DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 135 557 32 RC 009 722

AUTHOR Carline, Donald A.; Hoffman, John R.
TITLE Comparison of Language Experience Approach to Reading with a Conventional Reading Approach in Eight Summer Migrant Schools. Educational Reports: Migrant Education Research Report.
INSTITUTION Colorado Univ., Boulder. Bureau of Educational Field Services.
SPONS AGENCY Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. Div. of Compensatory Education.; Colorado State Dept. of Education, Denver. Compensatory Education Services Unit.
PUB DATE 76
NOTE 82p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$4.67 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Age; Attendance; Bilingual Teachers; *Comparative Analysis; Elementary Education; English; *Language Experience Approach; Mexican Americans; *Migrant Child Education; Minority Group Teachers; Questionnaires; Raw Scores; *Reading Achievement; *Reading Instruction; Reading Tests; Spanish; Standardized Tests; Student Attitudes; Summer Schools; *Teacher Attitudes
IDENTIFIERS Chicanos; *Colorado

ABSTRACT

Conducted in schools, separated into control and experimental groups by geography, size, and number of bilingual teachers, the study examined whether the: (1) language experience approach yielded higher scores on a reading attitude test, a standardized reading test in English and one translated into Spanish; (2) reading gains and school attendance were related to the teacher or aide's race and language ability; (3) child's age and school attendance were related to his reading scores; and (4) teacher's attitude toward the approach she used or her confidence in teaching reading, as measured by an attitude questionnaire prior to the program's beginning, was related to her post-attitude scores or to the child's gains. The relationship between the English reading ability of the children with their Spanish reading ability was also examined. Complete data were obtained from 111 children and 25 teachers. Half of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills' reading sections, a 16-item reading attitude test, and a 5-item teacher questionnaire were used. Some of the findings indicated that: attendance was greater when Chicano teachers and aides were in the classrooms; students whose teachers used the language experience approach more often showed an increase of 2.9 raw score points more on English reading standardized test scores; and younger children gained more than 2.77 raw score points in reading Spanish than did older children (teachers of younger children used the language experience approach "quite often"). (NQ)

MIGRANT EDUCATION RESEARCH REPORT
Completed through the
Diagnostic and Instructional Mobile Unit Project
for Migrant Children at the
University of Colorado

Sponsored by
The Colorado Department of Education
Title I ESEA Migrant Education Division

COMPARISON OF LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH TO READING WITH A CONVENTIONAL READING APPROACH IN EIGHT SUMMER MIGRANT SCHOOLS

Donald A. Carline
John R. Hoffman

Donald E. Carline
Director, Research Project
Professor of Reading Education
Director, Reading Services Center
and Graduate Programs in Reading
School of Education
University of Colorado 80309

John R. Hoffman
Instructor, Migrant Mobile Unit
School of Education
University of Colorado
Boulder, Colorado 80309

1976

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Dr. Kenneth D. Hopkins, the research advisor, was instrumental in planning the design, helping to select the standardized test, determining statistical procedures to be employed, and editing the final draft.

Gregory Camilli, research assistant, in the Laboratory of Education Research, directed the computer programming and statistical analysis of the test results.

Carlos Cuaron translated the attitude and standardized tests into Spanish.

Rudy Melgoza and Flor Fontes helped in collecting tests, correcting them, and offering suggestions in the translation.

Patricia Joba helped in coordinating the testing program, in typing the tests, and in overseeing innumerable other jobs that a secretary handles.

Ann Underwood typed the final copy.

CTB/McGraw-Hill granted permission to use the reading sections of their Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, Level B and C.

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INTRODUCTION

The language experience approach to reading has seemed to many to be a practical approach to developing oral language and reading skills in classrooms where children speak different languages. In using the language experience approach, the teacher uses an experience of some kind: a field trip, a classroom pet, a beautiful picture, a science experiment, etc., to get an oral discussion going with the children. The children's own language in phrase, sentence, or story form becomes the reading lesson material whether it be written down from dictation by the teacher or written by the child himself. The flexibility of the approach and the use of the child's own dominant language make it possible for a bilingual teacher or aide to help a class of children speaking two different languages, each in their own language. Hall (1972) states that the "work of sociologists and psychologists lends support to approaches for reading which build upon the existing language performance of the learner and which relate the teaching of reading to the reader's oral language." Indeed, Ricardo Garcia of Oklahoma University writing in the Reading Teacher (December, 1974), has encouraged using the language experience approach with Chicano students.

Surprisingly little research has been done using this approach with Spanish-speaking children. Three studies, McCanne (1966), Horn (1966) and Keith (1970), were all done with first grade children. Horn's

study involved oral language development and the other two studies showed the basal reading approach superior in more reading areas tested than the language experience approach.

Unfortunately no study could be found which tested the use of this approach with migrant children.

Migrant children in Colorado comprise a distinct group of children who migrate primarily from south Texas with their parents who work in agriculturally-related jobs in Colorado during the growing season. Local school districts provide summer school programs for these children for an average of six weeks. There is much fluctuation in the summer school enrollment as parents move out to look for additional work--in many cases to other states.

This research study was sponsored by the Migrant Office of the Colorado Department of Education in its continuing effort to improve the level of instruction in the more than twenty-four summer migrant programs it sponsors and monitors.

This study was conducted in eight of those migrant summer schools located in the central and eastern areas of the state as serviced by the University of Colorado Migrant Mobile Unit, a supplementally funded program by the state to help local school districts in improving migrant education services.

To preserve the confidentiality of schools and teachers involved in the study, they will not be named but numbered in the various tables and graphs used. Their numbers will remain the same in all tables and figures.

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

Purpose of Study

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

(1) Does the language experience approach to reading yield higher scores on a reading attitude test, a standardized reading test in English, and a standardized reading test translated into Spanish than does a conventional reading program as used in summer migrant schools?

(2) Are gains in the above-mentioned reading areas, in addition to attendance at school, related instead to such traits as the teacher's race and language ability (bilingual or not) or that of her aide?

(3) Is the age of the child related to gains made in the reading areas?

(4) Is the teacher's attitude toward the approach she uses or her confidence in teaching reading, as measured by an attitude questionnaire prior to the beginning of the program, related to teachers' post-attitude scores or to gains the children make?

(5) Is the child's attendance related to his reading scores?

(6) What is the relationship between the reading ability of the children in English with their reading ability in Spanish?

Design

Various designs for the study were considered. A 2(group) x 3(age) x 4(teacher) design was first considered with equal numbers of bilingual teachers in each group. An analysis of covariance would be run on the four dependent variables: attendance, posttest attitude scores, posttest English reading scores, and posttest Spanish reading scores, with each dependent variable covaried with age, total possible attendance, and the corresponding pretest score. The purpose of covarying is to equate groups to the same starting point--to reduce any unfair advantages in age, pretest level, or length of program involvement. Program length is very important when consideration is made that some programs were in session only four weeks while others ran for eight weeks. Analysis of covariance eliminates or greatly reduces this unfair advantage.

The study was quasi-experimental in that schools and pupils could not be randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. It was necessary to maintain relatively equal numbers of bilingual teachers in each group. Urban and rural schools had to be mixed in the groupings as did consideration of student population. Selections were made by an independent researcher with those categories in mind. Student population size was judged on attendance in years past because actual size of enrollment in migrant schools can never be predicted.

Table 1 depicts these characteristics for each school.

The design had to be reconsidered after the testing was completed because the 500 children pretested, only 258 completed posttesting in one of three areas: attitude, English, and Spanish. Actually

Table 1

		Urban (U) Rural (R)	Large (L) Small (S)	Bilingual teachers (B) Non-bilingual teachers (E)	
Experimental Schools	#1	U	S	3B	
	#2	R	L		3E
	#3	R	L	3B,	1E
	#4	U	L	2B,	1E
				8B,	5E
Control Schools	#5	R	S		2E
	#6	U	L	6B	
	#7	R	S		1E
	#8	R	L	2B,	1E
				8B,	4E

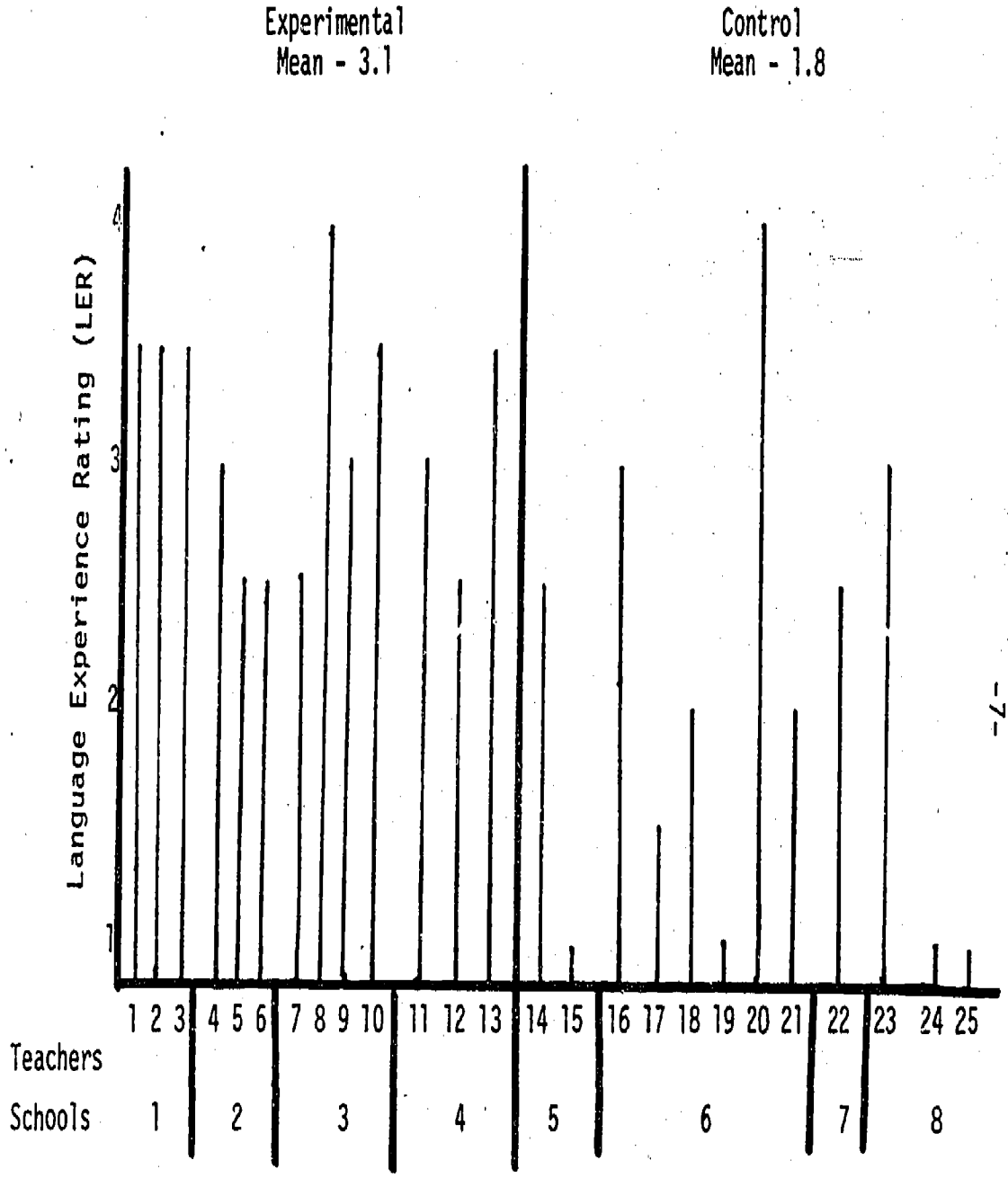
analysis was done on attitude for 210 children, English for 172, and Spanish for 144. Complete data existed on only 111 children for all three areas. The reasons for the drop in populations are numerous:

1. Many children left during the summer program with their parents in search of work.
2. Many children were absent on either the days of pretesting or posttesting. Many children arrive in the district a week or two after the programs begin.
3. Some children got perfect scores on the reading tests which went no higher than beginning fifth grade level. Hence they had to be removed from the sample because there would be no chance to show gain from summer instruction-

4. Some teachers gave only sections of the reading tests instead of the complete test.
5. Some teachers chose not to give the posttest in Spanish because they said it was too frustrating for the children.

To have continued with the original design would have left several empty cells and unequal numbers of students in the different analysis tests. Instead a one-way analysis of covariance was used with the twenty-five teachers' classrooms as the independent variable. The dependent variables and covariates remained the same. Six different planned contrasts were made on characteristics of the independent variable in attempts to explain the gains in scores the children made. These six characteristics were group (experimental, control), teacher language, teacher race, aide language, aide race, and LER (language experience rating). This LER was a mutually agreed upon rating by the teachers and the researcher based on the amount of language experience that was used in the classroom. Figure 1 indicates what this score was for each teacher. Figure 2 gives the frequency of teachers for each LER major division.

Table 2 gives a breakdown by group and school of the language ability and race of the teachers and aides which comprised the other four contrasts of the independent variable.



Legend: (LER)

1 - Little (5 teachers)
2 - Supplemental (8 teachers)
3 - Quite often (10 teachers)
4 - Always (2 teachers)

Figure 1. Teacher language experience rating (LER) - degree of language experience used in the classroom.

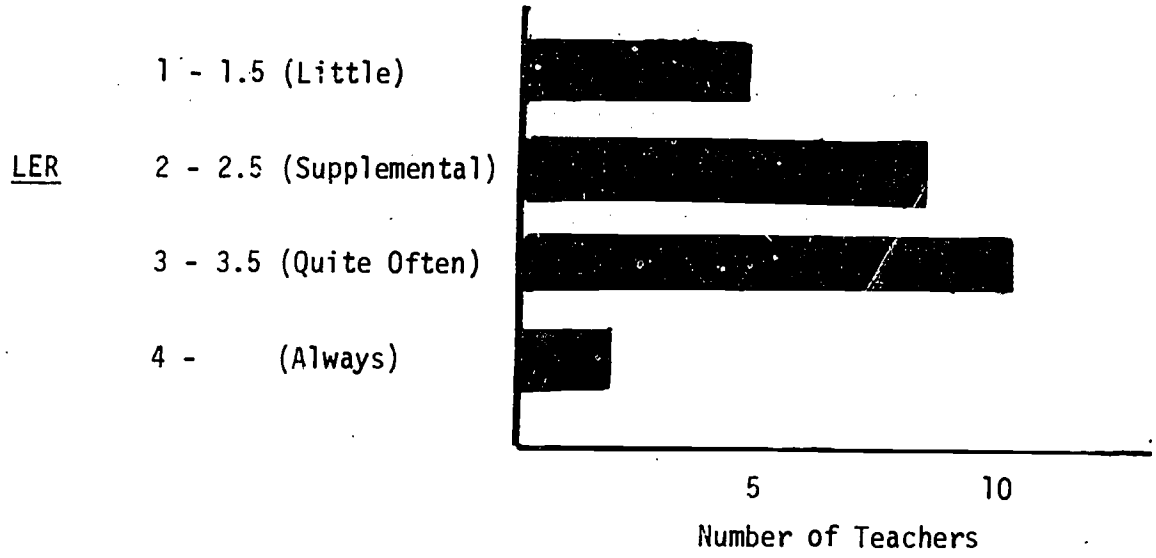
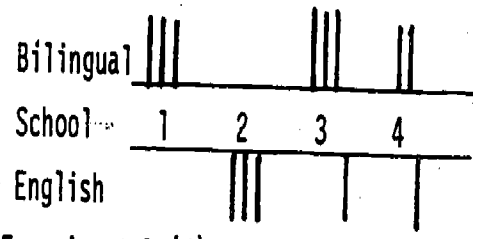


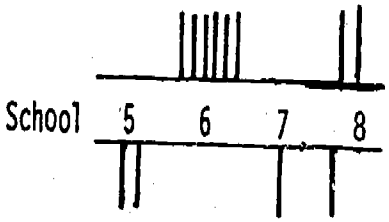
Figure 2. Language experience rating (LER) frequencies - degree of language experience used in classroom.

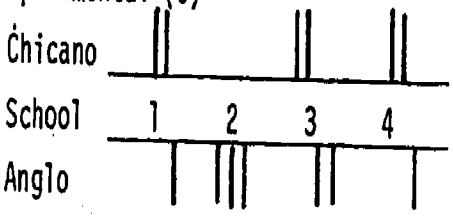
Table 2

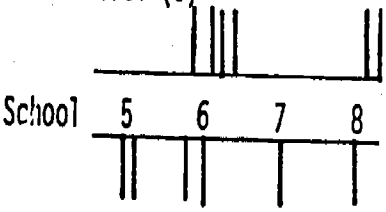
Teacher and Aide Race and Language Broken Down by Group and School

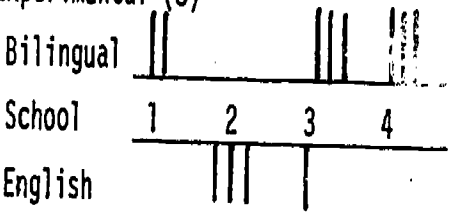
Teacher Language	Bilingual (16)	Experimental (8)	Control (8)
	English only (9)	Experimental (5)	Control (4)
Teacher Race	Chicano (12)	Experimental (6)	Control (6)
	Anglo (13)	Experimental (7)	Control (6)
Aide Language	Bilingual (16)	Experimental (8)	Control (8)
	Anglo (8)	Experimental (4)	Control (4)
Aide Race	Chicano (17)	Experimental (8)	Control (9)
	Anglo (7)	Experimental (4)	Control (3)

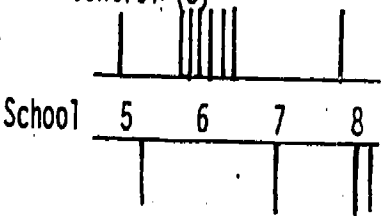


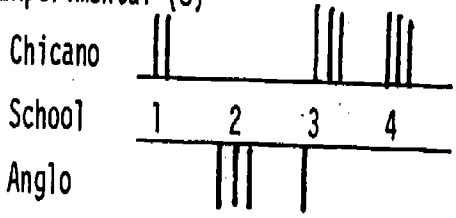


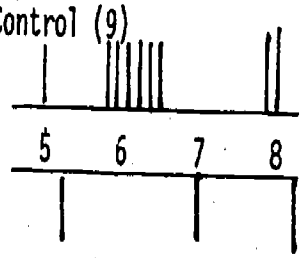












Subjects

The migrant students in the eight schools tested ranged in age from 5 to 17. Most first grade students, however, were excluded from the study because they could not take group-administered reading tests very easily. The teachers orally administered all of the attitude test, and parts of the reading achievement test in Spanish and English. It was unrealistic to expect beginning first grade students to be able to read in any case. Students who received a perfect score in English or Spanish on either level B of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills or Level C were excluded from the sample because no gain in score could be measured with the same instrument in a posttest situation. Level B tested up to end of second grade level; Level C up to end of fourth grade level. Students, in addition, had to be present for pretest and posttest both to be included in the sample. The number and percentage of students in the sample at each age level is given in Figure 3. The number and percentage of students from each school in the study is depicted in Figure 4. Other descriptive frequencies that might be mentioned are the number of students in the sample broken down by teacher race and language and aide race and language. That information is as follows:

Teacher race	Mexican American	(106 students)	Aide race	Mexican American	(149)
	Anglo	(152 students)		Anglo	(101)
Teacher Language	Bilingual	(133 students)	Aide Language	Bilingual	(134)
	English only	(125 students)		English only	(116)

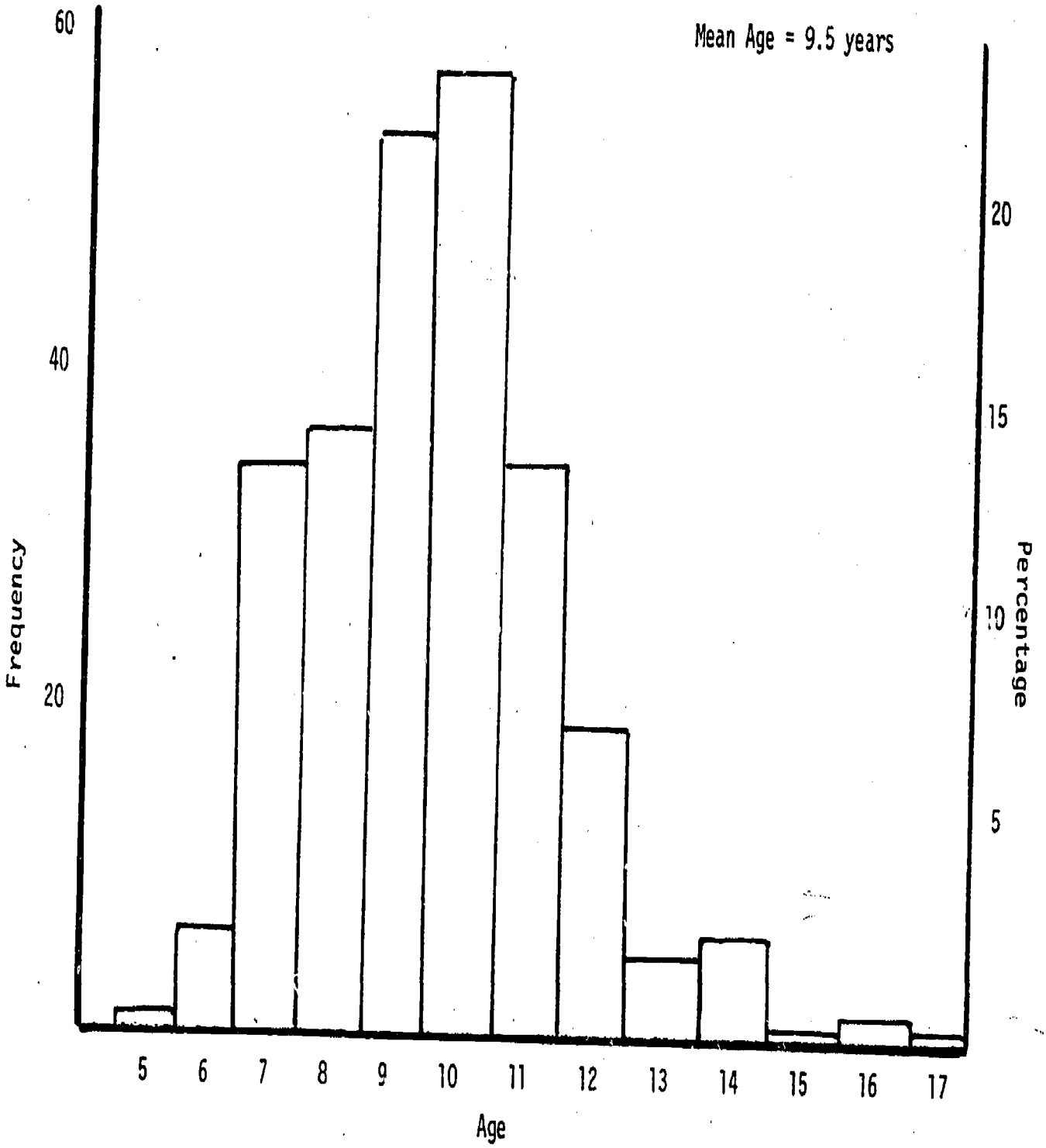


Figure 3. Age of migrant children in sample.

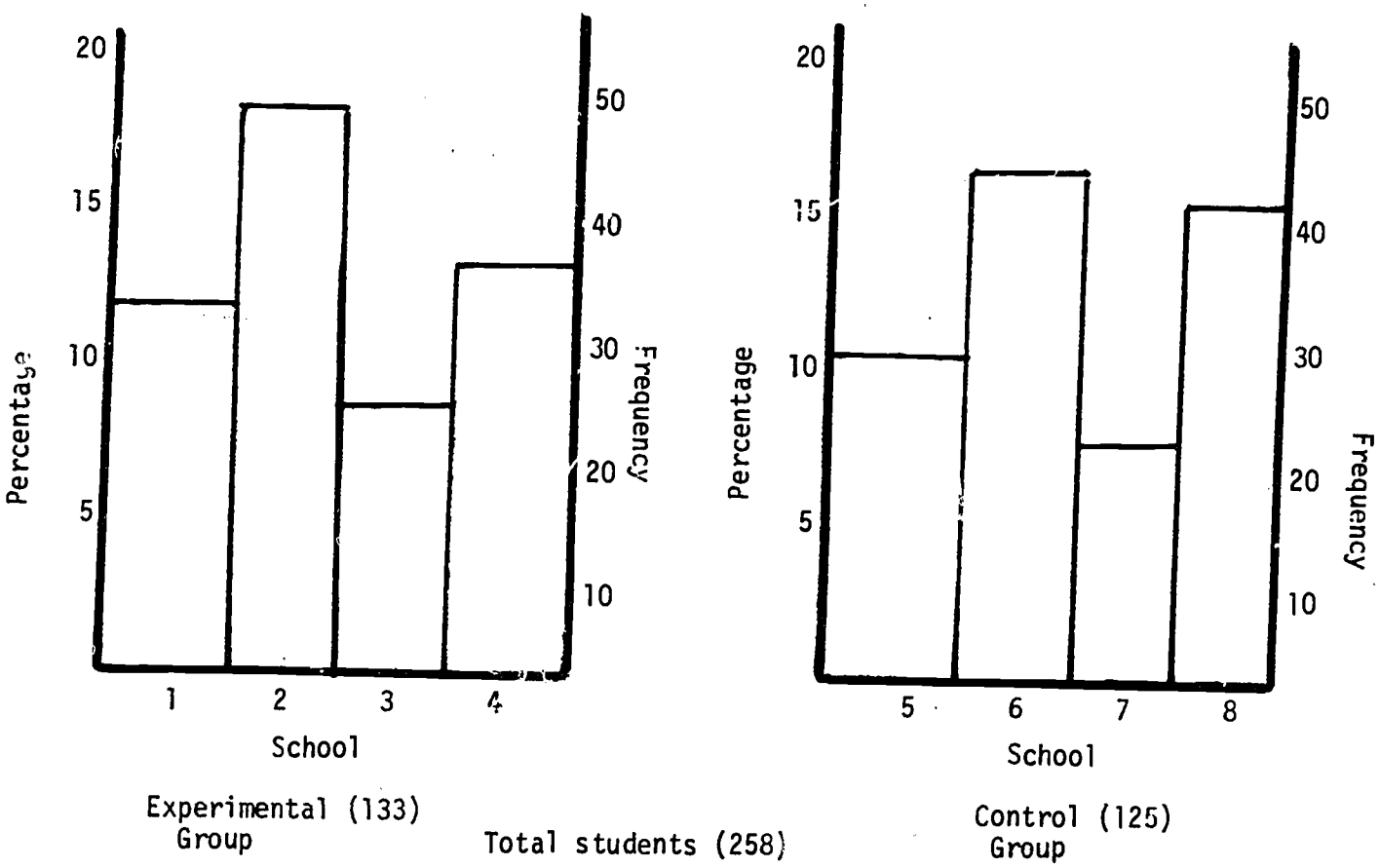


Figure 4. Percentage and frequency of students in each school in the sample by groups.

Procedure

Several standardized tests were examined before the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills by CTB McGraw-Hill was selected as the achievement test to be used. Factors in its favor were its elimination of questions biased toward minority groups including Chicanos subsequent to an item analysis while the test was being developed. Secondly, the test was a recent 1973 edition. In its reading section there were orally and silently administered sections. The four reading sections in Level B covered letter sounds, word recognition I and II, and a comprehension section. Pictures were available in three of the four sections. Level C provided a scoring range from kindergarten to end of 4th grade and contained vocabulary, sentence and passage comprehension sections. Tests with a lower level range were purposely selected so as not to be too frustrating for migrant children. Previous research by Crager and Carline (1974, 1975) determined that the average migrant child in second grade and above read two to three years below grade level.

It was determined that adequate reliability for group comparison could be obtained by using only half the items in the reading test. The remaining half were translated into Spanish by a native of El Paso, Texas, who is a graduate student in the Denver area. He was encouraged to use his native dialect which would be familiar to the children coming from south Texas. He also tested several migrant students in Denver with his translation to see if the terminology would be understood. Copies of the translated tests are available in the appendix.

The reading attitude test of 16 questions was one provided by Dr. Donald Carline of the University of Colorado Reading Center. It was one that had been used in several attitudinal studies including one in Gallup, New Mexico. A copy of the test is given in the appendix.

The final instrument used was a teacher questionnaire comprised of five questions using a Likert scale of five responses to choose from. The questions dealt with the teacher's feeling toward the reading method to be used, the training received prior to teaching it, the enjoyment in teaching reading as well as the specific method to be used, and finally the teacher's confidence in using that method. This would be administered after the training had been given and prior to the beginning of the program. A similar questionnaire would also be administered after the program was over. Both questionnaires can be found in the appendix.

Teachers in the schools selected to teach language experience were given preservice training of from one to two days. Their consent in teaching a certain method was obtained in advance by their program director. No penalty was attached to those who preferred not teaching with either method selected for their school. They were encouraged to relate to the researcher how much language experience they did use. This comprised the LER (language experience rating) mentioned earlier. It was also based on three or more observations of the classroom during the summer by the researcher.

The language experience preservice was provided by local district consultants in addition to Ms. Jean Gore, a consultant provided to the schools by the research project. Having been trained under Dr. Roach Van Allen, she supervises a language experience program for Follow-through and Title I children in the Boulder Valley School District.

Instruction on administering the three reading tests--attitude, English, and Spanish--was given by the researcher to all twenty-five teachers involved in the study. Guidelines were to give the attitude test first, the English achievement next, followed by Spanish achievement. Testing was to be done during the first week of school over a two-day period of time but not on the first day of school. Level B was administered to second and third graders; Level C to students fourth grade and above. The same tests were to be administered during the last week of the program in the same order and not on the last day of school. Tests would be collected and scored by the research staff. A second correction of the tests was made in attempts to weed out all errors. Raw scores were used in the analysis to provide the most accurate estimates of gains made. Since only half of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills' reading sections were used for Spanish and English, the raw scores were mutiplied by two to obtain norm estimates.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Perhaps the best way to look at the results is by attempting to answer the questions that were raised for the study to answer.

Question 1

Was the language experience approach significantly better than a conventional reading approach with migrant children? The results are mixed with varying degrees of significance depending on what is contrasted. The research method used was a classical one-way analysis of covariance. Groups were compared on each dependent variable, viz., attendance, attitude, English reading, and Spanish reading scores, after covarying on age of the child, total possible attendance (which varied from school to school), and the pretest score appropriate for each corresponding dependent variable or posttest score. Covarying served the purpose of statistically equating all groups as far as possible before comparing the posttest scores. Various contrasts were then made between the independent variables, viz., group, language experience rating (LER), teacher race and language, and aide race and language.[1] Thus twenty-four major contrasts were performed. The

[1]These contrasts were treated as a set of orthogonal contrasts. The F ratio for a particular contrast was calculated by first determining a set of contrast coefficients. These coefficients were multiplied by the classroom covariate means which differed from classroom to classroom. The sum of these was squared and became the numerator to determine the F ratio. The denominator was determined by multiplying the adjusted residual or within-group error by a coefficient error term. In addition, the mean square error term was adjusted according to the formula given by B. J. Winer (p. 772). This had the effect of

seven of these that proved the most significant will be depicted on figure pages throughout the text.

The most appropriate descriptive statistics appear on Table 3 on the following page, but in all cases these were later adjusted by the covariates. It is the covariate or adjusted means which have real value for the contrasts and which therefore will be given in the later figures that follow. Table 3 gives unadjusted mean scores for attendance, reading attitude, English reading, and Spanish reading. The number of children in experimental and control groups are also given. Scores are also further broken down according to the age of children. Primary age children were given the Level B reading test and children from grade 3 through 8 were given the Level C reading test. From studying Table 3, it becomes apparent that no gain at all was made in attitude over the six-week summer school period by either experimental or control groups. In reading more gain was made in English than in Spanish but less than would be desired even in a six-week summer school. Primary and intermediate students alike gained .1 of a grade level point in most cases except in Spanish reading for the Level B experimental group where there was no gain in even raw score points.

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increasing the mean square error by a factor which depended on the ratio of the between class variation to the within class variation for each covariate. Since this proved to be a negligible adjustment (at most affecting the second decimal place), it was excluded from reported values.

Table 3

Unadjusted Mean Scores

Attendance

Mean Attendance	28.93 days
Total Possible Attendance	31.92 days

Math

Math pretest mean = 3.6 grade level
posttest mean = 4.0 grade level

(only three schools participated in Math testing)

Attitude--Perfect score 80 (raw score)

	# Children	Raw Score Pre	Raw Score Post
Children Ages 6-8			
Experimental	38	53.0	52.1
Control	17	56.0	50.6
	55		
Children 9 and up			
Experimental	80	56.3	56.5
Control	75	57.7	57.4
	155		
Total			
Experimental Group	118	55.2	55.1
Control Group	92	57.4	56.3
	210		

English Reading

	# Children	Raw Score Pre	Raw Score Post	Grade Level Score Pre	Grade Level Score Post
Level B					
Experimental	33	53.4	58.8	1.73	1.79
Control	30	44.2	49.7	1.59	1.70
	63				
Level C					
Experimental	59	52.2	56.0	2.35	2.50
Control	50	49.0	53.6	2.29	2.39
	100				
Total					
Experimental	92	52.6	57.1		
Control	80	47.2	52.2		
	172				

Spanish Reading

	# Children	Raw Score Pre	Raw Score Post	Grade Level Score Pre	Grade Level Score Post
Level B					
Experimental	44	55.8	55.9	1.76	1.76
Control	26	51.7	55.3	1.72	1.75
	70				
Level C					
Experimental	44	43.6	45.0	2.19	2.22
Control	30	43.6	45.1	2.19	2.22
	74				
Total					
Experimental	88	49.7	50.6		
Control	56	47.4	49.8		
	144				

Perhaps a little more gain was made in English because most teachers conducted their reading class in English. Most teachers told the researcher that nearly all their children could speak English. Also, many bilingual teachers said that they considered reading in English more important for their children.

It should also be noted that all the language experience inservice was given in English although teachers were encouraged to use the dominant language of the child in oral language and reading aspects of the language experience approach. If the teacher was not bilingual, her bilingual aide or a bilingual resource teacher was often there to help. It is noteworthy also that many bilingual teachers have never had training in Spanish reading instruction. One of the original purposes in introducing the language experience approach was because it was a flexible reading approach that could integrate Spanish and English instruction in the same class period. However, since most children could understand English there was little incentive to use the Spanish by teachers, especially with older children.

To answer question number one then, the language experience approach was significantly better, $p < .05$, than the conventional reading approach when teachers with high language experience ratings (LER of 3-4) were contrasted with teachers with low language experience ratings (LER of 1-2). Recall that this is the rating which the teacher and the researcher mutually agreed upon as reflecting the amount of language experience the teacher used. It would be

unrealistic to expect that all twelve teachers from the control schools would only teach a conventional (basal, phonics, or criterion-referenced method) although they were encouraged to use this emphasis. Three teachers from the control schools insisted on using language experience. Two from one school mistakenly attended a workshop in language experience at a neighboring school and asked to teach that method. However, both their English reading classroom scores (cf. school 6 in Figure 5) were below the mean.

To interpret Figure 5 then, teachers who used language experience "quite often" or "always" scored an average of 2.9 raw score points higher on a standardized reading test after an average of six weeks of instruction than did teachers who used language experience "sometimes" or "never." The results were significant at the .05 level.

Correlations among the teachers' classrooms were made to see if the language experience rating (LER) was related to unadjusted pupil gains in English, Spanish, attendance, and reading attitude:

		English	Attendance	Spanish	Attitude
LER	r =	.3173	.2807	.2418	.0463
	n =	(23)	(22)	(20)	(22)
	p =	.07	.103	.152	.419

The correlations would indicate that greater use of language experience was associated with higher children's scores in English

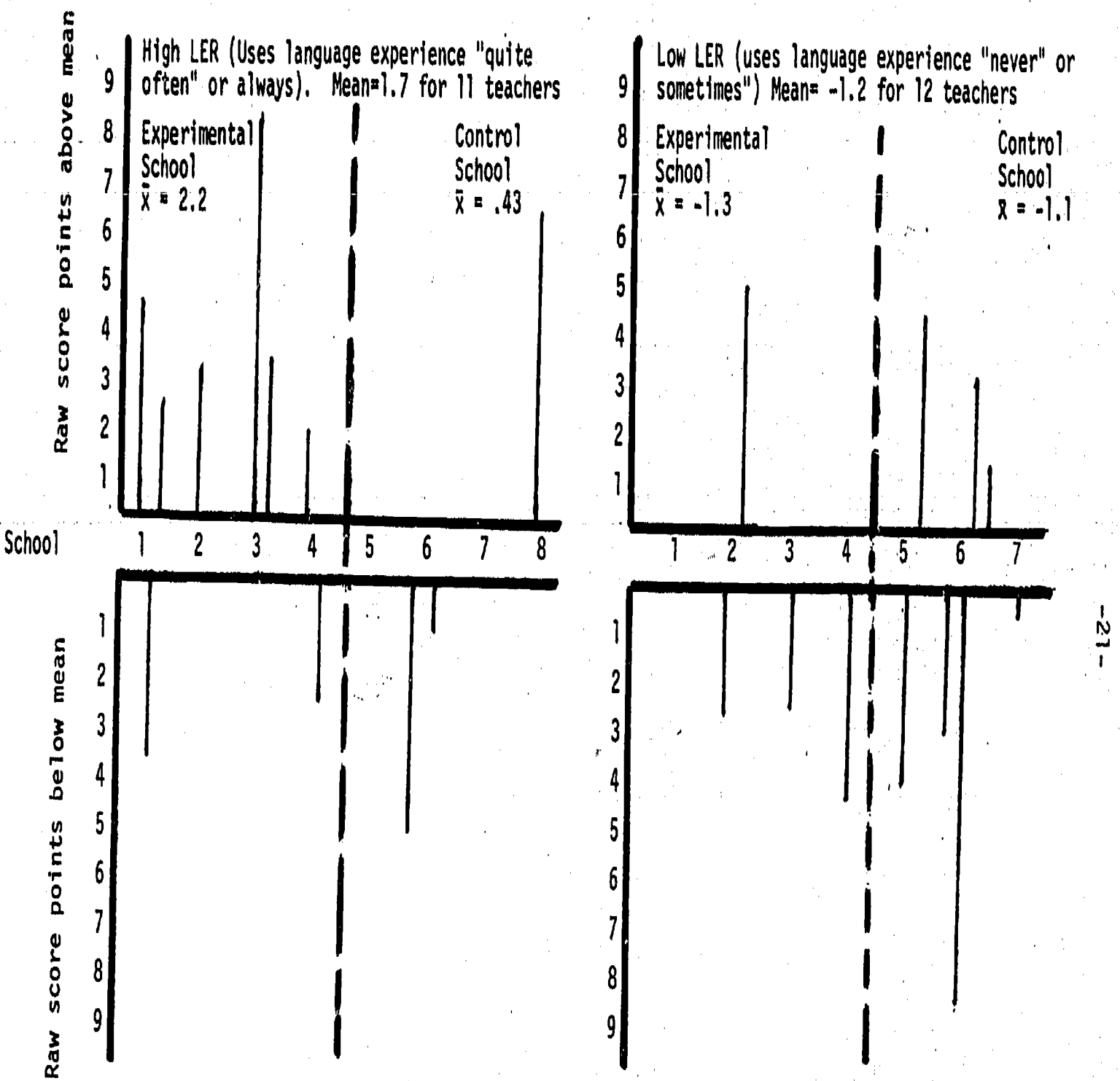

Figure 5. English reading classroom scores contrasting teachers with high language experience rating (LER) to those with low language experience ratings (LER). Total = 23 classrooms - difference 2.9 pts. - $p < .05$. Scores are given for each teacher in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

($p < .07$). LER did not correlate significantly with attendance or Spanish but there was some trend for teachers who used language experience a great deal to have slightly better attendance and somewhat better Spanish scores in their classroom than teachers with low LER. However, the relationship of LER with reading attitude was essentially zero.

A second contrast comparing experimental schools where the language experience inservice had been given, and where teachers were encouraged by their principals to use this approach, with control schools where teachers were encouraged to use a more conventional or basal approach was not significant. Figure 6 shows the results of this contrast. It slightly favored the language experience approach for reading in English but the difference of only 1.7 raw score points was not statistically significant ($p < .25$).

As far as reading in Spanish goes, the control group of schools came out superior but with the same qualified results as were given to the English reading group results above, viz. $p < .22$. Figure 7 depicts this graphically. The control schools on the average did 2.5 raw score points better on the translated Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) reading test. One school in particular did better in Spanish. That was school number 6. A contrast between that school and all the rest indicates that school 6 was significantly better than all the other schools in the teaching of Spanish ($p < .05$). See Figure 8. This was predictable because that school has for five years

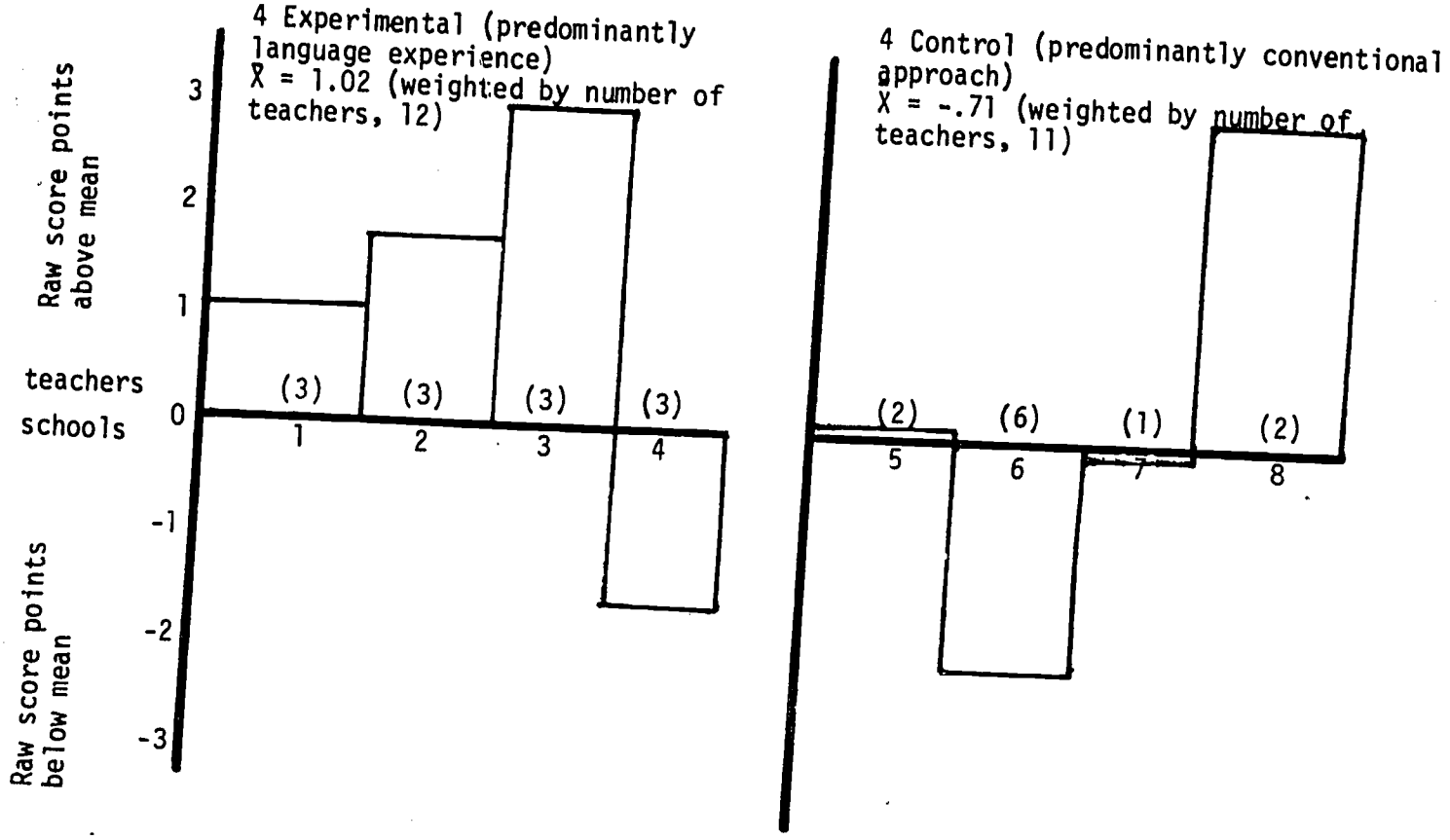

Figure 6. Contrast of experimental and control schools' English reading adjusted mean scores. Difference 1.7 pts. - $p < .23$. Scores are given for each school in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

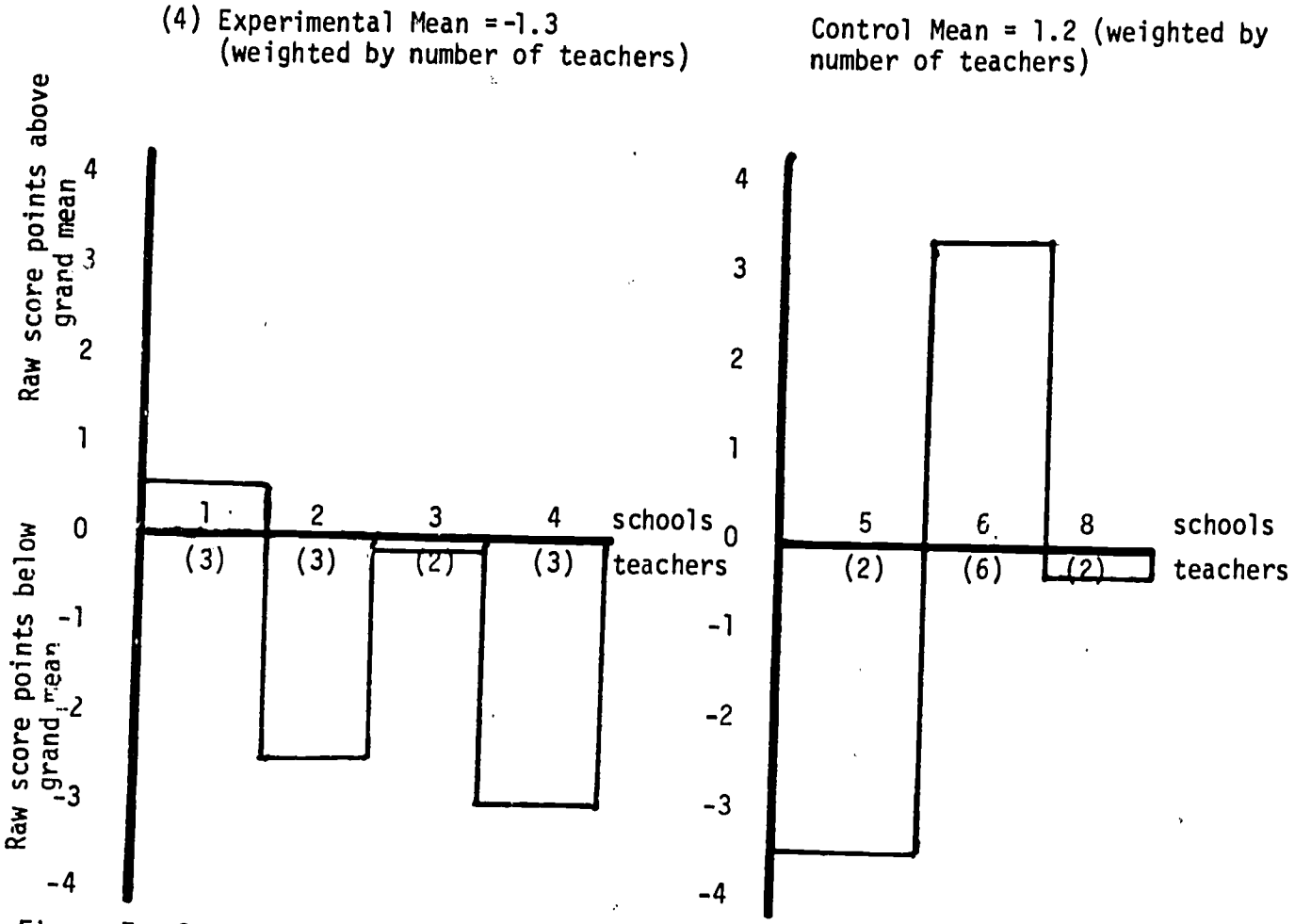

Figure 7. Contrast of experimental and control schools' Spanish reading adjusted mean scores. Difference 2.5 pts. - $p < .22$. Scores are given for each school in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

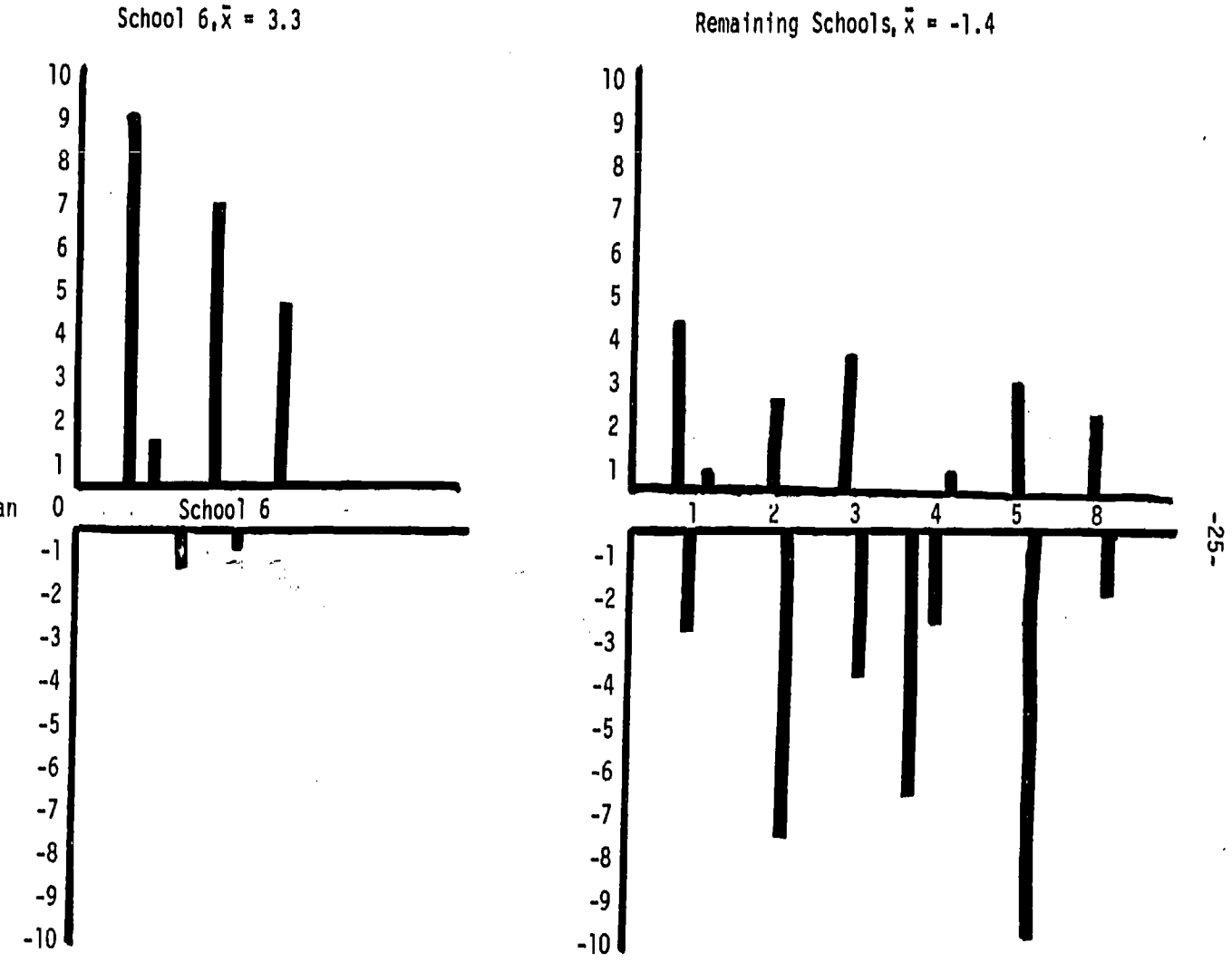

Figure 8. Spanish reading scores of School 6 contrasted with all other schools. Total 20 classrooms - difference 4.7 points - $p < .05$. Scores are given for each teacher in numbered schools in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

had a bilingual program in which reading is taught in Spanish during the regular year. Three of the six summer school teachers have taught in the bilingual program. School number 6, in addition, was the only migrant school in which all the teachers and aides were bilingual except school number 1 which was the only other school to score above the mean in Spanish (Figure 5). It is true that there were a large number of children in this school but it was only one of four schools with between 13 and 18 percent of the student population (Figure 2). It appears that the pupil-teacher ratio in this school might be higher but this was not the case. School number 3 from the experimental group had a comparable number of children enrolled (150) but the two second grade teachers in that school said the testing program was too difficult for their children and so dropped out. First and second grade teachers completed the testing in school 6.

Another interesting observation will lead into a discussion of Figure 9. The greatest gain in Spanish reading in school 6 came from the first grade teacher (8.82 raw score points above mean). This teacher in describing his reading program classified it as mainly a language experience program. He said he felt that language experience lends itself to working in the native language of the students. Since most migrant students enter school as Spanish speakers and become more fluent in English as they grow older, it is interesting to compare the gains in Spanish made by teachers who worked with the youngest age groups in the various schools in the study. Figure 9 shows that only four non-bilingual teachers had classes where noticeable

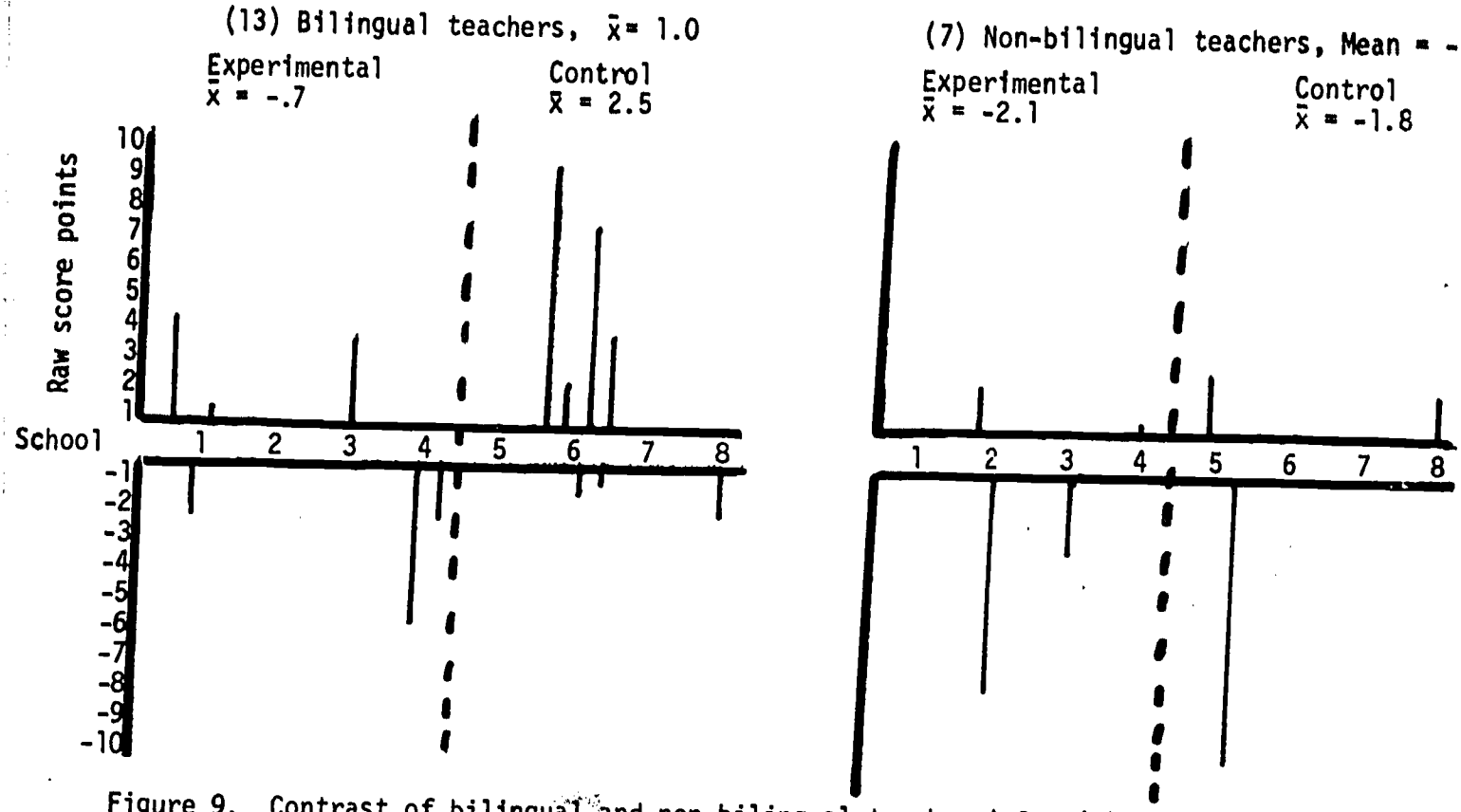

Figure 9. Contrast of bilingual and non-bilingual teachers' Spanish reading scores. Total = 20 classrooms - difference 2.9 pts. - $p < .12$. Scores are given for each teacher in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

gains were made in Spanish. All of these had the youngest group of children, primarily second graders, in their respective schools. All three had bilingual aides to help with the Spanish in the classroom and two of the three had high LER scores (the other teacher had a 2.5 which puts her at the highest point in the low LER range). In addition the three bilingual teachers who had the highest scores in Spanish from schools 1, 3, and 6 all worked with the youngest children in the study from their schools and all were members of the high LER group. Thus, a contrast of the Spanish scores of the eight primary grade teachers with high LER's (2.9 average) to all the older classrooms gives a difference of 2.77 raw score points (p of $< .19$). This finding is depicted in Figure 10. This would make it necessary to qualify the statement that the conventional reading approach was better in Spanish by saying that the youngest children made the most gains in Spanish and that the reading approach used predominantly with them was the language experience approach.

Question 2

This question asks whether the teacher's language and race or the teacher aide's language and race were related to reading scores in English and Spanish. The race of teacher and aide turns out to be significantly related to attendance as will be discussed in question five. However, there are interesting and predictable relationships between teacher language as it relates to reading scores in Spanish and English.

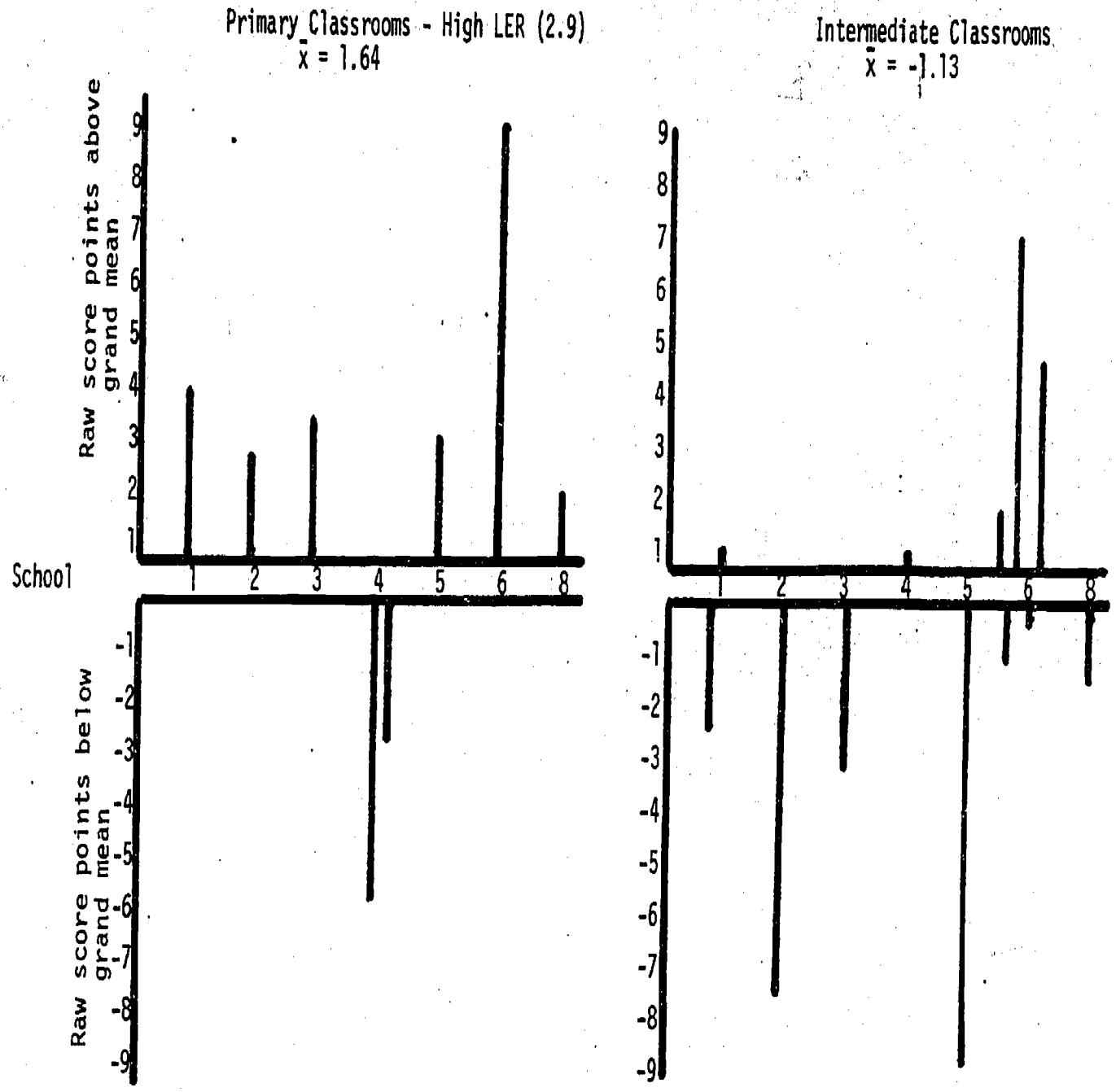

Figure 10. Contrast of Spanish reading scores of eight primary grade classes using language experience with remaining Spanish classrooms. Total = 20 classrooms - difference 2.77 pts. - $p < .19$. Scores are given for each teacher in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

Figure 9 shows that bilirgual teachers did a better job of teaching reading in Spanish than did teachers who spoke only English. The result was somewhat significant ($p < .12$), a difference of 2.9 raw score points in Spanish. It would seem logical that bilingual teachers would do a better job of teaching Spanish.

Figure 11 explains the results in English reading scores, viz., that non-bilingual teachers did a better job of teaching reading in English than did the bilingual teachers. The result is marginally significant ($p<.16$) for a gain of 2.0 raw score points on the average for the teachers who spoke only English. Here again, however, this result was predictable because bilingual teachers spend some of the reading time in instruction in Spanish whereas the teachers who speak only English tend to give all their emphasis to reading in English.

It would seem, therefore, that if reading in Spanish is a goal in migrant schools, some consideration should be given to hiring more bilingual teachers. If reading in English is the major goal, English-speaking teachers tend to do a good job.

Question 3

This question relates to whether the child's age made any difference in reading instruction. It has already been noted that age was a covariate used to statistically equate classes prior to measuring the gains made. However, as was also noted earlier, younger children consistently did better in Spanish reading than did older children (Figure 10). A partial correlation was also made with age and post-attitude scores, age and post-English scores, age and attendance, and age and post-Spanish scores using the corresponding pretest as a

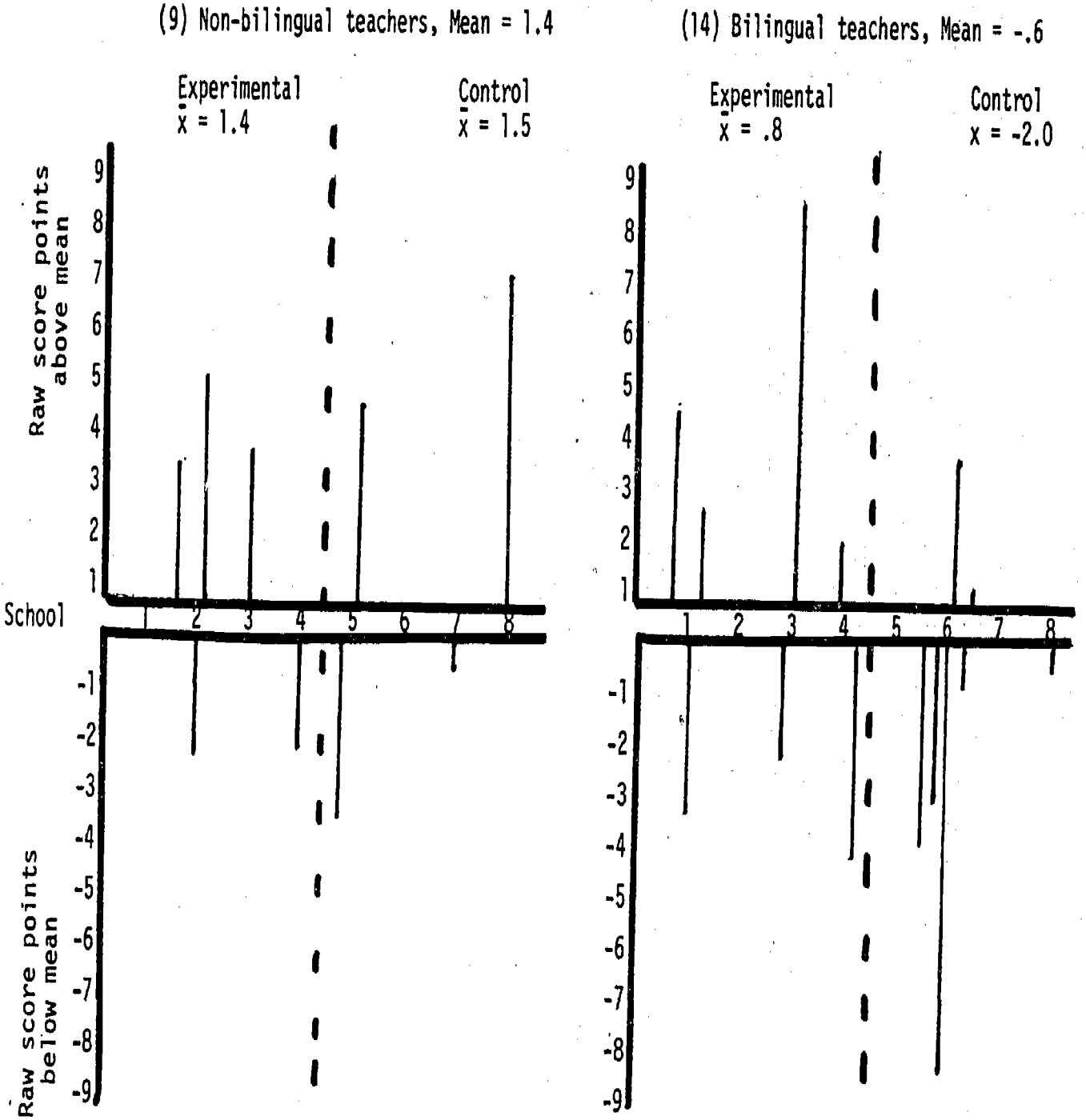

Figure 11. Contrast of bilingual and non-bilingual teachers' English reading scores. Total = 23 classrooms - Difference 2.0 pts - $p < .16$. Scores are given for each teacher in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

control (or in the case of attendance, total possible attendance as the control). The results were as follows:

	Post-Attitude	Post-English	Post-Spanish	Attendance
Age	r = .1458	-.0392	.0258	.0193
	n = (182)	(169)	(141)	(255)
	p = .024	.305	.380	.370

The partial correlation, number of cases, and significance for each comparison are given. Age it appears does not relate highly with most of the dependent variables, although there is some relationship between age and post-attitude scores. The older children tended to have a higher score on the post-attitude test.

Question 4

This question dealt with the teacher's attitude toward the reading approach he or she taught as reflected on a five-question survey given before and after the summer program. A Pearson correlation was computed between teachers' pre-attitude scores toward reading with the group they were in (experimental or control), their post-attitude scores, and their LER scores.

	Group	Post-attitude	LER
Pre-attitude	r = -.0988	.2997	.2568
	n = (25)	(25)	(25)
	p = .319	.073	.108

There was some correlation between teacher pre-attitude and post-attitude scores (r = .3) but not as much as one might expect. From looking at the changes in the mean score for pretest and posttest by group it appears that the attitude of the experimental or language experience group decreased relative to the control group.

	Teacher Attitude	
	Pre	Post
Experimental	18.76	18.96
Control	18.25	18.83

The same observation can be noted by examining the correlation between LER and pretest and posttest scores of teacher attitude.

	Pre-attitude	Post-attitude
LER	r = .2568	-.0141
	n = (25)	(25)
	p = .108	.473

While higher pre-attitude scores tended to coincide with higher LER scores, post-attitude scores reveal that this advantage was lost. Thus while teachers who used a lot of language experience tended to have a good attitude toward reading and the language experience approach as they began the summer, their posttest scores decreased while the control group's rose. The change was not significant, however, as a one-way analysis of covariance using pre-attitude as a covariate yielded a F ratio that was not statistically significant.

The second part of question four was concerned with whether the pre-attitude of the teachers was related to the scores their children received in attitude, English, Spanish, and attendance. A Pearson correlation with the unadjusted mean scores was computed and the results were as follows:

	Post-Attitude	Post-English	Post-Spanish	Attendance
Pre-attitude of teachers	r = .0750	.1640	-.3716	-.2866
	n = (22)	(23)	(20)	(22)
	p = .370	.227	.053	.098

The most noteworthy results seem to be the inverse relationship between the pre-attitude of teachers and their class averages in Spanish reading and attendance scores. The higher the attitude of the teachers, the lower the attendance and especially the Spanish scores of the students seemed to be. Perhaps it can be interpreted that teachers who had confidence and enthusiasm about the reading approach they were using felt that way toward reading in English, as they answered the questionnaire, and not about teaching reading in Spanish. Most teachers did, in fact, conduct the majority of their reading program in English. Teachers with high attitude scores tended to have students who didn't come to school as often. Perhaps their enthusiasm affected children negatively, but more likely teachers with higher attitude scores tended to be Anglo because Chicano teachers had better attendance as will be seen in Question 5.

The attitude of the teachers toward reading and the approach they used after the program was over, correlated higher with the attitude of their children toward reading than with any of the other dependent variable scores, significance $p < .052$. The teachers who most enjoyed reading tended to produce students who did the same:

Pupil scores on:		Post-Attitude	Post-English	Post-Spanish	Attendance
Post-attitude of teachers	r =	.3559	.2346	-.2811	-.2879
	n =	(22)	(23)	(20)	(22)
	p =	.052	.141	.115	.097

It might be well to consider student attitude at this point. It was one of the major effects to be considered in Question 1, but there were no significant contrasts between student attitude and any of the independent variables. Figure 12 shows this lack of significance when experimental and control schools were contrasted. The only dependent variable that student attitude seemed to relate to was Spanish scores:

		Pretest Spanish	Posttest Spanish
Pretest attitude	r =	.0811	.1456
	n =	(115)	(115)
	p =	.194	.06

		Posttest Spanish
Posttest attitude	r =	.1148
	n =	(111)
	p =	.115

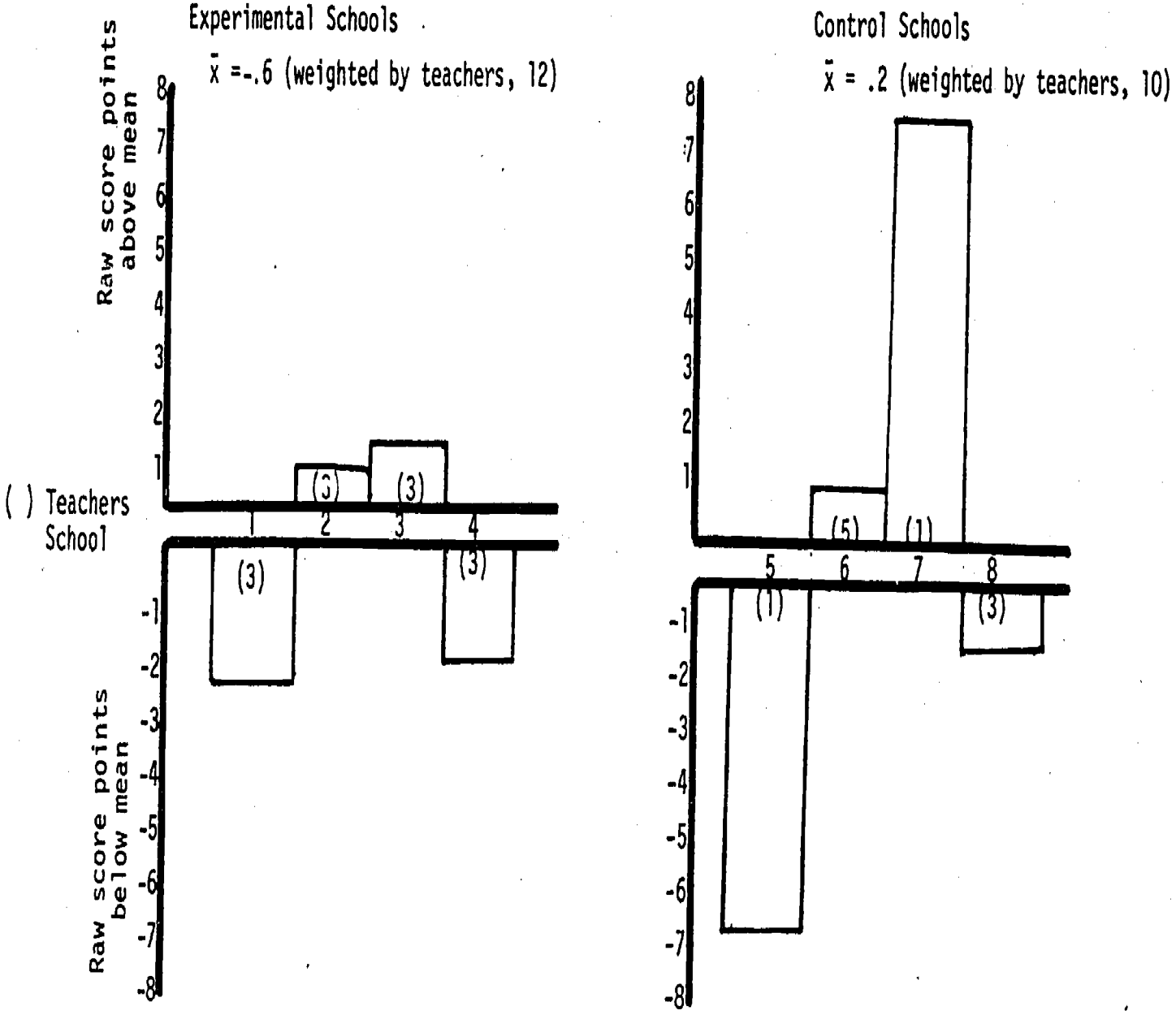

Figure 12. Contrast of experimental and control schools' reading attitude adjusted mean scores. Total = 22 classrooms - Difference .8 pts. - p not significant. Scores are given for each school in raw score points deviating from grand mean of 0.

Higher scores in attitude tended to be accompanied by higher scores in Spanish on the pretest. This was even more the case after the program was over.

Pretest attitude scores were significantly ($p < .001$) related to posttest attitude scores but the correlation $r = .48$ was not nearly as high as those for pretest English scores with posttest English scores, $r = .88$ ($p < .001$). Pretest Spanish scores were also a good prediction of posttest Spanish scores, $r = .83$ ($p < .001$). It would be much easier to predict English and Spanish scores than attitude scores. The changes produced in reading were uniform with little evidence for "spurts" of growth among any of the pupils.

The individual teacher who had the most attitude gain in his class also had the second best English gain of all teachers. However, this correlation did not hold up when all teachers were compared. Once again there was little to report for attitude when classrooms were correlated.

Question 5

This question dealt with attendance and whether it was significant in any of the major contrasts made with the independent variable. The results were the most significant for the entire study. Figure 13 indicates the difference in attendance in classrooms where teachers were Chicano as contrasted in classrooms where teachers were Anglo. The differences were significant at the .02 level and amounted to about 1 1/2 days difference in attendance, with Chicano teachers having better

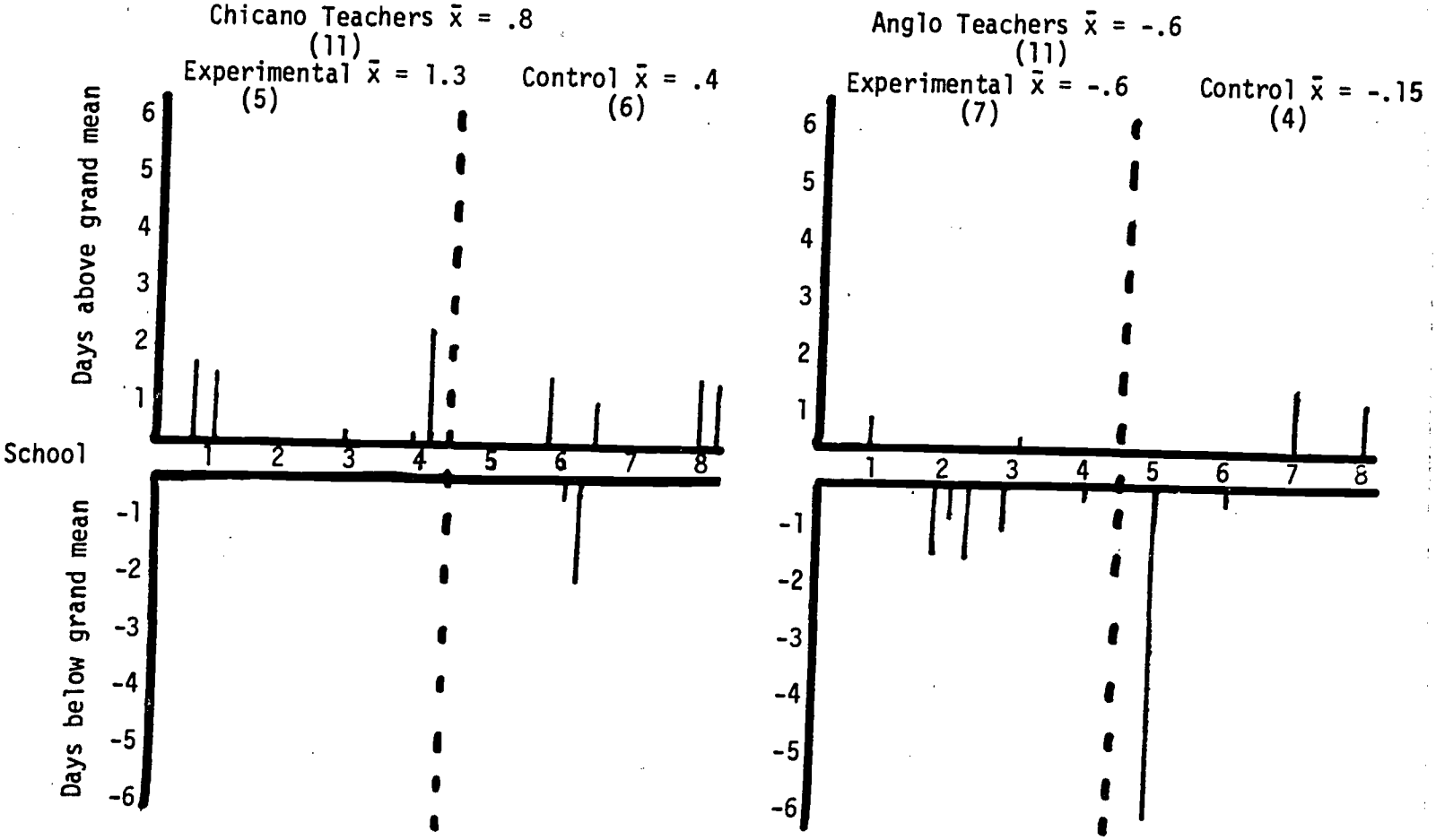

Figure 13. Contrast of pupil attendance between Chicano and Anglo teachers. Total = 22 classrooms - difference 1.4 days. Scores are given for each teacher in days deviating from grand mean of 0.

attendance. The differences were identical when Chicano teacher aides were contrasted with Anglo teacher aides (Figure 14). Relatively the same results with a slight decrease in significance ($p < .03$) exists when bilingual teachers were contrasted with non-bilingual teachers. However, there was significant confounding between the independent variables of teacher race and teacher language ($r = .75$) and between aide race and aide language ($r = .90$) which means they were practically measures of the same characteristic.

From study of Figure 13 the reader will notice that in the experimental school group, school 1 and 4 had the highest percentage of Chicano teachers and correspondingly had the highest attendance in that group.

In the control group, school 5 had no Chicano or bilingual teachers and also had the lowest attendance of all the schools in the control group. School 8 in the control group had the best attendance and also had Chicanos as two-thirds of its teachers.

If higher attendance is a goal of migrant programs, consideration should be given to hiring bilingual Chicano teachers and aides because they do improve children's attendance.

As far as significant correlations between attendance and the other dependent variables, none existed. When classrooms were compared, attendance correlated highly only with posttest English scores and the correlation was an inverse one.

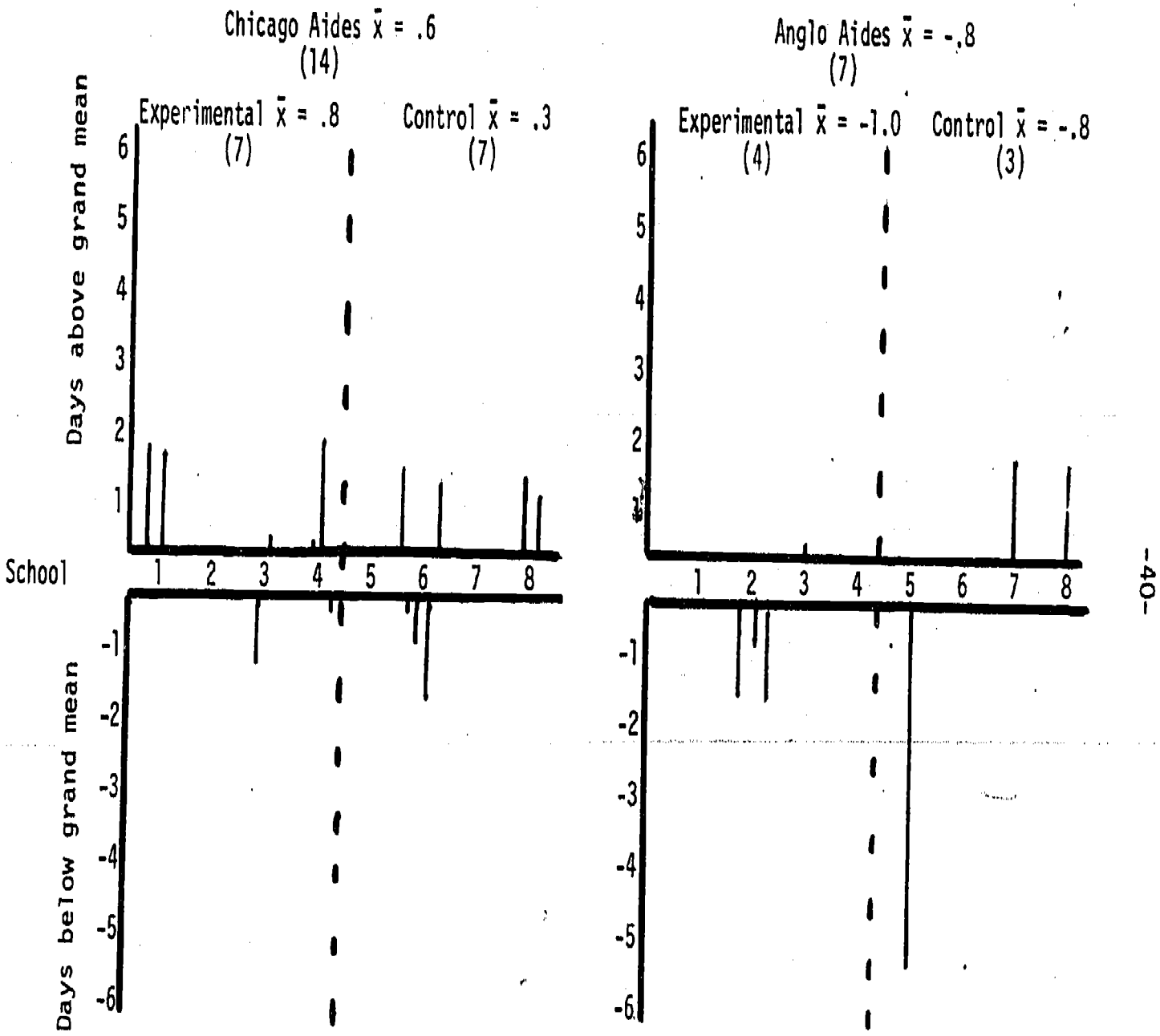

Figure 14. Contrast of pupil attendance between Chicano and Anglo teacher aides. Total = 21 classrooms - difference 1.4 days - $p < .02$.

	Classroom Posttest English
Attendance	r = -.37
	n = (21)
	p = .051

This says that classrooms where much reading in English is taught had poorer attendance. This is consistent with the findings that attendance is related to the presence of Chicano teachers and aides who give proportionately less emphasis to reading in English than do Anglo teachers. This is also consistent with the finding that attitude improvement is related to Spanish reading scores and not English reading scores. Better attitude should improve attendance and these variables seem consistently related to the classroom variables of Spanish instruction and Chicano teachers and aides as far as summer Migrant students are concerned.

Question 6

This question dealt with the interesting hypothesis that asks if an ability to read in Spanish is related to an ability to read in English or vice versa. In an attempt to see if this study could offer any insight into the question, a correlation was made between unadjusted pretest scores in Spanish and English with unadjusted posttest scores in Spanish and English.

	Pretest English		Posttest English
Pretest Spanish	r = .332	Posttest Spanish	r = .331
	n = (113)		n = (113)
	p = .001		p = .001

It appears that to some extent students who have ability to read in English likewise have an ability to read in Spanish. This is another way of saying that there was a tendency for those who read well in Spanish or English to read well in the other language. Whether it is intelligence or the ability to read well in one language first that predisposes toward reading well in the second langage is open to further investigation. Perhaps intelligence is initially related to a child learning to read in one language and then that ability to read in one language makes learning to read in a second language that much easier.

One final correlation of interest is that between classrooms comparing posttest adjusted scores in English and Spanish:

	Classroom Spanish Posttest Scores
Classroom English Posttest Scores	r = .2896
	n = (20)
	p = .108

This might indicate a tendency for asserting that teachers whose children do well in reading in one language tend to do well in reading in the second language. Perhaps teachers who teach reading well in one language tend to teach it well in a second language. Being bilingual would certainly help.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following findings can be made with decreasing certitude as the probability (p) of error for them increases:

1. The most assertive finding in the study indicates that attendance of migrant children was greater (about a day and a half, or 5%) when Chicano teachers and aides were in the classroom ($p < .02$).

2. Teachers who use the language epxerience approach to reading more aften with their migrant children, showed an increase of 2.9 raw score points more on English reading standardized test scores than those teachers who use it less frequently ($p < .05$).

3. School number 6 in the study, where a bilingual program has existed for several years, improved the Spanish reading score of its students by 4.7 raw score points more than the other schools involved in the study ($p < .05$).

4. Bilingual teachers do a better job of teaching reading in Spanish; enough to make a 2.9 raw score points increase during a summer migrant program ($p < .12$).

5. Younger children make more gains in reading Spanish than do older children, more than 2.77 raw score points ($p < .19$). Teachers of the younger children used the language experience approach "quite often" with these children (2.9 LER average).

Significant Correlations

1. The most significant correlation seemed to be in the area of reading in English and Spanish. Ability to read well in one language gives some indication of ability to read in a second language, $r = .33$ ($p < .001$). Classrooms follow this same pattern ($p < .108$).

2. Teachers who most enjoyed reading during the summer migrant program tended to produce students who did the same, $r = .36$ ($p < .052$).

3. Attendance is inversely related to gains in English reading scores, $r = -.37$ ($p < .051$). It is related to the presence of Chicano teachers and aides who do more instruction in Spanish. This is consistent with the finding, though admittedly low, that reading attitude correlates most highly with posttest Spanish scores $r = .11$ ($p < .12$).

Thus the presence of more Chicano teachers and aides who give some emphasis to reading in Spanish would tend to improve attendance definitely and attitude somewhat.

If a general recommendation can be made from the study, it would seem to be that the use of Chicano, bilingual teachers for summer migrant students should be encouraged. Greater use of the language experience approach to reading seems to offer promise for helping migrant children read English and was acceptable to many teachers in this study in teaching younger children reading in Spanish. Teachers who used it substantially also supplemented it with other techniques of their choosing so that as a major component of an eclectic approach it showed some promise with migrant children. Different approaches should be sought in teaching migrant

children to read because the summer gains in general were disappointing and below expectation, no matter which approach was used. Since reading well in one language tends to carry over into a second language, more careful determination of a child's native language and consequent instruction in that language by bilingual teachers should be attempted.

If further research is undertaken with a population of summer migrant school children, the researcher should be aware of the classroom turnover of students. Of more than 500 students tested at the beginning of the summer, about half were present at the end of the summer migrant program.

The researcher and a group of assistants should also be available when testing is done to make sure all subtests are given. Testing of reading in Spanish will meet with some resistance by teachers in schools where reading in Spanish is not undertaken. If possible, randomly assign schools and classrooms to be compared to improve the experimental quality and validity of the study and thus make it more generalizable.

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APPENDICES

A. Level B - Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills - Reading - Spanish

B. Level C - Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills - Reading - Spanish

C. Reading Attitude Test (Spanish - English)

D. Teacher Attitude Questionnaire - Pretest

E. Teacher Attitude Questionnaire - Posttest

F. Language Experience Approach to Reading

PRUEBA DE LEER

Nivel B - Español
(Grados Primarios)

Nombre_____

Fecha_____

Escuela_____

Profesor (a)_____

Grado_____

PRUEBA DE LEER

Nivel C - Español
(Grados 3-8)

Nombre_____

Fecha_____

Escuela_____

Profesor (a)_____

Grado_____

ATTITUDE TEST

Name (Nombre)_____ Date (Fecha)_____ Grade (Grado)_____

School (Escuela)_____ Teacher (Profesor) (a)_____

DIRECTIONS: Read each question carefully and select the one choice which most nearly tells how you feel. Make a circle around the letter in front of your choice. Be sure to answer every question.

INSTRUCCIÓES: Lean cada pregunta con cuidado y selecciónen una de las repuestas. Contesten todas las preguntas.

Example:

I like to read stories that

A. my parents choose
B. the teacher chooses
C. I choose myself

Ejemplo:

Mi gusta leer cuentos que

A. Escogen mis padres
B. Escoge mi maestra (s)
C. Escogo yo solo (a)

1. Reading seems to go
   A. fast
   B. neither fast nor slow
   C. slow

1. En la clase de leer se pasa el tiempo
   A. pronto
   B. ni pronto ni despacio
   C. despacio

2. I keep my mind on my book
   A. most of the time
   B. part of the time
   C. not very often

2. Le pongo atención al libro
   A. casi todo el tiempo
   B. parte del tiempo
   C. casi nunca

3. I read books because
   A. I like to read them
   B. I think I should read them
   C. someone tells me to read them

3. Leo libros porque
   A. me gusta leerlos
   B. creo que debo leerlos
   C. alguien me dice que los lea

4. I like to read	4. Me gusta leer
A. many kinds of stories	A. todas clases de cuentos
B. a few kinds of stories	B. pocas clases de cuentos
C. one kind of story	C. una clase de cuentos
5. I find a good book	5. Encuentro un libro bueno
A. often	A. muchas veces
B. sometimes	B. a veces
C. not very often	C. nunca
6. I would like to have	6. Me gustaría tener
A. more time for reading in school	A. más tiempo para leer en clase
B. the same time as now	B. igual de tiempo que tenemos
C. less time for reading in school	C. menos tiempo para leer
7. I like to read	7. Me gusta leer
A. books, newspapers, & magazines	A. libros, periódicos, y magazines
B. only story books	B. solamente libros de cuentos
C. only magazines and newspapers	C. solamente magazines y periódicos
8. Reading is	8. Leyendo es
A. fun	A. divertido
B. all right	B. esta bien
C. boring	C. aburrido
9. When I hear about a good book	9. Cuando oigo de un libro bueno
A. I always want to read it	A. siempre quiero leerlo
B. I sometimes want to read it	B. a veces quiero leerlo
C. I never want to read it	C. nunca quiero leerlo
10. I read	10. Yo leo
A. everytime I get the chance	A. Cada oportunidad que tengo
B. sometimes	B. algunas veces
C. only when the teacher tells me to	C. no más cuando me dice la maestra

11. I wish free reading time could be

A. longer
B. shorter
C. same as it is now

11. Quisiera que tiempo libre para leer fuera

A. más tiempo
B. menos tiempo
C. lo mismo lo que es ahora

12. I think free reading time is

A. really great
B. O. K.
C. not interesting

12. Creo que el tiempo libre para leer es

A. fantástico
B. bueno
C. no me interésa

13. At home I read

A. often
B. sometimes
C. almost never

13. En mi casa leo

A. muchas veces
B. algunas veces
C. casi nunca

14. I read my brothers and sisters stories

A. often
B. sometimes
C. almost never

14. Les leo cuentos a mis hermanos y hermanas

A. muchas veces
B. algunas veces
C. casi nunca

15. The things we do in reading class are

A. fun
B. just something to do
C. work

15. Las cosas que hacemos en la clase de leer son

A. divertidos
B. no más algo para hacer
C. trabajo

16. When people read to me

A. I like it very much
B. It is O. K.
C. I do not like it

16. Cuanto gente me lee cuentos

A. me gusta mucho
B. está bien
C. no me gusta

Appendix D

Return to John Hoffman

ATTITUDE SURVEY FOR TEACHERS

Name_____

Pre-test

School_____

Read each item carefully and underline quickly the phrase which best expresses your feeling about the statement. Work rapidly and answer every item.

1. The reading methods or techniques or approach I plan to use with my migrant class this summer might be best described as

_____

_____

2. I think this approach is the best to use with migrant children.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

3. I feel I can do a fine job using this approach.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

4. I feel I have been adequately trained for using this approach.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

5. If I had a choice, I would prefer using another approach in teaching reading.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

6. I enjoy teaching reading more than most other subjects.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

Appendix E

ATTITUDE SURVEY FOR TEACHERS

Name _____

Post Test

School _____

Read each item carefully and underline quickly the phrase which best expresses your feeling about the statement. Work rapidly and answer every item.

1. The reading approach I used this summer with my migrant class might best be described as

_____

_____

2. I really liked this method.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

3. I did an excellent job of teaching with this method.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

4. I plan to use the same method in the Fall for reading.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

5. My children really seemed to improve in reading with this method.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

6. (Check one or both)

_____English speaking children

_____Spanish speaking children seemed to do better with this reading approach.

7. I would use this same method next year with migrant children.

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

8. Are you bilingual? Yes_____ No_____ Is your aide? Yes_____ No_____

9. Are you Mexican-American? Yes_____ No_____ Is your aide? Yes_____ No_____

Language Experience Approach to Reading

Purpose: For children of all ages to learn to speak, read, and write in their own language and <u>enjoy</u> it.

10 Basic Components:

1. Creating an experience which will get kids talking, motivated, involved.

   Examples: Planning a fieldtrip or outside walk.
   Seeing a film
   Bringing in an animal or insect.
   Involvement in cooking
   Having a story told or book read
   Having a guest speaker or visitor
   Taking apart an engine
   Manipulating a flannelboard
   Use a magnifying glass, microscope, kaleidoscope, telescope
   Plant something
   Trying to make adobe
   Working with clay or watercolors
   Taking photographs
   Having show and tell
   Building something
   Beautiful pictures
   Playing a game
   Please add two:
   1)_____
   2)_____

2. Oral language in both Spanish and English is readily developed by the teacher as she shares the experience with the children. For Migrant children much of the talking may be in Spanish. An aide may be essential here if she is bilingual and the teacher is not.

3. Dictation is accepted by teacher or aide from a group of children or total class so that children see that written words are directly related to speech and hence reading and speaking are similar. Dictation can be taken in the preparing:

   a) Chart stories - examples of these are shown in the R.V. Allen handout that follows this page.

   b) Class books - books can be developed around any of the themes mentioned in #1 above or as alphabet books using the name or action around such themes as:

      People We Know
      Animals
      Mother's Work

      or by using blank books with various titles such as:

      Things That Are Round
      What I Discovered Today
      Funny Things
      All Around Our Neighborhood

   c) Individual books - that children add to day by day and dictate entirely on their own.

   d) Talking mural-wall newspaper -- Butcher paper can be used too

   Older children may already be able to read and can therefore practice writing based on the experiences shared. Newspapers and journals and student-made books that are later bound and/or published. Jeanette Veatch's handout, which is enclosed, has many ideas along these lines which can be used.

4. Let children illustrate the experience they have dictated or let them dictate below an illustration they have done. Sometimes dictation will precede the illustration and sometimes it will follow it. Art is a companion to dictation in permitting a child to express himself. It helps him remember the dictation so he can read it just as picture clues or rebuses are a comprehension help in reading.

10 Basic Components cont'd.

5. You read the dictated passage for the children.

   Then have the children read it back to you. In group stories each child may read his own passage begun with "Tommy said . . . "

6. Have them pick their favorite words from a dictated passage and make:

   a) Key Word file - each child will have a file box or word list of his favorite words. Have child read these every day.

   b) Word wall - part of chalkboard or bulletin board can be used by children's favorite words.

7. Have children copy down their favorite words. This is the beginning of integrating reading and writing which tend to reinforce each other. Children add these words to their key word file.

   Use incomplete sentences to let children write the last one or two words of a dictated sentence himself. He may choose words from:

   a) his key vocabulary file
   b) the word walls which list words in categories such as

Descriptive words	Name Words	Movement words
size	animals	all kinds of verbs
shape	people	"ing" forms
sound	family members	"ed" forms
color	toys	
texture	objects in nature	

   c) his dictionary notebook which each child begins making with the help of the aide. In it are put words he asks to know when finishing incomplete sentences. Many of these words will be from Dolch list which children have a hard time remembering but which comprise a high percentage of words used in English.

8. Have children eventually writing short sentences on their own.

-- Form flexible groups to work on certain skills such as capitalization and punctuation. Veatch gives an excellent way to teach punctuation in #5 of the enclosed handout. Begin incorporating decoding skills of reading and teaching compound words and syllabication so that children will gain some independence in reading words on their own.

-- Keep records where they are needed and have individual conferences with kids to see how they are doing.

-- Cut dictated and child written sentences up or let the children do it so they can discover how sentences may be altered by moving words into new positions and see how words are put together to make a sentence.

10 Basic Components Cont'd.

9. Publish the children's books or at least bind them together with staples so that they are available for each other to read. Allow children to:

   a) Read their story to a parent visitor, to the aide, to the whole class, to another child.

   b) Record their story on a tape recorder.

   c) Take their book home to read it to their parents.

   d) Put their books in a children's library for others in class to read. This may be one table with nothing on it but children's books.

   Perhaps you will want to publish a newspaper as a way of using children's writing.

10. Provide free reading time each day so children can practice reading.

   Two RIF books will be given free to your children the first week of school and they should be given some time to read these or share them with one another in story telling time.

   Read each day to the students or tell a story or give a capsule summary of a couple of books to encourage them to read to find out the ending.

   The whole purpose of all this is to get kids to ENJOY READING.

CHECKLIST OF ACTIVITIES TO USE EACH WEEK

To set up the language experience classroom:

- [ ] 1. Have a library of easy reading books.
- [ ] 2. Have an experience area (pets, projects; plants, etc.) and an art area.
- [ ] 3. Later you may want a writing area or publishing area.

The First and Second Weeks:

Administer the bilingual reading and attitude tests the second day of school.

- [ ] 1. Create an experience and talk about it in Spanish or English. A good experience may last several days.
- [ ] 2. Take dictation from children to make a group chart or book in Spanish, English, or combination of languages.
- [ ] 3. Read it to the children and let them read it back to you in whatever language they offered.
- [ ] 4. Let each child illustrate the experience or do some artwork.
- [ ] 5. Take dictation for each illustration, read it and let child read it back in his own language.
- [ ] 6. Let children pick out favorite words for word wall and their own key list. If they want to copy words themselves, let them do so.
- [ ] 7. Allow older children to dictate or write the experience themselves in a journal, for a newspaper, or to make their own illustrated book.
- [ ] 8. Read something to children each day and give them free reading time.

Third and Fourth Weeks:

- [ ] 1. Continue all activities from the first two weeks, especially new experiences.
- [ ] 2. Move toward doing more small group skill work in reading.
- [ ] 3. Expand word walls.
- [ ] 4. Do a talking mural.
- [ ] 5. Begin taking incomplete sentences for dictation so children who can will complete them.
- [ ] 6. Encourage kids who can to expand their key vocabulary into a dictionary notebook.

Third and Fourth weeks cont'd.

- [ ] 7. Some children will be able to write sentences on their own.
- [ ] 8. Continue to read to children and allow free reading time.

Fifth and Sixth Weeks:

- [ ] 1. Publish, publish, publish! in both languages.
- [ ] 2. Let children tape record some of their books, let others read them to the class or to other classes.
- [ ] 3. Continue building reading skills based on children's work.
- [ ] 4. Lengthen the free reading time and tell kids about some new books you brought.

-- Schedule a fun trip on Wednesday of last week of school to get all kids to come.

-- Give the bilingual reading and attitude tests that morning.

-- Fill out the teacher checklist and teacher attitude sheets.

-- On Thursday give make-up test to children who didn't come on Wednesday.

WE MAKE READING FROM TALK

Here is a procedure for painting and writing:

1. No more than four colors need to be provided for any one day in the art center. Cover the floor with newspapers. Put out a container of paint and a short brush in each color, so that four children may paint at a time. The painting should be entirely free from direction as far as ideas are concerned. You want children to express their ideas. Provide a space in your classroom for pictures to dry.

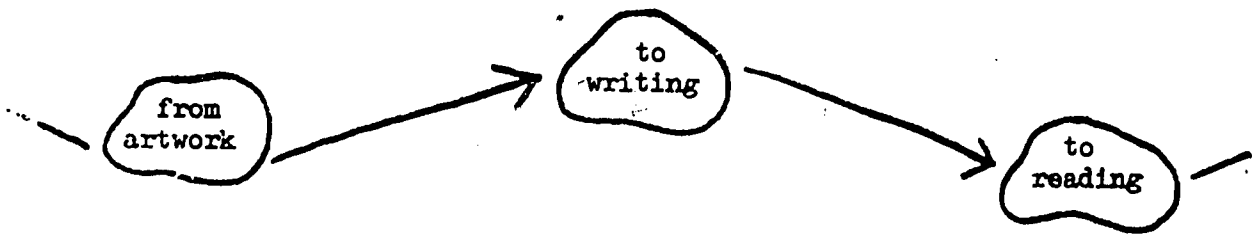
2. When you have time, ask the artist to tell you the most important things about his painting, and write the words, exactly as he says them, in large neat letters so that he can read them. Older children may like to do the writing themselves, but taking dictation from a child builds a positive rapport, and should be done with any age child.

3. The next day share the stories written in this manner with the other children before asking for new stories. (In most classrooms, children will submit five or six paintings a day for dictation.) Discuss the stories....this is where reading takes place. Point out similar words, beginning sounds, etc.

4. Display the paintings and stories in the classroom so that they can be read and used as references for words in the future. As you take them down to replace them, exhibit the stories by taping them to wire hangers and hang them on a coat tack or chart holder. This keeps the stories sorted and gives you a chance to observe individual progress. Keep this in you reading center, and encourage children to choose a friend's story as his reading material.

5. When children discover they can read what they have written, and what other students have written, they will begin to read the other reading material you have in your classroom. Schedule time to give children individual help in choosing books and to hear them read.

6. As soon as some children can read library books, let them share their book with the class. However, never ask a child to read aloud if he does not read well. We want to "turn kids on" to reading by making them feel success, not failure, and by making them feel good about what they can do.



ACTIVITIES FOR THE USE OF WORD WALLS IN THE LEIR CLASSROOM

DEVELOPING ORAL LANGUAGE:

It is not the intention in making a word wall that every child be able to read each word. Nor is it purposeful to devote out energies to teaching reading with only those words. Rather, a word wall serves as visual evidence of the child's language that the teacher can use as an indication of where the child is now in language development, and where and how she can extend this language. A word wall also acts to influence children and expose them to language as it is read to them, and is used as a reference for their written work. After an activity to promote thought and oral language, the teacher would list words, offered by the children. These word walls may be lists of the three types of words discussed throughout LEIR: Description words (size, color, texture, sound, shape), Name words, (may be more specific, i.e. name of homes, names of animals, etc.), or Movement words. It is important that word walls be written in a place that will remain in view of the children and not be erased so that they may be added to and used in the various areas of language growth.

TEACHING SKILLS:

Any skill a teacher has as her objective may be taught with a word wall: if it is a skill important enough to teach, it must be a part of language frequently used, and will therefore be evident in a child's dictated material. This is the importance of taking dictation! For instance, a teacher working on the blends, may turn to her color wall to circle words like brown, black, blue, gray... to her movement wall for grow, swing, clap, etc. She may then want to carry out activities with the group like sorting the collected words into the "r" blends, "l" blends, "w" blends, and eventually put these words up on a "blend wall". Once the blend concept has been initiated, the teacher should be alert to pointing out how frequently blends are used in dictated and printed materials. A "blends" hunt to see who can find and read the most blend words from magazines would be one way for children to see how integral a part of their language this skill has become.

REFERENCE FOR WRITING:

A child will rarely write what he hasn't said, and with his oral language visually accessible to him, his written work will be

extended. Expressing himself will be easier. He will not have to worry about spelling, and will write more descriptive and more complete sentences. By referring to a word wall, a teacher can begin to show a child ways he may extend his language. If the child used the simple noun-verb sentence form, i.e.,"The cat can go.", his teacher might ask him, "What color was this cat?", "How big was your cat?", of "How did the cat look?'. This child begins to see new ways of saying things....The big yellow cat can run quickly." Cinquans are another way that word walls can be used to develop a child's language. In writing his five line poem, a child is asked to provide:

1 name word
2 description words
3 movement words (or phrase)
4 more description words (or phrase)
1 word that is another name for the first

CLASSIFYING WORDS:

Word walls should be read to the children frequently, and they may also read them. Once he is familiar with the words, a child might like to try classifying groups of words. Through this, categories, i.e., name of vehicles, names of animals, etc., are developed. Also, children may classify words into meanings. Having the children find all the words that mean about the same as little, or the same of said gives him many new ways to say things he wants to express. These types of exercises may be done in large or small groups, and individually with the use of flashcards.

COMPARISON AND CONTRAST:

Giving chilren the opportunity to "explore" words enables them to find a more concrete and useful meaning of that word. They are no longer "empty words", but rather, things that have been internalized and are now part of the child's experience. One activity that allows comparison and contrast of words is first discussing meaning of the words, and then focusing on one, i.e., "skinny", to initiate a writing activity..."as skinny as a _____." Once he has conceptualized words in this manner, a child will begin to use them more frequently in his own language.

OTHER USES OF WORD WALLS:

* arrange words in alphabetical order

* compose a story

* find initial consonants, blends, etc.

* select a favorite word and tell a story

* decorate a favorite word
* illustrate words
* copy the words on cards for games
* categorize all s, ed, ing, ly words
* look for words that tell something is happening now, or has happened
* look for words that mean more than one
* look for words that begin alike
* make a list of rhyming words
* make list of opposites
* list all the compound words
* list words with the same vowel sound
* look for prefixes and suffixes
* count the syllables in words
* find pictures from magazines to illustrate the words
* make word books.

The scope of activities that can be done, and the learning that can take place through the use of your word walls is limitless. You will probably use these activities, and countless more that are special to your group. The important thing is that they are USED, everyday, and in many ways. These word walls, in addition to the children's dictated and written material are your primary tools for reading, and it is through these that children will form a first-hand acquaintance with the language we are asking them to speak, read, and write.

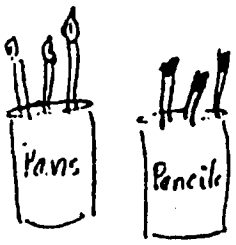
-film loops
-related dittoed material
-puppets
-role-playing costumes

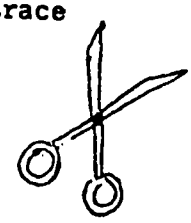
WRITING CENTERS

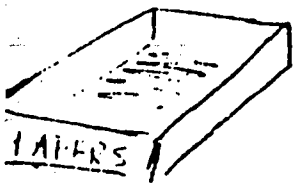
-varied writing tools:
  - crayons
  - pencils
  - magic markers
  - pens
  - chalk

-scissors
-ruler
-stapler
-glue

-different kinds and shapes of paper
-labeled cans for equipment
-boxes for paper
-Dictionary
-Thesaurus
-typewriter
-story starters..cartoon.photos, etc.
-picture files
-blank books
-word banks or word books
-word walls
-Dolch list
-letter formation guides
-dittoed materials
-letter stamps or letters to trace
-wall charts:
  - Ways to start of story...
  - Ways to say "said"...
  - Editor's checklist...
  - Catchy phrases...
  - poem to copy...

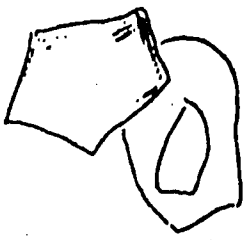






ART CENTER

-brushes
-paints
-crayons
-rulers
-all kinds, shapes, and forms of paper
-magic markers
-glue, paste, rubber cement
-magazines
-junk box
-clean-up equipment
-newspapers



FOCUS ON LEARNING CENTERS...

READING CENTERS

-children's written material
-four kinds of books:
  kid's books
  books for information
  books about language
  books for recreational reading
-a taped story with accompaning book
-filmstrips
-pillows
-rug or mat
-lamps
-plants
-"interest display"...coins, shells, etc.
-a place to display some books so that covers show
-"homey things"
-table
-magazines
-comic books
-children's art
-classic reproductions
-flashcards
-ways to make it a "special" place:
  large box to crawl into
  decorated sheet hung from ceiling
  screen
  book shelf divider
  orange crates painted for shelves

LISTENING AND VIEWING

-16 mm. projector
-8 mm. projector
-overhead projector
-filmstrip projector
-Language Master
-radio
-television
-opaque projector
-listening post
-chorales
-tape recorder
-record player
-musical instruments
-microscopes
-"busy" picture
-films and filmstrips
-records
-viewing box
-screen
-taped material