DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 106 238 SP 009 147

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TITLE	Modular Sequence: Teaching Reading to Bilingual Learners. TIP 002.01; Reading for the Spanish-Speaking Child: An Overview. Teacher Corps Bilingual Project.
INSTITUTION	Hartford Univ., West Hartford, Conn. Coll. of Education.
PUB DATE	74
NOTE	48p.; For related documents, see ED 095 128-143, SP 008 975-987, SP 009 146 and 148-163; Text printed on yellow paper and may not reproduce sharply
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$1.95 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	*Bilingual Education; Elementary School Students; *Reading Instruction; *Spanish Speaking; *Teacher Education; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Learning Modules

ABSTRACT

This teaching module is an overview which, together with the modular sequence that follows, is designed to enable participants to make an informed choice as to the appropriate approach for teaching reading to Spanish-speaking students. Upon completion of this module, participants should be able to (a) discuss current English reading programs for Spanish-speaking students, (b) identify components of the vernacular approach to teaching reading, (c) explain and evaluate the rationale and research for the vernacular approach to teaching reading, and (d) describe tentative outlines of the reading program which seems most feasible for Spanish-speaking students in the participant's own school situation. Participants also complete a preassessment test, choose tasks from a list of learning activities, and conclude the module with a postassessment test. (Readings entitled "An Overview of the Vernacular Approach to Teaching Reading to Spanish-Speaking Students," "Region I Literacy Lesson: A Bilingual Reading and Writing System for Speakers of Spanish as a First or Second Language," "Development of Pre-Reading Skills in a Second Language or Dialect," and "Bilingual Reading for Speakers of Spanish" are included.) (PB)

TEACHER CORPS BILINGUAL PROJECT
UNIVERSITY OF HARTFORD
WEST HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT

DR. PERRY Z. ZIRKEL, DIRECTOR

MODULAR SEQUENCE: TEACHING READING TO BILINGUAL LEARNERS

TTP 002.01 READING FOR THE SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILD: AN OVERVIEW

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RATIONALE

The need for re-examining reading programs for Spanish-speaking students in our public schools has become increasingly evident. The Spanish school population has grown to a very considerable percentage. The progress of the students in reading has been tragic. The following statement by Senator Joseph M. Montoya in a recent editorial that appeared in the Hartford Times is on target:

> We know a great deal more today than we used to know about how children learn. We know, for instance, that when a child is five or six years old and has learned to think and make sounds in one language, he is ready to learn to read and write in that language. We call that "reading readiness." But if we switch languages on that child, and at the same time make him feel ashamed of all that he has learned so proudly in his first six years, he loses his reading readiness and suffers irreparable learning damage. Soon he falls behind in school and eventually he drops out.

In an attempt to more effectively meet the needs of Spanish-speaking students various methodologies and materials have recently been tried in our public schools. This overview and the modular sequence accompanying it should enable you to make an informed choice as to the appropriate approach for teaching reading to Spanish-speaking students in your school.

OBJECTIVES

After the completion of this module, the participant will be able to:

- -summarize the state of the art with respect to English reading programs for Spanish-speaking students
- -identify the components of the vernacular approach to teaching reading
- -explain and evaluate the rationale and research for the vernacular approach to teaching reading
- -describe the tentative outlines of the reading program which seems the most feasible for Spanish-speaking students in your school situation

PRE-ASSESSMENT

To assess your prior mastery of the terminal objectives of this unit of work, complete the following exercise.

Directions: Answer each of the following in a one page essay form:

1. Summarize the state of the art with respect to English reading programs for Spanish-speaking students.

2. Identify the components of the vernacular approach to teaching reading.

3. Explain and evaluate the rationale and research for the vernacular approach to teaching reading.

4. Describe the tentative outlines of the reading program which seems the most feasible for Spanish-speaking students in your school situation.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

I. Read any two of the following:

A. Blossom, Grace. "Teaching the Bilingual Child to Read." Changing Education, 3, 1969, 28-34.

B. Cornejo, Richard. A Criterion Referenced Assessment System for Bilingual Reading. California Journal of Educational Research, 25, 1974, 294-301.

C. Horn, Thomas. "Three Methods of Developing Reading Readiness in Spanish-Speaking Children in the First Grade." Reading Teacher, 20, 1966, 38-42.

D. McCanne, Roy. "Approaches to First Grade English Reading Instruction for Children from Spanish-Speaking Homes." Reading Teacher, 19, 1966, 670-675.

E. Pettibone, Timothy & Wooden, Sharon. "A Comparative Study of Three Beginning Reading Programs for the Spanish-Speaking Child." Journal of Reading Behavior, 5, 1972, 192-195.

F. Timothy, Sister M. "The Reading Problems of a Bilingual Child." Elementary English, 41, 1964, 235-237, 241.

G. Yoes, Derek. "Reading Program for Mexican-American Children of Texas." Reading Teacher, 20, 1967, 313-318.

II. Read A or B:

A. Zirkel, Perry. "An overview of the Vernacular Approach to Teaching Reading to Spanish-Speaking Students." [attached].

B. Feeley, Joan. "Teaching Non-English Speaking First Graders to Read." Elementary English, 47, 1970, 199-212.

III. Read at least one of A-E plus F.

A. Berney, Tomi, & Eisenberg, Anne. "Research Supplement." Digest of Bilingual Education. New York: Yeshiva University, December 1968.

B. Colombani, Serafina. "Review of the Literature." [attached].

C. Knight, Lester. "Oral-Aural Language Instruction and Reading Achievement of Selected Spanish-Speaking Children." California Journal of Educational Research, 23, 1972, 188-197.

D. Modiano, Nancy. "The Most Effective Language of Instruction for Beginning Reading: A Field Study," in F. Pialorsi (ed.). Teaching the Bilingual. Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1974. pp. 159-166.

E. Modiano, Nancy. "National or Mother Language in Beginning Reading." Research in the Teaching of English, 2, 1968, 32-43.

F. Venezky, Richard L. "Nonstandard Language and Reading." Elementary English, 47, 1970, 334-345.

IV. Read any two of the following:

A. Krear, Serafina. "Development of Pre-reading Skills in a Second Language." [attached].

B. Ramirez, A "Bilingual Reading for Speakers of Spanish." [attached].

C. Thonis, Eleanor. Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers. Riverside, N. J.: MacMillan 1970.

POST-ASSESSMENT

To assess your mastery of the terminal objectives of this unit of work, complete the following exercise.

Directions: Answer each of the following in a one page essay form:

1. Summarize the state of the art with respect to English reading programs for Spanish-speaking students.

2. Identify the components of the vernacular approach to teaching reading.

3. Explain and evaluate the rationale and research for the vernacular approach to teaching reading.

4. Describe the tentative outlines of the reading program which seems the most feasible for Spanish-speaking students in your school situation.

An Overview of the Vernacular Approach to Teaching Reading to Spanish-Speaking Students

Perry A. Zirkel

The vernacular approach to teaching reading to Spanish-speaking students challenges the traditional notion that the most effective way to teach reading in English to Spanish-speaking student is to do so directly and intensively. Given the focal points of 1) the Spanish-speaking student and 2) reading in English, many educators have superficially reasoned that the shortest distance between these two points is a straight line. Hence, they have advocated an intensive program of teaching these students reading in English.

However, by following this approach they have ignored the treacherous territory between thses two points. At least for the Spanish-speaking child who is dominant in Spanish with respect to his aural-oral skills, this territory encompasses the double difficulty of learning English and learning to read, each a very challenging and critical task in its own right. It is not surprising that many of these children feel fraught with failure and fear upon being thrust into such a situation. Further, it is no wonder that many of these children gag and throw up the redoubled dose of medicine prescribed by well-intentioned pedagogues in the form of intensive English reading programs.

In this view, the territory between the Spanish dominant child and reading in English can be seen as a chasm containing a fast-flowing stream. Rather than being thrust in a sink-or-swim approach, where some will effectively survive and many will tragically drown, these students may be given a more effective and equitable opportunity in the form of a bridge to be built upstream. This bridge has two supporting beams: aural-oral English and native language reading. That is, rather than an intensive and direct reading in English program, the vernacular approach suggests teaching the child to read in his native language, while separately he is taught English as a Second Language via an aural-oral approach. The final step of learning to read in English then becomes a more amenable task.

This approach of going the apparent long way has been tried with apparent success in various countries where the vernacular of groups of children was not the natural language. The approach seems to have particular promise for the Spanish-speaking child due to the phonetic facilitation of learning to read in Spanish in comparison to the complexity of learning to read in English.

However, before making a decision as to whether such an approach is favorable and feasible in your school, you are urged to first examine critically the rationale and research for this approach (which are found in this module)

and then to consider carefully the components of this approach (which are described in the accompanying modules:

1) determining language dominance

2) teaching reading in Spanish

3) teaching aural-oral skills in English

4) teaching reading in English

S. Colombani. Region I Literacy Lesson: A Bilingual Reading and Writing System for Speakers of Spanish as a First or Second Language. Dallas: Melton Book Company, 1973.

Review of the Literature

Biliteracy

Respected authorities, (Thonis 1970, Saville and Troike 1970), have explained when literacy is developed in one language, decoding in a second language does not mean learning to read anew. The critical question in bilingual programs centers around the decision to introduce the child to reading in his native language. Such a decision implies knowledge of supportive evidence, awareness of a need to retrain teachers, a willingness to adapt and develop materials, and a commitment to a carefully articulated long-range program.

Ample evidence indicates that American schools are unsuccessful in teaching reading in English to non-English speakers; current alternatives are to postpone reading in English until English speaking skills are developed or introduce reading in the native language. Nancy Modiano's study (1966) in Mexico provides concrete evidence that learning to read in the native language establishes a firm foundation for success in second language reading.

Experimental educators have noted achievement differences between children who enter American schools already literate in their tongue and those non-English speakers who are illiterate. The literate non-English speaker seems to have much less of a problem than the illiterate one. It seems logical, then, to many authorities to introduce the child to reading in his native tongue.

Saville and Troike (1970) explained:

> "Reading should be introduced in the children's first language, and it is therefore obvious that such reading readiness skills as the recognition of sound-symbol relationships should also be introduced in the first language." (p. 23)
>
> "He will, indeed, become literate in two languages, and this is an advantage which might be denied if he began only in English." (p. 46)

Andersson and Boyer (1969) summarized:

> "Teachers of non-English-speaking children are urged to lose no time in teaching the children to read and write in their mother tongue, and are urged to take all the time needed in an English reading-readiness program." (p. 39)
>
> "Most people who believe these things also believe that it follows that a child's mother tongue is the one in which he should first learn to read. The agreement is not universal, however, and among informed teachers three other factors are thought to require consideration: (1) the relative ease with which the mother tongue and the second-language writing systems can be acquired; (2) the cultural pattern of reading acquisition related to each of the two languages; and (3) the potential transfer—whether good or bad—to be expected from acquisition of one before the other." (pp. 104-105)

When the mother tongue under consideration is Spanish, there seems to be little question with respect to the validity of introducing reading in the native tongue. It is reasonable to assume that if teachers of reading in English have found linguistic readers (those controlling phoneme/grapheme correspondence) helpful in teaching the decoding process, then the teaching of reading in Spanish must prove less troublesome since the "fit" between sound and symbol is so much better in Spanish than in English. This significant difference between English and Spanish spelling systems is the basis for the need to retrain teachers for Spanish bilingual programs. The approaches in teaching reading in English are based on the idiosyncrasies of the English language and therefore should not be applied in total to the teaching of reading in another language.

In the event that the decision is made to introduce reading in English first, there are several considerations which should be made. A young pre-literate non-English speaking student should be given systematic instruction in developing audio-lingual skills in English. Thonis (1970) has indicated that a well-planned program of listening comprehension and speaking fluency must precede the introduction to reading and writing English. According to Rivers (1964) in the early stages the student should not read anything he has not already heard and repeated aloud. Although there is a consensus of opinion that the student not be asked to read anything he has not already learned to understand and speak, there is disagreement with respect to the amount of time lag required between speaking and reading.

Mackey (1965), has summarized the continuum in his statement:

> ". . . Some courses are arranged so that the written form of a word or sentence is shown immediately after the spoken form is heard; other courses will want the learner to hear and speak the language for a couple of years before presenting it to him in print." (p. 233)

Teachers should be trained to introduce the literate non-English speaker to English print skillfully. Silent reading in English is a particularly dangerous exercise for literate non-English speakers who know the Roman alphabet. Such a student can decode the English print silently and keep himself occupied; however, if he were to read the lesson orally it would not be understood by the speaker of English because he is decoding English with a set of rules from another language. Rivers (1964) suggested hearing simultaneously what they read silently.

The discussion thus far has treated the teaching of reading in the native language or the second language assuming that the speech of the children was more or less the standard variety found in reading texts. If, however, the child's speech is a non-standard dialect of the language in which he will learn to read, further considerations are necessary before designing the language arts program.

The questions to be asked about a non-standard dialect of Spanish apply equally when asked about speakers of non-standard English in bilingual programs.

Although there are authoritative statements to be found in the literature with respect to the teaching of reading in the local dialect in bilingual programs, the greatest source of experimentation is in the literature on non-standard English dialects, most specifically Black English. It seems reasonable to consider the body of information available on dialect teaching to investigate possible similarities of problems encountered in bilingual programs.

William Stewart (1969) in presenting a bidialectal approach reading discussed Tore Österberg's findings in a study in Swed the experimental group began in non-standard dialect materials th... changed to standard Swedish materials. The significance of Österberg's study lies not so much in the fact that the experimental group surpassed the control group but they did so having spent less time with standard materials than the control group. This study suggests that perhaps dialect speakers in American schools don't need more time to learn to read successfully as had been thought but perhaps can achieve as well as standard speakers if they are taught to read in their own dialect.

The theory proposed by many experts that learning to read in the native language while learning to speak English will more adequately insure success in learning to read English, can easily be translated into a theory for a bidialectal approach. Simply stated, while students learn to read in their dialect they can learn to speak the standard version of their language as well as English as a second language. Since there is evidence of increased achievement in transferring from one language to another as well as from a dialect to the standard, it seems possible that starting with the local non-English dialect then gradually transferring to the standard language before reading in English might prove effective.

A solution is to ask teachers to use the language experience approach which derives its subject matter and form from the child's inner space. However, in order to use the experience approach effectively, teachers need to learn the features of the local dialect. Furthermore, they must be given training in methods based on one of the possible alternatives in teaching reading to dialect speakers. Kenneth Goodman (1969) outlined three possibilities and recommended the third as most practical:

1. Write materials based on their dialect or rewrite standard materials.
2. Teach children to speak the standard dialect before teaching them to read in the standard dialect.
3. Let the children read standard materials in their own dialect. Use experience stories.

Goodman's recommendation to use experience stories would find support by any teachers who have used the approach for any length of time. Teachers learn quickly the advantages of teaching into the child's real world for reading content. They soon see the difference in the child's attention to reading when he's reading a Dick and Jane primer and when he's reading a sentence or paragraph that was authored by the child next to him.

In reviewing what noted authorities in reading recommend as a viable direction for bilingual programs, it is critical that the dialect issue and experience stories be correctly understood as they relate to philosophy. If in fact, the teacher's attitude toward the child's dialect is negative, naturally the teacher will have great difficulty using the experience approach without "standardizing" what the child says before writing it on the chart. This activity undermines the entire purpose for using experience stories. Rolf Kjolseth (1972) disagrees strongly with teachers who would reject the local dialect when he says:

> "The teacher's attitudes with respect to language tend to be exclusive and purist, viewing 'interference,' whether from the ethnic dialect or English, as a major 'problem' and local dialect as categorically improper and 'incorrect.' Biculturalism of 'high' culture and bilingualism of the 'proper' variety are held to be worthy goals attainable only with great effort by his students, who are held to suffer from 'cultural deprivation.'" (p. 105)

If low achievement and drop-out statistics led educators to bilingual schooling, it must be interpreted as an attempt to meet the students' needs by moving closer to what they understand in order to teach them. To move only as far as the standard version of their language is to meet them half-way. Any educator who would "go for broke" in attempting to provide a meaningful educational experience must carry the notion to its logical conclusion. If moving half-way toward what the child understands helps, perhaps moving into his inner world in order to begin where he is will be twice as effective. There is nothing more individualized than using the child's own speech to make up the reading material for him to use for decoding.

Many reading experts have waived that meaning should be a higher priority in the reading program than simply reading off words from a printed page. Morris (1972) points out that the critical aspects of a reading approach revolve around its concern for meaning when she states:

> "In short, at higher levels we do not want children to equate words with sounds but with *meanings*. We do not want them to translate from graphemes to phonemes—we want them to be unaware of graphemes, as most of us are, and to grasp from the printed page the concepts, feelings, and opinions put there by the writer." (pp. 161-162)

Ten years ago few educators could support the notion that introducing reading in the mother tongue would result in higher achievement in English reading. Today there is ample research evidence to support the approach. Most educators who were so discouraged in attempting to meet the needs of non-English speakers in English and have taken the bilingual approach are encouraged not only by increased reading achievement but increased writing ability as well. Ellson (1974) reports significant differences in children's

writing ability when instructed bilingually as compared to children who received instruction in English only.

To summarize the rationale for introducing reading in the mother tongue:

1. 1953 UNESCO statement "It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue."
2. Supportive evidence that reading in his own language or dialect increases achievement and improves the self-concept (Modiano, Österberg).
3. Empirical evidence that illiterate non-English speakers introduced to reading in English fail more often than literate non-English speakers.
4. Hypothesis suggested by Goodman (1969) "The more divergence there is between the dialect of the learner and the dialect of learning the more difficult will be the task of learning to read."

Many educators use a bilingual literacy approach and are convinced that it works; others are on the fringes considering the possible merits and still others will never try it because they would rather "try harder" at what they believe in. As long as all three groups are improving the quality of life of the learner, who would argue with them?

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DEVELOPMENT OF PRE-READING SKILLS IN

A

SECOND LANGUAGE OR DIALECT

A Paper Presented at the Conference on Child Language
Conrad Hilton Hotel, Chicago
November 22-24, 1971

By
Serafina Krear, Ph.D.
Sacramento State College
1971

Development of Pre-Reading Skills In a Second Language or Dialect

Federally funded bilingual programs are rapidly multiplying across the nation as funds, expertise and community interest increase. To shift from an ethnocentric monolingual curriculum to a bicentric bilingual curriculum implies a great deal more than doubling staff and efforts. Decision models for bilingual programs are non-existent. Although Mackey (1969), Andersson and Boyer (1969), and Valencia (1969) have developed sophisticated descriptions of possible curriculum patterns, educators are still searching for clearly defined criteria for selecting a particular course of action. The most critical relationships needing clarification are in the areas of oral language, pre-reading skills and developmental reading.

It is the purpose of this paper to suggest that there should be a relationship between the sociolinguistic reality of the school community, the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of community members with that reality and decisions regarding the language or dialect for pre-reading and reading development. Decision models derived from a sociolinguistic perspective for biliteracy programs will be presented.

At the 1970 TESOL convention, Joshua Fishman's paper clearly presented the rationale for deriving bilingual programs from a sociolinguistic assessment of the community. His concept of using descriptions of communities in maintenance or language transfer patterns as a sound basis for curriculum development seems logical. This investigator's translation of Fishman's suggestion led to the development of a concept

currently being field tested in a Title VII project in Sacramento, California, "The Valley Intercultural Project."

It was hypothesized that non-English speakers living in a community of language shift would find it difficult to meet their needs whereas non-English speakers living in a language maintenance community could participate meaningfully within their respective communities without knowing English. It follows then that the bilingual reality in a community has a direct relationship to the urgency or lack of it for learning English to meet personal needs. That is to say, in a community of language transfer children need to learn English efficiently and immediately. A program designed to mirror the bilingual reality of such a community would give greater emphasis to English as a second language or dialect than to dialect or mother tongue development. On the other hand, in a language maintenance community where there is no urgency to learn English a greater emphasis can be given to dialect or mother tongue development. Pre-reading and reading skills, then, would be developed in English in a transfer community and in Language X or Dialect X in a maintenance community. The development of an oral language, pre-reading and reading program as just described is both simplistic in nature and arrogant in spirit for although it has a sociolinguistic base it is derived from the ivory tower.

A more sophisticated approach would consider the wishes of community members before making such curricular decisions. A grass-roots approach would involve community members not only in assessing the bilingual reality but also in deciding whether they wish to mirror that reality in

the biliteracy program or not. The alternate decision would be based on dissatisfaction with the reality that there was an urgency to learn English or that there was no urgency and there should be. The Socio-linguistic Decision Model (Diagram I) indicates the alternate choices of maintenance or transfer programs either for maintenance or transfer communities. This model reflects the hypothesis that the bilingual curriculum may have a strong enough impact to change the bilingual reality within the community.

On the following pages four models (Diagrams II, III, IV, V) representing the four alternatives in Diagram I are presented. The models for transfer communities are delayed reading models; pre-reading skills being developed in English are extended into the middle of Grade I. Pre-reading skills developed in the native language for maintenance communities should preclude the need for delaying the introduction of the printed word. The last three diagrams are suggested models for the development of pre-reading skills and reading for dialect speakers. If print is to be introduced in the non-standard dialect, pre-reading skills must be developed in dialect. Again, there is no reason to delay the introduction to print. Models suggesting delayed reading for dialect speakers take into account the additional time needed to teach oral language skills and pre-reading skills in the standard dialect or new language.

SOCIOLINGUISTIC DECISION MODEL

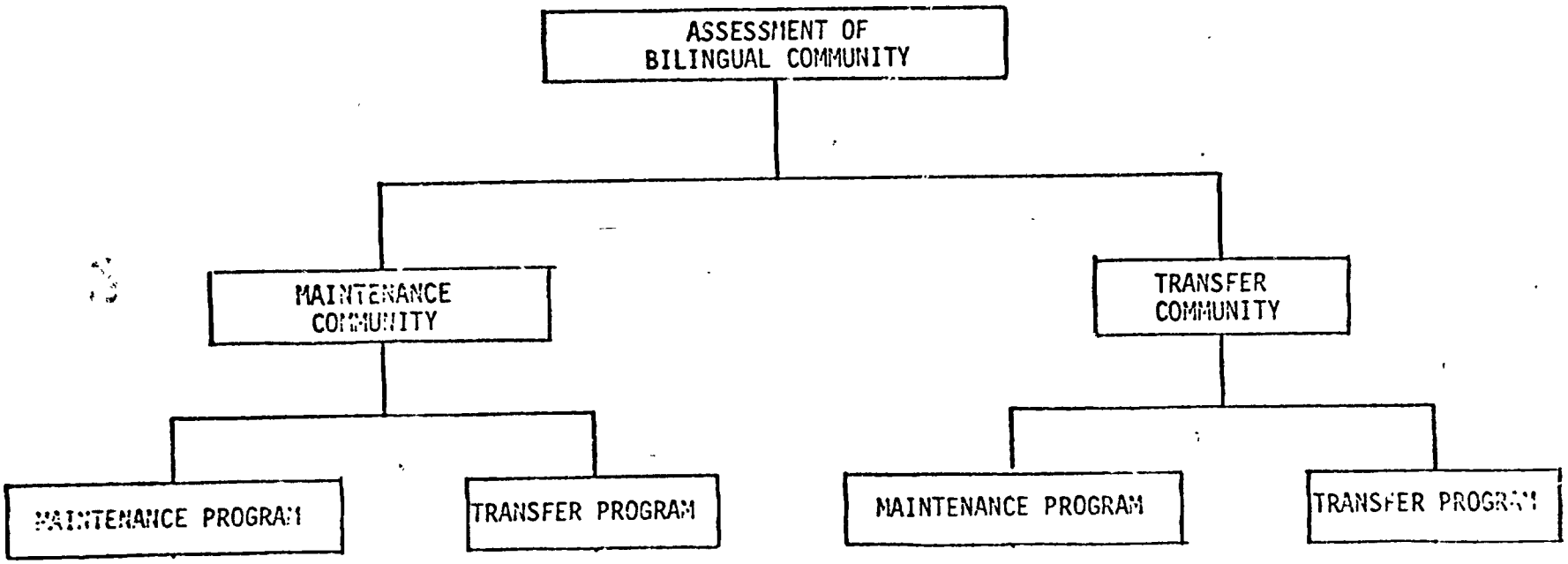
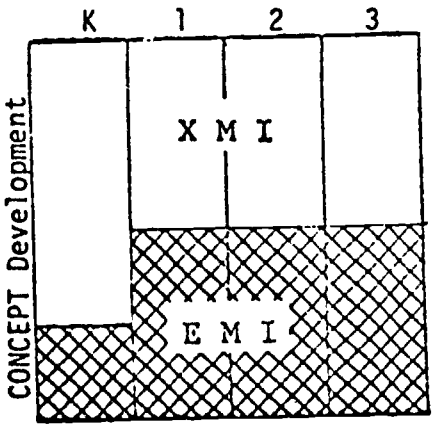
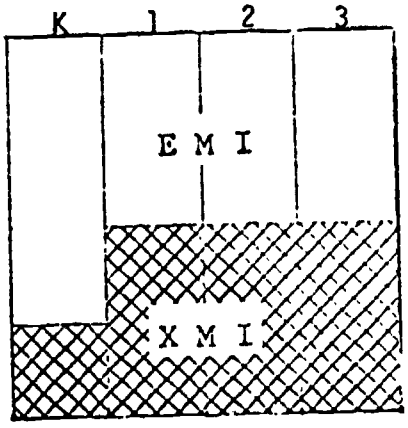


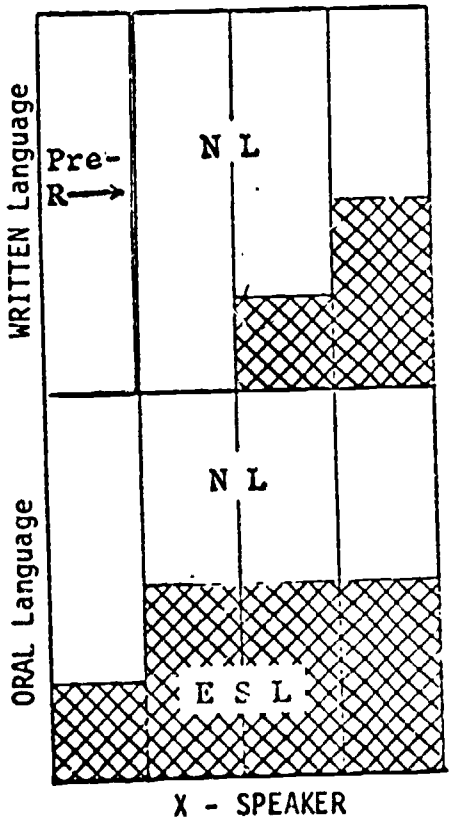
DIAGRAM I

MAINTENANCE Program

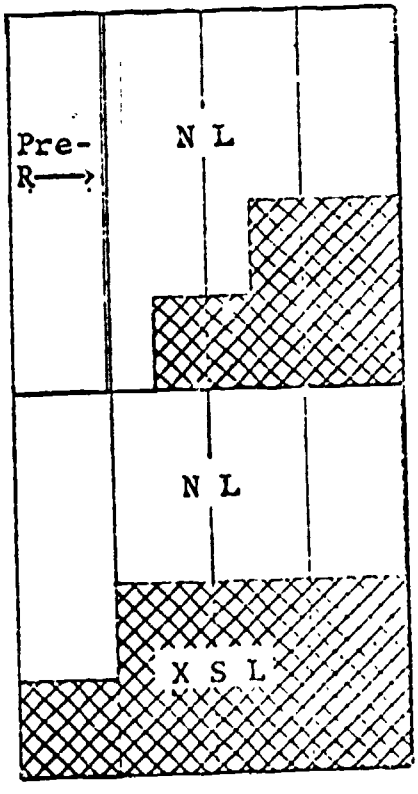
MAINTENANCE Community







X - SPEAKER



E - SPEAKER

Native Language

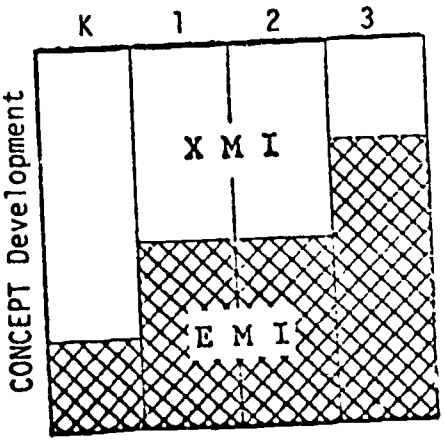
Second Language

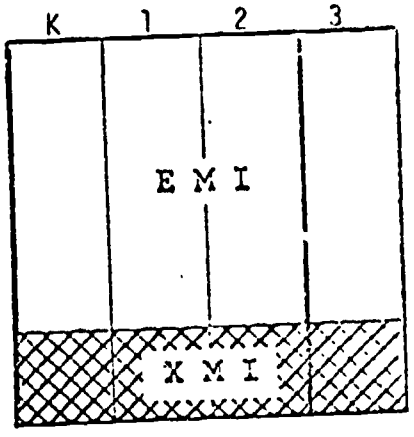
Pre-R	Pre Reading Skills
ESL	English as a Second Language
XSL	X as a Second Language
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
XMI	Language X as a Medium of Instruction

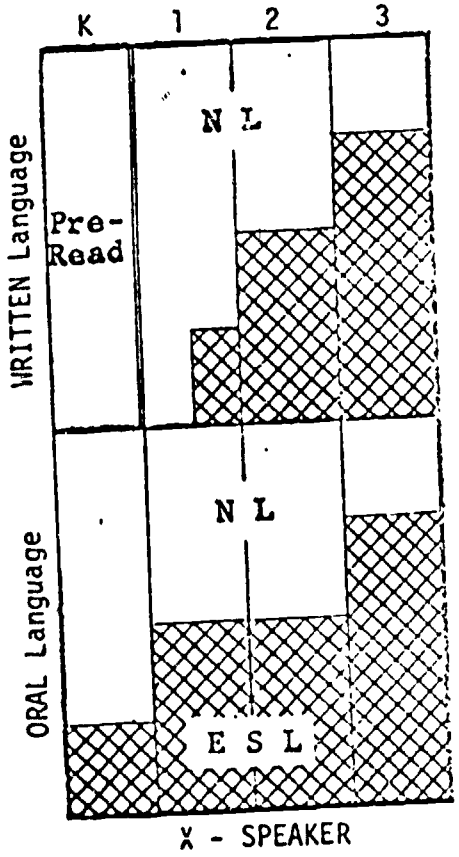
DIAGRAM II

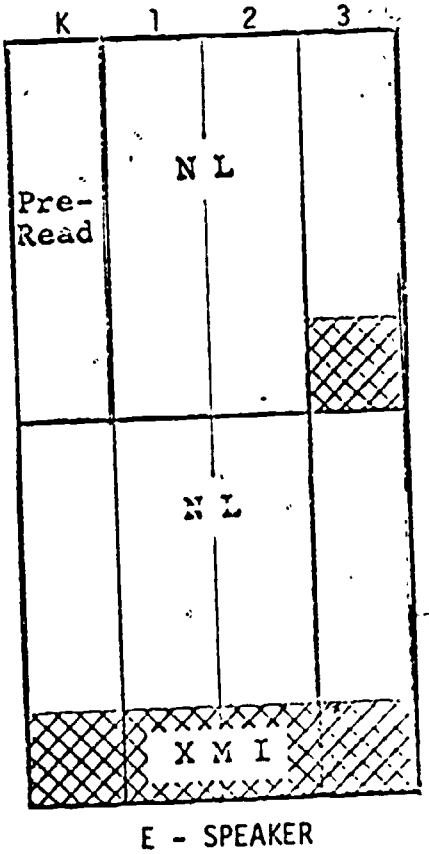
TRANSFER Program

MAINTENANCE Community









Native Language

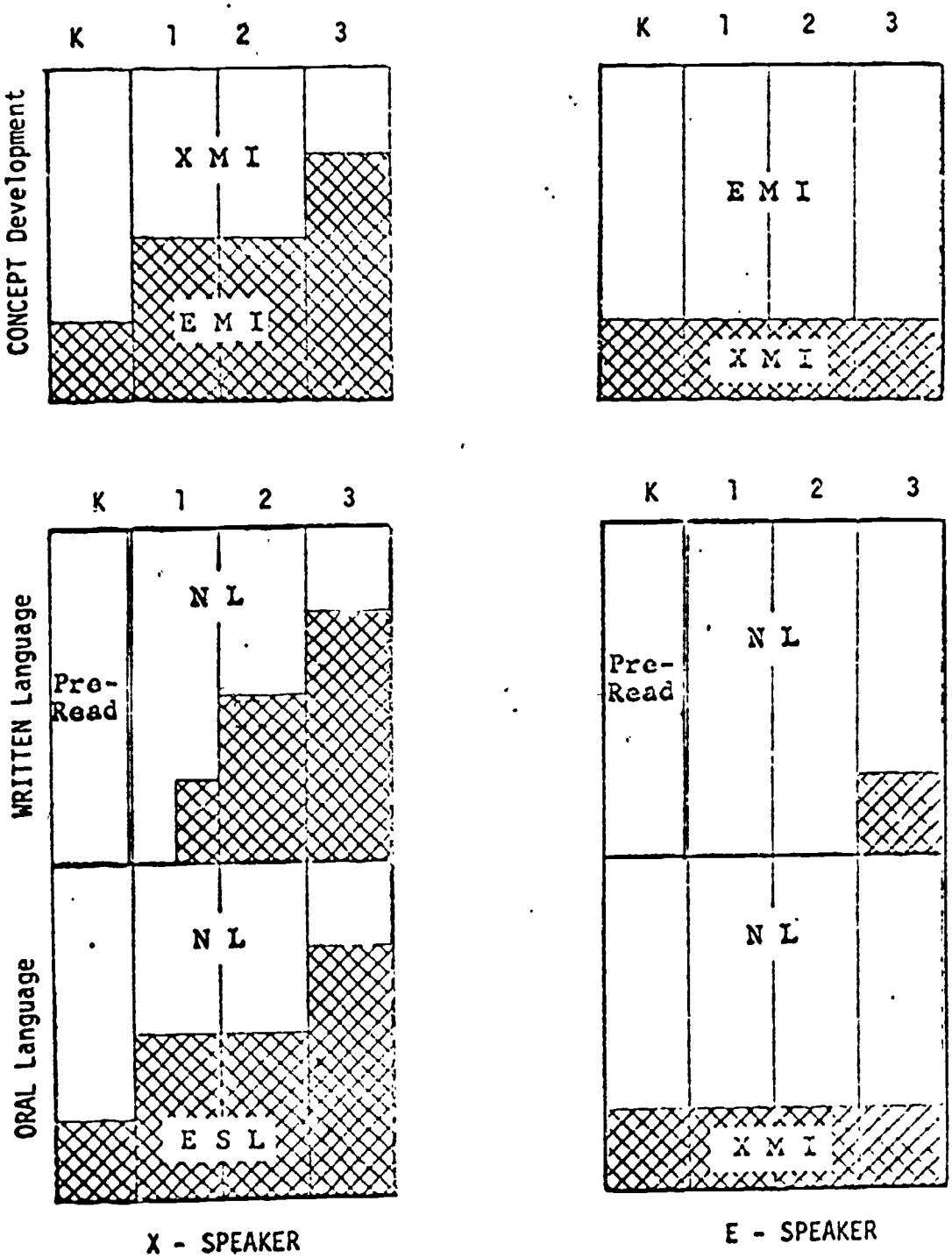
Second Language

Pre-R	Pre Reading Skills
ESL	English as a Second Language
XSL	X as a Second Language
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
XMI	Language X as a Medium of Instruction

DIAGRAM III

MAINTENANCE Program

TRANSFER Community



X - SPEAKER

E - SPEAKER

Native Language

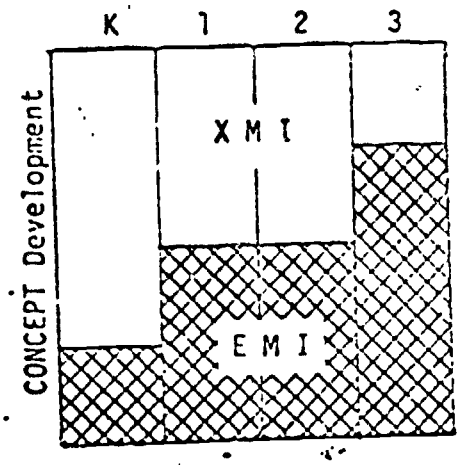
Second Language

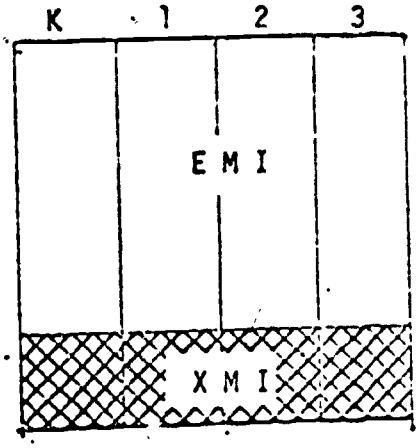
Pre-R	Pre Reading Skills
ESL	English as a Second Language
XSL	X as a Second Language
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
XMI	Language X as a Medium of Instruction

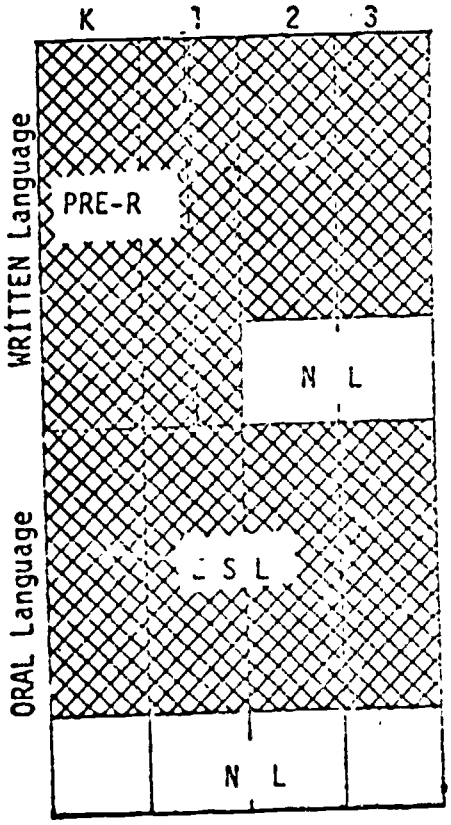
DIAGRAM IV

TRANSFER Program

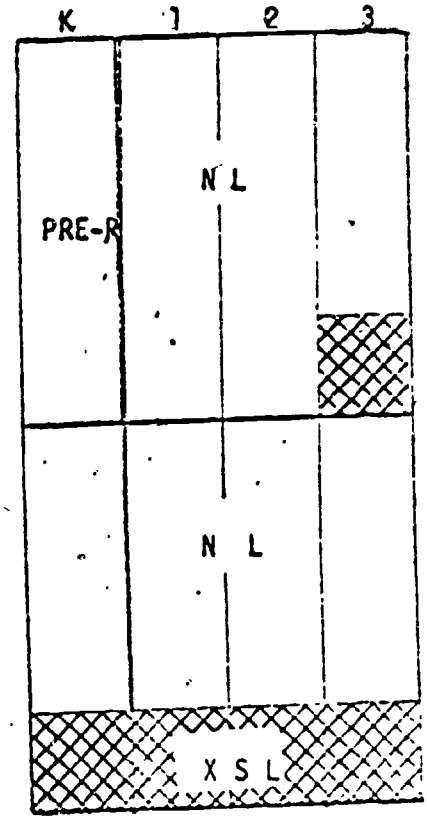
TRANSFER Community







X - SPEAKER
DELAYED READING



E - SPEAKER

Native Language

Second Language

Pre-R Pre Reading Skills
ESL English as a Second Language
XSL X as a Second Language
EMI English as a Medium of Instruction
XMI Language X as a Medium of Instruction

DIAGRAM V

In the models, attention is directed to the following premises:

1) A maintenance program results in equal time distribution; that is 50% of the school day will be spent in English and 50% in Language X or Dialect X.

2) A transfer program results in an increased emphasis in English; that is approximately 75% of the school day will be spent in English and the remainder in Language X or Dialect X.

3) None of the models presented here transfer totally to English; such programs are not being discredited by omission. By Title VII guidelines they are not fundable at the point where the transition to English is complete.

4) All models adhere to the principle that pre-reading skills must be developed in the same language or dialect selected for the introduction of reading.

5) Models show transition patterns over a four-year period.

6) A basic principle underlying the models is that in a transfer community, the non-English speaker cannot meet his needs. The pressure to learn English in such a community must be reflected in the emphasis given to ESL.

7) All models adhere to the principle that during the first year of school, concepts must be presented in the student's native language or dialect. At least 75% of the time allotted to concept development is shown to be in the native language. The instructional model (Preview-Review - Diagram IX) presented later clarifies the relationship between second language principles and concept development that must be considered in order to comply with USOE Title VII Guidelines which specify that at least one academic area must be presented in the second language.

8) All models in which reading is introduced in the second language or dialect are delayed reading models; this is indicated with an arrow drawn into the middle of first grade with a continuation of pre-reading skills supported by heavy emphasis of oral second language development.

9) None of the models for English speakers show reading introduced in the second language. This possibility for experimental study is not discredited by omission; the models for X-speakers may be applied to English speakers to validate or invalidate the following hypotheses:

a) If the phoneme/grapheme correspondence of language X is better than English, English speakers might have greater success in learning to decode by being introduced to reading in language X in a delayed reading program.

b) English speakers in the St. Lambert School near Montreal (d'Anglejan and Tucker, 1970) and Spanish speakers in the Hamilton School in Mexico City (Andersson and Boyer, 1969) learned to read in the second language successfully. English speakers in the United States having the "power" language and none of the identity problems of non-English speakers in this country may learn to read successfully in the second language if the motivation is based on solidarity rather than power.

10) Models presented for E and X speakers are based on the assumption that the languages spoken natively are not non-standard dialects (Diagrams II, III, IV, V).

11) Models for non-standard dialect speakers are presented for X-speakers only. However, the models should be applicable for bilingual programs where English as a Second Dialect is being taught (Diagrams VI, VII, VIII).

12) The alternatives presented in the dialect models are:

a) To introduce reading in dialect with a transition to reading the standard dialect before reading English. Decisions with respect to dialect reading materials must be made on the following possibilities:

1. Translations into dialect or existing materials representing dominant culture.

2. Materials written in dialect representing dominant culture, local culture or a combination, that is heterocultural materials.

3. Materials elicited from the learners in a language experience approach representing ethnocentric, bicentric, or polycentric views depending on the students and the topics.

b) Delayed reading until the middle of the first grade with the following alternatives:

1. Reading in the standard dialect with heavy emphasis on oral second dialect development.

2. Reading in the second language with heavy emphasis on ESL.

(3) Teaching non-standard dialects to standard speakers is not discredited by omission. Such a bidialectal or biloquial program is based on the belief that if a student lives in a bidialectal community the most efficient approach to changing negative attitudes about non-standard dialects is to teach non-standard dialects to standard speakers where the non-standard dialect is functional. Again the models presented provide enough examples for adaptations to non-standard E or X for standard speakers of E and X.

The preceding models graphically describe the alternative routes for articulating oral language development. pre-reading skills and introduction to print in bilingual programs. Briefly the alternatives are:

I. For speakers of Standard X:

   A. ESL; Pre-reading in E; Delayed introduction to print in E.

   B. Native language development; Pre-reading in X; Introduction to print at beginning of Grade I or earlier in X.

II. For speakers of Non-standard X:

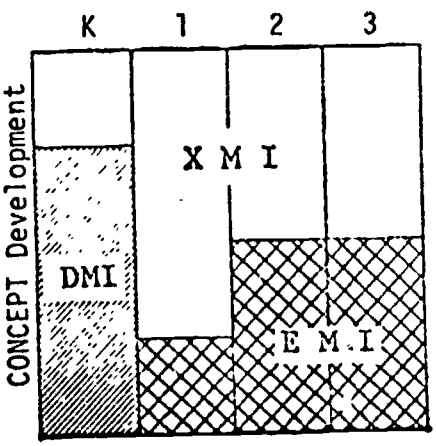
   A. ESL; Pre-reading in E; Delayed introduction to print in E.

   B. XSD; Pre-reading in X; Delayed introduction to print in X.

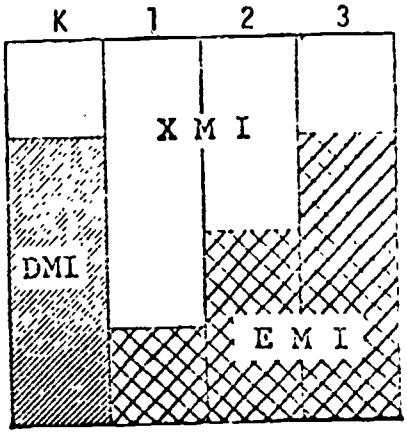
   C. Dialect development; Pre-reading in dialect; Introduction to print at beginning of Grade I or earlier in dialect.

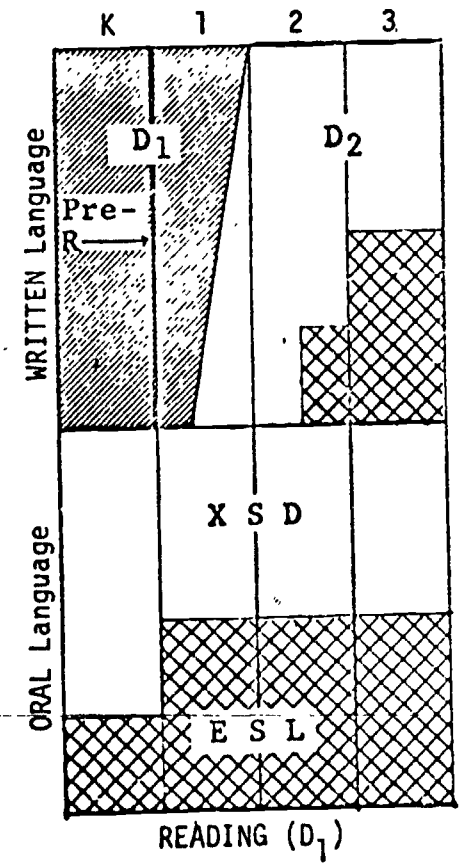
Pre-reading skills for speakers of English are designed to prepare a child to meet the language which he speaks in print. Many of the activities designed to prepare a speaker of English to read English have little if anything to do with preparing a Spanish speaker to read Spanish. The grapheme/phoneme fit in Spanish precludes the necessity of many pre-reading activities for English. It is critical that when the decision is made to introduce reading in standard or non-standard dialects of non-English tongues that teachers be given in-service training specifically designed for the language or dialect to be taught.

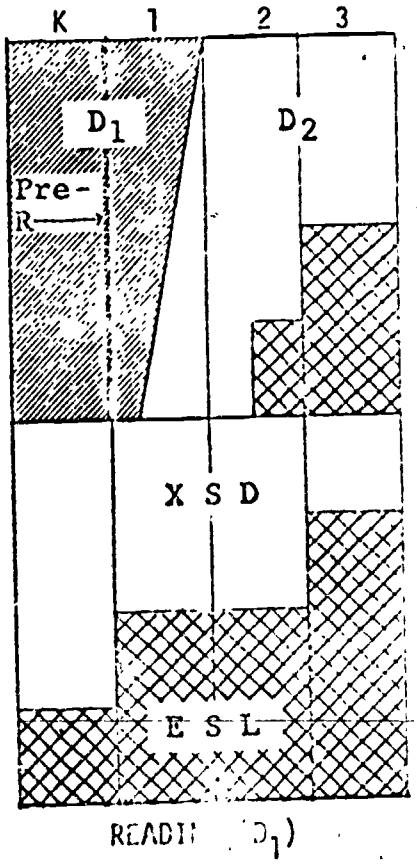
MAINTENANCE Program
MAINTENANCE Community



TRANSFER Program
MAINTENANCE Community







Non-Standard X (Dialect$_1$)

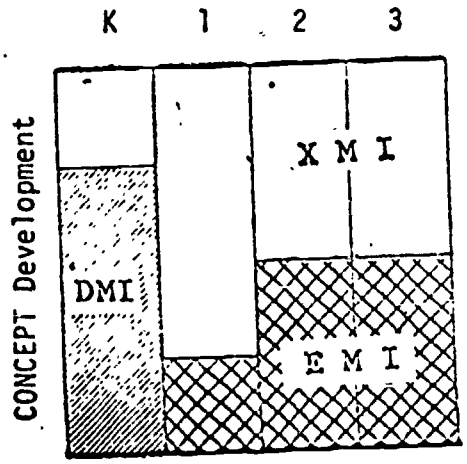
Standard X (Dialect$_2$)

Standard English

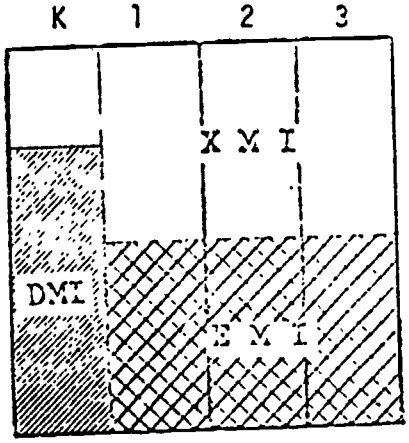
ESL English as a Second Language
XSD X as a Second Dialect
D_1MI Dialect as a Medium of Instruction
XMI X as a Medium of Instruction
EMI English as a Medium of Instruction

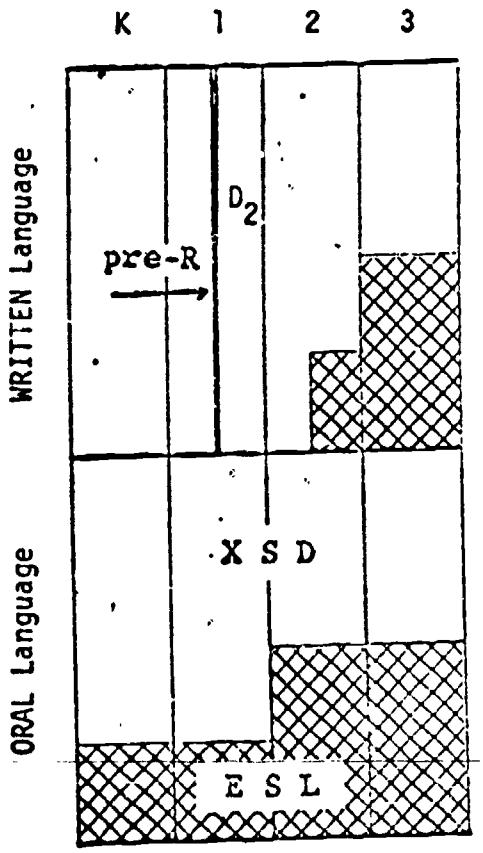
DIAGRAM VI

MAINTENANCE Program
MAINTENANCE Community

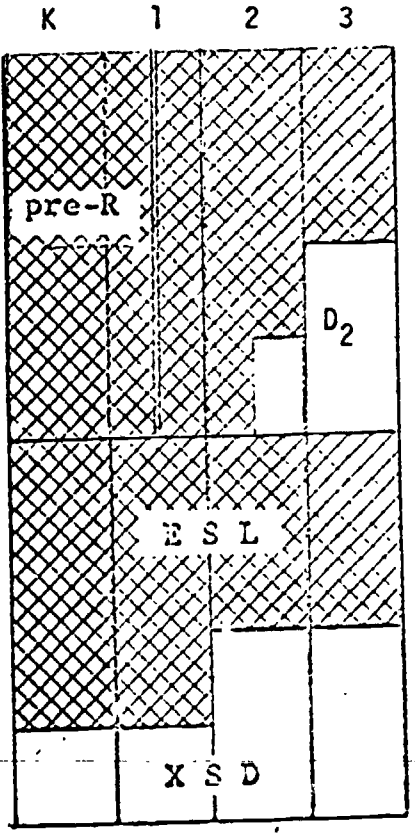


MAINTENANCE Program
TRANSFER Community





DELAYED READING (D_2)



DELAYED READING (E)

Non-Standard X (Dialect$_1$)

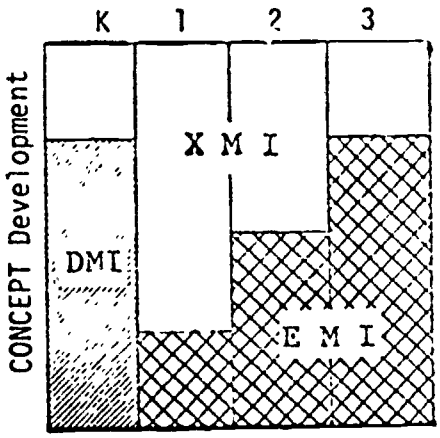
Standard X (Dialect$_2$)

Standard English

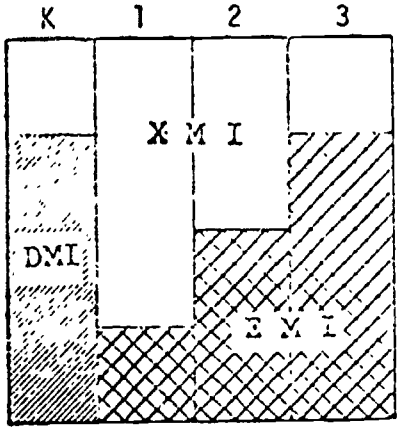
ESL English as a Second Language
XSD X as a Second Dialect
D_1MI Dialect as a Medium of Instruction
XMI X as a Medium of Instruction
EMI English as a Medium of Instruction

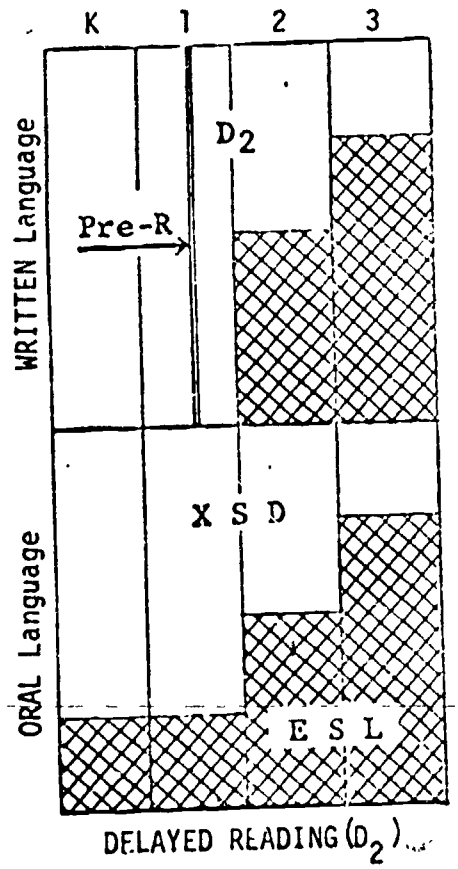
DIAGRAM VII

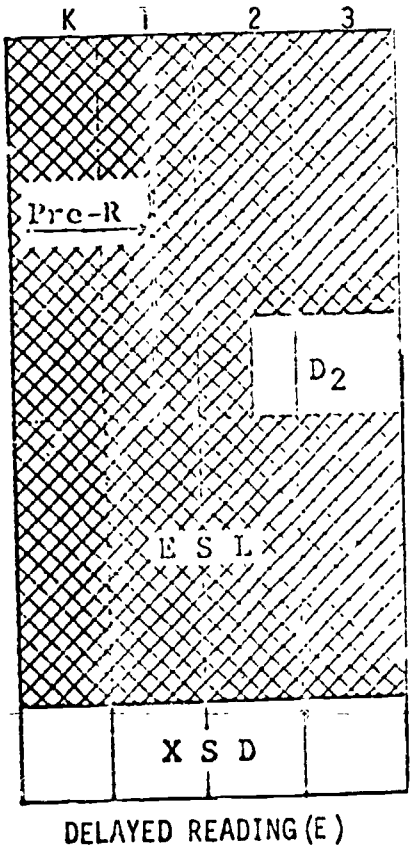
TRANSFER Program
MAINTENANCE Community



TRANSFER Program
TRANSFER Community







Non-Standard X (Dialect$_1$)

Standard X (Dialect$_2$)

Standard English

ESL English as a Second Language
XSD X as a Second Dialect
D_1MI Dialect as a Medium of Instruction
XMI X as a Medium of Instruction
EMI English as a Medium of Instruction

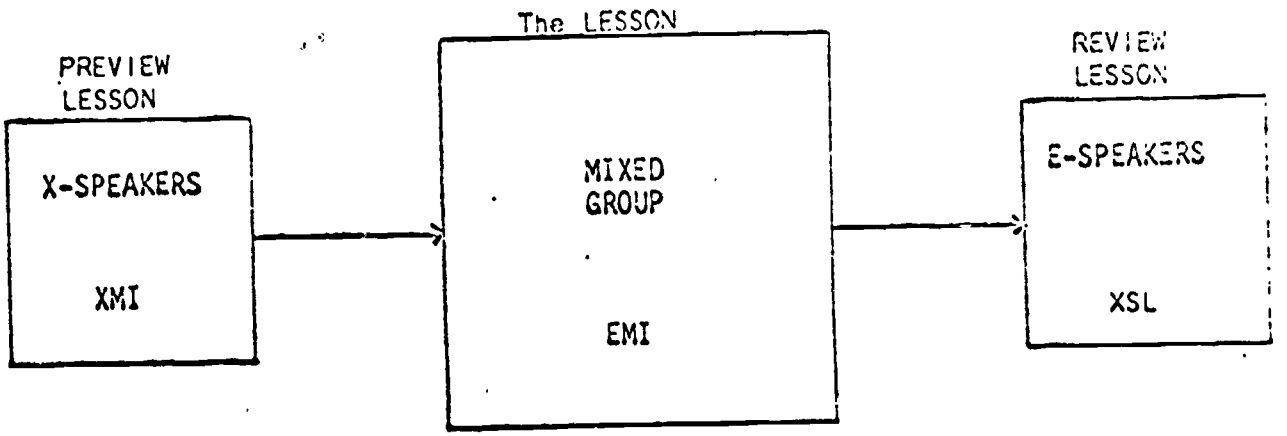
DIAGRAM VIII 22

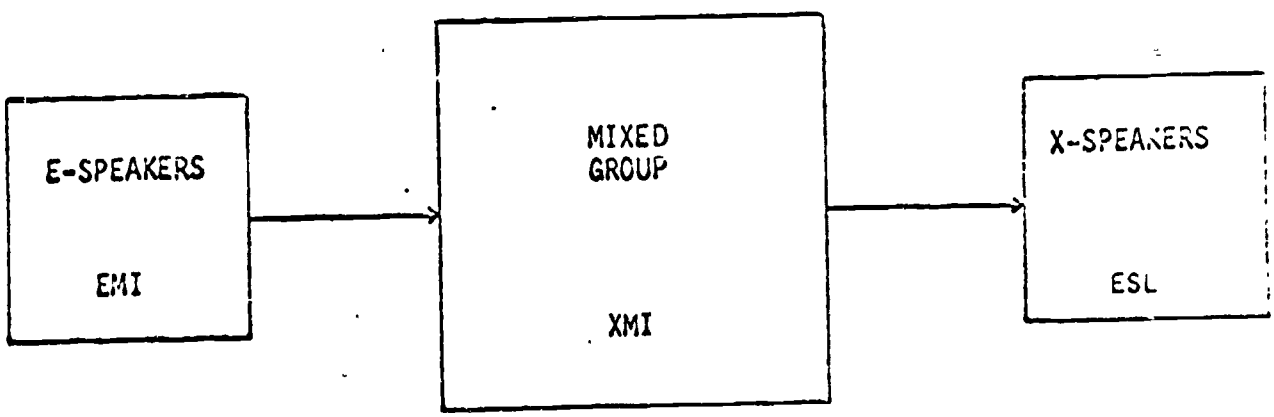
The preceding models show a relationship between the amount of time used for language development and the amount of time used for concept development. The model which follows clarifies the relationship between language and concept development. (Diagram IX)

The Preview-Review Model is presented in graphic form as a method of grouping for instruction; the basic principle is to develop concepts in an introductory, brief preview lesson. The main lesson is pictured as a larger box to indicate a fuller development of the concepts presented in the preview lesson; the main lesson is presented to a mixed language group. The review lesson is taught in the second language; this implies a measure of linguistic control in the earliest stages of language development. The model is based on the assumption that the student learns best in his native language; it allows for either the English speaker or the X-speaker to receive a preview lesson in his stronger language when the main lesson is in his weaker language. The model may be used for dialect speakers in bilingual programs.

PREVIEW-REVIEW

INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL FOR CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT





Preview: Concepts are introduced in student's mother tongue.

Review: At the earliest stage linguistic control is necessary when concepts are presented in the second language.

EMI: English as a Medium of Instruction.

XMI: Language X as a Medium of Instruction.

XSL: Language X as a Second Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

GLOSSARY

Bicentric. The term "bicentric" is used to mean not ethnocentric. Although the word was not coined for this study, its use in describing a cultural viewpoint is presented here as a new term.

*Bicognitive. The term "bicognitive" refers to a person capable of thinking in two languages or dialects and solving problems in either language or dialect independently.

Bicultural. The term "bicultural" refers to a person who values the heritage represented in two language groups without preference and behaves appropriately in either situation.

Bidialectal. The term "bidialectal" refers to a person who understands and speaks two dialects of the same language. Biloqual is an equivalent term found in the literature.

Bilingual. For the purposes of this study, the term "bilingual" is used to describe a person who understands and speaks two different languages.

Bilingual Education. The term "bilingual education" is used to denote any educational program which includes bilingualism as a performance objective of instruction.

Biliterate. The term "biliterate" refers to a person who has the ability to read and write two languages.

*Heterocultural. The term "heterocultural" refers to a person who values the heritage represented in two dialect groups without preference and behaves appropriately in either situation.

*Heteroliterate. The term "heteroliterate" refers to a person who reads and writes two dialects of the same language and uses each appropriately.

Maintenance pattern. In this analysis, the term "maintenance pattern" (Mackey, 1969, p. 8) will be used to describe the time distribution, whether different or equal, of a bilingual school having the maintenance of both languages as an objective.

*Multicognitive. The term "multicognitive" refers to a person capable of thinking in several languages and/or dialects and solving problems in each independently.

Multicultural. The term "multicultural" refers to a person who values the heritage represented in several language and/or dialect groups and behaves appropriately in each situation.

Multilingual. The term "multilingual" refers to a person who understands and speaks several languages and/or dialects. Polyglot is an equivalent term found in the literature.

*Multiliterate. The term "multiliterate" refers to a person who reads and writes several languages and/or dialects and uses each appropriately.

*Polycentric. The term "polycentric" is used to describe a non-ethnocentric viewpoint representative of several cultures.

Transfer pattern. In this analysis, in order to describe an abrupt or gradual shift from one medium of instruction to another, the term "transfer pattern" will be used. (Mackey 1969, p. 8)

*These terms were coined by the author for the purposes of this study.

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BILINGUAL READING FOR SPEAKERS OF SPANISH

By A. R. Ramirez

There is no longer a need to recite the statistics relating to the educational level of the Mexican-American population of the Southwest. No one, save a few die-hards, seriously contends that a curriculum designed for middle-class native speakers of English is also suited to the needs of disadvantaged pupils who speak only Spanish when they enter school.

Now, as a direct result of federal assistance, we are able to offer non-English speakers instructional programs that are adapted to their needs. We are free to speak to them in the only language they understand and to accept their speech, whatever the idiom or dialect. THAT is progress!

While we have barely begun to implement the new English as a Second Language curriculum we do have the materials, methods, and means by which to do so and we are prepared to take on the next challenge--"Yes, but what about reading?" So the Spanish-speaking are taught to speak English in a year or two, how will they ever catch up? The answer is clear--never, unless we teach reading in a different manner. Again, we cannot assume that a reading program planned for native speakers of English can be effective with other groups. The "Right to Read" campaign would not have been necessary if our reading classes for English speakers had been successful in the past.

Two factors enter the scene at this point. One is the addition of the Kindergarten to the Texas public schools. The other is the nature of the Spanish writing system. These two unrelated elements may be the key to the elimination of the traditional retardation of Mexican-American pupils.

The admission of five-year-olds to school gives non-English speakers one more year of ESL instruction before entering the textbook tussle. One year less that they fall behind. One more year in which to adapt to school without the pressures of the first grade.

Until very recently we have always thought of a Spanish-speaking child as a language-handicapped person. Now that we know that we can teach him to speak English early we can begin to think of his Spanish as an asset. He can, after all, communicate in the language of Cervantes, Cantinflas, and Chavez. He is also fortunate in having inherited a language with an orderly spelling system that uses the same alphabet as English.

Suppose that we could introduce reading, in Spanish, in kindergarten, at the same time that we are teaching oral English. And that the following year English reading could be introduced as a continuation of the Spanish reading course. Would we then be able to eliminate the traditional retardation? That's the question that this experiment proposes to answer.

The experiment began with Title VII-ESEA funding--approximately $150,000 the first year--and with a number of questions.

Question: Where can we find out if teaching reading at age 5 makes any sense?.

Answer: Call Professor Dolores Durkin at the University of Illinois. She has been doing it for several years.

Question: Professor Durkin, should we proceed? We want to begin with Spanish reading.

Answer: By all means do it. I know very little about Spanish reading but it should pose fewer problems than English reading.

Question: Professor Boyer, where should we go to find experienced teachers of Spanish reading at the kindergarten level?

Answer: Try the private kindergartens in Mexico City. Call Dr. Diaz-Guerrero.

Question: Dr. Diaz-Guerrero, we are looking for assistance in implementing a reading program in Spanish for five year old children. Where should we look?

Answer: Go to the Jardín de Niños Milleret and talk to Miss Ahumada and Miss Montenegro.

We went to Mexico City, explained our proposal, and begged for help.

They came to Edinburg to look at our center and to discuss the possibilities of releasing Miss Montenegro for three months to help us get started.

The final agreement was that the Milleret school would send two teachers for the ten months and that we would produce their instructional materials in quantities sufficient for both Region One and Milleret needs for one year.

Miss Montenegro, co-author of the materials, was to teach in the same manner she taught the Mexico City children. We agreed to test the maturity factor by having her teach three classes at one school--five, six, and seven year olds. We also agreed to limit the instruction to thirty minutes per class.

After Miss Montenegro had taught for five or six weeks, the other teacher, Miss Navarro, was to begin the program at another school. She was to serve as demonstration teacher, with the regular teachers taking over the instruction as soon as possible.

A third school was to begin instruction under the supervision of one of our own staff members after the second school had been in the reading program for a few weeks.

If all of these details are not too confusing you can see that we wanted to answer at least three questions.

1. How do the five-year-old children of seasonal farm workers in South Texas differ in their ability to learn to read in Spanish from the children of upper middle class parents in Mexico City?

2. How do children five, six, and seven years of age differ in their learning rate of identical content with identical instruction?

3. What loss in effectiveness of materials ~~can be~~ can be anticipated when used by untrained teachers supervised by an experienced teacher and by untrained teachers supervised by an inexperienced supervisor?

After that year's experience we were able to reach tentative conclusions concerning Spanish reading in kindergarten. None are supported by statistical data, but there was general agreement among the staff members who worked on the project that the South Texas children can learn by the same methods although at a slower rate of perhaps 75% that of the Mexico City group. We found that the older children did not function so much better as to indicate that maturity was an important factor. And we learned that untrained teachers may take twice as long to teach the same content in the beginning.

It wasn't as "clean" an experiment as we had anticipated. There were a number of variables that came as surprises. For example, the five-year-old children in Mexico City normally received instruction in reading at age four. This meant that they were familiar with the tasks and the procedures by the time they were five. We also learned that in the Mexico City Kindergarten there were opportunities throughout the day for the teachers to give individual attention to the needs of the pupils whereas in our experiment the teacher was with the pupils for only thirty minutes. These revelations, plus the other factors we already knew about--the difference in the total environment, the educational and economic level of the parents, etc.--helped convince us that success in teaching reading at age five was possible.

But we knew we would have to make changes. The Milleret reading program relied heavily on writing to reinforce reading. It assumed a larger vocabulary than our children have. And it did not provide for enough practice in whole word recognition early in the course.

As a result we spent the second year, after the Milleret teachers had left, in revising the materials to our needs. We de-emphasized the role of writing, replacing it with loose letters that the pupils can manipulate. This one change paid dividends we had not anticipated. One major one is that the children learned alphabetical order by spatial reckoning rather than by rote memorization. After using these trays for several months some pupils can find letters even though blindfolded.

Another major advantage of the loose letters over writing is that errors are easily corrected. We found that the children were more venturesome in their approach to spelling because they knew that if one of the letters was not correct it could easily be replaced. And we think that the manipulation of the individual letters, which represent individual sounds added another sensory dimension to reading that helps many learners.

Most of the new workbooks were written during the second year and revised this, the third year, after all of the teachers were consulted. Although further revisions are likely, the reports from the field indicate that they are serving the purpose for which they were written.

Spanish reading can be taught by the whole word method but its spelling system lends itself admirably to analysis from the very beginning. The first eleven letters that we teach have 100% correspondence with the sounds they represent. It is possible, therefore, to begin building syllables and words almost from the very beginning. The Milleret method introduced the five vowels first, before any consonants were taught. Since this takes from five to eight weeks to teach it meant that two months could pass before the children could join letters to form syllables and syllables to form words. In the revision the sequence of the first five letters taught was changed from a, i, e, o, u to a, i, m, s, e. An entire sentence, such as "Mi mamá me ama" can be composed with just those five letters. This has accelerated the acquisition of these advanced skills.

We have added another activity to Spanish reading that was not part of the Milleret Method--the experience chart, or to use our term, "Sharing time." Our previous success with this activity in English reading prompted us to introduce it at the kindergarten level for Spanish reading. We are finding that the children look forward to the dictation session and that they are beginning to recognize the names of their classmates in such sentences as, "Rolando dijo--Me compraron unos zapatos el sãbado." By the end of the year we anticipate that most of the children will be able to read sentences like this one.

In first grade the emphasis changes to English reading, though the Spanish reading skills are maintained through recreational reading and the written materials provided in the Social Education course.

English reading is taught differently because spelling patterns and stress determine the sound that a vowel represents. In Spanish the sound of each vowel remains constant regardless of its environment. In English the sound of "a" varies considerably--"ate, care, cane, can, tar, many, altar, senate, hall, wad, canal"--and some sensible sequence has to be planned for children who know only one sound for each vowel.

At this stage we are dealing with children who no longer find writing mystifying. They have learned a number of correspondences that transfer directly to English. Such Spanish letters as m, s, l, n, t, p, c, d, b, f, y, g, ch, x, and w have sounds that are close enough to English to be useful. By using them in spelling patterns that normally control the sound of the vowel we are able to introduce the English various vowel sounds gradually.

The short vowels are taught first because they are found in the simpler and shorter spelling patterns--pat, pet, pit, pot, nut. Luckily, the seven consonants that can occur singly in both initial and final position (b, d, g, m, n, p, t) are all very close in sound to Spanish.

When the blends are introduced they are the same ones that occur in Spanish and they are similar in sound. Even the consonant digraphs are an expansion of what was learned in Spanish reading.

Eventually the pupils learn that just as the consonants in "se", "ce", and "ze" sound the same in Spanish, "bay", "bait", and "bale" have the same vowel sound in English. And just as "x" has three sounds in Spanish, each vowel in English has several sounds.

The same alphabet tray and letters from kindergarten are used in the English reading course. By this time the pupils know where all the letters are located and can manipulate them quickly. More use is made of the letters in the English workbooks because the approach is actually one of learning to read by learning to spell. The idiosnycracies of English spelling can be mastered only through practice. Children who can read Spanish know the sound of "c" and "p". If taught the sound of the short vowel in the word "cap" they will expect that "pac" is the correct spelling for the "pack". Only by completing many examples of the doubling final consonant will they become good spellers and readers of English. Similar exercises are provided to help the pupils recognize the signaling provided by the doubled consonant, the vowel digraphs, the unstressed syllable, and other clues to pronunciation.

The English reading program has two components in addition to the phonic analysis exercises. One is the development of creative writing skills and the other is the use of a developmental reading series.

Creative writing begins with the experience chart on which the teacher takes dictation from the entire class on some topic--weekend activities, a cooking experience, a film, a field trip, or any other interesting happening.

The next step is the transcription by the teacher or the aide of individual dictation by a pupil relating to a picture painted or drawn by that pupil. The art work is generally a representation of an experience shared by the class, but the pupil's own response in artistic and oral expression is what is sought.

The last stage occurs when the children write their stories in their own handwriting with less and less assistance from the teacher. Word lists and dictionaries help the pupils achieve complete independence in creative writing.

So much for the beautiful blueprints--what really matters is, "Will it fly?" We are conditioned to measure reading achievement through test results and expect to see grade equivalent scores as proof of gains claimed. The nature of most standardized reading tests precludes their use as measures of creative written expression.

We can offer as proof only the children's own work. Some, fiercely independent, refuse any assistance. Others want to correct every mistake. What matters is that they write what they want to say and not one has difficulty reading what he has written.

Two years ago, the children whose work is reproduced here spoke no English. They were taught Spanish reading by Miss Montenegro at age 5, English reading by Mrs. Corona at age 6, and are now expanding their reading experiences with Mrs. Garcia at age 7. This is what they write.

Jacinto Lopez

We went to the stor. The stor was big. When we were coming to the house we saw a polic dog. We saw a policeman runing with the car becawe ther was a fire. We went after the policman and the policman got vary fare and we downt got to see the fire. We took the gese outsite the house and the gese ran away frome the house and we cach her and she waned to fly. And she wend thre tims and my father cach her. We went to the parke. Jaime went to my house to saw my gese. My dog waned to eate the gese. The father gese die and we have the Mother. Wen Javier Jaime's pichens have some eggs his gowing a give me a egg and Im gowin to give the egg to the gese so he culd have a babi pichen. My gese is not to litte his like Jaimes gese. My gese bites

The T V Stashen by Belia Salas

In the T V Stashen there were a lot of lights. We took the rabbit to the T V Stashen with us. Three groups went with us. In the bus we wanet to open the wendos. The first graters were dansen and thay fell down. We poot the coat on the rabbit. Me and Dalia were siging in the bus. Manuel was hitting us. Me and Dalia were jumpping in the bus. We were glad when we went It was fun in the bus

The doctor by Natalia

I went to the doctor. They put me a chot becose I whas sick. The dootor gave me a merecin to me. I did not cry. instede I laft. My mother said, "To not cry. We went trowe the town. If my sister was ther she will cry. They were calling to all of the people. We were the last of the people. I saw Dora in the doctor becose thier big sister she was sick. My mother told me to don't put on chorsts becose I had poisen. I hate the meresen. The meresen is yelow. I was not afrad.

The Carnival and the Parade by Eddie Gil

I went to the carnival Sunday night. There was a lots of people at the carnival We went to the carnival. I saw the feresweel. I saw the hmmer. I saw lettle cars at the carnival. I saw a tost of people at the parade. I saw a tost of toys at the carnival and at the parade. There was losts of at the parade. I saw Oscar at the carnival I saw Riky at the carnival and at the parade. We went to the parade and we gots some candys.