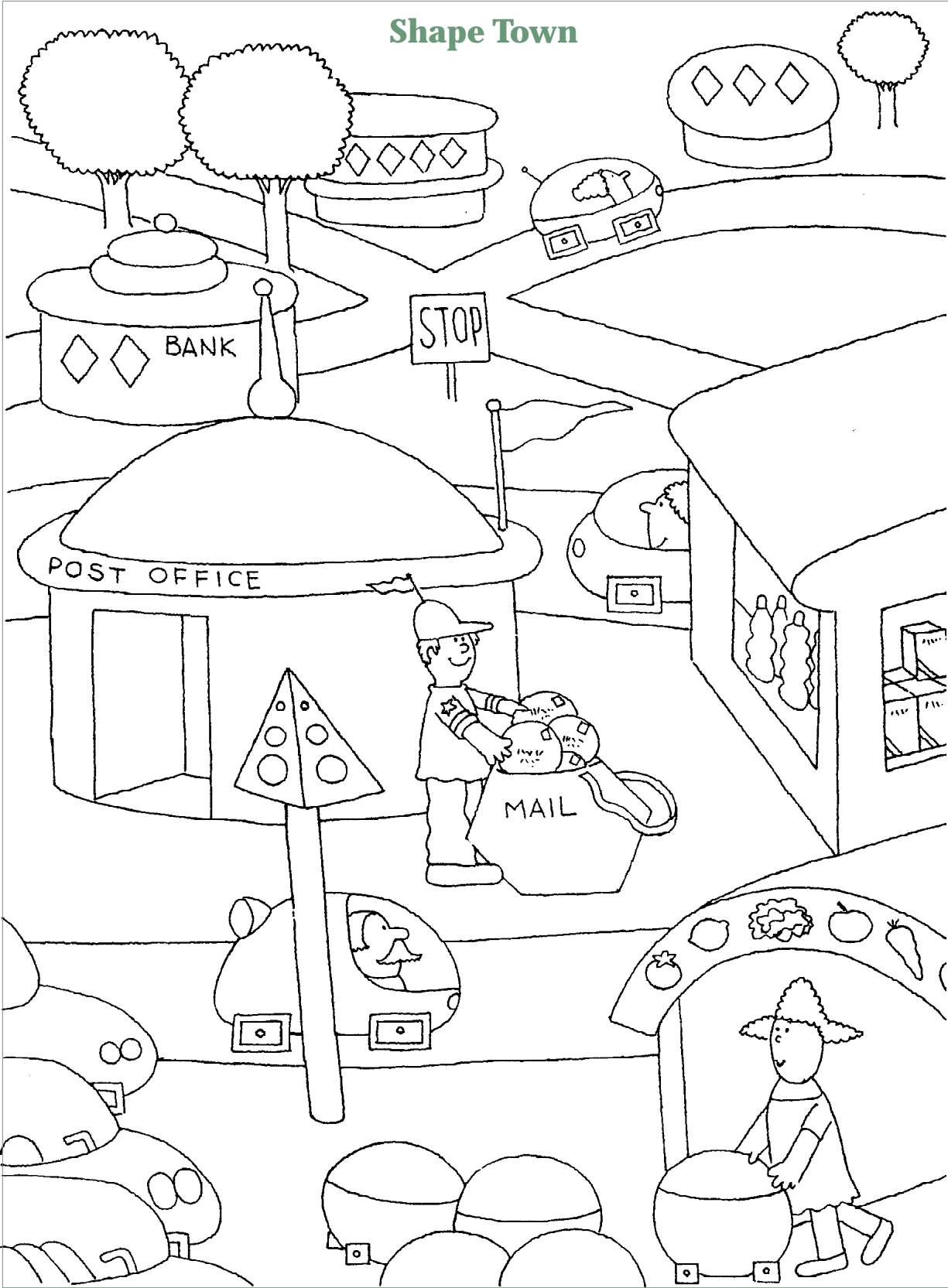
Do you think that shapes were invented or that they just naturally appeared in the environment? Why?

Most Often Seen

Look at the shapes.

Rank the shapes by how often you see them in a day. Give the shape you see most often the number 1.

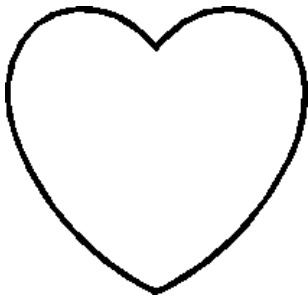
Shape Town



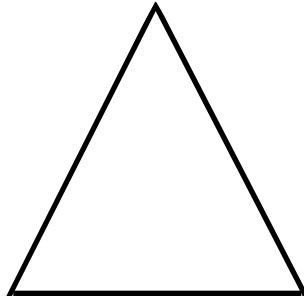
Most Often Seen

Look at these shapes.
Rank the shapes by how often you see them in a day.
Give the shape you see most often the number 1.

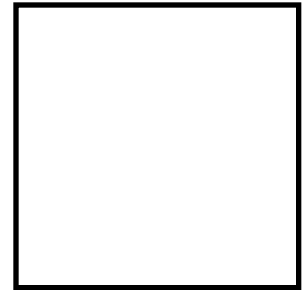
Lesson adapted from *Curious and Creative: Critical Thinking and Language Development*, 1993, Nancy Sokol Green, Addison-Wesley.



Heart _____



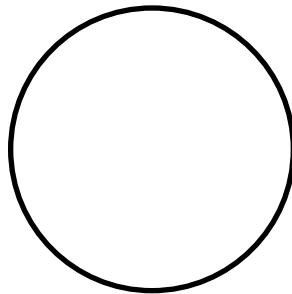
Triangle _____



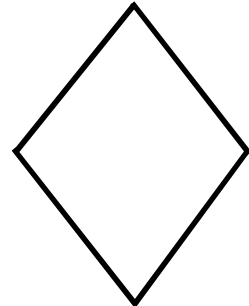
Square _____



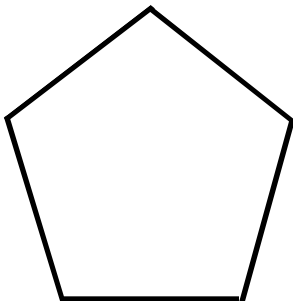
Rectangle _____



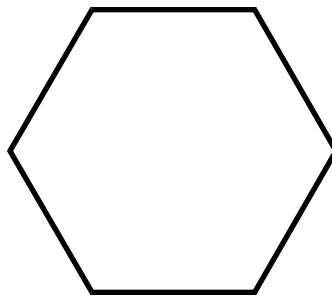
Circle _____



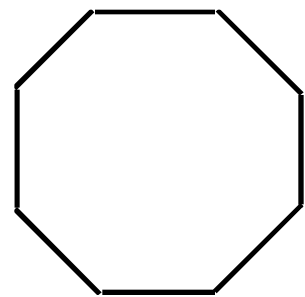
Diamond _____



Pentagon _____



Hexagon _____



Octagon _____

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6

Assessment and Evaluation: How Can We Be Fair and Demanding?



1. Overview

In this section, we offer suggestions on how you as classroom teachers can **identify** LEP students (See Introduction, p. 10), how you can make decisions about **placing** them in a classroom or instructional program, and how you can **assess** students' progress in your classroom—both in learning academic content and in acquiring English.

Research (Collier, 1995) has shown that programs that are effective in teaching language minority students contain the following elements:

1. active learning of academic concepts through hands-on, collaborative instruction
2. academic instruction in English and in the native language (when possible) that is cognitively complex, that is, instruction that encourages students to use academic skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation
3. a positive social environment that integrates language minority students with their English-speaking peers.

These elements of instruction must be linked to equally complex forms of assessment, so that students' progress in academic subjects, language acquisition, and social integration may be assessed.

2. Placing LEP students in appropriate levels of instruction

After determining that a student does speak a language other than English at home, the next questions to consider concern the child's language proficiency in English and the home language, and the child's knowledge of academic content gained in prior schooling.

English language proficiency: oral communication and literacy

A typical sequence for assessing language proficiency begins with the child's proficiency in understanding spoken English and in responding to English. If the child can communicate orally in English in a face-to-face conversation or on a test of oral proficiency, the next step is to determine the child's literacy, that is, the child's facility in reading and writing English at grade level.

It is important to remember that a student who can understand and respond orally in English in a face-to-face conversation may not be proficient enough in academic written English to be placed in a grade-level English language classroom. Within one to two years, LEP students can acquire social and conversational English from their classmates. However, it may take a student from five to ten years to acquire literacy in academic English, so that the student can understand textbook presentations of content material in science, math, social studies, and language arts.

English proficiency: academic content

After evaluating the student's knowledge of oral English and literacy, the next step is to assess knowledge of content subjects in English. Because each subject has

its own specialized vocabulary and grammatical structures, a student who understands basic oral English may still need extra support in learning content subjects in English in grade-level classrooms, especially in the upper grade levels. If the student studied in a bilingual program, you may need to assess content knowledge in the student's home language.

If the student and parents or guardians come to school on the first day, you might ask the following questions about the student's academic background:

1. What subjects did you study in your other schools? Which languages did you study in?
2. Which books did you use in your other schools? Which languages were the books written in?
3. Did you study in a bilingual program? If you did, which subjects did you study in your home language, and which subjects did you study in English?

Spanish:

1. ¿Cuáles materias estudiabas antes de venir a esta escuela? ¿En cuáles idiomas estudiabas?
2. ¿Cuáles libros de texto usabas en tus estudios? ¿En cuáles idiomas estaban escritos?
3. ¿Estudiabas en un programa bilingüe? En el programa bilingüe, ¿cuáles cursos estudiabas en español y cuáles en inglés?

3. Assessment and Instruction

Classroom-based assessment informs teachers about student progress; this type of authentic assessment can be so integrated into our instruction that similar activities serve as both instruction and assessment. We can think of authentic assessment as the “clean plate test.” If your family or guests have enjoyed a meal, you don’t need to give them multiple choice questions to find out how they liked your cooking. Just see how many empty plates are left on the table.

As you build multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge into instruction, you have also automatically built in assessment of student progress precisely connected to your curriculum. This type of assessment also provides important feedback on instruction, allowing teachers to adjust to meet the needs of all students. In addition, multiple types of assessment should include standardized measures that demonstrate that language minority students are attaining district, state, or federal standards for academic achievement.

CLASSROOM TO ESL INSTRUCTOR COMMUNICATION FORM

Student Name _____

Date _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

1. How would you assess the student’s progress during the past month?

(1-5 with 5 being the highest) 1 2 3 4 5

Please circle one of the numbers.

	Low				High
• Oral Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
• Reading Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
• Completes Writing Assignments	1	2	3	4	5
• Works Independently	1	2	3	4	5
• Asks for help when needed	1	2	3	4	5
• Successful completion of tests/assessments	1	2	3	4	5

2. What would you like the ESL teacher to help the student with during the coming weeks or months?

Comments: _____

Chart 1

4. Adapting content assessment for LEP students

It is important to remember that students who are still in the process of learning English must be supported in learning grade-level academic content. They should be challenged to exercise critical thinking skills, such as analysis or synthesis, during all stages of language acquisition, even while they are in the preproduction stage.

At the same time, understanding of academic subjects must be assessed in a way that allows students to demonstrate their knowledge somewhat independently of their fluency in English. Three techniques for assessing content while reducing language difficulties are scaffolding, differentiated scoring, and visible criteria (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996, pp. 166-167). **Scaffolding assessment** allows students various ways to demonstrate their knowledge: exhibits or projects, graphic organizers (diagrams or semantic maps), organized lists of concepts, labeled tables or graphs completed by the students, or short answers. Students should be allowed extended time limits for completing scaffolded assessments.

A second method for assessment is **differentiated scoring**, that is, scoring students separately on content knowledge and on language. This also integrates assessment of language arts in other content areas. Students might be scored on sentence structure and the use of key vocabulary from the lesson. In addition, they would be scored on how well they understood key concepts, how accurate their answers were, and how well they demonstrated the processes they used to derive their answers.

A third method for adapting assessment is to use **visible or explicit criteria** for scoring. Students become familiar with scoring criteria before the actual assessment is given, especially if they will be scored separately on content knowledge and language conventions (differentiated scoring). Students might be involved in creating criteria for a good science report or steps in solving a word problem. They should practice applying these criteria to actual examples, in order to become familiar with the criteria.



ESL Student Evaluation

Classroom Performance in Content Area Subjects

STUDENT _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____ DATE _____
CLASSROOM TEACHER _____ GRADE _____ COURSE _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER:

To help evaluate the above student's overall achievement, please use the following scale to rate his/her performance in your class. *Please complete separate sheets for math, science, and social studies.*

CATEGORY 1: Rate the student's level of performance in relation to the concepts and skills identified in the graded course of study.

1	2	3	4	5
below grade level		at grade level	above grade level	

CATEGORY 2: Rate the student's work habits in your class. Does he/she bring required materials to class? Understand and follow directions? Ask for assistance?

Cooperate and interact positively with other students?

1	2	3	4	5
no effort	average		courteous, hard-working	

_____ Please check here if student is not participating in the content area subject due to pull-out or any other reason.

_____ Grade in class to date.

5. Performance-Based and Portfolio Assessment

Definition of Terms

Informal or Alternative Assessment. These are not technical terms, so there are no uniformly accepted definitions. **Informal** and **alternative** assessment are used interchangeably, and indicate the following: any method, other than a standardized test, of determining what a student knows or can do; activities that reflect tasks typical of classroom instruction and real-life settings, and that represent actual progress toward curricular goals and objectives; and activities that are monitored and recorded in some way, either by teacher observation, peer observation or student self-assessment.

It should also be noted that informal and alternative assessment measures are by definition criterion-referenced, (e.g., learners are classified according to whether or not they are able to successfully perform a set of tasks, or meet a set of objectives). Norm-referenced tests, on the other hand, relate one learner's performance against the normative performance of a group. Standardized tests can be either norm- or criterion-referenced.

Performance-Based Assessment is a type of informal or alternative assessment, and is characterized by activities that are specifically designed to assess performance on one or more instructional tasks; activities in which students demonstrate specific skills and competencies are rated on a predetermined scale of achievement or proficiency; and activities that are rated by a teacher or other professional, rather than by peer or self-evaluation.

Portfolio Assessment is a technique for qualitative evaluation. It is characterized by the maintenance of descriptive records of a variety of student work over time; the purposeful and systematic collection of student work that reflects growth toward the achievement of specific curricular objectives; and the inclusion of student self-evaluation as well as teacher evaluation.

Portfolio assessment in ESL has been used mainly

to follow progress in reading and writing. Portfolios can, but need not necessarily, contain samples of student writing, records of oral language progress, records on reading achievement over time, and information on the results of formal achievement tests.

Types of Language Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment should not be limited to a single activity type. In fact, using performance-based tasks gives teachers the freedom to probe with language that formal measures often lack. Whatever activity type is used, never assess more than three items at a time. For instance, a role-play might be designed to see if students can respond to "what" and "where" questions; ask for or respond to clarification; and read addresses or telephone numbers. Any more detail would be difficult for students at Level 1 to integrate, and even more difficult for teachers to rate.

Activities should be as authentic and integrated as possible. If reading or writing would be a natural occurrence within a given context that is mainly geared to oral communication, then it should be part of the assessment. Whether oral or literacy activities are being devised, the key to successful performance-based assessment is the creation of activities that do not rely on language more difficult than the level students can handle.

The activity types listed below are all designed for teacher-student, student-student, triad, or group settings. They concentrate more on oral communication and/or reading than on writing. (The portfolio activities will concentrate on writing.) Activities that pair students or use group interaction are the most numerous. They are often more natural than teacher-student interaction, save classroom time, and give the teacher the ability to listen and watch more closely while acting as rater for one or

more students. Oral activity types include:

- role play
- student-student description, using picture or written prompts
- oral reporting to whole class
- telling a picture story, using a sequence of three or more pictures
- interviews, using written prompts
- completing the dialog/conversation, using written prompts
- debates, either one-on-one, or small group, with turn-taking
- brainstorming
- passing the message on among 3-6 students
- giving instructions from picture, diagram, or written prompts
- completing incomplete stories
- games

Features of Portfolio Assessment

Portfolios are files that contain a variety of information assessing student performance relative to instructional objectives. They are a practical way of assessing student work throughout the entire course. Portfolios can include samples of student work, such as stories, completed forms, exercise sheets, pictures drawn and captioned by students, or other written work; tapes of oral work, such as role play or presentations; teacher descriptions of student accomplishments, such as performance on oral tasks; formal test data; and checklists and rating sheets such as those at the end of this section. Like performance-based assessment, portfolios encourage teachers to use a variety of ways to evaluate learning and to do so over time. These multiple indicators of student performance are a better cross-check for student progress than one type of measure alone.

While it is each student's responsibility to put his/her "best work" in the portfolio file, it is the teacher's

responsibility to choose the categories of work that should be placed in the file, (e.g., a written story about people; a description of surroundings; a tape of an oral account of a trip). Student work should be collected with a purpose, and each item a student places in the file should reflect progress toward a particular learning goal. In addition, teachers need to maintain checklists or summary sheets of tasks and performances in the student's portfolio, to help them look systematically across students, to make instructional decisions, and to report consistently and reliably. The checklists contained in this volume are examples. Finally, a Portfolio Contents Form will ensure that the same kinds of data are collected for each student, so the results can be used to assess progress for each student and for the class as a whole.

Portfolios may be particularly appropriate for use with highly mobile migrant students in addition to LEP students for the following reasons:

1. For students moving from one teacher or school to another, portfolios can pass along critical information on their strengths and needs so the new teacher does not duplicate assessments that have already been conducted.
2. For students being considered for placement at different levels within an ESL or bilingual education program, portfolio results can determine their ability to function at various levels.
3. For students being considered for transition from ESL or bilingual education program to a mainstream, English-only program, portfolio results can measure performance relative to classmates in the mainstream.
4. For students being considered for pre-referral to special education programs, portfolio results can be used to determine whether performance is related to language proficiency, including both native language and English literacy skills.

Literacy Development Checklist

Student: _____ Teacher: _____
 School: _____ Academic Yr.: _____

Mark:

X = Effective

I = Sometimes Effective

- = Needs Work

READING PROCESSES	Quarter			
	1	2	3	4
I. READING SKILLS				
Comprehends oral stories				
Reading Vocabulary				
Fluent decoding				
Literal comprehension in reading				
Inferential comprehension				
II. INTEREST				
Initiates own reading				
Shows pleasure in reading				
Selects books independently				
Samples a variety of materials				
III. APPLICATIONS				
Participates in language experience story development				
Participates in reading discussion groups				
Writes appropriate dialogue journal entries				
Chooses books of appropriate difficulty				
Uses reading in written communication				

IV. READING STRATEGIES	Quarter			
	1	2	3	4
Monitors attention				
Notices miscues that interfere with meaning				
Infers meaning based on:				
*Word clues				
*Sentence structure				
*Story structure				
*Prior experience				
Summarizes main ideas or key events				
Links details to main ideas				
Remembers sequence of events				
Predicts conclusions				
Requests help if needed				

Note: Adapted from materials developed by the National Council of Teachers of English and by The Writing Lab of the University of New Hampshire.

Figure 1. Literacy Development Checklist

Sample of Student Self-Assessment of Reading Ability

In reading a passage, I can:

READING TASK	Criteria		
	All the Time	Sometimes	Almost never
1. Understand the main ideas			
2. Understand the details			
3. Understand the vocabulary			
4. Read quickly and still understand most of it			

Figure 2. Self-Assessment of Reading Ability

Math Development Checklist

Comments: _____

	Does not Apply	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Not Noticed Yet
1. Counts to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
2. Has 1: 1 correspondence to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
3. Verbalizes addition				
4. Verbalizes subtraction				
5. Symbolizes addition to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
6. Symbolizes subtraction to: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10				
7. Verbalizes multiplication				

Figure 3. Math Development Checklist

Sample of Rubric For Rating Writing Samples

Rating	Criteria
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary is precise, varied, and vivid • Organization is appropriate to writing assignment and contains clear introduction, development of ideas, and conclusion • Transition from one idea to another is smooth and provides the reader with clear understanding that the topic is changing • Meaning is conveyed effectively • A few mechanical errors may be present but do not disrupt communication • Shows a clear understanding of writing and topic development
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary is adequate for grade levels • Events are organized logically, but some part of the sample may not be fully developed • Some transition of ideas is evident • Meaning is conveyed but breaks down at times • Shows a good understanding of writing and topic development
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary is simple • Organization may be extremely simple or there may be evidence of disorganization • There are a few transitional markers or repetitive transitional markers • Meaning is frequently clear • Mechanical errors affect communication • Shows some understanding of writing and topic development
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary is limited and repetitious • Sample is composed of only a few disjointed sentences • No transitional markers • Meaning is unclear • Mechanical errors cause serious disruption in communication • Shows little evidence of discourse understanding
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responds with a few isolated words • No complete sentences are written • No evidence of concepts of writing
0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No response

Source: S.S. Moya, Evaluation Assistance Center (EAC)-East, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., 1990.

Figure 4. Sample Holistic Criteria

Sample Portfolio Analysis Form

DATE: 5/1/92
 STUDENT: Marisel A.
 TEACHER: Jones
 GRADE: 4
 EDUCATIONAL GOAL: Student demonstrates ability on variety of writing tasks

PERFORMANCE TASK	CONTENTS ILLUSTRATING STUDENT PROGRESS	DATE
* Demonstrates interest and ability in variety of writing	Literacy Development Checklist	3/20/92
* Writes a short story	Writing Sample: Dog Story	4/22/92
* Writes to communicate with others	Letter Dialog Journal	4/10/92 3/31/92
* Expresses writing preferences	Self-Assessment of Writing	4/24/92
* Shares writing with others	Anecdotal record	4/06/92
Summary Comments: <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		

Figure 5. Sample Portfolio Analysis Form

Using Portfolio Results

Portfolio results can be used in a variety of ways. The Sample Portfolio Analysis Form shown in Figure 5 is an essential component in many of these uses:

- **diagnosis and placement** —Student strengths and needs are examined with regard to major curriculum objectives.
- **monitoring student progress** —Growth in learning over the course of the semester or school year can be monitored.
- **feedback on the effectiveness of instruction** —If in-

dividual students are not progressing, the instructional approach should be re-evaluated and appropriate adaptations made to meet each student's needs. One possible conclusion is that a student needs instructional support beyond the services provided by the classroom(s) in which the portfolio has been maintained.

- **communication with other teachers** —This includes other members of the portfolio team and those at other schools to which students may transfer.
- **student feedback**— Portfolios enable students to comment and reflect on their progress and to plan what they would do to improve.



**A. Arlington County Public Schools, Virginia
Elementary ESOL HILT Program**

Reading

- Teacher observation log
- Examples of what student can read
- Books/materials read
- Audiotape of student reading
- Test results, formal and informal
- Conferencing forms
- Examples of skills mastered

Writing

- First piece of writing each year
- Learning log, dialog journal
- January and May writing samples
- Drafts and final products from different genres (personal narratives, exposition, letters, poems, essays, reports)
- Graphics (illustrations, diagrams)

B. Stratham Memorial Elementary School, New Hampshire, Reading Writing Portfolio

Reading

- Favorite books/authors list
- Genre graph, indicating type of literature preferred
- Journal entries
- List of completed books

Writing

- Writing sample and cover sheet
- List of completed pieces

Evaluation

- Goals and/or self-evaluation
- Annual narrative summary by student

**C. Orange County Public Schools, Florida,
Literacy Portfolio Components**

Core Elements

- Reading development checklist
- Three writing samples
- List of books read independently

Optional Elements

- Student self-assessment
- Reading journals
- Audiotapes of student reading
- “Things I Can Do” List
- Test results, formal and informal
- Reading comprehension tests
- Running records (miscue analysis) and anecdotal records

**D. Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia,
ESL Program**

Core Elements

- Two writing samples
- Two oral production samples
- Informal reading assessment
- List of books to read
- Results of Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) test, Grades 7-12

Optional Elements

- Dialogue journal excerpts
- Teacher observations
- Reading/writing checklists
- Student self-assessment
- Audio/videotapes
- Student-selected work

Figure 6. Reading/Writing Portfolios: Sample Contents

6. Grading

Report card grades are an important part of the communication among teachers, students, and parents (Stiggins, 1988). Grades have two basic purposes in the classroom: to reflect student accomplishments and to motivate students. While grades may indicate the level or rank order of student performance, there are questions about their success in serving as an incentive for students to exert greater effort. Teachers often comment that not all students see grades as motivating (Stiggins, Frisbie, and Griswald 1989). Grades are extrinsic motivation not derived from self-determined criteria, as in learning out of interest and self-created goals. Moreover, as Kohn (1994) notes, people who are promised extrinsic rewards for an activity “tend to lose interest in whatever they had to do to obtain the reward” (p. 39). Wiggins (1993) indicates that grades can be a disincentive to some students because, particularly when teachers grade on a curve, somebody always loses, and a portion of the class is made to feel inept.

The problems with assigning grades are even more evident with group grades. Group grades are typically an attempt to grade the final product of student teams that worked on a project, essay, or presentation. Group grades can undermine motivation because they do not reward individual work or hold individual students accountable (Kagan, 1995). The poor performance of a single person can lower the group grade, thereby undermining the motivation of high-achieving students and rewarding low performers who are fortunate to have a high achiever on the team. In this sense, the group’s grade is due to forces outside the control of the high-achieving student. Students need to know that they and other students are individually accountable for their work.

Surveys of grading practices indicate that teachers consider factors other than achievement or growth in determining grades, such as perceived level of effort, attitude, ability, behavior, and attendance (Alverman and Phelps, 1994). Two problems are evident in considering factors other than growth or achievement in assigning

grades. First, the intermingling of achievement with other factors can have an unintended negative effect because students receive a mixed message on their accomplishments: “You tried hard but didn’t succeed anyway.” The second problem is in the extreme variation in grading from teacher to teacher. Teachers vary not only in the factors they use in grading, but also in the criteria they use to assign grades on classroom tests. Among the methods teachers use in grading classroom tests are the following (EAC-West, 1992):

- percentages (90-100%= A, 80-90%= B, and so on)
- mastery (80% = mastery, 60-79% = partial mastery, <60% = nonmastery)
- grading on a curve (top 7% = A, next 24% = B, middle 38% = C, next 24% = D, and lowest 7% = F)
- gap grading (assigning grades to suit large gaps in a score distribution, e.g., 94-100% = A, 90-93% no scores, 83-89% = B, 79-82% no scores, 68-78% = C, etc.)

In determining final grades from classroom tests, some teachers average numerical scores on these tests, while other teachers average the grades received on the tests. The latter approach reduces the impact on final grades from a single high or low test score. For example, an extremely low numerical score such as 3 out of 100 will have a far greater impact on the mean of all the tests than a single F will have on the mean of the corresponding grades. Teachers can also assign different weights to tests, papers, presentations, and classroom participation in determining final grades. In summary, not only does each teacher decide what will be evaluated and how much each activity will count, but teachers also determine how the final grade will be calculated. Because of this variation in grading practices and in criteria used to assign grades on classroom tests, we could expect a great deal of variation from teacher to teacher in the final grades stu-

dents receive, even given a common set of papers or products to rate.

One final difficulty in grading practices stems more from the tests on which grades are based than from the grades themselves. In the past, classroom tests have tended to assess lower-level skills even when teachers claim to value and teach complex thinking (Stiggins, Frisbie, and Griswald, 1989). Inevitably, the resulting grades assigned will be based on lower-level skills instead of on the real objectives and content of classroom instruction.

Despite the problems we have identified with grading practices, our experience leads us to believe that grades can be useful if they are based on authentic assessments and are assigned following certain guidelines. Grades are requested regularly by parents as a guide to their child's performance and are useful as an overall indicator of student achievement. When combined with illustrative samples of student work and with informative scoring rubrics, grades can provide parents and other teachers with a comprehensive picture of student growth and achievement. Part of the usefulness of grades depends, however, on establishing relatively uniform criteria for grades in a school or among classrooms.

The introduction of authentic assessment (including portfolios) to accompany more innovative forms of instruction expands considerably the alternatives that can be used to establish classroom grades. Teachers using authentic assessments evaluate students on samples of classroom performance that may include reports, projects, and/or group work. In authentic assessment, student performance is often rated using scoring rubrics that define the knowledge students possess, how they think, and how they apply their knowledge.

Because the rubrics are specific (or at least should be) their use tends to reduce teacher-to-teacher variations in grading, especially if the teachers base their ratings on a common set of anchor papers. With the use of portfolios, teachers can provide parents with specific examples of student work to illustrate the ratings they give to students on the scoring rubrics. Furthermore, with authentic assessment, teachers often establish standards of per-

formance that reflect what students should know or be able to do at different levels of performance that may also reflect different levels of mastery. Finally, teachers using authentic assessment share the criteria for scoring student work openly and invite discussions of the criteria with students and parents.

With these new opportunities comes a challenge: to define the procedures by which scoring rubrics and rating scales are converted to classroom grades. In rating individual pieces of student work, one option is to directly convert rubrics on a 1-4 scale to corresponding letter grades. This could work acceptably provided that the points on the rubric represent what you consider to be "A-level" performance, "B-level" performance, and so on. While this may be effective in some cases, it is not always a good practice because definitions of what students know and can do at the different levels on the rubric do not always correspond to what is considered to be A or B performance. Further, it may be unwise to confuse the informed feedback provided by a scoring rubric with the external reward of a grade (Kohn, 1994). Thus, a second option is to establish independent standards of performance corresponding to letter grades. That is, identify in advance exactly what students receiving an A, B, etc. are expected to know and do in meeting the course objectives. Then obtain a student grade by comparing the student's actual performance with the established standard. The standard corresponding to grades can reflect overall student performance across activities or projects, thereby avoiding the difficulty of having to create standards for grades on each student product. The score on a rubric for each activity provides effective informed feedback to students on their work, and the standard provides them with direction on what they need to accomplish.

Our recommendations in grading and communicating student performance with authentic assessment are as follows:

- Assign scores to individual student achievement or growth based on a scoring rubric or an agreed-on standard to reflect mastery of classroom objectives.

-
- Assign weights to different aspects of student performance as reflected in class assignments (e.g., projects, reports, and class participation).
 - Multiply each rating by the weight and sum the ratings of scores on individual papers or performances to obtain an overall numeric score.
 - Reach agreement with other teachers and with students on the interpretation of the summed score with respect to grades.
 - Do not assign grades for effort and especially do not combine effort and achievement in a single grade.
 - If you assign grades for group work, assign separate grades for the group product and for individual contributions.

In using anecdotal records to support grades:

- Use the language of the rubric to help you write anecdotal comments, describing specifically what each student should know and be able to do, and using examples.
- Link your comments to instructional goals, and (where appropriate) distinguish between language proficiency and content-area knowledge and skills.
- In expressing concerns, focus on (1) what the student knows and can do, (2) your plan or strategies for helping the student improve, and (3) what the parent can do to help.

Discuss growth over time in addition to current performance.

- Use anecdotal comments to provide feedback on group work and group participation.
- Use enclosures: a one-page class or course overview, samples of the student's work, the student's self-evaluation, a letter from you or from the student to parents, etc.

We believe that teachers should explore alternative forms of assessment and grading that are adapted to their instructional methods and to the scoring rubrics they use in evaluating student performance. In one such approach (Brodhagen, 1994), a grade-level middle school teacher attempted to accomplish three goals: to establish a grading system that was consistent with an integrative (thematic) curriculum, to involve students in the design of classroom assessment and grading, and to avoid the stigma attached to grades of D and F by giving students opportunities to improve their work. She and a cooperating teacher agreed to assign only grades of A, B, C, or I (Incomplete), and graded only if the student turned in 80% of required work because anything less would be insufficient to grade. Students were involved in the assessment of their own learning and also in the design of this system. Students selected five or six pieces from a portfolio to represent their "best work," wrote a self-evaluation of the quarter's work, and wrote goals for the next quarter. The teacher used all of this information in a quarterly parent-teacher-student conference with considerable success and a high degree of student participation.

Standardized Testing and LEP Students

Predominance of Standardized Testing as a Measure of Student Achievement

In recent years, there has been increasing emphasis on setting high standards for all students and holding schools accountable for reaching those standards. When educators take into account what second language research tells them about how long it takes to acquire a language, they conclude that holding LEP students to these high standards will require more resources than they now possess. Most states have adopted “waivers” for LEP students that exempt the students from taking the tests for a period of one to three years, but most LEP students will still have difficulty performing well on standardized tests that are both linguistically and culturally biased.

This issue is entirely too complex to discuss in depth here, but there are things that we—as teachers—can do to improve what seems like a no-win situation.

Some suggestions would include:

- Helping LEP students to learn the strategies and skills required for taking a standardized test.
- Advocating for intensive ESL/bilingual programs in your local district.

- Finding out about special “testing modifications” (e.g., extended time, having test read aloud in English, use of bilingual dictionary) that your state allows and use these modifications when you test your students on a regular basis in the regular classroom.
- Ensuring that if an LEP student is able to take a portion of a standardized test (e.g., math) that he or she participates as soon as possible.
- Educating yourself about second language acquisition and recommended strategies for LEP students so that you’ll be a more informed advocate for sensible policies.

You are not alone in feeling that simply setting higher standards does not ensure that LEP students will be capable of achieving them. However, if we consider this movement as a process that will end in improving educational programs for all students, then we can work at not only improving our own teaching, but also advocating at every level for programs that we know will help LEP students achieve in ways we never thought possible.

7

Fostering Home-School Partnerships



We know that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement. Moreover, it seems that the most useful variety of parent involvement is contact between parents and their children in the home, which encourages and aids school achievement. For example, students who read to their parents and who talk with their parents about reading (using either their home language and/or English) have markedly higher reading gains than students who do not have this opportunity. Research shows that small-group instruction during the school day by highly competent specialists **does not produce** reading gains comparable to those that result from parental involvement programs.

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. The overwhelming majority of language minority parents believe that the role of the family is to nurture their children, while the role of the school is to educate them. To involve language minority parents in their children's education, we must acculturate them to the meaning of parent involvement in their new social environment.

While most language minority parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the school's typical parent activities, they may be very successful at parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can learn to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. Whenever possible, bilingual community liaisons should help bridge language and cultural differences between home and school.

1. Categories of Involvement

Epstein (1995) has been one of the principal researchers of parental involvement and its effect on student achievement. She identified six categories of parent involvement in the education of children:

1. Providing for children's basic needs

By seeing that children are fed, clothed, have enough sleep, and enjoy a secure, loving environment, parents contribute to the well-being a child needs to focus attention on learning both at home and at school. One school-related example is ensuring that children have necessary school supplies and a place to study at home.

2. Communicating with school staff

All schools seek to communicate with parents in one form or another during the school year. Parents' understanding of such communication depends in part on their literacy level and proficiency in the language (usually English) used to send communications home. When schools can provide written communications the parents can understand, and can provide a person who speaks the parents' native language(s), cooperation between schools and language minority parents improves greatly.

3. Volunteering or providing assistance at their child's school

This kind of involvement was traditionally expected, particularly of mothers. However, in Epstein's study, such involvement rarely includes more than a few parents in any school. More than 70% of the parents surveyed had never assisted school staff. As more and more parents work outside the home during school hours, this traditional form of parent involvement has diminished.

4. Supporting and participating in learning activities with their children at home

Epstein looked, in particular, at parental activity that related directly to the children's work in class. She discovered the following:

- More than 85 percent of parents spend at least 15 minutes helping their child at home when asked to do so by the teacher; most said they would spend more time if they were told what to do and how to help.
- Elementary students whose teachers emphasize parent involvement gain more in reading and math achievement than students in classrooms where the teachers do not emphasize similar involvement.

5. Participating in governance and advocacy activities

"Governance" and "advocacy" refer to the avenues by which parents and the community can influence decision making in a school system. Epstein distinguishes the two in the following way: governance activities occur under the auspices of the school system, (e.g., school-appointed advisory committees). Advocacy activities are organized and conducted independent of the school system: one example would be a citizen's group formed to lobby the school board on changes in the curriculum. Each type of participation requires a certain level of understanding of the school's programs and confidence on the part of the parents. Each also requires a willingness and commitment on the part of educators to include families in the decision-making process in meaningful ways.

6. Collaborating with the community

Parents encourage partnerships with community resources and services.

2. Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

Most of our language minority families are still adjusting to the mainstream culture and language of the United States. The lives of these families changed radically when they moved to this country. Relationships with kin and community were disrupted, as were culturally valued ways of connecting families to community life.

It helps to recognize that different stages of adjustment may elicit different responses from parents with respect to their willingness and/or availability to be actively involved in their children's education. For example, all newcomers to the school system need basic information

about school requirements, routines, schedules, and the like. For language minority newcomers, such information may need to be given in the home language and in a setting where there can be personal, face-to-face exchange and clarification. As families become more settled in the community and feel more familiar with how the school system operates, they may be more willing to participate in governance and advocacy activities.

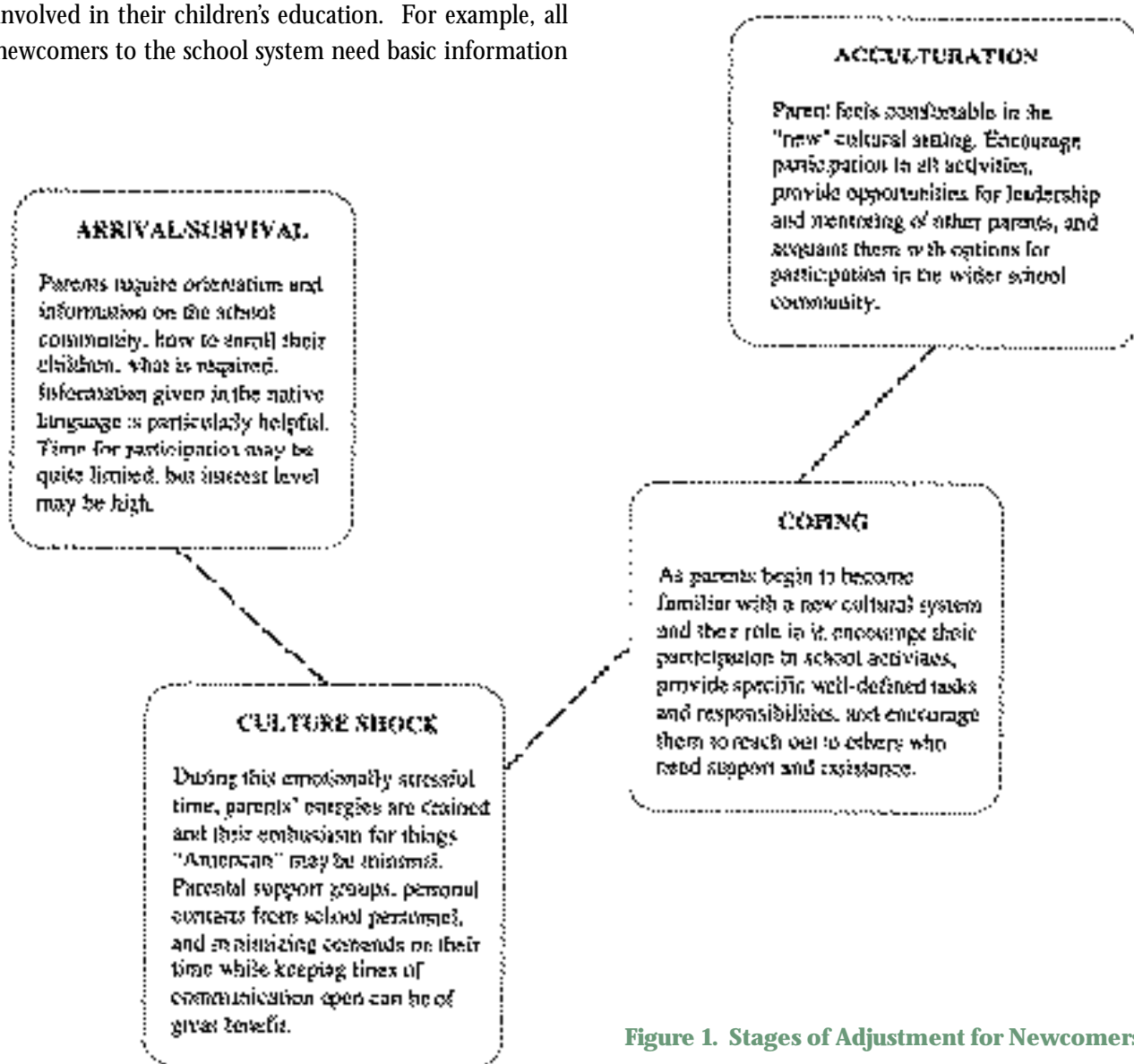


Figure 1. Stages of Adjustment for Newcomers

3. Implementing a Participation Model

How can a local school system encourage the participation of parents who are newly arrived and/or whose English proficiency is limited? Experience shows that these parents do care about their children's education and want to be involved in their local schools. When a school system provides caring, sensitive, and enlightened avenues for these parents, they become active partners in education.

Factors That Affect Parental Involvement

In designing appropriate support systems for parents in general, the experiences and resources of language minority parents should be acknowledged and respected. Although every family entering the school system is unique, some generalizations can be helpful. Differences in levels of involvement may be influenced by the following factors:

1. Length of residence in the United States

Newcomers to this country will most likely need considerable orientation and support in order to understand what their child's school expects in the way of participation and involvement. Native language communication, cultural orientation sessions, and the support of others who have been newcomers can be extremely helpful during what may be a stressful adjustment period.

2. English language proficiency

Parents whose English proficiency is limited may find it difficult or intimidating to communicate with school staff or to help in school activities without bilingual support. These parents can, of course, participate successfully and can help their children at home, so take care to see that they receive information and that their efforts are welcomed and encouraged.

Migrant farm workers often have a low level of literacy in their native language (usually Spanish) and a limited amount of schooling in their native country. Some of the adults from rural areas of Mexico and Central America speak an indigenous language that may limit their ability to communicate orally in Spanish. These factors make including migrant parents even more of a challenge because sending written materials home in Spanish (or in the indigenous language) is often not helpful.

3. Availability of support groups and bilingual staff

Native language parent groups and bilingual school personnel can make a crucial difference in fostering involvement among parents. Bilingual community liaisons can also translate the information provided to parents. These services ensure that information is understood, and demonstrate to parents that the school wants to involve them actively in the life of the school and in their children's academic development.

4. Prior experiences

Language minority parents differ widely in the extent to which they are familiar and comfortable with the concept of parental involvement in schools. Some newcomers may have been actively involved in their children's education in their native country, while others may come from cultures where the parent's role in education is understood in very different terms. Others, as indicated in Epstein's study, may need only some specific suggestions on how to "help" in order to participate more actively in education at home and at school.

5. Economic need

Parents who are barely surviving economically find that their children's school attendance is a hardship. Children could improve the family's income by working in the fields if they did not have to go to school.

4. How Can We Promote Home Language Use?

In school

1. Encourage educators to use a curriculum that reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of language minority children.
2. Help children feel pride in their home language and cultural heritage.
3. Introduce **all** students to the joys of cultural diversity and the desirability of learning more than one language.
4. Promote two-way bilingual programs.
5. Hire and develop culturally experienced and bilingual staff.
6. Raise teacher expectations of students who have a limited grasp of English.
7. Empower parents and communicate with them in their home language.
8. Provide students with interesting reading material in their native language.
9. Give students the opportunity to write in “journals” using their native language.
10. Ensure that educators promote communication in the family’s home language, rather than sending a strong “English only” message to language minority students and their families.

In the home

1. Develop supportive program practices that strengthen family bonds and the parents’ role in their child’s development and education.
2. Educate parents about the importance of using the home language with their children and that the continuing development of the home language strengthens—rather than impedes—their child’s ability to learn English.



5. Family Literacy

Family literacy programs can forge closer ties between homes and schools to increase student achievement. Family literacy is based on the notion that literacy—because it is social and cultural in nature—is best developed within the context of the family. Family literacy situates literacy learning within the context of the daily lives of participating families, acknowledges a broad range of culturally influenced ways of knowing, and provides greater access to schools and comfort in dealing with schools. It is extremely important to encourage parents to interact with their children in the language they feel most comfortable using. Some parents believe that using Spanish with their children will negatively affect their ability to learn English, but informing them that increased literacy in Spanish will also enhance a child's literacy in English usually puts their minds at ease.

There are four major areas of home literacy:

1. Literacy Modeling

Encouraging parents to model literacy uses for their children.

2. Literacy Opportunities

Increasing the range of literacy materials available in the home. (See end of chapter for a list of companies that publish bilingual books and books in Spanish)

3. Literacy Interactions

Demonstrating ways to engage in literacy activities with children.

4. Home-School Relationships

Providing opportunities for teacher-parent discussions and classroom observation.

Here are some ideas for sessions to help parents enrich their home literacy environment:

Creating Home Literacy Centers

Create and use a literacy activity center in a box: include pencils, crayons, paper, scissors, paste, magazines, pictures, etc.

Book Sharing

The most effective ways to share books with children. How to talk about books and share books according to the parents' literacy level.

Teaching the ABC's

Simple ways to teach letters and sounds. Emphasize language games, songs, and language experience activities.

Community Literacy

Parents can share their own literacy with children while at the market and during other daily activities.

Book Fairs

Parents buy (with coupons) English or Spanish-language books for their children.

Parents and Homework

Ways parents can monitor and help with children's homework even when they cannot do the homework themselves.

Parent/Child Literacy Behavior Checklist

	Pre			Post		
	N	S	O	N	S	O
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The family has books in the home. 2. A parent (or other) reads to the child. 3. The parents play games with the child. 4. The child has coloring books. 5. The parents have taught the child songs and nursery rhymes. 6. The child cooks with the parents. 7. The child goes to the store with the parents. 8. The parents read newspapers or magazines. 9. The parents tell the child stories or folk tales. 						

- N Never
- S Sometimes
- O Often

SMART START

Reading at Home

There are many ways that we, as parents, can help our children get ready to read.

Having things to read around the house encourages our children to read. The language doesn't matter! Magazines, newspapers, coloring books with or without words, and books of all kinds contribute to the reading environment. Garage sales and swap meets are great places to find inexpensive books.

We can “read” picture books with our children and make up stories as they look at the pictures. Together we can invent anything that may be related to the pictures. The same book can be “read” over and over. Young children do not tire of the familiar and they like repetition. We are teaching more than we realize when we enjoy books with our children.



Good things happen when we read and talk to our children:

- Children develop their language, including listening and speaking
- When we read books from left to right we are reinforcing the direction of print (move your finger from left to right when you read to your children)
- As we read, our children learn that stories are sequential. They have order: a beginning, a middle, and an end.
- We are contributing to learning by simply relating our experiences (stories) in our own language.
- When we read together we communicate in a gentle and loving manner our expectation that our child will learn to read.
- Once a child begins to read, the family can listen enthusiastically and discuss the reading in their own language.

—by Frank Ludovina

Begin talking to your child from infancy. Make sounds. Call attention to sounds and connect them with objects and events. Talk to the child and explain activities as you perform them. Listen and encourage conversation with you. Answer questions patiently and as promptly as possible. Play listening games with your child. A good bedtime game is to listen quietly and identify as many sounds as possible—heartbeats, breathing, traffic. Listening attentively is essential in learning.

—from *“52 Ways to Help Your Child Learn”*
California Teachers Association

Preschool Coordination Project • San Diego, CA

¡LISTOS!

La lectura en el hogar

¿Cómo podemos nosotros los padres estimular el interés de nuestros niños en la lectura?

El solo hecho de tener libros en casa estimula a los niños a leer. ¡No importa en que idioma estén escritos estos materiales! Las revistas, los periódicos, los libros de colorear y toda clase de libros contribuyen a un ambiente de lectura. Usted puede comprar libros usados y baratos en algunos mercados (swap meets) o en ventas de garage.

Podemos “leer” con nuestros niños libros ilustrados. Mientras miramos juntos estos libros podemos contar o inventar historias sobre los dibujos. El mismo libro puede ser “leído” muchas veces ya que a los niños pequeños les gusta lo familiar y no se cansan de la repetición.

Nosotros enseñamos más de lo que creemos cuando gozamos juntos de la lectura.

Por ejemplo:

- Por medio de la lectura nuestros niños desarrollan el lenguaje, la habilidad para escuchar y para hablar.
- Al leer de izquierda a derecha estamos reforzando la manera que se debe leer - podemos apuntar con el dedo para mostrar la dirección de la lectura.



- Cuando les leemos a nuestros niños ellos están aprendiendo que las historias son hechos sucesivos y con un orden; el principio, el medio, y el final.
- Los niños observarán que nosotros aprendemos y gozamos al leer.
- A través de la repetición el niño aprende ideas y el lenguaje para expresarlos.
- Cuando relatamos historias de la familia en nuestro idioma los niños aprenden el lenguaje, la cultura y la sucesión de una historia.
- Al compartir la lectura comunicamos a nuestros niños de una manera suave y cariñosa nuestras expectativas de que ellos aprendan a leer.
- Cuando el niño empieza a leer, la familia podrá mostrarle su interés al escucharlo. Al platicar sobre el tema se desarrollarán las ideas y el vocabulario de los niños.

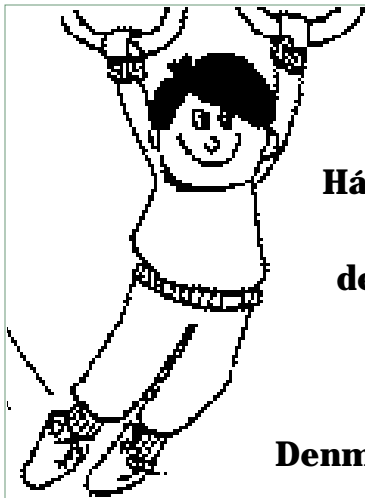
—Frank Ludovina

-Ideas de “52 maneras de ayudar a aprender a su hijo” por la asociación de maestras de California

Convérsele a su niño aunque sea pequeñito. Enséñele a asociar ruidos con los objetos que lo producen. Mientras hace algo explíquelo a su niño lo que está haciendo. Escúchelo y anímelo a conversar con Ud. Conteste a sus preguntas con paciencia y tan pronto como pueda. Juegue juegos que requieren escuchar. Por ejemplo cuando lo acueste a dormir, jueguen a escuchar e identificar ruidos—el latido del corazón, la respiración, o el tráfico. Cuando escuchamos atentamente es cuando aprendemos mejor.

—from “52 Ways to Help Your Child Learn”
California Teachers Association

Coordination Nac de Servicio Prescolar • San Diego, CA



Cuando Soy Pequeño

Háblenme cuando soy pequeño para que aprenda nuevas ideas y para que descubra cómo es nuestra lengua. Escúchenme cuando trato de hablar aunque sea difícil entenderme.

Denme juguetes con los que pueda aprender sobre colores, formas, tamaños y otras cosas importantes.

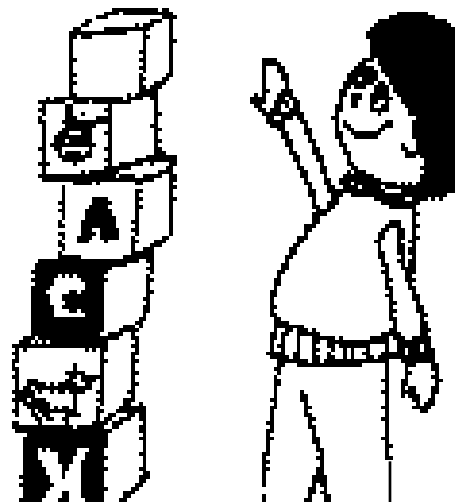
Déjenme correr y jugar con frecuencia para que todos mis músculos se desarrollen.

Léanme cuentos para que aprenda nuevas ideas y palabras, y para que descubra cómo los libros nos hablan.

Después, déjenme leer los libros e inventar historias sobre los dibujos: Así aprendo que los libros cuentan historias.

Déjenme aprender cosas sobre los libros a mi propio ritmo. No intenten que aprenda a leer antes de que esté preparado para ello.

Sobre todo, ¡quíranme mucho y ayúdenme a sentirme orgulloso de mí mismo!





Como Aprendo A Leer

**Cuando empiezo a leer por primera vez,
invento la mayoría de las palabras,
porque ¡no sé para qué son esos
símbolos negros tan extraños!**

**Luego, invento palabras para contar los
cuentos, pero ¡ya empiezo a hablar
como hablan los libros!**

**En seguida, comienzo a fijarme en los
dibujos para ayudarme a contar el cuento.**

**Después de que alguien me ha leído un cuento
varias veces, ¡puedo leerlo sin abrir
el libro siquiera y mirar las hojas!**

**Muy pronto, aprendo a leer libros,
diciendo las palabras que están escritas
en las páginas. ¡Aprendo que los
símbolos negros cuentan la historia
y no los dibujos!**



6A. Parental Responsibilities 1997-1998

Language minority parents often need to have school rules and expectations clarified. Here are some examples of areas that parents may need help to understand:

Attendance

1. Parents must enroll in school any child who turns five years old on or before September 30th of any school year.
2. The child must attend school on a regular basis—arriving at school on time and attending every day that school is in session unless the child has a legitimate excuse such as illness.

Safety/Discipline

3. It is important—for each child's safety—for the school to be notified of the reason for a child's absence from school. If a child leaves home and doesn't arrive at school, he or she may be in danger. The school recommends that parents call or drop by the school with the reason for a child's absence. **Spanish-speaking parents may call 662-7656 after 8:30 a.m. and ask to speak with "Daisy."**
4. There are strict guidelines in the United States for disciplining children. **If a child is physically, emotionally, or sexually abused at home, the child may be taken away from the parents by a local child protection agency.**

The guidelines for disciplining are as follows:

- (a) No child may be hit with a closed fist.
- (b) No child may be struck with an object such as a belt, wooden stick, etc.

5. Parents must keep their child safe by providing adequate supervision at all times. **All children under 10 years old must be supervised by an adult or older sibling.** A child may not be kept home from school in order to babysit.
6. If the school must bring a child home during the school day for any reason, the child must be left with a responsible adult (e.g., parent or babysitter). No child may be left home alone. For this reason, **it is essential that the parents provide the school with a reliable emergency contact number** so that the school can contact someone during the school day in case of an accident or other emergency.

In Case of Illness

7. If the school recommends medical treatment for a child, the parents must do what is required (e.g., visit a doctor and/or obtain a certain medicine). If, for some reason, the parents cannot follow up on the recommended treatment, they should notify the school so that we can be of help.

Emergency Contact Number _____

When does the father leave for work? _____ mother? _____

Is there someone we can leave the child with if the parents are not home?

Parent Signature _____ Date _____

6B. Responsabilidades de los Padres (Spanish Version) 1997-98

Asistencia

1. Los padres deben inscribir a un hijo que cumple cinco años en o antes del día 30 de septiembre del año escolar.
2. El hijo debe asistir a la escuela todos los días—llegando a tiempo y asistiendo cada día a menos que haya excusa legítima como enfermedad.

Seguridad/Disciplina

3. Es importante—para la seguridad de cada hijo—que los padres avisen la escuela cuando un hijo se queda en casa. Si un niño sale de su casa y no llega a la escuela puede estar un peligro. La escuela recomienda que los padres llamen o pasen por la escuela para decirles por qué su hijo no está. **Los padres que hablan español pueden llamar 662-7656 después de las 8:30 a.m. y preguntar por “Daisy.”**
4. En los Estados Unidos hay reglas estrictas sobre las maneras aceptadas de disciplina. **Si un niño es abusado físicamente, emocionalmente, o sexualmente en casa, el niño será quitado de los padres por una agencia local de protección de niños.**

Las reglas de disciplina son:

- (a) No se permite pegar a un niño con puño cerrado.
- (b) No se permite pegar a un niño con un objeto como cinturón, palo, etc.

5. Los padres deben dedicarse a la seguridad de su hijo por asegurar que alguien esté cuidándolo todo el tiempo. **Todos los niños de menos de diez años de edad deben estar acompañados por un adulto o hermano mayor.** No se puede pedir que un hijo falte un día de escuela para cuidar a un niño joven.
6. Si la escuela tiene que llevar a un niño a casa durante el día escolar—será necesario dejarlo con un adulto responsable (por ejemplo: padre, madre o pariente). Por eso, **es muy importante que los padres nos den un número de teléfono que la escuela puede usar durante el día escolar en caso de emergencia.**

En Caso de Enfermedad

7. Si la escuela recomienda un tratamiento médico para un niño—los padres deben seguir el aviso, por ejemplo: visitar a un doctor o comprar una medicina. Si—por alguna razón—los padres no pueden cumplir con el tratamiento sugerido, deben avisar la escuela para que podamos ayudarles.

Número En Caso De Emergencia _____

¿A qué hora sale el padre para el trabajo? _____ la madre? _____

¿Hay alguien con quién podemos dejar a su hijo si Uds. no están en casa?

Firma del Padre o de la Madre _____ Fecha _____

7. Publishing Companies for Bilingual and Spanish Language Books

Celebration Press

One Jacob Way
Reading, MA 01867
1-800-792-0550

Perma-Bound

Vandalia Road
Jacksonville, IL 62650
1-800-637-6581

Chiquilibros

Call 1-800-454-2748 for
information on how to order books

Pocket Books

1230 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Delta Systems Co., Inc.

1400 Miller Parkway
McHenry, IL 60050
1-800-323-8270

Rigby

P.O. Box 797
Crystal Lake, IL 60039
1-800-822-8661

Lectorum

137 West 14th St.
New York, NY 10011
1-800-345-5946

Sundance Publishing

234 Taylor St.
P.O. Box 1326
Littleton, MA 01460
1-800-343-8204

Oxford University Press

2001 Evans Rd.
Carey, NC 27513
1-800-451-7556

Troll Associates

100 Corporate Drive
Mahwah, NJ 07430
1-800-526-5289

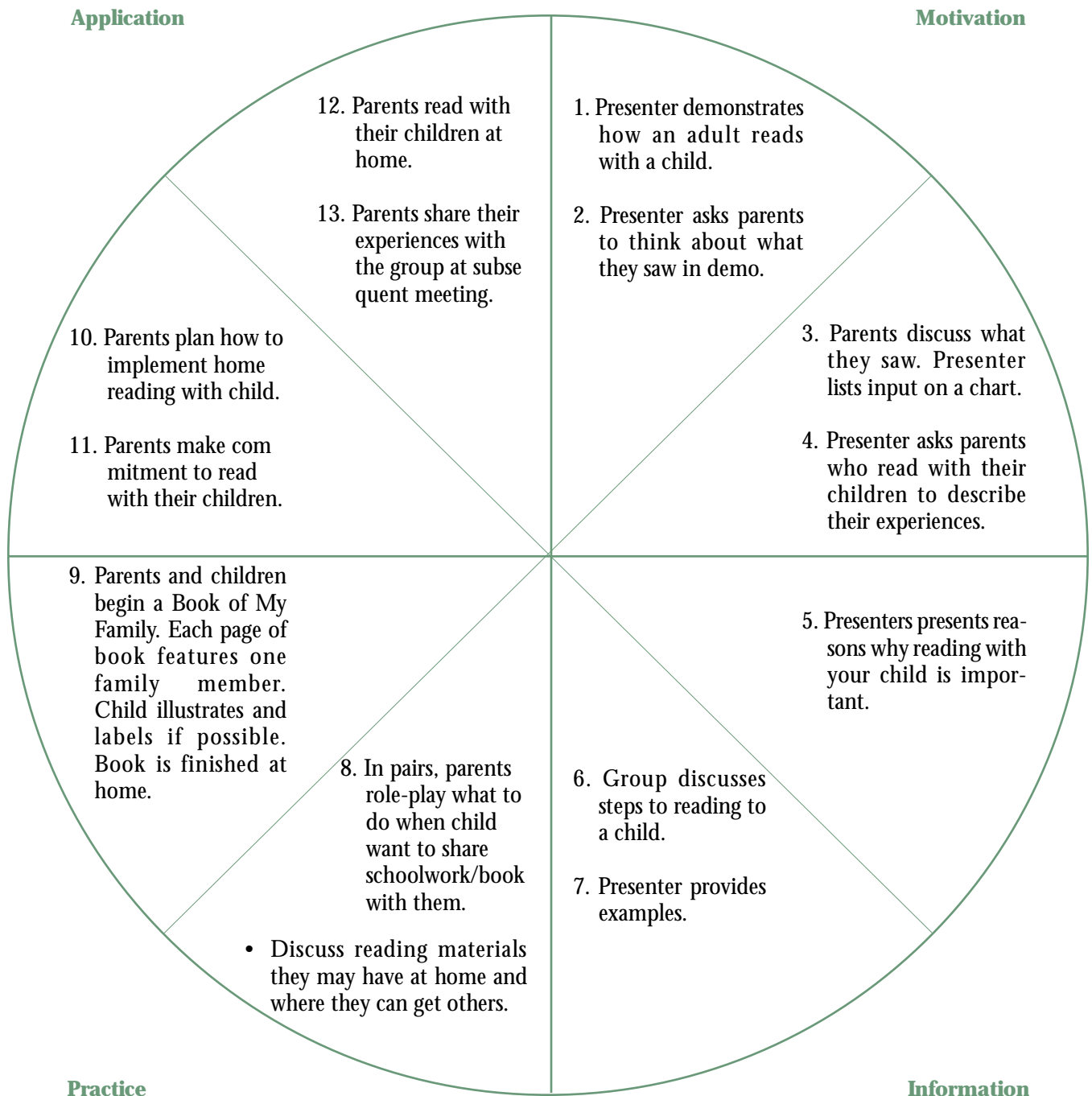
References

Violand-Sanchez, E., et al. (1991). *Fostering Home-School Cooperation: Involving Language Minority Families as Partners in Education* (Program Information Guide #6). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Mulhern, M. et al. (1994). *Family Literacy for Language Minority Families: Issues for Program Implementation* (Program Information Guide #17). Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Parent Workshop

Reading: A Shared Experience



Focus:

To help parents understand why it's important to read with their children.

To help parents identify what to read with their children.

To help parents understand how to read with their children.

Etta Johnson, ESOL/HILT
Arlington Public Schools, 1988

8

Technical Assistance and Resources

Resources specific to each section of this book appear at the end of each chapter. Below are more general resources.

1. Organizations/Institutions Serving Linguistic and Cultural Minorities

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)

1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
202-429-9292
202-659-5641 fax

CAL is a nonprofit organization that specializes in language issues. It publishes papers, monographs, and books. (It houses the ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics.) It provides services such as teacher training and conducts research.

Eastern Stream Center on Resources and Training (ESCORT) (For Migrant Education Inquiries)

SUNY at Oneonta
Oneonta, NY 13820
800-451-8058
607-432-7102 fax

ESCORT provides technical assistance on all issues related to migrant students and their families.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)

1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, DC 20005
202-898-1829

A membership organization for people interested in bilingual education. NABE publishes a journal and other publications, has an annual meeting, and offers on-line services.

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA)

U.S. Department of Education
Room 5082 Switzer Building
600 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington, DC 20202
202-205-5463
202-205-8737 fax

The U.S. Government's arm with responsibility for issues and programs related to language minority children. OBEMLA funds **The Bilingual Clearinghouse**, which publishes monographs and runs an on-line service.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

1600 Cameron Street Suite 300
Alexandria, VA 22314
703-836-0774
703-836-7864 fax

A membership organization for ESL and bilingual teachers. TESOL publishes several journals and a newsletter, maintains on-line services, and advocates for ESL students, teachers and parents.

2. Teacher Training

- Gailbraith, P., & Anstrom, K. (1995). *Peer Coaching: An Effective Staff Development Model for Educators of Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE).
- Grosse, C. (Spring 1991). "The TESOL Methods Course." *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), p.29-49.
- Hainer, E. Violand, et al. (1990). *Integrating Learning Styles and Skills in the ESL Classroom: An Approach to Lesson Planning*. Washington, DC: NCBE.
- Hamayan, E.V., & Perlman, R. (1990). *Helping Language Minority Students After They Exit From Bilingual/ESL Programs: A Handbook for Teachers*.
- Kagan, S. (1990). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers*. San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.
- Leighton, M. S., Hightower, A. M., & Wrigley, P. G. (1995). *Model Strategies in Bilingual Education: Professional Development*.
- Milk, R. D. (Fall 1990). "Preparing ESL and Bilingual Teachers for Changing Roles: Immersion for Teachers of LEP Children." *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(3), p.407-426.
- Milk, R., et al. (1992) *Re-thinking the Education of Teachers of Language Minority Children: Developing Reflective Teachers for Changing Schools*.
- Sakash, K., & Rodriguez-Brown, F.V. (1995). *Teamworks: Mainstream and Bilingual/ESL Teacher Collaboration*. Washington, DC: NCBE.
- Torres-Guzman, M.E., & Goodwin, L.A. (1995). *Mentoring Bilingual Teachers*. Washington, DC: NCBE.

3. Legal Framework for Serving Limited English Proficient Students

- Improving America's Schools Act: Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards*. (1994). Washington, DC: NCBE.
- Improving America's Schools Act: Title VII: Bilingual Education, Language Enhancement, and Language Acquisition Programs*. (1994). Washington, DC: NCBE.
- Lyons, J. J. (1992). *Legal Responsibilities of Education Agencies Serving National Origin Language Minority Students*. Washington, DC: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Center.
- Pocket Digest: Digest of Education Statistics for Limited English Proficient Students*. (June 1995). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.
- (The) Provision of an Equal Education Opportunity to Limited English Proficient Students*. (December 1992). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights.

4. Selected ESL Software

National Geographic Society—Wonders of Learning (CD-ROMs)

Publisher: National Geographic Society
Educational Services
Level: Beginning For: K-2
Special use: Elementary, bilingual

QuickTalk

Publisher: Educational Activities
Level: Beginning For: All except HE
Special use: Literacy

Reading Adventure 1-ESL

Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate For: K-9
Special use: elementary, bilingual

Reading Adventure 2 - ESL

Publisher: Queue, Inc.
Level: Intermediate For: K-9
Special use: elementary, bilingual

Rosetta Stone, The

Publisher: Fairfield Language Technologies
Level: Beginning For: All

Seasons

Publisher: Discis Knowledge Research
Level: Intermediate For: K-6, 7-12
Special use: elementary, bilingual, science

Tortoise and the Hare

Publisher: Broderbund
Level: Beginning For: All
Special use: bilingual, elementary

Triple PlayPlus!

Publisher: Syracuse Language Systems
Level: Beginning For: All except K-6

Village

Publisher: CALL-IS Macintosh Library
Also ftp from archive.merit.edu or
gopher from CELIA
Level: Intermediate For: All except K-6

Where in the World/USA/Europe/America's Past/Time is Carmen Sandiego?

Publisher: Broderbund
Level: Intermediate For: All except K-6
Comes with the World Atlas as a reference for student use.

5. On-line Resources for Education

For Teachers

<http://www.classroom.net/>
“Classroom Connect” for K-12 educators;
resources include newsletters, videos, books,
training systems, and conferences

<http://www.tesol.edu/>
Teachers of English to speakers of other languages

<http://www.cal.org/>
Center for Applied Linguistics

<http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/>
National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education

For Students

<http://school.discovery.com/>
“Discovery Channel” School

<http://www.nasa.gov/>
NASA Web site with latest news and pictures of space exploration

<http://www.sesamestreet.com>
“Sesame Street” Web site with stories and lots of practice with letters, numbers, and shapes

6. Comprehensive Regional Assistance Center Network

Region I—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

Education Development Center Inc.
55 Chapel Street
Newton, MA 02158-1060

Director: Wende Allen

800-332-0226
617-965-6325 fax
www.edc.org/NECAC/

Region II—New York

New York Technical Assistance Center (NYTAC)
The Metropolitan Center for Urban Education
New York University
82 Washington Square East, Suite 72
New York, NY 10003

Director: Lamar Miller

800-4NYU-224 or 212-998-5100
212-995-4199 fax
www.nyu.edu/education/metrocenterr/nytac.html

Region III—Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania

Region III Comprehensive Center
The George Washington University
Center for Equity and Excellence in Education
1730 North Lynn Street, Suite 401
Arlington, VA 22209

Director: Charlene Rivera

703-528-3588 or 800-925-3223
703-528-5973 fax
www.ceee.gwu.edu

Region IV—Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia

Region IV Comprehensive Center at
Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Inc.
1700 N. Moore St. Suite 1275
Arlington, VA 22209

Director: Pamela K. Buckley

800-624-9120 or 703-276-0200
703-276-0266 fax
www.ael.org/cac/

Region V—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
3330 Causeway Boulevard, Suite 430
Metairie, LA 70002

Director: Hai T. Tran

504-838-6861 or 800-644-8671
504-831-5242 fax
www.sedl.org/secac/

Region VI—Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin

University of Wisconsin
1025 West Johnson Street
Madison, WI 53706

Director: Walter Secada

608-263-4220
608-263-3733 fax
www.wcer.wise.edu/ccvi

**Region VII—Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri,
Nebraska, Oklahoma**

University of Oklahoma
555 East Constitution, Suite 128
Norman, OK 73072-7820

Director: Belinda Biscoe
405-325-1729 or 800-228-1766
405-325-1824 fax
tel.occe.ou.edu/comp/comp.html

Region VIII—Texas

STAR Center
Intercultural Development Research Association
(IDRA)
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78228-1190

Director: Albert Cortez
210-684-8180 or 888-394-7826
210-684-5389 fax
www.starcenter.org

**Region IX—Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico,
Utah**

New Mexico Highlands University
500 Laser Road NE, Suite B
Rio Rancho, NM 87124

Director: Paul Martinez
505-891-6111 or 800-247-4269
505-891-5744 fax
www.cesdp.nmhu.edu

**Region X—Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington,
Wyoming**

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 Southwest Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204

Director: Carlos Sundermann
503-275-9479 or 800-547-6339
503-275-9625 fax
www.nwrac.org

**Region XI—Northern California. Includes all counties
except Imperial, Inyo, Los Angeles, Mono, Orange,
Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego**

WestEd
730 Harrison Street
San Francisco, CA 94107-1242

Director: Beverly Farr
415-565-3009 or 800-645-3276
415-565-3012 fax
www.wested.org/cc

**Region XII—Southern California. Includes Imperial,
Inyo, Los Angeles, Mono, Orange, Riverside, San
Bernardino, and San Diego counties**

Los Angeles County Office of Education
9300 Imperial Highway
Downey, CA 90242-2890

Director: Henry Mothner
310-922-6364
310-940-1798 fax
SCCAC.lacoe.edu/

Region XIII—Alaska

South East Regional Resource Center
210 Ferry Way, Suite 200
Juneau, AK 99801

Director: Linda Layfield

907-586-6806
907-463-3811 fax
www.AKRAC.k12.ak.us

Region XIV—Florida, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

Educational Testing Service
1979 Lake Side Parkway, Suite 400
Tucker, GA 30084

Director: Trudy Hensley

800-241-3865 or 800-756-9003
770-723-7436 fax
www.ets.org/ccxiv/index.html

Region XV—Hawaii, American Samoa, Federated States of Micronesia, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, Republic of the Marshall Islands, Republic of Palau

Pacific Resources for Education and Learning
Pacific Comprehensive Assistance Center
828 Fort Street Mall, Suite 300
Honolulu, HI 96813-4321

Director: Hilda Heine

808-533-6000
808-533-7599 fax
www.prel.hawaii.edu/Pacific_center

7. Desegregation Assistance Centers (DACs)

Region I—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Vermont

New England Desegregation Assistance Center for
Equity in Education at Brown University
144 Wayland Avenue
Providence, RI 02906

Director: Maria Pacheco

401-274-9548
401-421-7650 fax
www.brown.edu/Research/The_Education_Alliance/DAC/dac.html

Region II—New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands

Equity Assistance Center
New York University
32 Washington Place, Room 72
New York, NY 10003

Director: Joan Dawson

212-998-5110
212-995-4199 fax
www.nyu.edu/education/metrocenter/eac/eac.html

**Region III—Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland,
Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia**

Mid-Atlantic Center
The Mid-Atlantic Center
5454 Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 655
Chevy Chase, MD 20815

Director: Sheryl Denbo

301-657-7741
301-657-8782 fax
www.nicom.com/~maec/index.html

**Region IV—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mis-
sissippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennes-
see**

Southeastern Equity Center
Kendall One Plaza
8603 S. Dixie Highway, Suite 304
Miami, FL 33143

Director: Nancy Peck

305-669-0114
305-669-9809 fax

**Region V—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota,
Ohio, and Wisconsin**

Programs for Educational Opportunity
1005 School of Education, University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259

Director: Percy Bates

313-763-9910
313-763-2137 fax
www.umich.edu/~eqtynet

**Region VI—Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico,
Oklahoma, and Texas**

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78210

Director: Bradley Scott

210-684-8180
210-684-5389 fax
www.idra.org

Region VII—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska

Midwest Desegregation Assistance Center
Kansas State University, Bluemont Hall
Manhattan, KS 66506-5327

Director: Charles Rankin

913-532-6408
913-532-7304 fax
www.mdac.educ.ksu.edu

**Region VIII—Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South
Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming**

Metropolitan State College - Denver
1100 Stout Street, Suite 800
Denver, CO 80204

Director: Gerald Brown

303-556-5179
303-556-8505 fax
www.mscd.edu/~eec_svcs

Region IX—Arizona, California, and Nevada

WestEd/Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, CA 90720

Director: Antonio Sancho

562-598-7661
562-598-9635 fax
www.WestEd.org

Region X—Alaska, American Samoa, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Northern Mariana Islands, Oregon, Republic of Palau, and Washington

Center for National Origin, Race and Sex Equity
(CNORSE)

Northwest Regional Education Lab
101 S.W. Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204-3297

Director: Joyce Harris

503-275-0664
503-275-0452 fax
www.nwrel.org/cnorse/index.html

8. Research Centers

National Research Center on Improving Student Learning and Achievement in English

University of Albany, SUNY
School of Education, B9
1400 Washington Avenue
Albany, NY 12222

518-442-5026
518-442-5933 fax
E-mail: cela@cnsvox.albany.edu
Contact: Judith Langer

National Research and Development Center on Achievement in School Mathematics and Science

Wisconsin Center for Education Research
School of Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1025 West Johnson Street, Room 557
Madison, WI 53706

608-263-3605
Contact: Thomas A. Romberg

Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing (CRESST)

University of California, Los Angeles
Graduate School of Education
10920 Wilshire Blvd. Suite 900
Los Angeles, CA 90024-6511

310-206-1532
E-mail: expert@cse.ucla.edu
Contacts: Eva L. Baker and Robert Linn

National Center for Research on Evaluation, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE)

The Regents of the University of California
The University of California
1156 High Street
Santa Cruz, CA 95064

408-459-3500
Contact: Karen F. Reinero

National Center to Enhance Early Development and Learning

University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill
Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center
CB #4100
Chapel Hill, NC 27599-4100

919-966-4250
Contact: Don Bailey

National Research and Development Center on Increasing the Effectiveness of State and Local Education Reform Efforts

Consortium for Policy Research in Education (CPRE)
Graduate School of Education
University of Pennsylvania
3440 Market Street, Suite 560
Philadelphia, PA 19104-3325

215-573-0700, ext. 224
Email: cpre@nwfs.gse.upenn.edu
Contact: Susan Fuhrman

Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR)

Johns Hopkins University, CSOS
3505 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
410-516-8800

and

Howard University
Department of Psychology
Washington, DC 20059
202-806-8484

Contacts:

John H. Hollified (Johns Hopkins)
Beverly Cole-Henderson (Howard University)

National Reading Research Center

University of Georgia
318 Aderhold
Athens, GA 30602-7125

706-542-3678
Contact: Donna Alvermann

9

Articles of Interest

The articles in this section will provide you with in-depth information on topics that were presented in each chapter of the *Help! Kit*.

Under each chapter heading listed below, you will see from one to three referenced articles that appear in bold font. These articles are the ones that are included in the *Help! Kit*.

The remaining articles are listed to provide you with additional knowledge about these specific areas of interest.

Chapter 1

1. Riddlemoser, N. (1987, November). ***Working with limited-English proficient students in the regular classroom.*** Washington, DC : ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.
2. Menchaca, V.D., & Ruiz-Escalante, J.A. (1995). ***Instructional strategies for migrant students*** (Report N. EDO-RC-95-10). Charleston, WV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Appalachia Educational Laboratory.
3. Garcia, E.E. (1997, March). The education of Hispanics in early childhood: Of Roots and Wings.

Young Children, 5-14. (Copyright 1997 by Eugene Garcia—see inside front cover for information on right and permissions. [Volume, 52, Number 3])

4. Dale, T.C. (1986, December). ***Limited-English-proficient students in the schools: Helping the newcomer.*** Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Chapter 2

1. Whittaker, C. R., Salend, S. J., & Gutierrez, M. B. (1997, March). **Voices from the fields: Including migrant farm workers in the curriculum.** *The Reading Teacher*, 50 (6), 482-493. (Copyright 1997 International Reading Association)
2. Sutton, C. (1990, Summer). Oral language development—Common sense strategies for second language learners in the primary grades. *Elementary ESOL Education News*, 13 (1), 1-2.
3. Kagan, S. (1995, May). ***We can talk: Cooperative learning in the elementary ESL classroom.*** Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-95-08)

4. Jacob, E. & Matson, B. (1987, September). Cooperative learning with limited-English-proficient students. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.
5. First, C.A. Nations, M. J., Thrush, E. A. (1990, Summer). Tips from the trenches -Sample learning center activities. *Elementary ESOL Education News*, 13 (1), 3-5.

Chapter 3

1. Samway, K. D., & Taylor, D. (1993, Spring). Inviting children to make connections between reading and writing. *TESOL Journal*, 7-11.
2. Hamayan, E. V. (1989, Summer). Teaching writing to potentially English proficient students using whole language approaches. *Program Information Guide Series, 11*. Silver Spring, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Chapter 4

1. Crandall, J. (1994, January). *Content-centered language learning*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-94-06)
2. Tang, G.M. (1992-1993, Winter). Teaching content knowledge and ESOL in multicultural classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 2(2). Reprinted by permission in *TEACH: Session 3—Study Guide Appendix*, 209-214.
3. Reilly, T. (1998, May). *ESL through content-area instruction*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Chapter 5

1. Short, D. J. & Spanos, G. (1989, November). Teaching mathematics to limited English proficient students. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Center for Applied Linguistics.
2. Corwin, R. B. Brahier, D. J., & Speer, W. R. (1993, February). Ideas. *Arithmetic Teacher*, 40 (6), 325-332.
3. Capps, L. R. & Pickreign, J. (1993, September). Language connections in mathematics: A critical part of mathematics instruction. *Arithmetic Teacher*, (41) 1, 8-12.

Chapter 6

1. Tannenbaum, J. (1996, May). *Practical ideas on alternative assessment for ESL students*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO-FL-96-07)
2. Derrick-Mescua, M. (). Assessment that supports academic success for English language learners. In *From Theory to Practice*. Tampa, FL: Region XIV Comprehensive Center.
3. Hoyos, G. (1996, January/February). Help your students beat the testing. *Instructor*, 60-65.

Chapter 7

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