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ABSTRACT

This resource book is a collection of articles, annotated references, and resource lists to supplement the accompanying handbook and trainer's guide for educators planning or working with English language programs for limited English proficient (LEP) students. The first part presents resources of interest to administrators adapting programs for a new school population, and contains sections on teacher selection and training, instructional programs for LEP students, policies and federal or state guidelines, and evaluation of programs for LEP students. The second part addresses the interests of the classroom teacher, including culture and the teacher, LEP student assessment, developing goals and objectives for LEP students, research on second language learning, teaching strategies for this population, establishing a resource center, and available instructional materials, with publisher and distributor addresses provided. (MSE)

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A Resource Book For Building English Proficiency

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Preface

The Bilingual Education Instruc[illegible] Training Materials Project was fun[illegible] 1982, by the Office of Bilingual [illegible] and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA) in [illegible] U.S. Department of Education. Over a period of two-and-one-half-years, the project demonstrated how a school district can respond effectively to the challenge of a new student population—specifically, students with limited English proficiency.

The project represented a collaborative effort between Creative Associates, Inc., a minority-owned firm specializing in the development of human resources, and Arlington Public Schools in Virginia, a small suburban school district facing a large increase in its limited English proficient (LEP) student population. A Technical Team that included teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) and curriculum specialists in the Arlington Schools, Creative Associates' staff, and representatives from the Alexandria Schools, George Mason University, and the Georgetown Bilingual Education Service Center, worked together to

- describe, pilot test, and validate a process approach to the development of curriculum and instructional materials;
- produce training materials that will be used by trainers in helping teachers use the process approach to develop curriculum and instructional materials; and
- prepare a set of instructional materials suitable for use with LEP students.

The project began with a state-of-the art review of the literature. Drawn from that research were these conclusions:

- Classroom teachers and all personnel involved in the education of LEP students need materials that are suitable and adaptable to teaching limited English speaking students.
- Because the language minority population changes often, educators must constantly adapt both locally developed and commercial materials.
- Teacher involvement, administrative support, and teacher training are major factors contributing to the success of local instructional materials design.
- Locally developed curriculum and instructional materials rarely are shared widely with other potential users.

National needs, the priorities of the OBEMLA, and the findings of the literature study provided an impetus for the development of several products designed to assist other school districts, particularly rural and small suburban districts, that are experiencing a sudden influx of LEP students. Each product reflects the research findings and the experience-based beliefs of Arlington Public Schools personnel that instructional innovations cannot be accomplished in a vacuum. Educational change, to be successful, must be placed in the total context of program planning and implementation to assure the creation of a permanent system

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to respond to the needs of new student populations or new educational priorities and concerns.

The products which resulted from this project are described below.

A Literature Review

This document presents a review of the available curriculum materials in the Washington, DC, metropolitan area and a search of available curriculum and teacher training materials at the Bilingual Education Service Center at Georgetown University and the Bilingual Center at the University of Maryland. It includes documented information and an assessment of the needs and practices of instructional design at the local level. The document provides verification of the process approach implemented in the Arlington Public Schools.

A Process for Meeting the Instructional Needs of Special Student Populations

Addressed to educators in school districts faced with the need to respond to student populations not previously served, this document provides a description of how Arlington Public Schools responded to the need for change. It outlines the five stages in the change process and illustrates these descriptions with events as they took place in Arlington.

Training Materials

A Classroom Teacher's Handbook for Building English Proficiency

This practical handbook is addressed to teachers who work in small school districts and who must accommodate students with limited English proficiency in their regular classroom programs. Its purpose is to help teachers in acquiring the skills they need to develop effective strategies and to adapt the curriculum and instructional materials to meet the needs of this special student population.

A Trainer's Guide to Building English Proficiency

Part One of this book, addressed to school administrators, examines the decisions and tasks required at each stage in the process of change. Part Two, addressed to those who support teachers, provides strategies to assist teachers in adapting instruction and materials for LEP students. Part Two must be used in conjunction with the **Handbook**.

A Resource Book for Building English Proficiency

Designed as a supplement to the **Handbook** and **Trainer's Guide**, this book includes articles, annotated references, and resources for those who wish to explore topics more extensively. It offers both theoretical discussions and practical advice on who to call and where to look for assistance. It provides the research and a theoretical basis for information in the **Handbook** and the **Trainer's Guide**.

Instructional Materials

Beginning Social Studies for Secondary Students: Building English Proficiency

This set of instructional materials, designed for students with very limited English proficiency, includes a **Reader**, a **Student Workbook**, and a **Teacher's Manual**. The **Reader** is a collection of illustrated reading selections that reinforce reading skills through social studies content. The **Student Workbook** includes pre- and post-reading activities to help reinforce reading and study skills using concepts introduced in the **Reader**. The **Teacher's Manual** includes general teaching strategies that take the teacher step-by-step through the presentation of lessons. Instructions include objectives for each lesson, appropriate teaching strategies, and answers to the exercises. The **Teacher's Manual** also contains pre- and post-tests for each unit with answer keys and scoring instructions.

A Resource Book for Building English Proficiency

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Introduction

The **Resource Book** is a collection of articles, annotated references, and resource lists to supplement the information in the **Handbook** and the **Trainer's Guide**. The book can also be used independently as a guide to resources for educators who work with or plan programs for limited English proficient students.

The **Resource Book** has two parts. Part One, Decision Making for Building English Proficiency, presents resources of particular interest to administrators who seek more comprehensive information as they consider the decisions at each stage in the process of adapting programs for a new school population. Part Two, Classroom Practices for Building English Proficiency, addresses the interests of the classroom teacher. It covers topics, such as how to assess and teach LEP students, how to set up a resource center, and where to find materials for LEP students.

A brief statement introduces each topic area in the **Resource Book**. Throughout the book, feature articles about the various topics have been reproduced. Recognizing that you have limited time to obtain and review resources, we have included articles that are practical, informative, and relevant. In each section, bibliographic entries provide a review of the material on the topic and information about where you can obtain the different resources. The book concludes with a list of publishers and distributors that handle materials you may want in order to establish your own Resource Center and to obtain more classroom materials for LEP students.

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PART ONE

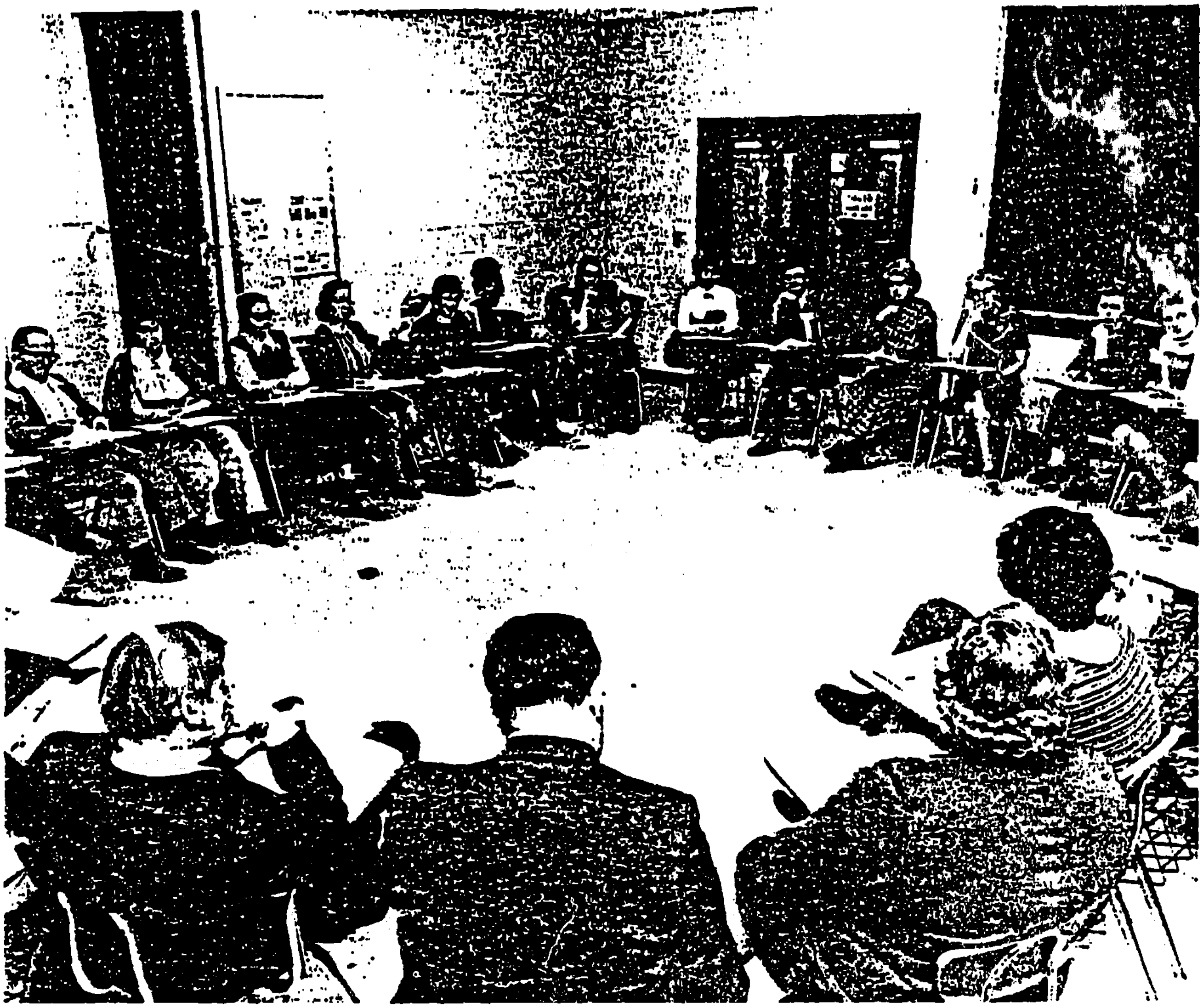
DECISION MAKING

FOR
BUILDING
ENGLISH
PROFICIENCY

Selecting and Training Teachers

The feature article in this section summarizes the lessons learned from a review of research on teacher training practices. Not surprisingly, the article concludes that effective teacher training includes theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and classroom application.

Following the article are annotated entries that include guidelines for certification and preparation of ESL and bilingual-bicultural teachers, and teacher training materials and approaches.



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Improving Inservice Training: The Messages of Research

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers

To be most effective, training should include theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and classroom application.

We have just completed a two-year effort to examine research on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies.

The first message from that research is very positive: teachers are wonderful learners. Nearly all teachers can acquire new skills that "fine tune" their competence. They can also learn a considerable repertoire of teaching strategies that are new to them.

The second message is more sobering, but still optimistic: in order to improve their skills and learn new approaches to teaching, teachers need certain conditions—conditions that are not common in most inservice settings even when teachers participate in the governance of those settings.

The third message is also encouraging: the research base reveals what conditions help teachers to learn. This information can be used to design staff development activities for classroom personnel.

Two Purposes of Training

Improving our teaching can be focused on "tuning" our present skills or on learning new (to us) ways of teaching. When tuning our skills, we try to become more affirmative, involve students more, manage logistics more efficiently, ask more penetrating questions, induce students to be more productive, increase the clarity and vividness of our lectures and illustrations, and understand better the subject matter we teach. In short, we work on our craft. Training oriented toward fine tuning consolidates our competence and is likely to increase our effectiveness.

Mastering new teaching strategies or models and/or learning to put alternative curriculums in place is quite a different goal. To master a new approach we need to explore and understand its rationale, develop the ability to carry out the new strategies, and master fresh content.

Generally speaking, "fine tuning" our existing approaches is easier than mastering and implementing new ones, because the magnitude of change is smaller and less complex. When we change our repertoire, we have to learn to think differently, to behave differently, and to help children adapt to and become comfortable with the new approaches, so mastery of new techniques requires more intensive training than does the fine tuning.

We organized our analysis to find out how various components of training contribute to learning. To do this we developed a typology of "levels of impact" of training and another for categorizing training components. Then we asked the question, "In the body of research on training, how much does each kind of training component appear to contribute to each level of impact?"

Levels of Impact

Whether we teach ourselves or whether we learn from a training agent, the outcomes of training can be classified into several levels of impact: awareness; the acquisition of concepts or organized knowledge; the learning of principles and skills; and the ability to apply those principles and skills in problem-solving activities.

- *Awareness*—At the awareness level we realize the importance of an area and begin to focus on it. With inductive teaching, for example, the road to competence begins with awareness of the nature of inductive teaching, its probable uses, and how it fits into the curriculum.
- *Concepts and Organized Knowledge*—Concepts provide intellectual control over relevant content. Essential to inductive teaching are knowledge of inductive processes, how learners at various levels of cognitive development respond to inductive teaching, and knowledge about concept formation.
- *Principles and Skills*—Principles and skills are tools for action. At this level we learn the skills of inductive teaching: how to help students collect data, organize it, and build concepts and test them. We also acquire the skills for adapting to students who display varying levels of ability to think inductively and for teaching them the skills they lack. At this level there is potential for action—we are *aware* of the area, can *think effectively* about it, and possess the *skills* to act.
- *Application and Problem Solving*—Finally, we transfer the concepts, principles, and skills to the classroom. We begin to use the teaching strategy we have learned, integrate it into our style, and combine the strategy with the others in our repertoire.

Only after this fourth level has been reached can we expect impact on the education of children. Awareness alone is an insufficient condition. Organized knowledge that is not backed up by the acquisition of principles and skills and the ability to use them is likely to have little effect.

Components of Training

Most of the training literature consists of investigations in which training elements are combined in various ways, whether they are directed toward the fine-tuning of styles or the mastery of new approaches. From our analysis, we were able to identify a number of training components that have been studied intensively. Alone and in combination, each of these training components contributes to the impact of a training sequence or activity. (As we shall see, when used together, each has much greater power than when they are used alone.) The major components of training in the studies we reviewed are:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy;
2. Modeling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching;
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings;
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance);
5. Coaching for application (hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom).

The Nature of the Literature

We analyzed more than 200 studies in which researchers investigated the effectiveness of various kinds of training methods. Determining levels of impact from single and combined treatments was difficult for several reasons. Most training studies were not designed to measure levels of impact on the incremental value of each training component. Rather, research questions were generally focused on differences between treatment and comparison groups.

Conclusions nearly always addressed the issue of whether skills were acquired and demonstrated. The question of transfer at the classroom level was addressed in relatively few studies. Nevertheless, we have developed working hypotheses regarding expected levels of impact from the various training strategies. The hypotheses are extrapolations derived from investigations that examined training elements for their impact on teacher behavior. Although the conclusions here are working hypotheses, we believe they adequately represent the present state of the literature and that training programs can use them reliably.

No single study used all training components and measured effects at all levels of impact. However, the training literature taken as a whole provides information on many of the possible combinations. For example, simulated practice has been studied for its impact on skills development (Cruickshank, 1968; Vlcek, 1966). Structured feedback has been compared to open-ended feedback and self-observation (Tuckman, 1969; Saloman and McDonald, 1970).

Studies combining modeling, practice, and feedback (Orme, 1966); presentation, practice, and feedback (Edwards, 1975; Hough, Lohman, and Ober, 1969); presentation, modeling, practice, and feedback (Borg, 1975; Borg, Langer, and Kelly, 1971); and presentation, modeling, and feedback (Friebel and Kallenbach, 1969) have been heavily investigated with respect to skill acquisition and transfer.

Although few studies focused on "coaching to application" as conceived here, several treatments included lengthy follow-up feedback after initial training (and these methods seemed to result in greater transfer at the classroom level). Feldon and Duncan (1978) demonstrated the power of observation, feedback, and goal-setting to boost the effects of training, and Borg, Langer, and Kelley (1971) found permanence of fine-tuning skills in a delayed posttest after an initial training that included presentation, modeling, practice, and feedback.

Is there a clear demarcation between fine tuning and new repertoire? Sometimes it was unclear if the focus of the study was fine tuning of existing skills or redirection of teaching style. Frequently, pretraining observations of teaching were omitted from the training study, so the level of entry skills was unknown. However, we have applied several general rules of thumb to distinguish the purposes of training. First, if preservice teachers were the subjects of training, we were more likely to label the training objective "new repertoire" than if inservice teachers were the subjects. Secondly, training aimed at questioning skills, discussion skills, question wait time, attending to overlooked students, and positive reinforcement of desirable student behavior were generally classified "fine tuning." It seemed reasonable to assume that these behaviors reside in everyone's repertoire, including teachers and teacher trainees. Third, if training involved installation of a new curriculum, instruction in inquiry strategies, or unusual models of teaching that departed radically from the usual recitation classroom process, the purpose of training was assumed to be redirection of teaching style.

Was there an awareness of the need for addressing the transfer question in the training research? Apparently, many researchers are aware of the need to assess transfer of learned skills at the classroom level. Recent carefully designed studies examining relationships between student learning and teacher training have carefully monitored teacher behavior in the classroom to assure the implementation of new strategies thought to influence student learning. Furthermore, many studies conclude with the observation that application of skills in the classroom should be the subject of future research.

What is the power of individual components? Some components were studied intensively; others were not. We discovered no studies in which presentation alone was the training strategy, but it often appeared as a "control," when it was invariably surpassed by treatments including modeling, practice, or feedback components. Likewise, no studies were reviewed in which practice alone constituted the treatment.

The evidence for modeling and feedback is the clearest. Koran, Snow, and McDonald (1971) demonstrated the efficacy of modeling for redirecting teacher behavior, and Good and Brophy (1974) illustrated the effectiveness of feedback in a powerful one-shot interview based on four months of classroom observation.

How conflicting were the findings? The results of training studies are remarkably consistent. Teachers learn the knowledge and concepts they are taught and can generally demonstrate new skills and strategies if provided opportunities for any combination of modeling, practice, or feedback.

Was the level of impact always discernible? The absence of fine-grained analyses that examine all levels of impact for individuals in a training program leaves many questions unanswered, for example, the percentage of trainees that achieved each level of impact following training. For the purposes of this review, we assumed that skills had been acquired if teachers were observed to exhibit the trained skills or strategies in peer teaching, microteaching, or classroom settings. If observations occurred several months after completion of training and the trained skills or

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strategies were in evidence, we assumed transfer had been accomplished. Now, what did we find?

Effectiveness of Components

1. *Presentation of Theory*—The substance of theory components is the rationale, theoretical base, and verbal description of an approach to teaching or a skill or instructional technique. Readings, lectures, films, and discussions are used to describe the approach, its conceptual base and potential uses. In many higher education courses and inservice institutes and workshops, it is not uncommon for presentation of theory to be the major and in some cases the sole component of the training experience. In research it is frequently combined with one or more of the other components.

Level of impact: Either for tuning of style or mastery of new approaches, presentation of theory can raise awareness and increase conceptual control of an area to some extent. However, it is for relatively few teachers that it results in skill acquisition or the transfer of skills into the classroom situation (although there are some people who build and transfer skills from theory presentations alone). On the other hand, when the presentation of theory is used in combination with the other training components, it appears to boost conceptual control, skill development, and transfer. It is not powerful enough alone to achieve much impact beyond the awareness level, but when combined with the others, it is an important component.

2. *Modeling or Demonstration*—Modeling involves enactment of the teaching skill or strategy either through a live demonstration with children or adults, or through television, film, or other media. In a given training activity, a strategy or skill can be modeled any number of times. Much of the literature is flawed because only one or two demonstrations have been made of some quite complex models of teaching, thus comprising relatively weak treatments.

Level of impact: Modeling appears to have a considerable effect on awareness and some on knowledge. Demonstration also increases the mastery of theory. We understand better what is illustrated to us. A good many teachers can imitate demonstrated skills fairly readily and a number will transfer them to classroom practice. However, for most teachers modeling alone is unlikely to result in the acquisition and transfer of skills unless it is accompanied by other components. Fairly good levels of impact can be achieved through the use of modeling alone where the tuning of style is involved, but for the mastery of new approaches it, by itself, does not have great power for many teachers. All in all, research appears to indicate that modeling is very likely to be an important component of any training program aimed at acquisition of complex skills and their transfer to the classroom situation.

3. *Practice Under Simulated Conditions*—Practice involves trying out a new skill or strategy. Simulated conditions are usually achieved by carrying out the practice either with peers or with small groups of children under circumstances which do not require management of an entire class or larger group of children at the same time.

Level of impact: It is difficult to imagine practice without prior awareness and knowledge; that is, we have to know what it is we are to practice. However, when awareness and knowledge have been achieved, practice is a very efficient way of acquiring skills and strategies whether related to the tuning of style or the mastery of new approaches. Once a relatively high level of skill has been achieved, a sizeable percentage of teachers will begin to transfer the skill into their instructional situations, but this will not be true of all persons by any means, and it is probable that the more complex and unfamiliar the skill or strategy, the lower will be the level of transfer. All in all, research supports common sense with respect to practice under simulated conditions. That is, it is an extremely effective way to develop competence in a wide variety of classroom techniques.

4a. *Structured Feedback*—Structured feedback involves learning a system for observing teaching behavior and providing an opportunity to reflect on teaching by using the system. Feedback can be self-administered, provided by observers, or given by peers and coaches. It can be regular or occasional. It can be combined with other components, which are organized toward the acquisition of specific skills and strategies. That is, it can be directly combined with practice and a practice-feedback—practice-feedback sequence can be developed. Taken alone, feedback can

SCHOOLS within SCHOOLS

AN ANSWER TO
THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DILEMMA

BY DR. CLEMENT A. SELDIN

Introduction by Dr. Mario D. Fantini,
Dean of Education, University of Massachusetts

Do you know the 10 essentials for the success of a public school with coexisting programs? Dr. Clement A. Seldin, an educator who has taught extensively in a pioneering School Within a School, analyzes the 10 essentials. If one is missing, the entire program may be jeopardized. Carefully researched, clearly written, here is a provocative approach to the compatible matching of teaching and learning styles. "Seldin significantly expands our knowledge and understanding," says Dr. Fantini. Review of the literature, extensive bibliography, solid recommendations. Paper, $4.60 (includes postage and handling). Order today from BLYTHE-PENNINGTON, LTD., Croton-on-Hudson, New York 10520.

result in considerable awareness of one's teaching behavior and knowledge about alternatives. With respect to the fine tuning of styles, it has reasonable power for acquisition of skills and their transfer to the classroom situation. For example, if feedback is given about patterns of rewarding and punishing, many teachers will begin to modify the ways they reward and punish children. Similarly, if feedback is provided about the kinds of questions asked in the classroom, many teachers will become more aware of their use of questions and set goals for changes. In general these changes persist as long as feedback continues to be provided and then styles gradually slide back toward their original point. In other words, feedback alone does not appear to provide permanent changes, but regular and consistent feedback is probably necessary if people are to make changes in very many areas of behavior and maintain those changes.

4b. *Open-Ended Feedback*—Unstructured feedback—that is, feedback consisting of an informal discussion following observation—has uneven impact. Some persons appear to profit considerably from it while many do not. It is most likely that unstructured feedback best accomplishes an awareness of teaching style and as such can be very useful in providing "readiness" for more extensive and directed training activities. For example, teachers might begin to observe one another informally and engage in general discussions about teaching behavior and then proceed toward focused attempts at change. Modeling followed by practice and feedback can be very powerful in achieving skill development and transfer.

5. *Coaching for Application*—When the other training components are used in combination, the levels of impact are considerable for most teachers up through the skill level, whether the object is the tuning of style or the mastery of new approaches to teaching. For example, demonstration of unfamiliar models of teaching or curriculum approaches combined with discussions of theory and followed by practice with structured feedback reach the skill acquisition level of impact with nearly all (probably nine out of ten) teachers at the inservice or preservice levels. If consistent feedback is provided with classroom practice, a good many, but not all, will transfer their skills into the teaching situation. For many others, however, direct coaching on how to apply the new skills and models appears to be necessary. Coaching can be provided by peers (other teachers), supervisors, professors, curriculum consultants, or others thoroughly familiar with the approaches. Coaching for application involves helping teachers analyze the content to be taught and the approach to be taken, and making very specific plans to help the student adapt to the new teaching approach.

Combinations of Components

For maximum effectiveness of most inservice activities, it appears wisest to include several and perhaps all of the training components we have listed (see, for example; Orme, 1966.) Where the fine tuning of style is the focus, modeling, practice under simulated conditions, and practice in the classroom, combined with feedback, will probably result in considerable changes. Where the mastery of a new approach is the desired outcome, presentations and discussions of theory and coaching to application are probably necessary as well. If the theory of a new approach is well presented, the approach is demonstrated, practice is provided under simulated conditions with careful and consistent feedback, and that practice is followed by application in the classroom with coaching and further feedback, it is likely that the vast majority of teachers will be able to expand their repertoire to the point where they can utilize a wide variety of approaches to teaching and curriculum. If any of these components are left out, the impact of training will be weakened in the sense that fewer numbers of people will progress to the transfer level (which is the only level that has significant meaning for school improvement). The most effective training activities, then, will be those that combine theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching to application. The knowledge base seems firm enough that we can predict that if those components are in fact combined in inservice programs, we can expect the outcomes to be considerable at all levels.

Future research on training should systematically address the many cells of the training components/levels of impact matrix that currently lack adequate data. An emphasis on the effects of "coaching to application" on "problem solving"—with coaching administered by other teachers, principals, supervisors, and so on—should provide useful information not only on "coaching" as a training strategy but on the relative effectiveness of various training agents as well. If, in fact, coaching by peers proves to boost the magnitude of classroom implementation, an extremely practical and powerful training method can be added to the already tested strategies of theory presentation, modeling, practice, and feedback.

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Bibliographic Entries: Selecting and Training Teachers

Bean, R.M. and R.M. Wilson. *Effecting Change in School Reading Programs: The Resource Role.* 1981. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, DE 19711.

Although the book is targeted to the Reading Resource Specialists, its contents can be used by anyone in the resource role, regardless of the field of specialization or responsibility. The book is especially useful for anyone starting work as a resource specialist in a school district.

This publication describes the competencies of an effective resource person; elaborates on the importance of communication and needed interpersonal skills; suggests leadership and decision-making strategies; and provides lists of internal and external resources that the specialist can consult. Appendices provide practical information on interviewing for the position of resource specialist, preparing for the first week on the job, and working in the classroom and with parents.

Center for the Development of Bilingual Curriculum—Dallas. *Bilingual Teacher Training Packets*. 1982. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, Dallas Independent School District, 3700 Ross Avenue, Box 103, Dallas, TX 75204.

Instructors and resource personnel at institutions of higher learning and education service centers, as well as staff development specialists in school districts will find these packets useful. There are five series, each containing three packets. Each packet has an instructor's guide and a student's text. Following are the titles and descriptions of each series.

Series A: Bilingual Program Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation. Packets include sample evaluation and testing instruments and guidelines for their use.

Series B: Language Proficiency Acquisition, Assessment, and Communicative Competence. Packets in this series contain current information on first and second language acquisition and communicative competence. This module also contains teaching modules and assessment techniques.

Bilingual or monolingual teachers of limited English proficient students will find this module very helpful in understanding the process of second language acquisition, learning, and teaching.

Series C: Teaching Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies in the Bilingual Classroom. This series includes techniques and materials for teaching in these subject areas in grades K-12. Although the materials are primarily for bilingual Spanish/English teachers and paraprofessionals, the techniques and methods described can be applied by all teachers of limited English proficient students.

Series D: Teaching Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing in the Bilingual Classroom. The packets in this module contain foundations of reading as well as suggestions for teaching the four skills in bilingual classrooms.

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Series E: Actualizing Parent Involvement. The three packets in this module address the role of parents as teachers of their children, as resources in the classroom, and as participants in decision-making in the schools.

Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States. 1975. Free single copies may be obtained from: TESOL, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20016.

This document includes a definition of the role as well as the personal and professional characteristics of the ESL teacher. It describes important aspects of programs designed to prepare competent ESL teachers.

Guidelines for the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of Bilingual-Bicultural Education. 1974. Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, NW, Second Floor, Washington, DC 20007.

This publication describes personal qualities and minimum professional competencies considered essential to successful bilingual-bicultural teaching. It presents guidelines for the design of teacher training programs for bilingual-bicultural teachers. Although the guidelines and competencies described apply specifically to bilingual-bicultural teachers, other teachers in bilingual-bicultural programs should have as many of the competencies described as possible.

Young, J. and J. Lum. "New Approaches to Bilingual-Bicultural Education." *Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook.* 1982, pp. 173-182. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This article describes field-sensitive and field-independent teaching styles in relation to teacher's personal behaviors, instructional behaviors, and curriculum-related behaviors. Flexibility in teaching style is stressed as the key to effective teaching. Flexibility can be developed through training activities that help teachers become aware of and learn how to use their own dominant teaching style. Teachers who can switch from a field-independent to a field-sensitive teaching style and vice versa will be helping children learn to function in these two cognitive modes.

Planning Instructional Programs for LEP Students

School districts in the United States have responded to their limited English proficient (LEP) student populations by establishing a variety of programs. The feature article in this section describes the most widely known programs for LEP students now in operation across the country and identifies the advantages and disadvantages of each program. Also included in this section are bibliographic entries of articles and books that treat this subject in depth.

SECTION II

APPROACHES TO EDUCATING LEP STUDENTS

School administrators and teaching personnel across the nation have attempted to serve the needs of LEP students in a variety of ways. Approaches include so-called submersion (immediate mainstreaming of LEP students), bilingual instruction, and special English language instruction. In this section, the merits of each of these approaches will be discussed in light of what has been said regarding the process of first and second language acquisition.

The Submersion Approach

In this approach, language minority students are placed in classrooms where English is the only language spoken and their language needs are largely ignored. Proponents of this tactic might have the attitude that it is not the school's job to adjust to the language minority student, but rather it is the student's responsibility to adjust to the school. Advocates of submersion often claim that allowing LEP students to use their native language in school simply delays, perhaps even obstructs, the process of learning English. As proof of this claim, some submersion proponents have pointed to Richard Rodríguez[5] who describes how he was able to acquire English and achieve academic success by giving up Spanish at home and being submersed in an all English instructional setting with Anglo peers. In fact, some non-English speaking parents consider it a matter of honor to have their children succeed in school without special assistance. There are many more arguments in favor of submersion, based on the belief that it is the best way for language minority students to learn English. There are just as many arguments to the contrary, that submersion does not meet the needs of the majority of LEP students. The advantages and disadvantages of the submersion approach are discussed in the following pages.

Advantages

1. Language minority students are given constant exposure to natural communication situations, both in the classroom and on the playground.
2. More attention is given to what is said than to how it is said.
3. Many students, especially those who are self-confident and outgoing, are motivated to communicate with English speaking peers who probably modify their speech when communicating with LEP students.
4. On the playground, most of the language heard relates to the here and now and is made more understandable through concrete cues.
5. The corrections that the students receive probably relate more to what is being said than to how it is said.

Disadvantages

1. Although the students are constantly exposed to natural communication situations, they probably do not understand what is being talked about most of the time. This is especially true in the classroom where the subject matter is often abstract.
2. Since LEP students receive little "comprehensible input" in the classroom, they find it difficult to develop a system for organizing the language input they receive. Many students who are successful in submersion settings receive extra tutoring and private lessons at the end of the school day.
3. Since LEP students cannot use their native language to make academic progress in content areas, they will experience difficulty completing classroom tasks as the language becomes progressively more complex and abstract. Therefore, when they go into the more advanced grades, LEP students tend to fall behind their English speaking peers academically.
4. Since the instruction in this setting is geared for students who already communicate in English, teachers probably make little or no attempt to adapt their language to that of the LEP students.
5. Although students may be motivated to communicate with their English speaking peers on the playground about here and now topics of interest, the lack of comprehensible language in the classroom tends to minimize their motivation to learn academic subjects.

6. Students who are placed in a situation where they rarely understand what is going on probably find it difficult to be relaxed and self-confident in the classroom.
7. There is the possibility that the LEP students' native language will be viewed as low status by the LEP students themselves, the English speaking majority students, and teachers.

Conclusion. Since the disadvantages outnumber the advantages, the immediate mainstreaming or submersion of LEP students does not seem to be an efficient or effective way to develop the English skills that LEP students need in order to be successful in all English classrooms. Granted, there are students who have been able to achieve both oral and literacy skills in English without special attention from school personnel. However, it is probable that they had additional support from other sources such as the family, community, or English speaking peers in the neighborhood.

On the other hand, LEP students who are not able to receive comprehensible input from other sources will probably lag behind their English speaking peers in developing academic linguistic skills. Marie D. Eldridge[4] reporting on a survey of academic achievement and dropout tendencies among language minority students brought attention to the following findings:

1. Persons with language minority backgrounds enrolled in grades 5-12, who usually speak their native language at home, were likely to be two or more grades below the grade levels expected for their ages.
2. Ten percent of native English speakers were high school dropouts as compared to 40 percent non-native English speaking students.

Although Mrs. Eldridge cautions that these findings do not necessarily mean that being a native speaker of a language other than English causes an educational disadvantage, the data make clear that the needs of LEP students submersed in regular all English classrooms are too frequently not being met.

Bilingual Education

Since the immediate mainstreaming of LEP students does not seem to be an adequate response to their special strengths and needs, what are some alternatives open to school districts? One of the approaches that a school district may adopt to insure that language minority students receive equal educational opportunity is to provide them with bilingual instruction. In Ohio, there are currently seven districts providing bilingual instruction to language minority students.

Bilingual education operates on two basic premises: 1) students are more likely to learn anything, including English, if they understand what they are being taught, and 2) students who are not proficient in English will not fall behind their English speaking peers if they are able to continue learning subject matter in their native language.

There are a variety of models of bilingual education. In some programs, the students may learn to read first in the native language and then in English. In other programs, LEP students only use their native language orally in the classroom. The focus of the program is on teaching them to read, write, and speak English. The important element of bilingual programs is that both the students' native language and English are used as mediums of instruction.

The amount of and balance between the two languages can be varied according to the commitment to maintaining the native language. According to Fishman and Lovas' bilingual programs could adopt any of the following approaches:

1. **Transitional**—the LEP students' native language is only used until they are ready to be mainstreamed into a regular classroom.
2. **Monoliterate Bilingualism**—oral skills in the native language are developed throughout the entire program, but reading and subject matter are taught only in English.

3. **Partial Bilingualism**—reading and subject matter are taught in both the native language and English, but English is emphasized in all subjects except culture.
4. **Full Bilingualism**—reading and all subject matter are taught in both the native language and English, and equal attention is given to both languages.

Each model of bilingual education has advantages and disadvantages in the promotion of LEP students' acquisition of English oral and academic skills. The following is a list of potential advantages and disadvantages of bilingual education in general:

Advantages

1. Subject matter knowledge acquired through the students' native language can be easily transferred to English.
2. Language skills needed for academic success (for example, the ability to argue, analyze, and contrast) which are developed in the native language can be easily transferred to English.
3. The appreciation and acceptance of the students' home culture and native language by school personnel can enhance the student's individual self-concept. A good self-concept is often a positive influence on the student's motivation to learn English.
4. Students will probably be more relaxed and self-confident learners when part of their instruction is in their native language. Therefore, they are likely to learn English more quickly than students who are under constant stress and confusion.
5. Students in a bilingual classroom probably have less pressure to produce English as quickly as students in all English classrooms. Thus, students in a bilingual classroom can take advantage of the silent phase that has proven useful in helping students cut down on errors.
6. Students in a bilingual program have a better chance to acquire English structures when they are mentally ready for them. There is less probability that they will be forced to cope with complicated English speech that they do not understand.

Disadvantages

1. Students have less exposure to natural communication in English.
2. Students spend less time interacting with their English speaking peers.
3. There is a possibility that teachers might have lower expectations of the students in bilingual programs.
4. Students may feel "stigmatized" because they are participants in a special program. This feeling might give them lower expectations of themselves when they are in the English classes.

Conclusion. Bilingual education programs may be most appropriate for school districts enrolling large numbers of LEP students from one or two specific language backgrounds. The program could employ both the native language and English as mediums of instruction without being detrimental to the students' academic progress. Many bilingual programs have succeeded in helping LEP students master English and achieve academic success in school. The potential advantages outweigh the apparent disadvantages.

The Immersion Approach

Another approach to helping LEP students acquire the English skills that they need in order to be successful in school is the immersion approach. This is an alternative that might be considered especially by those school districts where a large number of LEP students reside, but not enough of one specific language group to justify the establishment of bilingual classrooms.

In immersion programs[6] 1) the focus is on subject matter, 2) all of the students in the classroom are learners of the second language, 3) as much as 90% to 100% of the school day may be taught in the second language, 4) no formal attempt is made to teach the language as an end in itself, and 5) the medium of instruction is always the second language. However, in the early stages, students may respond in their native language, even though the teacher always answers in the second language. This assumes, of course, that the teacher is able to understand the students' responses in their native language.

A structured immersion program differs from submersion in the following ways: a) in immersion, the majority of students are not native speakers of the second language, b) in immersion, all subject matter is introduced in a way that can be understood by the LEP students, c) LEP students in immersion classes can address the teacher in their native language. On the other hand, immersion differs from a bilingual program in that the LEP student's native language is never spoken by the teacher.

Advantages

1. Students are offered real and extended communicative experiences in the second language through presentation of the subject matter.
2. Since all the students are learners of the second language, the teacher has the opportunity to adapt the new language to the level of the students' linguistic and cognitive capabilities. For example, the teacher can talk slower than normal, speak clearly and distinctly, and avoid using structures that are grammatically complex.
3. When teachers simplify their speech, new language learners have a tendency to feel relaxed and self-confident.
4. Teachers have the opportunity to provide comprehensive input using visual aids, concrete experiences, and manipulative materials.
5. The focus of instruction is on the content of the subject matter rather than on the grammatical form of the language.
6. Students have the opportunity to take advantage of the silent phase at the beginning of the language learning process if they are permitted to respond in their native language or non-verbally.
7. Teachers have the opportunity to concentrate on literacy skills as well as oral communication skills.
8. Students can progress naturally from cognitively simple language tasks within a concrete context to more difficult, abstract academic tasks.
9. Students hear the second language during the entire school day.

Disadvantages

1. Since there is a lack of native English speaking peers in the classroom, the second language input is restricted to the teacher's proficient speech and the less than proficient speech of other LEP students. Young language learners in this situation, therefore, do not have their preferred language models to provide the input that seems to be most beneficial in promoting oral communication skills.
2. It is difficult to find personnel competent in all the diverse languages than can be represented in this kind of classroom.
3. Complete lack of attention to the form of the language may tend to frustrate older language learners.
4. As in the case of bilingual programs, LEP students in an immersion program may feel "stigmatized" because they are separated from their English speaking peers and placed in "special" classrooms.

Conclusion. The immersion approach has the potential to be an effective means of promoting LEP students' English oral and literacy skills. But, as with any instructional program, certain factors need to be present to insure the effectiveness of the program. In immersion programs, the teacher needs to be competent in several language skills, and there should be opportunities for LEP students to interact with other native English speaking persons, especially their peers, outside the classroom.

In addition, an immersion program would probably be enhanced if the LEP students could spend at least part of the school day receiving instruction in their native language. This could be done through the services of a paraprofessional, parent aide or volunteer who would work with individual students or small groups of students at a time. By providing native language support instruction, the content that is learned during the English immersion class could be made more comprehensible. Also, LEP students would continue to progress cognitively while engaging in the relatively slow process of acquiring a new language. Finally, LEP students would see that their language and culture are valued in their school.

ESL Programs with Native Language Support Services

Pull out ESL Classes. School districts may provide ESL instruction to LEP students as a means of helping them acquire the English skills they need to be successful in school. In Ohio, ESL programs are used either as a complement to bilingual education or as the principal component of the special language instructional program. If it is the main component of the program, **it is advisable to provide native language support services to supplement the ESL instruction.** For example, native language aides could be hired to work with the regular classroom teacher during the school day, paraprofessionals could teach certain content areas, or volunteers could tutor individuals or small groups of LEP students during the school day.

The ESL classes may be focused on teaching formal English grammar or on promoting natural communication activities (free conversation, games, debates). Students may practice reading and writing, as well as speaking English.

The common element of these variations is that the language minority students are taken out of their regular classroom environment and placed in a setting where their English language needs can be addressed in a special way. Two variations of pull out ESL instruction are described on the following pages: magnet centers and class period.

Magnet Centers. In this approach, students are drawn from schools in more than one attendance area and placed in a central location for special English language instruction. Again, it is recommended that native language support services be a part of this kind of program.

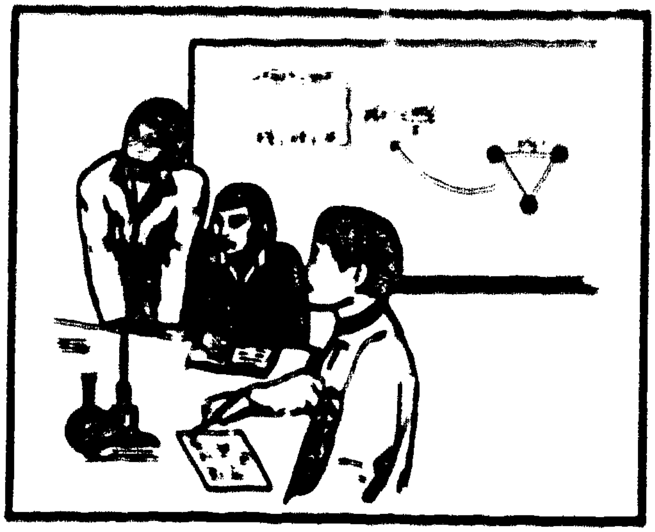
The obvious advantages of this method is that schools can pool resources and offer the LEP students a wider range of materials and activities to support the language acquisition process.

Class Period. This is basically an ESL class for high school LEP students. The students receive credit for this course which is scheduled during a regular class period. Students are grouped according to level of language proficiency. This approach has two special advantages:

1. Students are not likely to feel stigmatized by going to special English classes because they receive credit for the class.
2. Teachers can take advantage of the students' high level of cognitive development and focus on developing higher level oral, writing, and reading skills.

Advantages

1. ESL classes can provide LEP students with natural communication activities geared toward their language level.
2. ESL instructors can use a variety of visual aids and concrete materials to make the natural communication activities more comprehensible to the LEP students.
3. ESL instructors have the opportunity to sequence the language of instruction from the simple to the complex.



4. ESL instructors could allow the LEP students to spend most of the time just listening to the new language and responding only nonverbally in the early stages of the instructional program. This initial "silent phase" at the beginning of second language instruction relieves the stress of having to produce the new language immediately, and it helps the second language learner cut down on errors.
5. If the input provided in the ESL classroom is comprehensible to the students, it is likely that their attitude toward the learning situation will be more positive.
6. Part of the ESL class can be devoted to language lessons stressing the grammar and structures of the new language. This can help older learners modify some of the low level rules they know. In addition, this formal knowledge can satisfy the curiosity that older students have about the nature of the language and increase their feeling of control over the learning situation.
7. ESL instructors have the opportunity to provide an atmosphere in the classroom that helps the LEP students feel relaxed and self-confident.
8. ESL instructors have the opportunity to monitor the students' progress closely. Their observations can help the instructor decide when the students are ready to work with more complex language structures.
9. ESL instructors have the opportunity to help students develop literacy skills and advanced oral skills as well as interpersonal oral communication skills.

Disadvantages

1. If the ESL class is only for an hour or two daily, and students return to submersion type classes where English input is likely to be incomprehensible for the rest of the day, the effects of the ESL instruction can be expected to be minimal.
2. If the emphasis of the ESL classes is on grammar with few or no natural communication activities, the ESL instruction will probably have little impact on the students' acquisition of English.
3. There is the possibility that students might feel stigmatized by being pulled out of their regular classes for ESL instruction. This might result in a negative attitude toward the learning situation.
4. The lack of English speaking peers in the classroom limits the amount of relevant input that language minority students can receive from the ESL classes.
5. If audio and visual resources are not used in the ESL classroom, the students have access to only one source of language input—the instructor.
6. If the focus of the instruction is on teaching formal English grammar, the instructor may have a tendency to constantly correct students' errors thus causing more ill effects than benefits.
7. If the focus of the ESL classes is only on oral interpersonal communication skills, the ESL instruction will have a negligible effect on promoting the academic skills that the language minority students need in order to be successful in school.

Conclusion. ESL instruction can play a positive role in the development of LEP students' oral and academic English skills. Most of the potential disadvantages of this approach can be avoided through the concerted effort of program planners and teaching personnel.

However, it is recommended that ESL classes **not** be the only response to the needs of language minority students. As mentioned before, it is presumed that native language support services are an **integral** part of the program. In addition, regular classroom teachers should make efforts to promote the development of LEP students' English language skills when these students are in classes with native English speakers. Some suggestions that might help regular classroom teachers carry out this task are provided in the section on inclass instruction.

Other Approaches

Bilingual education, the immersion method, and ESL instruction can be valid responses to the language needs of LEP students when, for example, there is a large concentration of them in an urban school district. But what about a hypothetical Cambodian student who has arrived in the United States probably having been sponsored by an American family through its church? The child is then enrolled, very likely, in a small suburban school district that never had a LEP student before. Certainly, it would not be appropriate to hire a bilingual teacher or an ESL instructor for one or two LEP students. So, what can be done for this student?

This part of Section II will deal with suggestions for school districts that have only a few language minority students. This is the case of many districts in Ohio.

Inclass Instruction. In this approach, LEP students are together with native English speaking children in the same classroom. However, the teacher recognizes the special strengths and needs of the language minority students in the classroom and plans appropriate instructional strategies. Fox and Allen[9] suggest that the role of the classroom teacher in this situation is not to try to **teach** English to our hypothetical Cambodian, but rather to provide the kind of language and create the kind of environment that will permit him or her to **acquire** English.

Some of the instructional strategies that Fox and Allen suggest for the regular classroom teacher who wants to provide appropriate input and atmosphere for LEP students are the following:

1. Arrange for situations that permit the LEP students to talk with the teacher or other adult speakers in a one-to-one-situation.
2. Provide language that is comprehensible, yet not too simple in structure and vocabulary that there is no challenge for LEP students to learn something new.
3. Arrange for activities that call for cooperation and communication with English speaking peers.
4. Arrange the room so that many different kinds of materials are available with which

the students can work, manipulate, and create.
5. Provide experiences (field trips, for example) that can serve as a base for sharing language with peers and adults. LEP students can use their native language, their limited English, art, and other communicative mediums to prepare for the experience and to respond to it.
6. Provide many opportunities for shared book experiences.

These kinds of special instructional strategies for LEP students in a mainstreamed classroom can have the following advantages and disadvantages:

Advantages

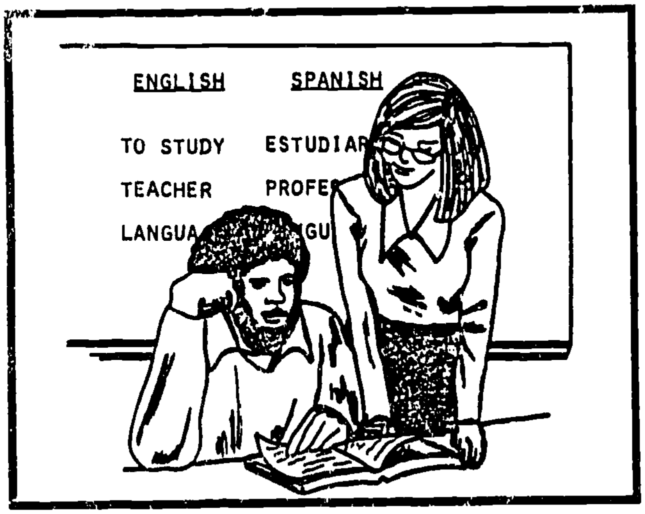
1. Students are exposed to natural communication in the language.
2. The teacher can make special efforts to include topics of interest to the LEP students through regular one to one conversations with the students.
3. Through the use of concrete materials, meaningful and interesting experiences, and tasks supported by context, the teacher can help make the content of the natural communication comprehensible to the LEP students.
4. Teachers sensitive to the LEP students' language needs can incorporate a silent phase at the beginning of the learning process so that the LEP student doesn't feel forced to attempt to produce English immediately.
5. If the teacher pays special attention to the LEP students' language needs, there is a greater chance that these students will have a positive attitude toward the learning process.
6. An environment that promotes comprehensible, functional, and interesting language input tends to help second language learners feel relaxed and self-confident.
7. Second language learners have the opportunity to interact with native English speaking peers in relevant language experiences.
8. Second language learners can spend their major effort on getting meaning across and save formal refinements of the language for later.

Disadvantages

1. By necessity, much of the teacher's time is spent talking at the level of the native English speaking students. Therefore, there may be periods of time when the LEP students do not receive comprehensible input.
2. If the teacher cannot communicate in the native language of the LEP students, it may be difficult to build upon the students' interests.
3. LEP students who are shy and not outgoing may not seek language input from native English speaking peers in classroom group activities.
4. The success of this approach depends entirely on the teacher. Teachers must be willing to take the time or interest to create an environment that helps the LEP students acquire English in the classroom. Otherwise, the LEP students merely become submersed in incomprehensible communication situations.
5. If there is no one in the classroom who can communicate in the native language of the LEP students, the LEP students will not be able to bring past experiences to bear on the learning process.

Individual Tutoring. Another response that might be considered when there are very few LEP students enrolled in a school district is individual tutoring. Tutors may range from volunteer members of the community to trained professional second language teachers. The Tutoring may focus on promoting natural communication or teaching the formal aspects of the language. The element that is common to all tutoring sessions is that LEP students are taken out of their classroom environment in order to practice English language skills on a one-to-one basis with an adult model.

Since a tutoring session is basically individualized ESL instruction, most of the advantages and disadvantages of tutoring parallel those of the ESL method. The individualized attention that the LEP student receives from the tutor can be an added advantage because the tutor can give full attention to the student's specific language strengths and weaknesses. On the other hand, the individualized attention can be a disadvantage—the tutor becomes the only source of comprehensible oral input for the student, since the less than proficient English of fellow learners is not available in these sessions.



Currently, there are school districts in Ohio that provide tutoring sessions for LEP students where there are not enough language minority students to warrant bilingual education, immersion classes, or ESL instruction with native language support services. This can be a practical response to the needs of LEP students. If, in addition to receiving help from tutors, the LEP student is in a classroom where the teacher creates an atmosphere promoting English acquisition, the LEP student will benefit even more from his or her schooling. Both the individualized tutoring and in class strategies can be enhanced by native language support services. For example, a volunteer parent or graduate student who speaks the native language of the LEP student could be present part of the school day in the classroom to help the teacher take advantage of the LEP student's past experiences.

Conclusion. This section has dealt with a variety of responses to the instructional strengths and needs of LEP students. Based on what we know about first and second language acquisition, the potential advantages and disadvantages of the different approaches have been explored. So how do school administrators and teachers go about planning and implementing an appropriate program that will insure that LEP students have an equal opportunity to be successful in school? What are the federal and state legal requirements? What are the rights and responsibilities of the school districts? What kinds of financial and technical help are available to districts that have LEP students? These are some of the questions that will be discussed in the next three sections.

Excerpted from Strategies for Developing Language Programs for National Origin Minority Students. Ohio Department of Education, Lau Center (1983). This publication was developed in part by a Transition Program for Refugee Children grant, U.S. Department of Education, P.L. 96-212.

Bibliographic Entries: Planning Instructional Programs for LEP Students

Coon, E. D. *Bilingual-Bicultural Education in Alaska: Guidelines for Conducting Programs in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. 1980. Alaska State Department of Education, Division of Educational Support, Bilingual-Bicultural Programs.

A handbook to assist administrators in planning and operating successful bilingual-bicultural programs in rural and urban districts, small and large districts.

The publication contains an historical overview of bilingual-bicultural education in Alaska, interpretation and explanation of statutes and regulations, criteria for the establishment of effective programs, and procedures for the planning and operation of bilingual-bicultural programs including student placement, language assessment procedures, and teacher training assessment and evaluation.

The appendix contains sample forms.

De Luca, S. and J. Swartzloff, eds. "Learning in Two Languages: Ten Local Bilingual Programs." *Focus*, 13 (1984). National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Arlington, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

This is the first of a series of issues that will summarize the reports on different types of programs for minority language students that have been prepared under the Title VII Bilingual Education Part C Research. The purpose of these reports is to familiarize the public with the variety of programs included under the term bilingual education.

The ten local projects described in this issue represent a broad range of services to a variety of language groups from kindergarten through adult education. Information on each project includes background, a description of the characteristics of the program, students served and the results of program implementation on student achievement.

Goodman, K., L.G. Goodman, and B. Flores. *Reading in the Bilingual Classroom: Literacy and Biliteracy. 1979*. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

This monograph examines reading in the contemporary bilingual classroom in the United States. The chapter, "Alternative Programs in Bilingual Education" describes the range of possible program responses to bilingual or multilingual situations and suggests the kind of literacy each program requires (pp 15-18).

Of special interest for classroom teachers working in multilingual settings is the chapter "Reading in Bilingual, Biliterate Curriculum." This section describes methods which facilitate a comprehension-centered reading program (pp 35-40).

Lum, J.B. "Will the Real Bilingual-Bicultural Please Stand Up? A Non-Taxing Taxonomy." *Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook.* 1982, pp. 81-84. Evaluation Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This article describes different instructional processes and strategies used in the education of limited English proficient students. Terms, such as "bilingual," "English as a second language," "bicultural," "multicultural," are defined in terms of what they include and what they exclude.

Ovando, C. and V.P. Collier. *Bilingual and ESL Classrooms. Teaching in Multicultural Contexts.* 1984 (in press). Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020.

Chapters II and IV in this book describe program models for LEP students.

Seelye, H.N. and B.N. Navarro. *A Guide to the Selection of Bilingual Education Program Designs.* Bilingual Bicultural Education Department, Illinois Office of Education, 188 West Randolph, Room 1400, Chicago, IL 60601.

This guide is designed to help school administrators decide on the type of program that best fits the student population and the school district's needs and circumstances. The description of each program includes student participants, staffing, student/staff ratio, program facilities/materials, instruction, training, advantages and disadvantages. Also included are sample schedules for each program design.

Strategies for Developing Language Programs for National Origin Minority Students. 1983. Ohio Department of Education, Division of Equal Educational Opportunities, Lau Center, 65 South Front Street, Columbus, OH 43215.

This handbook includes the following topics: basic principles of first and second language acquisition, the advantages and disadvantages of a variety of instructional approaches for the education of limited English proficient students, the steps involved in developing second language instructional programs, the evaluation and monitoring of programs, and available resources.

Policies and Federal or State Guidelines

The sources included in this section provide both the historical perspective on language policies in the United States and the policies and procedures that are currently enforced in the country.

A major source of information about current policies are the Desegregation Assistance Centers for National Origin (LAU Centers) funded by the U.S. Office of Education. There are nine LAU Centers that serve different sections of the country. The LAU Centers provide technical assistance to school districts in planning and implementing national origin desegregation programs and programs that provide equal educational opportunity to national origin minority students.

More specifically, the LAU Centers may provide assistance in the following areas:

- development of programs for national origin minority students;
- identification and assessment of national origin minority students;
- parent, student, and community involvement in the planning of desegregation programs;
- identification of instructional needs of national origin minority students;
- training of school personnel, students, and community members in areas related to national origin student desegregation; and
- development of policies and procedures to prevent discrimination on the basis of national origin.

In assisting school districts, the LAU Centers follow the guidelines that resulted from two major events: a memorandum issued by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in 1970, and the United States Supreme Court decision on the Lau v. Nichols case in 1974. The memorandum stated what follows:

> Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to open its instructional program to these students (35 Fed. Reg. 11595).

The Lau v. Nichols decision said the following:

> There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education (414 U.S. at 566 [1974]).

The regulations of the Office for Civil Rights issued under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 require school districts to take affirmative steps to enable national origin minority group children who are limited English proficient to participate fully in the educational programs.

For further information, consult the Bilingual Education Information Packet produced by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. This packet includes a list of the LAU Centers with their areas of service. Other sources of information are listed on the following page.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Bibliographic Entries: Policies and Federal or State Guidelines

Alatis, J.E., ed. *Current Issues in Bilingual Education*. 1980. Georgetown University Press, Washington, DC 20057.

This publication contains the papers presented at the Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics held at the University in 1980.

The section entitled, "Current State Level Assessment of Language Minority Children" (pp. 223-258) is of special interest to teachers and administrators wanting to know about current policies and procedures for the education of language minority students. Articles included in this section examine the policies of some of the states with the largest minority student populations: California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Texas.

Brisk, M.E. "Language Policies in American Education." *Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook. Volume II: Language Issues in Multicultural Settings*. 1979, pp. 3-11. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140. Code Number: 222-3.

This article gives an historical overview of the attitudes and policies toward language and the education of minority language groups in the United States.

National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education. *Guide to State Education Agencies*. 1982.

This is a compendium of information on policies related to the education of limited English proficient students from the state education agencies of the fifty states, and from the District of Columbia and the six territories.

Evaluating Programs for LEP Students

Evaluators of programs for limited English proficient students are faced with the complex task of asking the appropriate questions and selecting the instruments which will help answer those questions. The feature article provides the framework for demystifying the role of testing in bilingual education by offering a variety of techniques and strategies for selecting instruments to evaluate programs. Following the article are other entries that provide annotated lists of tests and alternative evaluation activities.

Selecting Tests for Bilingual Program Evaluation

George P. De George

Q "*Is this a good test?*"
A. '*Good? Good for what?*"

Q. "*By the way, do you have to speak Spanish to give the Bilingual Syntax Measure?*"
A. "*It might help.*"

Q. "*I need a reading test in Spanish, Vietnamese and Armenian, grades K-12, standardized, normed, self-administering and machine scorable—send me a copy of each.*"
A. "*Send you a copy of* what?"

These vignettes may be amusing, but they are alarmingly true. I have actually been asked such questions, or at least questions like them. They often are the prelude to some of the most enlightening and interesting consultations I have ever had. But they are also symptoms of one of the most pervasive myths I have ever encountered—the test myth.

The myth goes something like this: there is a test for every instructional decision to be made, or there should be; tests are the main determinants of instructional decisions and they should be; tests, expecially standardized norm-referenced tests, represent a sort of external, all-knowing authority against which to judge student and program performance; somehow, test makers "know" what students ought to know and at what level they should be. Most of all, if students or programs do not measure up, then something is definitely wrong with *them*.

This myth is, of course, an exaggeration and not everyone subscribes to it. In fact there has even been outright war on it such as the call of the National Education Association for a moratorium on standardized testing in 1973.[1]

But, the myth persists and does come out to haunt even the most successful educators and administrators. Therefore, it must be dealt with, cautiously.

Now, we know there is no neatly packaged test for every instructional decision we make, nor would we want there to be.

We know our judgements and observations play a large, if not dominant, role in instructional decision-making, and they ought to.

We know there is no absolute, external authority or standard for measuring our students or programs on a national basis. There cannot be because there is no national, unified American curriculum. Rather, we in our school districts set the objectives and curriculum for our students and programs and we select the tests that monitor academic achievement.

We also know that test makers are not appointed omniscient judges. Rather, they are professionals who act upon the needs they perceive and construct their tests for the purposes they outline in their test manuals and leave us to decide whether their tests fit our purposes.

So much for the myth! Now, we can proceed to the realities of testing in bilingual program evaluation. Among those realities, two are outstanding.

First is the fact that bilingual testing is a fragmented phenomenon in the United States. In surveying existing bilingual test lists or collections one will find that there is a notable shortage of achievement tests for the various subject areas in most bilingual program languages except English and Spanish. Yet, even with these languages, there are more tests for the elementary levels in the areas of oral language, reading and mathematics. Very often, however, such

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tests are restricted to one or two grade levels—batteries for grades K-12 are few.[2]

The second reality is that bilingual programs represent a tremendous diversity in terms of program model, objectives and students. Some programs tend toward a maintenance model while others are more in the immersion and transitional categories. There are programs which stress basic language and math skills while others focus upon self-concept and affective outcomes. While most basic programs parallel school district curricula, some tend to diverge more than others.

By far the greatest source of diversity is the students. Some programs contain only one ethnic population, others contain several. One urban program in Massachusetts, for example, has Spanish, Portuguese and Italian speaking students in addition to several groups of Southeast Asians. Besides differing ethnicity, students enter with diverse socioeconomic and educational backgrounds—some students at age thirteen or fourteen have never even attended school while others are extremely advanced. Some students were born in this country, whereas others were born and educated abroad.

Add to these the fact that students enter bilingual programs at various grade levels, at different times during the school year and that some are from highly transient populations. As expected, all this results in highly diversified student learning needs which translate into grouping and individualization within grades and classrooms. Different students or student groups may study different skills or subject areas or work on the same objectives for greater or lesser amounts of time.

The implications of such student diversity for testing in program evaluation are not difficult to imagine. One of the greatest is finding a match between existing tests on the one hand and differing program objectives, curriculum and students on the other.

In the last analysis, however, tests must be selected to play their role in the bilingual program evaluation process. Therefore, a method must be devised to cope effectively with fragmentation and diversity. It is the purpose of this article to present the reader with a set of practical guidelines for selecting tests and with suggestions for finding them. We shall begin by examining the basic criteria which comprise the test selection process.

First Criterion: Evaluation Questions

You have read it before and you are reading it again: in order to get any program evaluation off the ground, you must determine on a prior basis the questions that a given evaluation will be designed to answer. Do you want to know whether your program was effective and how well it achieved its goals? Do you want to find out whether program activities were effective in achieving goals or whether one teaching method was better than another?

If you or any of your audiences (e.g. school board) would like these or any other questions answered, then the evaluation must be designed to produce the answers. (DeMauro's article deals with the question of evaluation designs.) Part of the design task is to select tests that will yield the types of student achievement data that will help answer whatever evaluation questions you decide to address. An example will clarify.

Let us suppose that one of your major project objectives is to develop in your students oral and written communication skills in English and in their native language. Let us suppose further that you are going to use two different approaches with two groups of program students to achieve this objective. You would then want to know which of the two approaches is more effective.

After defining the types of communication skills you have in mind and after formulating the two approaches for teaching communication skills, you will then have to decide upon the types of information that will indicate skill mastery and what tests or instruments are feasible for obtaining that information. You will find that the nature of the communication skills will point to certain types of instruments: oral language inter-

views, performance tests and rating scales; written messages, compositions, multiple-choice and essay examinations; informal observations or observation checklists; norm-referenced or criterion-referenced tests.

After a thorough search, you may choose to use a combination of such tests and to administer them to the two student learning groups several times during the school year. Formal tests may be given in October and April, and observations may be taken four to five times. For whatever reasons, you may choose not to use norm-referenced tests.

Again, your major guide throughout this test selection process has been to produce information to answer the question of which of the two approaches used in teaching oral and written communication skills is most effective.

But, one or more of your audiences, such as the superintendent or the school board, may also be interested in questions about oral and written communication skills. They may have their own ideas about what these skills are, how long it should take to develop them and how they are to be measured. In particular, they may insist that standardized norm-referenced tests in English used. You may strongly disagree, feel they are missing the point, do not understand program objectives or the process required to achieve them. What do you do? Do you try to sell your point, work out a compromise or accede to your audience? You must decide.

The point here is that your original evaluation questions as well as your expertise in bilingual education are the guideposts that will help you maintain focus and deal with conflicting audience expectations. Above all, the evaluation questions will suggest, in a general way, the types of data you need to answer them as well as the types of instruments or tests that will supply the data.

Second Criterion: Instructional Objectives

By definition, tests in the cognitive domain require students to perform designated academic skills or tasks involving specific content or subject matter. What is it that determines or specifies, in a bilingual program, which subject areas are to be taught and, for each of these, which specific skills and content students are to master and to be tested upon? The answer, of course, is the program objectives which were developed in response to the student needs the program was designed to address. The function of the tests, therefore, is to indicate whether or the extent to which students have mastered the skills and content required by the program objectives.

Moreover, student diversity, as we pointed out earlier, may further complicate matters. Because of differences in educational background or in native language and English language proficiency levels, students at the same grade level may be assigned to different instructional objectives or some students may be expected to attain more or fewer objectives than others over specified time intervals. Tests, parts of tests or test items must be identified to match these different student curriculum levels and decisions must be made regarding expected levels of achievement for different students or groups of students.

In the end, a match must be made between program objectives and existing tests, if the tests do exist and if they can be located. The question is, how is the match to be made? The answer is again not so simple as it sounds. The match is made by analyzing objectives and tests and coming to judgements about the extent to which a given test measures given objectives or how well the skills and content are assessed. Typically, the matching task is performed by program teaching staff and specialists who are most familiar with the curriculum.

Third Criterion: Examinee Appropriateness

While a given test may be in line with your evaluation questions and objectives, it may still be inappropriate for your students. Examinee appropriateness is unquestionably the crucial criterion in bilingual test selection. A test is appropriate, in our view, when it fulfills the four conditions described below.

1. Whether oral or written, a test must be in a language or dialect in which the student is sufficiently proficient. Such proficiency exists when there is evidence that the student exhibits a basic grasp of a language's structure in communication situations and can deal in oral and written communication with the knowledge and concepts that will appear on the test. The vocabulary of academic subjects is clearly more abstract and complex than that of interpersonal communication.[3]

In addition, when tests are to be in writing, there must be evidence that students can extract meaning from a written text, which does not offer the same clues to meaning as the language of face-to-face interpersonal communication. In reading, the only clues to meaning are the linguistic clues contained within the written text itself. Cummins characterizes the language of written texts as decontextualized, that is, "taken out of the context of immediate interpersonal situation."[4] To have a fair chance of performing well on a written test, therefore, students must be able to handle the vocabulary, concepts and decontextualized linguistic information they will encounter.

2. The cultural context or referents encountered on a test must not be obstacles to student comprehension or performance. To determine this, the test assessor must know or find out something of the culture, tradition, behavior patterns and present situation of students for whom a test is being sought. Then the assessor can ask (and answer or have others who know answer) whether a test contains a situation or phenomenon that the students will not understand, will be offended by or have no experience with. Cultural appropriateness is also relative: what is suitable for one is not necessarily suitable for another; what is not suitable now may be acceptable in a year or two.

3. The testing style, particularly the test item type(s), must be a mode of expression with which the student is comfortable. In the United States, tests typically employ so-called objective items such as true-false, multiple choice, matching exercises and completion items (i.e., fill-ins). Essay questions are frequent but considered subjective, while performance tests are used in more restricted contexts such as oral language, psychomotor skills and the performing arts. How accustomed are your students in handling such item types? Using the "best" alternative (true-false, multiple-choice) may be confusing and stressful for students practiced in explaining and supporting a response. Oral and written essay questions are the more common item types used in Europe and Latin America.

Feed-back from bilingual educators indicates that objective items with all components in writing are particularly difficult for the unacclimated student. However, where objective items are administered orally or where alternative responses are pictures or objects rather than written words, the difficulty is reduced or eliminated.

DeAvila and Havassy have made a number of astute observations. They point out that, on many tests used in American schools, students are encouraged to "produce as many responses as they are able" and that "the child who produces the most responses receives a higher score than the one who stops responding after only a few attempts." The underlying assumption, DeAvila and Havassy point out, is that all students "have the same level of aspiration." The authors point out a similar problem with timed tests in which students are asked "to work quickly, quietly and efficiently."[5] The question is, would such testing styles hamper your students' performance?

4. A test should be as free as possible of elements not being tested. This is true for all, not just bilingual students. Tests of mathematics should not be infused with needlessly complex language nor should knowledge

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of the mores or culture or of a particular subject area be the key element in a reading comprehension item.

Fourth Criterion: Administrative Ease and Usability

Can a given test be administered to a large group, small group or must it be administered individually? Who should administer the test, and is specialized training necessary to do so? How long does the test take to administer? How easy and objective is the scoring? Is a machine scoring service available? These are some of the pragmatic questions with which the test assessor should be concerned when thinking of the prospective test administrator.

In terms of usability for evaluation, the important question is whether the tests you choose will give results in a form that will facilitate addressing relevant evaluation questions. Do you need scores expressed in terms of mastery or non-mastery of specific skills or groups of skills? Do you require scores in the form of percentiles, standard scores, stanines? Is it important that you be able to compare the test performance of your students to local or national norms? Or, do you need a test which can give both a criterion-referenced and norm-referenced interpretation of student performance?

On the other hand, do you need narrative descriptions of student performance or results in the form of ratings or levels of proficiency or achievement?

The answers to these questions are mostly contingent upon the evaluation questions on which your evaluation design is focused, upon your instructional objectives and the nature of the skills you are teaching and testing.

Dealing with Student Diversity

If we are faced with the problem of unusual diversity among students, we need to know what to do about it. The proposed strategy is first to define the diversity factors which characterize your student body. The required information can be obtained during student identification and placement procedures or even from your program's needs assessment. In fact, the factors you identify may help in placement and grouping of your students. Following are a few comments about important factors.

Linguistic and cultural background. We have already taken a look at these two factors under examinee appropriateness. Further distinctions are offered here. There are students who speak the same basic language but who exhibit linguistic and/or cultural differences that can bear upon selections of tests in the students' native language. Speakers of Spanish are the obvious example. In terms of Spanish vocabulary and cultural referents, a test suitable for Mexican-American students may not be suitable for students of Colombian or Puerto Rican background and vice versa. In such a case, you must find separate tests for the student groups or identify tests which transcend student differences.

Age. Age in and of itself is not a determining factor for what a student can be tested on. It must be considered in relation to the other factors mentioned here.

Previous educational background and linguistic proficiencies. After reviewing the students' prior school experience and determining linguistic proficiency, program staff may come across some who exhibit seemingly less than native-like fluency in both English and their native language. Such students usually are from low socio-economic status homes where

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the native language is used exclusively. They usually experience general difficulty in learning, at least in the beginning, and especially where they are not given the appropriate educational treatment. While care should be taken not to label such students or predetermine their achievement potential, they will require a somewhat different instructional program and, therefore, different groupings for teaching and testing purposes.

> *While a test may be in line with your evaluation questions and objectives, it may still be inappropriate for your students.*

Year in which the student entered the program. This information will tell you how many months or years a student has been in the program. In conjunction with other information, it may determine which objectives or subject areas the student will be assigned to or the proportion of instructional time in English and the native language. These factors will, in turn, determine on which objectives students are to be tested and in which languages. As DeMauro points out, length of time in the program is also important for evaluation designs and for groupings in the analysis of test results.

Date of entry into the program, if the student entered in the current year. Knowledge of this factor is necessary to determine whether a student's test scores may be used in a pre-post test design. If pre-post test times are October and April, the scores of a student who entered in March are to be excluded from the pre-post component of the evaluation. That is not to say such a student should not be tested for achievement at the end of the year.

Time-on-task. This expression simply refers to the total time students are assigned to specific objectives or subject matter. It is often calculated on the basis of minutes or hours of instructional time per week.

The implications of time-on-task for testing may vary according to the reasons behind the time-on-task assignment. If student groups of roughly equal ability were exposed to the same objectives for different amounts of time, then those who had more time would be expected to achieve more and should be tested accordingly. If it were decided, on the other hand, that a specific student group required more time to master the same objectives than another, both groups would be similarly accountable. Where time-on-task may be a factor, therefore, the reasons behind it must be clear.

Norm-Referenced vs. Criterion-Referenced Tests

Several issues arise in response to the question of why some evaluation audiences press for NRTs rather than CRTs. One issue is that there seems to be a general feeling (Is this the myth again?) that the results of NRTs are somehow more credible than these of CRTs. The reason for this feeling, perhaps, is that audiences are usually more familiar with NRT results, especially with grade equivalents or percentiles. Anything different from these types of results is, therefore, unfamiliar and suspect. A second issue is that some audiences hold CRTs to be biased in favor of the program and its students because the tests were tailor-made to the program's objectives and curriculum. A third issue is that some audiences, among them state and federal agencies, often express a preference for the types of statistics that NRTs for purposes of aggregation.

The bottom line is that there is no *rule* that NRTs be used to evaluate a program's instructional component, although the issue is controversial. As a general rule, you should select tests which correspond to program objectives.

Nevertheless, objections regarding the credibility of CRTs must be dealt with—the question is, how? The answer is by educating your audiences.

Besides a clear explanation of program objectives and developmental processes occurring in students, audiences must understand the evaluation questions and how the evaluation was designed to answer them, especially the question abut the extent to which the program has fulfilled its objectives. That question, you must point out, can be answered only by tests that match those objectives. Then you may demonstrate the correspondance between the CRTs of your choice and program objectives. It can be shown, for the same reasons, that it is quite appropriate to develop tests tailor-made to program objectives.

All that is not enough. It must be further demonstrated that CRTs were developed in accordance with professional standards of the type described by Millman. Unless all these conditions are met, audience doubts about CRT credibility are understandable.

Another set of issues regarding NRTs revolves around the question of the match between program students and the norm group upon whose performance the scores and norms of a NRT are based. According to Sax, NRTs "are designed to determine an individual's relative standing in comparison with an internal or external norm group. The emphasis is on measuring individual differences by demonstrating that a student has more or less knowledge interest, or ability than other members of one or more reference groups to which he belongs."

You will find that, with very few exceptions, the NRTs you examine are written in English and are normed on English-speaking students in the United States. Are your students like the students in the norm group in terms of background, upbringing, language, culture? Have your students had equal exposure to the skills tested, whether that be in school or at home? DeMauro raises this same question in discussing the normative evaluation model. He also suggests that over time students in bilingual programs, as they gain in English proficiency and transfer their skills to English, do become more like their English-speaking counterparts.

Therefore, if NRTs are to be used with bilingual students, the question is when? When the students are in the first or the third year of the program? And if a NRT will be used during the students' first year in the program, that is, when the students are most unlike the norm group, can you really expect the bilingual students to compare favorably? Might it not be reasonable to specify expectations of achievement for the bilingual students and not expect favorable comparison with the norm group?

Hunting for Tests

As there is no simple automatic formula for selecting tests, so there is no one definitive source where they can be found. It has taken eight years to track down and acquire the two hundred tests described in the *Lesley College EDAC Test College Catalog*, and the task is by no means complete. The EDACs in Los Angeles, Cal. and Dallas (formerly Austin), Tex. have conducted similar test collection efforts. The three EDACs are, therefore, available as resources for the bilingual test searcher.

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education and the various Bilingual Education Service Centers throughout the country are similarly useful resources for bilingual tests, as are state departments of bilingual education and their regional offices. Some of the Title VII training and fellowship programs in various colleges and universities across the country have likewise collected tests and test information which they will share with inquirers. Not to be overlooked are existing bilingual programs, many of which have accumulated considerable expertise in testing because of their own needs.

Other possible sources for tests or test information are the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, N.J. which maintains a test collection in microfiche and other test publishers such as the Psychological Corporation in New York. ETS offers four different lists of tests for Spanish speakers. Among the best sources for bilingual test information are the many bilingual/ESL conferences that take place throughout the year, especially the NABE and TESOL conferences. At such conferences, presentations, commercial and non-commercial exhibitors and publishers as well as the many individuals in attendance are all potentially valuable sources of information on bilingual/ESL testing.

Tests are neither magical
nor unfathomable . . .
tests are only one source
of information about students.

The following printed resources are also very useful:

Evaluation Instruments for Bilingual Education. Austin, Texas: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1975.

Assessment Instruments in Bilingual Education: A Descriptive Catalogue of 342 Oral and Written Tests. Los Angeles, California: National Dissemination and Assessment Center, CalState/LA, 1978.

EDAC Test Collection Catalogue: A Description of Tests for Use in Bilingual Education Programs. Lynn Wolfsfeld. Cambridge, Massachusetts: EDAC at Lesley College, 1981.

A Guide To Assessment Instruments for Limited English Speaking Students. Barbara P. Pletcher, Nancy A. Locks, Dorothy F. Reynolds, Bonnie G. Sisson. New York: Santillana Publishing Co., 1978.

Oral Language Tests for Bilingual Students: An Evaluation of Language Dominance and Proficiency Instruments. Robert J. Silverman, Joslyn K. Noa, Randall M. Russell. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1977.

A Qualitative Review of Instruments Used in Bilingual Education Programs in California. CABE Bilingual/Biculture Test Evaluation Conference. Berkeley, California: Bilingual Media Productions, 1978.

Tests that Measure Language Ability A Descriptive Compilation. Thomas J. Bye. Berkeley, California: Bay Area Bilingual Education League, 1979.

Conclusions

Our aim in this article has been to define the main problems in identifying and selecting tests for bilingual program evaluation and to offer the reader some practical suggestions and strategies to deal with those problems. The problems are complex, there is no denying that. You must know something about bilingual education, tests and program evaluation to deal with the problems, but you do not have to be an expert in each area.

Tests are neither magical nor unfathomable. If professionally prepared, a lot of thinking goes into them. They embody many elements: philosophical and scientific points of view on education and learning, on human development and curriculum, perhaps even a point of view on life,

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cont. from page 12

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Director's Notebook

cont. from page 1

be unique in dealing with the vastly more complex evaluation requirements of bilingual education.

In addition, these Computer-Evaluation-Dissemination Centers would provide services, technical assistance, and materials in computer-based instruction and other emerging technological applications within bilingual education. Such Computer-Evaluation-Dissemination Centers would provide a vigorous new service-based approach to educational accountability.

Paul G. Liberty
Director, EDAC/Lesley College

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most certainly technical expertise, research and much hard work.

The most important question, perhaps, is why and how tests are applied and used. In this writer's view, tests are only *one* source of information about students. If they are used, they should be used to help teachers teach and students to learn better. Their role is to enhance education, not to hamper it.

The same holds true for tests used in program evaluation. Tests should provide evidence for a fair judgement about a program's accomplishments, evidence that can be used to improve the program and benefit student learning and achievement. But tests should not be the only source of evidence.

FOOTNOTES

1. Jane R. Mercer, Technical Manual: *System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment*, (New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1979), p.8.
2. See pp. 10-11 for the major test lists consulted.
3. Anna Uhl Chamot, "Applications of Second Language Acquisition Research to the Bilingual Classroom," *Focus*, VIII (September, 1981), p. 4.
4. James Cummins, "Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children," *Review of Educational Research*, XLIX, (Spring, 1979), p. 238.
5. Edward A. DeAvila and Barbara Havassy, "The Testing of Minority Children: A Neo-Piagetian Approach," *Today's Education*, November-December, 1974, p. 73.
6. Cummins, pp. 37-40.
7. See the chapters by Gilbert Sax and Jason Millman in *Evaluation in Education: Current Applications*. W. James Popham, ed. (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corp. 1974).
8. Popham, pp. 327-383.
9. Popham, p. 254.

Not Test Scores Alone

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Bibliographic Entries: Evaluating Programs for LEP Students

Bilingual Journal VII:2 (1983). Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

Bilingual Journal is the quarterly publication of the EDAC, Lesley College, and this issue of the *Journal* has been designed to address the needs of those concerned with the evaluation of bilingual programs. The five major articles in this issue develop the theme of evaluation of bilingual programs from the perspectives of evaluation models, data collection, selection of tests, the use of other than traditional measures, and the role of parents in program evaluation.

Bissell, J.S. *Program Impact Evaluations: An Introduction for Managers of Title VII Projects.* 1980. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This publication describes guidelines for evaluating project implementation, student performance, and other factors, as well as ways to analyze and use evaluation results. The text also includes evaluation design activities and checklists.

Burry, J. *Evaluation and Documentation: Making Them Work Together*. Bilingual Education Paper series. 5:9 (1982). Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This paper discusses the general role of documentation in evaluation and the specific types of information needed for program evaluation. Three possible methods used in documenting are discussed extensively: gathering information directly from program participants, using records kept, and conducting direct observations.

This is a very useful document for a school district needing guidance in the evaluation of instructional programs of all types.

Cohen, A.D. *Describing Bilingual Education Classrooms*. 1980. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

This monograph suggests ways in which teachers can assist evaluators. Vignettes describe specific sample situations. Suggested activities for teachers include providing data on students' language proficiency, paying special attention to reading development, and describing approaches and materials used.

De George, G.P. *Improving Bilingual Program Management.* 1980. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This handbook offers solutions to some of the problems facing administrators of bilingual programs and explores issues such as program evaluation, leadership development, and proposal writing.

Miller, W.C. "Unobtrusive Measures Help in Assessing Growth." *Educational Leadership.* Jan. 1978, pp. 264-268.

This article emphasizes using data to supplement information collected from the more traditional standardized test scores. interviews, and questionnaires. The author suggests a list of information items that, when collected, would help teachers and administrators evaluate educational programs.

Among the categories of items suggested are the following: number of situations in which students are involved in certain activities, e.g., activity roles; student data, e.g., percent of students who have dropped out of the program, percent of students on the principal's list, etc.; number of situations in which teachers are involved in certain activities, e.g., measuring and reporting pupil progress, giving positive feedback to students, etc.

Walker, C. and B. Cabello. "Features to Consider When Selecting a Test for a Bilingual Program." *Bilingual Journal*, 4:1 (1980) pp. 25-27.

This paper lists a series of questions to consider when comparing and selecting tests for the evaluation of educational programs. The questions in the first section are particularly related to the evaluation of programs for limited English proficient students.

PART TWO

CLASSROOM PRACTICES

FOR BUILDING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Culture and the Classroom Teacher

The feature article selected for this section discusses how we become aware of culture in ourselves and in others. Also included are annotations of books and articles that present general considerations about teaching in multicultural settings as well as information about major minority language groups in the United States.

PERCEPTION AND COGNITION--BECOMING AWARE OF CULTURE IN OURSELVES

School personnel may realize that they need to be aware of the patterns of culture in their students and the students' parents. But culture conflict is a two-way street; they need to become aware of culture in themselves. Ideally, the more school personnel, students, and parents are aware of their own cultural characteristics, the better all will understand the potential areas of conflict between them.

Aren't we aware of culture in ourselves? The answer is "not entirely." One reason has to do with problems of perception. When a white object is placed against a white background, it is difficult or impossible to perceive it. But when a black object is placed against a white background, both object and background are easily perceived. Perception and knowledge grasped through the senses as mediated by culture depends on contrast. The more an object contrasts with its environment, the more readily it is perceived.

Becoming aware of our behavioral patterns also depends on contrast. In the United States (and many other parts of the world), it is a matter of custom and habit (as well as law) to drive on the right side of the road. In our everyday lives, we seldom have contrasting experiences that allow us to become aware of this behavioral pattern. Driving on the right side of the road seems to be the natural thing to do. If we visit England where it is a matter of custom, habit, and law to drive on the left side of the road, we readily perceive that there is an alternative to our own customary behavior. This helps us to realize that what seemed natural was actually mere convention.

Ordinarily, we are not aware that normal conversational distance between strangers in the United States is seldom less than two feet. Since nearly every stranger we meet will follow this customary habit, we have nothing with which to contrast it. If we encounter someone from a different society (Cubans,Portuguese, and Hispanics, in general) in which the customary distance in such situations is much shorter, we will tend to back up and retreat from the person as he/she follows trying to converse with us (Hall, 1959.)

Anglo-Americans might congratulate themselves on having enough sense to keep a proper distance when talking with others. Such self-congratulation would be deflated if we were to come in contact with the Ponapeans of Micronesia. Ponapean people complain that Americans get too close when they talk. From these examples, it is clear that it is not always easy for us to perceive our own behavioral patterns.

The concept of culture includes, but is not identical with, the notion of socially shared customary behavior. These behaviors, which we share with almost all people with whom we come into contact, will not be obvious to us due to a lack of contrast. Thus, we are not ordinarily aware of many aspects of our own culture. As Kluckhohn, an anthropologist, said: "It would hardly be a fish who would discover water" (1949, p. 11).

An individual does tend to share behavior patterns with those whom he/she has an intimate, long-term social interaction. We do not, however, share all behavior patterns with everyone in our group. Kluckhohn (1943) relates the story of a newly arrived teacher on a Navajo reservation who found the first grade girls intelligent and friendly while the

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boys were slow and uncooperative. It turned out that the teacher had the children making pottery. It is hardly surprising that the boys were slow and uncooperative since the behavior patterns involved in making pottery identify the person as a female among the Navajo. Notice that in this example there are no differences in perceiving or describing this behavior. It is the interpretations of the behaviors that are different. Not only do we perceive events, we also process our perceptions internally and interpret them, that is, we conceptualize. This is cognition.

Overt socially shared behavior patterns are not confined merely to symbolic communication. We can talk to ourselves internally. Human beings have the capacity to be both subject and object, actor and audience, to themselves. We internalize social experiences. Self-identification, to the extent that it is due to symbolic communication, is an important aspect of culture within ourselves. Goodman, an anthropologist, says that the sense of self

> ...depends heavily on language—labels for self and others, for [our] own and other persons' possessions. In [the] second year of life the child speaks and thinks increasingly with the aid of linguistic tools. (Goodman, 1970, p. 26)

The concept of culture, therefore, must take into account both the observable customary behavior patterns and the inner symbolic communication of the individual. Even though we cannot observe the latter directly in others, each of us can become aware of it in ourselves. Analysis of the observed behavior of others leads us to believe that thought processes, such as those we can experience in ourselves, must be occurring in others too but that sometimes the thought processes differ.

CULTURAL RELATIVITY AND ETHNOCENTRISM--BECOMING AWARE OF CULTURE IN OTHERS

> The U.S. Navy landed on a Pacific Island in World War II. The health officer felt that the presence of flies constituted a health problem that, with the assistance of the natives, could be easily conquered. He asked the chief to assemble his people, to whom he gave a health lecture illustrating the horrors of fly-borne diseases with a foot-long model of the common house fly. He believed he had made his point until the chief replied, "I can well understand your preoccupation with flies in America. We have flies here too, but fortunately they are just little fellows." (Foster, 1962, p. 122)

This humorous story demonstrates how the interpretation of an experience is relative to the cultural background of the person having the experience. Thus, two people with different cultural backgrounds may interpret and react to the same experience in very different ways. This is what anthropologists mean by "cultural relativity."

To assume the position of cultural relativity is to recognize that there is a wide range of possible human responses to experiences because of differences in cultural interpretation. It is also helpful for us to recognize that our own cultural interpretations are a part of that range. If we know something about the range of cultural differences in human societies, we are better able to become aware of culture in ourselves by contrast. To the extent that we are able to do this, we gain a great advantage in our efforts to understand the culture of others and to avoid conflicts and misunderstandings in cross cultural situations.

On a purely rational basis we may agree that this is the best thing to do, but few of us are likely to find it easy. Easiest is the opposite of cultural relativity, ethnocentrism. To be ethnocentric is to be sure that our own cultural interpretations are correct and superior compared to the interpretations of those with different cultural backgrounds. Human beings generally tend to be ethnocentric. This is hardly surprising since a positive self-image is partly based on our feelings of the positive worth of our group's customs. In addition, if our life expectations are being reasonably well met, we have a vested interest in the survival and continuation of the groups to which we belong and to their cultural patterns.

At first glance, this seems to pose a dilemma that cannot be solved: the question of how we can be cultural relativists if we are ethnocentric. It is not necessary for us to give up entirely our positive self-images and tendencies toward ethnocentrism in order to adopt a position of cultural relativism. It is only a matter of modifying the rigidity of our ethnocentrism. Indeed, to become aware of ethnocentrism in ourselves may help us to appreciate and respect ethnocentrism in others. Tolerance for cultural pluralism is increased if we recognize that others have positive feelings about the worth of their cultures, just as we do about ours. Ethnocentrism is a disadvantage in successful cross cultural relationships largely to the extent that we are unaware of it.

If we interpret the behavior of those who are culturally different from ourselves only in terms of our own rigid ethnocentrism, we will not be able to become aware of their cultural characteristics or develop an understanding and appreciation of them.

Examples

1. In Micronesia, the schools have been interested in increasing the level of parent participation. In dealing with this problem, the schools modeled along United States' patterns are encouraged to use a parent participation plan that had been developed in the United States. This plan assumed that the family is the nuclear family of parents and children where marriage is an arrangement between two individuals. This assumption is an ethnocentric one, since in Micronesia the family can also include clan members beyond the nuclear family and can be understood only in terms of village kinship organization.

2. In an American-staffed hospital on an island in Polynesia, a hospital rule of allowing only members of the immediate family to visit critically ill was adopted. Members of the hospital staff became extremely annoyed when large numbers of people insisted that they were members of the

immediate family of critically ill patients. Staff members, mostly Westerners, concluded that Polynesians are awful liars. What they didn't understand was that in Polynesian kinship system the kinship term used for the biological mother is also used for her sisters and her husband's sisters; and the kinship term used for the biological father is also applied to his brothers and his wife's brothers. Furthermore, the kinship terms used for biological brothers and sisters are also used for what we call cousins; all of these terms may be extended to even more remotely related persons.

3. The United States prides itself on the efficiency of its industrialized system and is often guilty of an ethnocentric attitude in evaluating the "inefficiency" of other economic systems (i.e., that of peasants in the Third World). In taking a closer look at our own system, how efficient is the common practice of closing factories on the weekends or beginning work at 8 o'clock and stopping promptly at 5 o'clock? These practices stem from the fact that our work is time oriented. In many societies, work is task oriented. They work until a task is completed and do not feel compelled to "make work" if there are no tasks that need to be done. Such people would find our practices of "making work" or stopping work before tasks are completed to be very illogical and inefficient. Also, what sense does it make to reserve one day (Sunday) for religion and not relate it to work?

4. Many Americans are often appalled by the descriptions of initiation rites in tribal societies where both men and women go through painful ceremonies to "come of age." They may not be as appalled with the common practice in our own society of keeping the aged in institutions where conditions are often very severe. Some cultural groups would regard this as barbaric, since the aged in their societies are given special treatment and accorded high status.

Excerpt from:

Arvizu, Steven F., Warren A. Snyder, and Paul T. Espinosa. Demystifying the Concept of Culture: Theoretical and Conceptual Tools. Bilingual Education Paper Series 3:11 (1980).

Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center
California State University
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90032

Bibliographic Entries: Culture and the Classroom Teacher

Asian Bilingual Curriculum Development Center, Seaton Hall University. "Bridging the Asian Language and Culture Gap." *Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook*. 1982, pp. 97-103. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

While recognizing that individual differences play an important role within the [illegible] of the multicultural classroom, this article explores certain generalizations that might be made about Asian groups. Those generalizations relate to concepts of humility, honor and dignity, respect for age and etiquette. The authors discuss the manifestation of these values in the classroom setting and suggest ways of adapting classroom practices to accommodate to those values or to help students adjust to the new situation.

Banks, J.A. *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies*. 1975. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Dept. 898-LC, Link Drive, Rockleigh, NJ 07646.

This excellent sourcebook discusses activities, provides resources (annotated bibliographies on books, periodicals, films, filmstrips), and gives background information on virtually every ethnic group in America. Appendix A lists important dates for each ethnic group in the history of the United States.

California State Department of Education, Office of Bilingual/Bicultural Education. *A Handbook for Teaching Vietnamese-Speaking Students*. 1982. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This handbook is designed to assist school districts in providing effective bilingual education services to Vietnamese-speaking students. The publication includes general information about immigration patterns and history, educational background, and socio-cultural aspects of the Vietnamese. It also contains very important information regarding the student's language and the appropriate instructional programs that will help Vietnamese students progress in the school.

Childhood Education, 60:2 (1983) Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20016.

This issue of *Childhood Education* entitled "The New Arrivals," addresses some of the challenges teachers and their recent immigrant students face in schools. Articles in this issue discuss ethnicity in the history of this country and its educational system, characteristics of major groups of immigrants, such as Southeast Asians and the Hispanics, issues on bilingual-bicultural education, and strategies for helping students adjust to the new environment.

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Cross-Cultural Learning in K-12 Schools: Foreign Students as Resources. 1982. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1960 19th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20009.

This book has been designed to assist teachers in improving cross-cultural experiences for students by using the rich international resources schools have in their foreign students. The ideas are practical and relate to a wide variety of school activities and subjects.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics. "Indochinese Students in U.S. Schools: A Guide for Administrators." *Language in Education: Theory and Practice.* 42. (1981). Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, NW, Washington, DC 20007.

This book attempts to acquaint teachers and administrators with the cultures of Indochinese students, to identify the problems that both students and teachers face, and to assist in identifying possible solutions to those problems. The first part includes history and background information on Cambodians, Laotians, and the Vietnamese. The second part describes the educational systems in the Indochinese countries, provides guidelines for the enrollment and placement of Indochinese students, describes some of the problems Indochinese students have in schools in the U.S., and offers strategies to overcome those problems. The book also lists a variety of agencies and educational resources that teachers and administrators can contact for further information.

Ford, C.K. and A.M. Silverman. *American Cultural Encounters.* 1981. The Alemany Press, Post Office Box 5265, San Francisco, CA 94101.

This book contains a collection of situations designed to stimulate discussion about intercultural problems common to students from other cultures in the United States. Some of the situations described are entitled, "When the Teacher Arrives," "Late for Class," "I Need a Paper," and "Polite Requests."

Indochinese Information Packet. (no date) National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

The first sections in the packet contain articles about the Indochinese population in the United States with emphasis on Indochinese cultures and customs. The last sections of the packet include information resources and a directory of publishers and distributors of resource materials.

Los Angeles Unified School District. *Bridging the Asian Language and Cultural Gap. A Handbook for Teachers.* 1974. Division of Career and Continuing Education Program. Los Angeles Unified School District, Los Angeles, CA.

This handbook has been designed to help ESL teachers work more effectively with Asian students. Although intended for teachers of English as a Second Language for adults, the phonological, syntactical, and cultural information included is relevant to teachers at other levels. The cultural information focuses on four major groups: China, Japan, Korea, and the Philipines.

National Multilingual, Multicultural Materials Development Center. *Cultural Issues in Education. A Book of Readings.* 1978. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032. Catalog Code Number PR-004.

Articles in this collection recognize the value of a multicultural society and address multiculturalism from the viewpoint of teacher preparation, curriculum development, the instructional process in multicultural settings, and testing.

Nine-Curt, C.J. *Non-Verbal Communication in Puerto Rico.* 1976. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This publication identifies and describes the body language of Puerto Ricans and others from Latin American cultures. It provides guidelines for interpreting smiles, hand gestures, posture, and other non-verbal cues.

Nine-Curt, C.J. *Teacher Training Pack for a Course on Cultural Awareness.* 1976. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140. Catalog Code Number 078-6.

This training pack describes a cultural awareness course that helps trainees examine their perceptions of their own cultural backgrounds.

Ramirez III, M. and A. Castañeda. *Cultural Democracy, Bicognitive Development, and Education.* 1974. Academic Press, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10003.

This book addresses the basis for educational pluralism. The concept of cultural democracy assumes that a person is entitled to maintain his or her values and language while learning to accept the values and language of the larger society.

The goals of a cultural democracy are to help culturally different children to function effectively in two cultures and develop the ability to learn in the two cognitive styles: field sensitive and field independent.

Although the book focuses on the Mexican-American student, the basic premises apply to children from other cultural backgrounds. Chapters 6 and 7 suggest ways of assessing cognitive styles and suggest teacher training strategies and curriculum and classroom applications.

Rosenoff, W.E. *A Multicultural Alternative Curriculum.* Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook. 1982, pp. 89-96. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This article identifies areas of learner characteristics that influence the instructional and learning process in multicultural classrooms: locus of control, cognitive learning styles, and time perspectives. Descriptions of these learner characteristics are followed by curriculum design considerations. The author concludes with a suggested list of activities to help teachers and administrators increase the educational performance of students.

Saville-Troike, M. *A Guide to Culture in the Classroom.* 1978. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560. Catalog Code Number P067.

This guide explores the interplay between language, culture, and education. It suggests training strategies and applications of cultural information in the classroom, in curriculum development, and in evaluation. The list of questions in the chapter, "Questions to Ask About Culture" provides guidelines for obtaining accurate cultural information and using that information for instructional purposes.

Tam Thi Dang Wei. *Vietnamese Refugee Students. A Handbook for School Personnel* (Second Edition). 1980. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140. Catalog Code Number 164-2.

This handbook contains information about Vietnamese students—their style of living and their difficulties in adjusting to living in the United States. The handbook presents case studies and suggests solutions to problems. Bibliographies are also included.

Young, J. and J. Lum, eds. *Asian Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook.* 1982. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140. Catalog Code Number 089-1.

This comprehensive handbook includes ideas, information, and materials to help teachers work with East Asian students, primarily students from China, Korea, and Japan. Appendices 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, and 14 deal with Asian cultures in general, and with Korean, Chinese, and Japanese cultures in particular.

Your New Life in the United States. Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, NW, Washington, DC 20007.

These handbooks are available in Vietnamese, Lao, Hmong, Khmer, and Cantonese Chinese. They are intended to help refugees become acquainted with different aspects of life in the United States.

The following materials are free from the Refugee Materials Center, U.S. Department of Education, 324 East 11th Street, 9th Floor, Kansas City, MO 64106.

The Center will send you a catalog and single copies of these materials. Please use the code numbers when ordering.

Ellis, A.A. *The Assimilation and Acculturation of Indochinese Children Into Ameri[illegible] Culture.* Report commiss[illegible]d by the Califor[illegible] Department of Social Ser[illegible]ces. Code No. [illegible]40.

This report discusses the co[illegible]fl[illegible]hinese children have in assimilating. It [illegible]cribes general cross-cultural differences, and other issues such as newcomers and unaccompanied minors.

A Guide to Two Cultures.

A bilingual packet in Vietnamese and English.

Indochinese Activities Handbook, Grades K-5. Code No. 700-011.

This handbook provides cultural information about Cambodian, Lao, and Vietnamese cultures. It includes sample lesson plans.

Indochinese Children and Families: An Overview. Research Capsule No. 4, Code No. 600-044.

This paper provides an historical and demographic profile of the Indochinese and discusses the status of children and problems in resettlement.

Laotian Themes. Code No. 420-008.

This handbook talks about the culture and the educational systems of Laos.

Linguistic and Cultural Adjustment of Asian Students. Code No. 700-011.

Tips on the Care and Adjustment of Lao and Cambodian Children in the United States. Code No. 420-029.

Approaches to increasing understanding of refugee behavior, actions, and background.

Understanding Your Laotian Students. Code No. 420-015.

This is an orientation to teachers of students from Laos.

Assessment of LEP Students

Assessment is one of the most controversial areas in the field of education for limited English proficient students. One consequence of the controversy over assessment is that many school districts have moved away from using only standardized measures and have begun using batteries of measures, which include both standardized and locally developed tests.

There is a wealth of data on the topic of assessment. Obviously, the entries included in this section are not exhaustive. As a feature article for this section we have printed the TESOL Statement on Statewide Programs of Competency Testing because it offers sound criteria to be considered when developing a testing program. Most bibliographic entries describe general considerations in testing the LEP student. Also included are a sample language identification form and a sample structured interview. Teachers and administrators are encouraged to consult the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education for additional information about testing the LEP student.

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TESOL STATEMENT ON STATEWIDE PROGRAMS OF COMPETENCY TESTING

More than 60% of the states of the United States have mandated programs of competency testing in the basic skills during the last few years, and several more are about to do so. Because the insights gained from recent movements of competency-based program design and of individualized instruction have made us increasingly aware of the complex nature of this kind of measurement, we would like to bring to your attention the following considerations to bear in mind when planning a testing program.

A. The professional organizations and academic departments specializing in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages provide expertise and should be consulted when decisions are made concerning competency testing of students whose home language or dialect is other than standard English.

B. Parents of the groups being tested and the students themselves need to be consulted. Questions about relevance and appropriateness of topics, the language to be tested, and the purposes of the tests all need student and parent input.

C. The development of effective measurement instruments is time consuming and costly, but we warn against any cost saving shortcuts that might be considered.

1. Translating existing tests from one language to another does not result in a reliable instrument.
2. Tests developed for or normed on native speakers of a language are not valid or reliable indicators of the language knowledge or skills of a person who is not a native speaker of that language.
3. Tests of proficiency in the modern foreign languages designed for English-speaking students in the U.S. are scaled inappropriately to measure the talents and knowledge of students who are native speakers of those languages.

D. No single instrument can adequately measure students' competency in the basic skills. We urge, therefore, that a variety of opportunities be given to students to demonstrate what they know, and that decisions regarding competency never be made on the basis of a single test.

E. Sound objectives and precise goals are essential to any effective testing program. Therefore, the starting point must be to reach agreement on the meaning of "basic" in "basic skills." (For example, specialists in the area of reading know that different reading skills are "basic" to different purposes. What is the purpose of the reading test in your state? To assure success in an academic career? To assure success in a vocation? To document that a student can read directions? a manual? a novel? an application form?)

F. Knowledge of language must be separated from knowledge of subject matter. A test of one should not be used to measure competency in the other.

It is particularly important that, as a student is acquiring a second language or dialect and is concurrently adding to this knowledge in subject matter areas, the testing of the latter be conducted in the first language.

Further, it is of utmost importance that students who are acquiring knowledge of the language and the content areas simultaneously receive the benefit of considerable instruction in both areas before being tested in either.

G. Because students whose home language is other than standard English may enter a curriculum late in its progression, it is imperative that alternative measures be provided for the testing of late-arriving students.

H. We support a program of assessment which periodically measures the progress of each student, a program of assessment which helps ensure educational success for all students by providing a measurement of what the school needs to do to help the student, e.g., offer remediation or programs of career guidance. We oppose an assessment program to weed out students, to end their academic advancement.

The above statement was prepared by a special task force of experts in the field of English as a Second Language. It was approved by the Executive Committee of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), an international professional organization of 8000 members, at its meeting in Boston on March 3, 1979.

Copies available without charge from:

TESOL
455 Nevils Building
Georgetown University
Washington, DC 20057

Bibliographic Entries: Assessment of LEP Students

Cohen, A.D. *Testing Language Ability in the Classroom*. 1981. Newbury House Publishers, Rowley, MA 01969.

This book offers practical suggestions for teaching and testing language skills. It focuses on the process of testing as well as on the construction of test items. Attention is [illegible] the scoring, evaluation, and analysis of results.

Cummins, J. "Tests, Achievement, and Bilingual Students." *FOCUS*. 9 (1982). National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

This article gives an overview of the inadequacies of ability and achievement tests with LEP students, and reviews recent research evidence related to the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement and its implications for testing LEP students.

Erickson, J.G. and D.R. Omark. eds. *Communication Assessment of the Bilingual-Bicultural Child*. 1981. University Park Press, 300 North Charles Street, Baltimore, MD 21201.

A principal objective of this book is to encourage the use of interpretive assessment practices to supplement discrete point tests. Chapters 6-9 review selected language assessment tests and include practical considerations for evaluating them. The administrator or specialist in charge of programs for LEP students might find these chapters helpful in making decisions on implementing assessment procedures.

Appendix A provides suggestions for interviewing children to assess their communicative competence. Appendix B is an annotated bibliography on communication assessment of the bilingual child.

Guidelines for the Establishment and Implementation of Entry and Exit Criteria for Bilingual Programs. 1983. Ohio Department of Education, Division of Equal Educational Opportunities, Lau Center Section, 65 South Front Street, Columbus, Ohio 43215.

A handbook designed to aid planners, administrators, and school, college, and university teaching personnel in the planning, establishment, and implementation of entry and exit criteria and procedures for language minority students. The section on exit criteria stresses the importance of assessing not only oral language proficiency, but those language skills the student will need to be successful in studying the content areas. Both standardized and informal language measurement instruments are described.

Montero, M., ed. *Bilingual Education Teachers Handbook. Volume II: Language Issues in Multicultural settings.* 1979. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This book includes four articles that discuss language from the perspectives of language policies in the United States, the role of language in bilingual classrooms, criteria for language assessment of limited English proficient students, and special needs language assessment procedures.

Morrisroe, S. "Using Native Speaker Informants in Informal Testing." *TESOL Secondary Interest Section Newsletter.* 6:1, Fall, 1983. TESOL. 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057.

This article offers suggestions for using native speakers effectively in taping or administering locally developed tests.

Northwest Regional Education Laboratory. *Assessment Instruments in Bilingual Education: A Descriptive Catalog of 342 Oral and Written Tests.* 1978. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center. California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032. Catalog Number PR-001.

This catalog lists and describes tests in 38 different languages ranging from kindergarten to adult education levels. Tests are organized by categories: language proficiency, language dominance, self-concept, socio-cultural aspects, reading, achievement, and interests. The information in the catalog will be useful to teachers or administrators in selecting tests that best fit their student populations and programs.

Oller, J.W., Jr. *Language Tests at School.* 1979. Longman Group Limited, London.

The author discusses the issues involved in language testing, contrasts discrete point testing and pragmatic testing as reflections of the view of language either as a form or as a tool for communication, and gives practical recommendations for language testing.

Of special interest for classroom teachers is Chapter III (pp. 262-400) describing testing techniques from the point of view of their applicability and their reliability in classroom situations. Techniques for preparing, administering, and scoring the tests are described.

Fletcher, B., N. Locks, D. Reynolds, and B. Sisson. *A Guide to Assessment Instruments for Limited English-Speaking Students.* 1978. Santillana Publications, 257 Union Street, Northvale, NJ 07647.

A collection of tests in a variety of languages for assessing, among other factors, language dominance, achievement, learning styles. Test annotations include descriptive, technical, cultural, and linguistic information and comments about the appropriateness of the test.

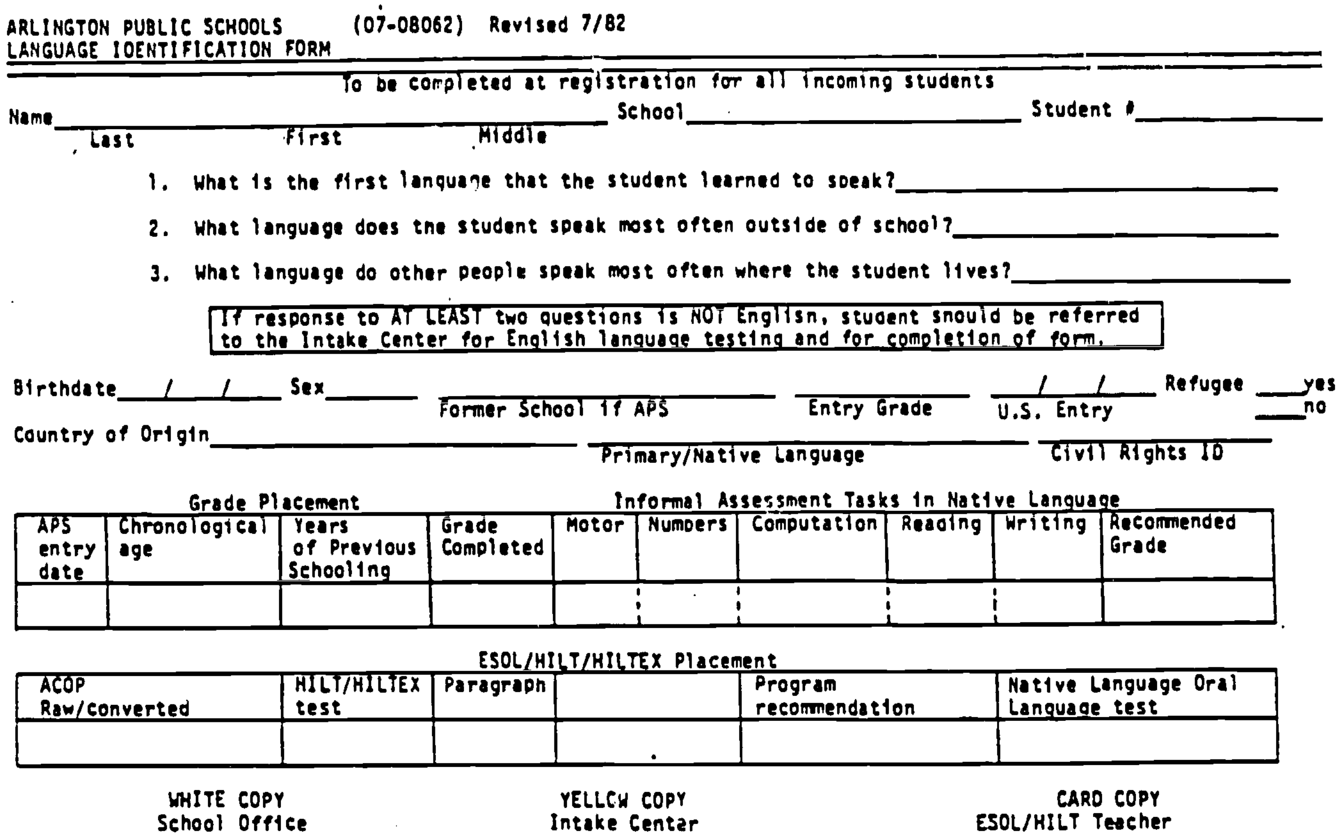
Valette, R.M. *Modern Language Testing.* 1977. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, ., 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

This handbook on foreign language testing is divided into three parts: Principles and Procedures of Testing, Methods of Evaluation, and Current Developments. The third part addresses the issue of modern language testing in bilingual and ESL programs. The appendix includes the descriptions of commercial language tests and a bibliography.

Wolfsfeld, L., ed. *EDAC Test Collection Catalogue: A Description of Tests for Use in Bilingual Education Programs.* 1983. Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, Lesley College, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This collection contains about two hundred tests, classified under seven headings, and cross-referenced by language. Annotations for each test provide information that teachers, administrators, and evaluators will find useful in test selection.

LANGUAGE IDENTIFICATION FORM



ARLINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS (07-08062) Revised 7/82
LANGUAGE IDENTIFICATION FORM

To be completed at registration for all incoming students

Name____________________ School________________ Student #__________
Last First Middle

1. What is the first language that the student learned to speak?________________
2. What language does the student speak most often outside of school?________________
3. What language do other people speak most often where the student lives?________________

If response to AT LEAST two questions is NOT English, student should be referred to the Intake Center for English language testing and for completion of form.

Birthdate__/__/__ Sex_____ __________ Former School if APS __________ Entry Grade __/__/__ U.S. Entry Refugee ___yes ___no

Country of Origin________________ __________ Primary/Native Language __________ Civil Rights ID

Grade Placement				Informal Assessment Tasks in Native Language					
APS entry date	Chronological age	Years of Previous Schooling	Grade Completed	Motor	Numbers	Computation	Reading	Writing	Recommended Grade

ESOL/HILT/HILTEX Placement

ACOP Raw/converted	HILT/HILTEX test	Paragraph		Program recommendation	Native Language Oral Language test

WHITE COPY
School Office

YELLOW COPY
Intake Center

CARD COPY
ESOL/HILT Teacher

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Teacher Evaluation
Structured Interview

Description:

The Teacher Evaluation/Structured Interview (TE/SI) will be useful in the initial assessment of both the student's oral abilities as well as his understanding in a direct conversation situation. The interview questions that follow on pp.14-15 suggest a setting in which the flow of conversation can be controlled to determine if the student understands specific grammar points. He/she should be encouraged (but not required) to answer in complete sentences with the interviewer making an effort to elicit responses which show the student's control of the structure points indicated.

The TE/SI serves a dual purpose. First, much information about the student will be obtained in this less formal testing situation. The student has a chance on a one-to-one basis to tell the teacher about himself and to express his ideas in English. Second, the teacher can note specific grammar points which the student has fluent control of and the teacher can also identify some structures which the student understands but cannot produce. During the interview it will also become apparent when the student has neither understanding of nor speaking control of the pattern or structure point.

Administration:

The structured interview should take 5-10 minutes. The student and teacher sit alone in a quiet place. The student should be made comfortable and should not feel that he/she is in an intensive testing situation. The teacher should explain that he/she is going to ask the student some questions which he/she wants the student to answer. The teacher will be listening to the answers to learn something about his/her English speaking ability. The teacher may refer to the question sheet in order to keep the conversation moving.

During the interview the teacher should not indicate that a response is "correct" or "incorrect" but should respond in a natural way to the information given ("That's interesting!," "That's too bad!," "So do I." ..., etc.). After the interview, when the student has left the room, the teacher should score the interview as quickly as possible while impressions of the interview are still fresh in mind.

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Not all of the questions must be asked. In most instances, the questions can be thought of as prompters or initiators into an area of questioning. Often the student's responses will prompt the next question. The questions are written somewhat in order of difficulty, but are to be used only as suggestions.

The interview can stop when: 1) the student reaches a point where he/she no longer understands the question even if it is rephrased several times; e.g., A student who cannot understand or use the past tense would not be forced to continue to present perfect or conditional tense in questions.; 2) the student cannot respond, or he/she hesitates to the point of feeling awkward and uncomfortable; 3) the teacher feels that enough structure information has been obtained. The interview should have a natural and friendly conclusion.

Many students will tend to give one-word answers (e.g., "Yes," or "Read,", etc.). The teacher can rephrase questions or use devices such as "Tell me about ...." or "Describe ...." in order to elicit full sentences. Encouragement and response from the teacher during the session will lighten the atmosphere and loosen the tongue.

Scoring:

See the "Guidelines for Scoring Structured Interview" on the following pages.

After conducting the structured interview, using the Guidelines for Scoring Structured Interview, the teacher should circle the number of the rating for each aspect of speaking ability on the ELPATW, add the numbers together, and record the sum of the ratings on the line provided. This score for the TE/SI is written on the ELPASR in the appropriate box. The maximum score possible is 30 points.

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Structured Interview Questions

Structures	Questions
	Hello, my name is ________ ________.
Imperative	Please sit down.
WH-questions	What's your name? Last name?
	How old are you?
	Where are you from? Is (country) near/far from here?
Pres. simple	Tell me about your family ...
	Do you have a brother, a sister?
	Do you have any brothers, any sisters?
S + V + DO, some/any	Is your brother/sister/mother/father here with you?
S + LV + ADJ	Describe your mother/father, etc.
ADJ - comp. & superlative	(indicate by gesture- height, point to hair, eyes)
	Is your (sister) taller than your brother)?
	Who is the tallest in your family?
Pres. continuous	Are you studying (math) in this school?
Past	When did you come to the United States?
	How did you come here?
	(If recent arrival)
	Please tell me about your trip here -
listen for control of both regular and irregular forms	When did you leave (country)?
	When did you stop and visit?
	What did you do/see there?
	What did you do on the last day you were in your country?
S + V + IO + DO	What did your friends/relatives tell you before you left (country) ?
Dependent Clause	Did you study English before you came to the U. S.? Where? How long?
	What did you do last Sat./Sun./week in the summer?
Past Progressive	Was it fun? Did you like it? Where did you go after that? Was it raining, sunny? Who went with you?
Participle or infinitive phrase	What do you like doing/to do after school every day?

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Modal - can	Can you swim? play soccer? dance? Do you like to?
Future	How long are you going to stay in the U. S.? What will you do this afternoon when you go home? What will you do this weekend?
Present Perfect	Have you ever visited another country? Tell me about it. What did you see/do? Have you been to the White House in Washington, D. C.? The Washington Monument? etc. Have you visited any interesting places since you've come here? Have you ever played tennis/soccer/baseball?
Conditional - real	What grades do you get if you study for a test?
Conditional - unreal	If you could live in any country in the world, where would you live? visit? why? If you had $1,000, what would you do/buy? why?
Modals	ELEMENTARY LEVEL - What would you like to be when you grow up?
Modals	SECONDARY LEVEL What would you like to do/be when you finish high school? What should you do in school to get ready for ___________?

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Guidelines for Scoring Structured Interview

K-5

Pronunciation

0. No meaningful utterances produced
2. Understanding difficult due to pattern and structure errors; concentrated listening with frequent repetitions necessary
4. Occasional mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding; would not be taken for a native speaker
6. Native-like pronunciation

Grammar

0. No meaningful utterances produced
2. Some control of major patterns; meaning frequently obscured
4. Some patterns still weak; meaning obscured
6. Native-like use of grammar patterns

Vocabulary

0. No meaningful utterances produced
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas; insufficient for even the simplest conversation
4. Sufficient vocabulary to function in most everyday situations but choice of words often inaccurate
6. Native-like use of vocabulary

Fluency

0. No meaningful utterances produced
2. Speech very slow, hesitant and/or irregular
4. Speech occasionally hesitant with some rephrasing
6. Native-like fluency

Comprehension

0. No meaningful utterances produced
2. Responds to very slow, very simple speech; requires constant repetition and rephrasing
4. Responds to somewhat simplified speech with occasional repetition or rephrasing
6. Native-like comprehension

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Guidelines for Scoring Structured Interview
6-12

Pronunciation

0. No meaningful utterances produced
1. Pronunciation usually unintelligible
2. Understanding difficult and frequent repetition necessary due to frequent pattern and structure errors
3. Concentrated listening necessary; mispronunciation leading to occasional misunderstanding
4. Occasional mispronunciations with no interference in communication
5. No conspicuous mispronunciations, but would not be taken for a native speaker
6. Native-like pronunciation

Grammar

0. No meaningful utterances produced
1. Grammar almost entirely inaccurate
2. Little control of major patterns; errors frequently obscuring meaning
3. Control of major patterns; errors causing occasional misunderstanding
4. Some patterns still weak; errors not interfering with communication
5. Few errors with almost native-like use of grammar patterns
6. Native-like use of grammar patterns

Vocabulary

0. No meaningful utterances produced
1. Insufficient vocabulary for even the simplest conversation
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas
3. Inaccurate choice of words; vocabulary limited to common school-related and social topics
4. Sufficient vocabulary to discuss special interests and to function in most everyday situations
5. Well-developed vocabulary; expresses complex ideas clearly
6. Native-like use of vocabulary

Fluency

0. No meaningful utterances produced
1. Speech halting and fragmentary; conversation virtually impossible
2. Speech very slow and uneven except for common phrases
3. Speech frequently hesitant and irregular
4. Speech occasionally hesitant with some rephrasing
5. Speech effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native
6. Native-like fluency

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Guidelines for Scoring Structured Interview
6-12

Comprehension

0. No meaningful responses produced
1. Insufficient response for even the simplest type of conversation
2. Responds to only slow, very simple speech; requires constant repetition
3. Responds to careful, somewhat simplified speech with frequent repetition and rephrasing
4. Responds to normal speech but required occasional repetition or rephrasing
5. Responds to normal speech well except for very colloquial or low-frequency items
6. Native-like comprehension

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Developing Goals and Objectives for the LEP Student

Assigning grades to LEP students is a major concern for classroom teachers. One of the ways to deal with grading LEP students is to develop differentiated goals and objectives. These differentiated goals and objectives must consider students' English proficiency and must be measurable.

Extensive literature exists on the general topic of developing objectives. However, very little has been written about adapting goals and objectives for LEP students. To provide background, this section includes an annotation of material containing practical information about developing objectives in general. Other entries focus on developing objectives specifically for LEP students.

Bibliographic Entries: Developing Goals and Objectives for the LEP Student

Duelfer, A. "The Statement of Goals and Objectives in Bilingual Education." *Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook*. 1979. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This article reviews the role of goals and objectives and the process for developing appropriate goals and objectives for LEP students. A sample lesson is used to demonstrate how goals and objectives can be clarified to improve instructional effectiveness. Outlines of taxonomies of educational objectives and planning grids for developing goals and objectives for the LEP student are included.

Morris, L. L. and [illegible]. Fitz-Gibbon. *How to Deal with Goals and Objectives*. 1978. Center for the Study of Evaluation, University of California—Los Angeles, Sage Publications, Inc., 275 South Beverly Drive, Beverly Hills, CA 90212.

This book, part of the series, *Program Evaluation Kit*, is designed to help evaluators of educational programs. It should be equally helpful to teachers who need to write their own objectives. Chapter 3 describes five general principles for constructing objectives, providing examples of both faulty and well-constructed objectives. This chapter also includes annotated cognitive and affective taxonomies.

Santos, S.L. "Content Methods and Materials for Teaching Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies in the Bilingual Classroom." Series C, Packet 3. *Bilingual Education Teacher Training Packets*. 1982. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, Dallas Independent School District, Dallas, TX 75204 (214) 742-5991.

A section in this book (pp. 169-176) gives practical suggestions for developing differentiated lessons that take into account students' learning styles and abilities. Steps in lesson preparation and a sample lesson are presented.

Learning a Second Language

This portion of the **Resource Book** contains a feature article that summarizes research findings in second language learning and examines the significant applications of these findings for classroom teachers. The bibliographic entries following article have been selected because they expand on the topic of language acquisition and suggest practical applications in elementary and secondary classrooms.

FOCUS
NATIONAL CLEARINGHOUSE FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION
September 1981
Presenting Thought-Provoking Papers on Bilingual Education
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Applications of Second Language Acquisition Research to the Bilingual Classroom

An   hl Chamot
National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education

This paper was presented at the International Bilingual Bicultural Education Conference of the National Association for Bilingual Education in May 1981 in Boston. Copyright 1981 by Anna Uhl Chamot. Reprinted by permission.

Why is research important to the teacher?

Though more research remains to be done before we have anything approaching definitive answers to the question of how best to promote second language learning, we do know already that some procedures still used in classrooms are contrary to what has been discovered about the second language learning process. Some of the findings of recent second language acquisition research studies can be applied to the bilingual classroom where English is a second language.

Research is important for teachers because it investigates which solutions work best for which problems, in which situations, with which learners. The more practitioners in bilingual programs know about research findings, the more effective they can be in planning, implementing, and evaluating their programs.

All of us encounter a time lag problem in keeping up with research. Months, or even a year or more, usually pass between completion of a study and publication of its results. Additional time lags occur between publication and incorporation into course work in preservice and in-service teacher training. By the time that new research findings are reflected in commercial instructional materials, a good deal of additional time has elapsed. For this reason, many materials for ESL and language development presently in use are no longer current in their methodology or psychological approach. They ask children to practice unnatural sentences that they do not understand; they require meaningless repetition. Both teachers and children are bored by this kind of material, and it is no wonder that little learning takes place.

The only way that concerned teachers can compensate for the time lag in availability of materials that reflect new findings about second language learning is to keep up with current research, analyze its findings, and apply them to their teaching approaches and instructional materials. This is asking a lot of teachers, who are often submerged in the details of daily planning and human interaction in their classes. However, many do find the time to read journals, take advantage of the resources of local university research efforts, and discuss implications of research with their colleagues. Another source of information about current research in bilingual education is the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, which not only maintains a hotline to answer specific questions, but also provides information through its newsletter *FORUM* and through its publications. A new NCBE service is Research On-Line, which enables users to find out about current, unpublished research efforts relevant to bilingual education.

Teachers and administrators who are informed about current research are better prepared to analyze and evaluate instructional methods and materials, changing and adapting them where needed to make them congruent with new knowledge.

This paper first presents an overview of major research areas in second language acquisition, referring to a sample of studies whose findings seem to have clear implications for the classroom. After that, a Second Language Learning Model that incorporates many of the recent research findings into a taxonomic scheme is described. Finally, criteria and guidelines for applying second language acquisition research findings to the bilingual classroom are proposed.

Four major areas of particular importance to the classroom teacher in current second language acquisition research are: comparison of first and second language acquisition; social, affective, and cognitive factors; second language input; and second language learning in school settings. These categories are not mutually exclusive, for many studies consider various of these interrelated aspects of second language acquisition, but they do serve as useful descriptors of research concerns that have significant implications for classroom teachers.

Is second language learning similar to first language learning?

Comparison of first and second language acquisition processes, though not a new area of research, continues to claim the attention of many investigators, impelled perhaps by the increasingly sophisticated research being done on first language acquisition. Present research reveals many similarities between first and second language acquisition, as well as some differences.

For both first and second language learners, meaning is the key to linguistic development. Children remember and use language that is meaningful. They learn through a creative construction process of putting together the bits of the

ERIC

language they know, rather than by exact imitation of sentence models. For children—as for all of us—the purpose of language is the communication of meaning, and they will use whatever means is available to them to both understand and communicate the meaning of a message. Both first and second language learners begin to express their meanings through an interlanguage, which is an approximation of the adult or native speaker model and which contains many omissions, overgeneralizations, and errors in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. It resembles telegraphic speech in many ways, for words (and even parts of words) not essential to the meaning are routinely omitted. The stages through which children move in this interlanguage are the same for many children (Chun, 1980), though individual differences in order of acquisition of certain structures have been pointed out by some researchers. Arguments over whether the order of acquisition of grammatical forms is the same for all first language learners, and similar or identical for all second language learners, tend to obscure the fact that is *most* important to teachers—that children do not begin by uttering perfectly formed, grammatically correct sentences when learning a language. They inevitably produce a great deal of incomplete or incorrect language which they gradually correct themselves as they try to match their language to the models they hear. Also important to teachers is the fact that children want to match their language to models they hear. In other words, when children make language errors, teachers should not assume that the fault lies either in the child or in the teaching method, for errors are a natural part of language learning.

About the Author

Anna Uhl Chamot is coordinator of research, reference, and referral services at the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. She holds degrees from George Washington University, Columbia University, and the University of Texas at Austin, and has also studied at Oxford University (England), Lovanium University (Zaire), and Lausanne University (Switzerland). She has taught education courses at the American University and at the University of Houston. She was assistant professor of curriculum and instruction at the Foreign Language Education Center at the University of Texas at Austin, where she taught ESL theory and methodology in the bilingual teacher education program, first and second language acquisition, and foreign language methodology; she was also program adviser for graduate students in TESL.

Dr. Chamot's research interests are reflected in studies in second and third language acquisition which have appeared in the *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *Second Language Acquisition* (edited by Evelyn Hatch), *The Acquisition and Use of Spanish and English as First and Second Languages* (edited by Roger Andersen), and in a forthcoming anthology on early reading in one or more languages (edited by Theodore Andersson). Research papers have been presented at TESOL, NABE, Second Language Research Forum, and the Delaware Symposium on Language Studies.

She has also applied current research findings in second language acquisition to the classroom as an ESL textbook author (*English for International Communication*, Books 1-6; *Read Right: Developing Survival Reading Skills*), and as a consultant to schools and universities in the United States, Latin America, Europe, and Africa.

Another similarity between first and second language acquisition can be found in the existence of what Krashen (1980) terms the *silent period*, or delay in the onset of speech. In natural learning situations, children apparently need to listen to a great deal of language and make at least some sense of it before they are ready to attempt speech. The implications for the ESL teacher are obvious: more time and attention should be given to listening activities at the beginning stages, and children should not be forced to speak until they feel ready to do so on their own.

Another similarity between first and second language acquisition can be found in the uses to which language is put. The young child just beginning to talk does so for functional purposes: to request something, to get information, to provide information, to express anger, fear, pleasure, or surprise. When these linguistic functions are not fundamental to the second language learning process, children quickly lose interest and are hard to motivate. Few children care about language for language's sake. They want an immediate and practical purpose to which they can put the language. For the teacher, this means creating situations in which children can use the new language for functional ends. Examples would be social interaction with English-speaking children, learning how to get out of trouble by apologizing, making excuses or explaining intentions, and requesting information or services.

The most obvious difference between first language acquisition and acquisition of a second language by a school-age child is the considerable difference in ages. The emergence of speech in a one-year-old is quantitatively and qualitatively different from the beginning stages of second language acquisition in a five- or seven-year-old. The age difference reflects both cognitive and social factors, for the older learner is developmentally more mature and has different social needs than the younger learner. A critical period for second language acquisition has been rejected by many researchers, who have discovered that older learners *can* learn faster than younger ones. Some suggest that second language learners are best at learning certain features of the new language at different ages (Chun, 1980). However, it has been shown that in the long run, children do better at learning a second language than do adults (Krashen, Long, and Scarcella, 1979). Reasons advanced are that children have a longer period of time in which to acquire the second language, and their *affective filter* (Dulay and Burt, 1977) is weaker than an adult's and thus allows more of the new language to get in and become usable input. Ervin-Tripp (1978) studied the acquisition of French by thirty-one English-speaking children in Geneva, ranging in age from four to nine, and found that the older children learned phonology, morphology, and syntax faster than the younger children. She attributed this to the fact that older children know more about language through their first language proficiency and that they have developed more sophisticated cognitive strategies for learning in general.

Another obvious difference between first and second language acquisition lies in the absence or presence of a previous language. The young child must acquire language in order to communicate at all with other human beings, whereas the school-age second language learner already has a system of effective communication and may or may not feel the desire to communicate with speakers who do not share this initial communication system. The presence of a first language can help a second language learner in many ways, for a great deal is already known about how language works. Borrowing from the first language is often a successful learning strategy, and when the borrowing is not successful, the learner usually discards it as soon as the correct expression in the second language is learned.

The teacher needs to provide opportunities for children to use their second language for real communicative purposes with English-speaking peers and adults. He or she should also capitalize on what children already know about language through their first language so they can make successful transfers and correct generalizations to the second language.

How do individual differences affect second language learning?

Social and affective factors and differing cognitive learning styles have been found to significantly affect second language learning. The attitude of learners toward the cultural group that speaks the second language and their greater or lesser desire to participate in that group has as much effect on the success of their second language acquisition as do their aptitude and verbal intelligence. According to Lambert (1981), a favorable set of attitudes and motivation can compensate for a lack of natural aptitude for acquiring a second language and can predict successful learning of that language. The implications for teachers are clear. Children can develop positive feelings about native English speakers only if those speakers are concerned, caring individuals to whom limited-English-proficient children can relate personally. Teachers should not only examine their own attitudes, but also strive to establish attitudes of acceptance, appreciation, and esteem in their native-English-speaking students.

Research on differing cognitive styles and types of learning strategies highlights the fact that individual differences must be considered in second language acquisition as well as in all other aspects of learning. Ventriglia (1982) has identified three basic types of language learning style, which she terms *beading, braiding,* and *orchestrating.* Beaders learn words incrementally, and internalize the semantic meanings of individual words before they begin stringing them together. Braiders, on the other hand, use an integrative strategy based on syntactical relationships, and acquire the new language in chunks or phrases, often without conscious analysis. Braiders can produce language chunks much sooner than beaders, because they like to try out unanalyzed phrases in social contexts to see if they work, whereas beaders like to be sure of their understanding of all the words that make up a phrase before they attempt oral production. Orchestrators are children who process the language initially on a phonological basis. They listen to the new sounds and reproduce them accurately. Their understanding is based on a grasp of meaning implied by intonation, and these children, like beaders, spend a great deal of time on initial listening comprehension. Orchestrators start with sounds, and gradually realize how these sounds form syllables, words, phrases, and sentences. They are dependent on oral models for their language learning. The implications for teaching are that no one method or approach will be appropriate for every learner. Teachers need to master many different ways of teaching the new language, and they should observe and capitalize on the preferred learning styles of individual children.

What kind of linguistic models do second language learners need?

Although the importance of language input to the learner is obvious, it is only recently that attention has been turned to the precise nature of such input. Krashen (1980) has proposed an Input Hypothesis, which states that one acquires a second language by understanding linguistic input that is a little beyond one's current level of proficiency. This understanding of new items contained within familiar ones comes about through using clues from the verbal and nonverbal contexts, and through the learner's knowledge of the world and of language in general. Input that is too far beyond the learner's level will be heard only as noise, whereas input at or below the learner's current level will not add to the acquisition process. Another feature of this hypothesis is that language acquisition is not based on analysis of grammatical structure but on meaning. Therefore the input does not have to be in the form of sequenced grammatical structures (as almost all textbooks present it), but must contain meaningful information at a level just beyond the learner's current ability. Natural language contains sufficient repetition of structures to present the grammatical information needed, and appropriate input provides these structures on a functional basis that relates to the communication needs of the learner.

Although it is easy to understand why teachers should provide the right kind of input for their ESL learners, it can be difficult to implement it. One method is to tape a complete lesson and then listen critically to the language modeled by the teacher. Is it natural? Is it meaningful? Is it useful and relevant for children? Is it neither excessively simple nor excessively complex, but aimed just beyond the children's present proficiency?

Children need a great deal of language input, and it should come from a variety of speakers. When the speaker has something of real importance or interest to communicate the listener will make every effort to understand, and this very effort will advance the second language acquisition process. Structured drills that have no communicative function have little value in helping children acquire the new language; useful and natural exchanges do. Other children naturally adjust their language to the needs of the limited-English-proficient child, and will paraphrase, repeat, slow down, explain, or demonstrate in order to get their meaning across. Teachers could well do the same.

What kind of second language proficiency is needed for success in school subjects?

The setting for second language acquisition determines the type of linguistic competence that is learned. Research on second language acquisition in social situations has provided information about the process of natural second language acquisition, and has shown us the importance of communicative competence. This type of process is largely unconscious and is termed language *acquisition* by Krashen (1980), who distinguishes it from language *learning*, which involves formal study and application of the rules of a language. His Monitor Hypothesis claims that the acquisition process accounts for nearly all of a person's proficiency in a language and that the learning process is available only as a monitor, or self-checking device. He further claims that this monitor is used only by those learners whose cognitive style predisposes them to think analytically about a language, and then only when a specific task demands it.

The implications of the distinction between acquisition and learning, and of the monitor, are that correction of errors and formal teaching of grammar are not effective for most students.

Important as the ability to communicate in a social situation is, it does not provide all the second language proficiency needed for academic success. Cummins (1980) makes a distinction between two types of language proficiency. The first he terms BICS, or Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills. This is the ability to use language to interact socially with others. This fluency is what most of us aspire to when we study a second language, but for the person who must use that second language to progress up the educational ladder, BICS is not enough. The type of language used in school subjects and for achievement tests is quite different from BICS, and Cummins describes it as Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency, or CALP. This type of language proficiency is related to basic cognitive levels and conceptual knowledge, and for this reason it is highly transferable from one language to another. Thus, knowledge and concepts gained in one language, whether they be concerned with mathematics, grammar, reading, writing, social studies, or any academic subject, can be transferred to a second language just as soon as the learner reaches what Cummins calls the threshold level. Learners are at the threshold level in a second language when they have acquired the appropriate labels to attach to concepts already known in the first language.

The BICS/CALP distinction has many implications for teachers. In language proficiency assessment, care must be taken not to confuse testing results of a child's communicative competence with that child's ability to handle academic tasks in the second language. Learning through a second language should not be expected until children have satisfied two criteria: first, that they have reached the threshold level in the second language, and second, that they have acquired the concepts appropriate to their cognitive/maturational level in the first language. For the ESL teacher, a gradual increase in the amount of subject matter taught through English would be beneficial and should be tied to what children already know in the first language. Some subjects, such as math, could be taught through the second language sooner than others because their vocabulary is limited and their nonlinguistic features aid comprehension. Emphasis on literacy skills in the second language will provide children with essential tools for transferring their first language CALP to the second language.

To sum up, we can say that four statements are borne out by current second language acquisition research:

1. There are more similarities than differences between first and second language acquisition.
2. Social and affective factors and differences in cognitive learning styles play a decisive role in second language acquisition.
3. The appropriate kind of input is required for second language acquisition to take place.
4. Second language communicative competence in social situations does not guarantee success in academic language tasks.

These four general areas of current second language acquisition research are interrelated in many ways, and the findings and hypotheses described work together to determine the degree of success a child experiences in acquiring a second language.

What is the developmental sequence for second language learning?

The second language learning model (Figure 1) is a taxonomic representation incorporating and applying several current research findings. The basic structure is patterned on Bloom's taxonomy, which describes six cognitive levels, each higher one building on the lower ones. Since Bloom's taxonomy identifies internal mental processes, an identifier has been placed next to each one describing the linguistic process that takes place at each level.

1—**Knowledge:** lowest cognitive level—memorization, recall.
2—**Comprehension:** basic meaning—putting elements together in new ways.
3—**Application:** functional use of language for communication.
4—**Analysis:** receiving and giving information, putting facts together, identifying main idea.
5—**Synthesis:** looking beyond facts to find reasons, making comparisons and inferences.
6—**Evaluation:** using skills developed in Levels 1-5 to make decisions.

The line of asterisks seems to correspond to Cummins's threshold, that is, the level at which the learner knows a sufficient amount of the second language to be able to undertake academic tasks in it. The first three levels show the processes that build the Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills that are essential for social participation in the second language. These are the skills that are acquired mostly through Krashen's acquisition process, that is, through appropriate input.

The three higher levels seem to belong quite distinctly to school settings, as they describe the kinds of skills that are taught in the regular language arts curriculum. These skills depend on developing the learner's cognitive/academic language proficiency as postulated by Cummins. Probably their development requires considerable conscious learning, in Krashen's sense of the word. It may be more likely, though, that rather than engage in conscious application of the Monitor in acquiring these academic second language skills, the learner finds it more economical to transfer previously developed CALP skills from the first language.

The next two columns describe the kinds of specific linguistic tasks that the learner engages in at each level. In the

Figure 1
Second Language Learning Model

Acquisition/ Learning Emphasis[1]	*Language Proficiency Dimension*[2]	*Cognitive Domain Taxonomy*[3]	*Linguistic Process*	*Internal Language Skills*	*External Language Skills*
Acquisition	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS)	1 **Knowledge**	Recalling	Discrimination of and response to sounds, words, and unanalyzed chunks in listening. Identification of labels, letters, phrases in reading.	Production of single words and formulas; imitation of models. Handwriting, spelling, writing of known elements from dictation.
		2 **Comprehension**	Recombining	Recognition of and response to new combinations of known words and phrases in listening and oral reading. Internal translation to and from first language.	Emergence of interlanguage/telegraphic speech; code-switching and first-language transfer. Writing from guidelines and recombination dictation.
				SOCIAL INTERACTION	
		3 **Application**	Communicating	Understanding meaning of what is listened to in informal situations. Emergence of silent reading for basic comprehension.	Communication of meaning, feelings, and intentions in social and highly contextualized situations. Emergence of expository and creative writing.
••••••••• THRESHOLD •••••••••					
Learning	Cognitive/ Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)	4 **Analysis**	Informing	Acquisition of factual information from listening and reading in decontextualized situations.	Application of factual information acquired to formal, academic speaking and writing activities.
		5 **Synthesis**	Generalizing	Use of information acquired through reading and listening to find relationships, make inferences, draw conclusions.	Explanation of relationships, inferences, and conclusions through formal speech and writing.
		6 **Evaluation**	Judging	Evaluation of accuracy, value, and applicability of ideas acquired through reading and listening.	Expression of judgments through speech and writing, use of rhetorical conventions.

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[1] See Stephen Krashen, "The Monitor Model for Second Language Acquisition." In *Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching*, edited by Rosario C. Gingras. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1978.

[2] See James Cummins, "The Construct of Language Proficiency in Bilingual Education." In *Current Issues in Bilingual Education*. Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics 1980, edited by James E. Alatis. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1980.

[3] See Benjamin S. Bloom and David R. Krathwohl, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York, N.Y.: Longman, 1977.

first column are those related to language competence, the receptive skills of listening and reading comprehension. The second column lists those related to performance, the productive skills of speaking and writing.

Reading List for Teachers

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Obviously, by Level 3 the learner is highly proficient in the second language as far as ability to communicate is concerned, yet there are three more levels to progress through before that learner can function successfully in an academic setting. To make a rough comparison with grade level, the second language learner at Level 3 is at approximately the same level linguistically as the native speaker at the end of first grade or early second grade.

The more years the second language learner is beyond a second grader in age and cognitive development, the more distance this learner has to travel in the three higher levels of the model to reach the point of successful learning through the medium of the second language. Of course, different children can be expected to spend varying amounts of time at each level, but it is obvious that the ten-year-old child who is operating in ESL at Level 3 still is about two years behind the native speaker in language proficiency. Recent Canadian research shows that whereas the LEP child requires only about two years to reach native speaker proficiency in BICS, it takes five to seven years to reach a CALP level comparable to the native speaker (Cummins, 1981).

At this point, the transferability of CALP from the first language becomes crucial. If CALP has been developed to the appropriate cognitive level in the first language, the transfer of academic skills such as reading for information, making inferences, writing logically, and speaking formally can be transferred to the second language in a shorter period of time through the medium of the second language.

In this model, reading and writing have been included from the first level. It is assumed, of course, that initial reading skills have been taught in the first language. Although audiolingual methodology delayed the introduction of the written language, cognitive approaches emphasize the fact that different learner styles profit from exposure to all four language skills from the beginning level. An additional reason for the early introduction of reading and writing lies in the importance of literacy to the development of CALP and the ability to study school subjects in the second language.

How can bilingual classroom teachers apply these research findings in teaching English as a second language?

Because second language learning is similar to first language learning, teachers should:

- Expect errors and consider them as indicators of progress through stages of language acquisition;
- Respond to the intended meanings children try to communicate;
- Provide context and action-oriented activities to clarify meanings and functions of the new language;
- Begin with extensive listening practice, and wait for children to speak when they are ready;
- Avoid repetitive drills and use repetition only as it occurs naturally in songs, poetry, games, stories, and rhymes.

Because social and affective factors, and differences in cognitive learning styles influence second language learning, teachers should:

- Foster positive, caring attitudes between limited- and native-English-speaking children;
- Plan for small-group and paired activities to lessen anxiety and promote cooperation among all children;
- Provide for social interaction with English-speaking peers;
- Vary methodology, materials, and types of evaluation to suit different learning styles;
- Build understanding and acceptance of cultural diversity by discussing values, customs, and individual worth.

Because the appropriate type of input is necessary for second language acquisition to take place, teachers should:

- Ensure that they model language that is meaningful, natural, useful, and relevant to children;
- Provide language input that is a little beyond children's current proficiency level, but can still be understood by them;
- Plan for a variety of input from different people, so that children learn to understand both formal and informal speech, different speech functions, and individual differences in style and register.

Because communicative competence in a second language does not provide children with sufficient skills to study successfully through the medium of that language, teachers should:

- Develop children's concepts and subject matter knowledge in their stronger language during the second language acquisition process so that later they will be able to transfer these concepts to the new language;
- Use the second language for subject matter instruction when children reach the linguistic threshold needed to attach new labels to known concepts;
- Initiate subject matter instruction in the second language in linguistically less demanding subjects, such as math;
- Emphasize reading and writing activities in the second language as soon as children are literate in the first language;
- Realize that tests of communicative competence evaluate children's ability to function in social settings, not their ability to perform successfully in academic settings.

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- Please send mail requests to NCBE, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Rosslyn, Virginia 22209.

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Bibliographic Entries: Learning a Second Language

California State Department of Education. *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework.* 1982. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This publication summarizes a theoretical framework that is based on the best and most current information in the field of second language acquisition and bilingual education.

The papers included in this publication are divided into two sections: The first one contains articles by James Cummins and Stephen Krashen and discusses the theoretical foundations of first language development, second language acquisition, and the role of both in school achievement. The second section contains articles by Dorothy Legarreta-Marcaida, Tracy David Terrell, and Eleanor Wall Thonis. These articles provide strategies and techniques that apply the theoretical framework set forth in the first section.

Dulay, H., M. Burt, and S. Krashen. *Language Two.* 1982. Oxford University Press, 200 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10016.

This book provides an extensive examination of second language acquisition. The authors summarize the most recent findings about learning a second language; they examine the role of first language on second language acquisition, as well as effects of the environment, age, and personality. Chapter 11 (pp. 261-269) brings theory into the classroom and offers teaching techniques that apply the major conclusions from the research.

Izzo, S. *Second Language Learning: A Review of Related Studies.* 1981. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 605, Arlington, VA 22209. (703) 522-0710 (800) 336-4560.

This book examines the most important factors influencing second language learning: intelligence, language aptitude, attitude and motivation, personality traits, age, socioeconomic status, and sex. Factors of the learning situation are also considered. Some of the conclusions follow:

- Intelligence influences second language learning, but can be compensated by motivation.
- Students' attitudes toward the target language and the attitudes of others around the learner affect second language learning.
- The inability to communicate effectively in the second language results in frustration and a loss of self-esteem.
- The teacher is an important factor in language learning.
- The teacher must be skilled in the language and teaching techniques.

- The teacher must have the ability to meet the individual needs of students.
- The amount of time devoted to learning the language is an important factor.

Krashen, S. D. "Language Acquisition and Language Learning in the Late-Entry Bilingual Education Program." *Language Development in a Bilingual Setting*. 1979. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This article compares language acquisition before and after adolescence. Before the age of ten, children acquire at least one language without overt teaching. Around age 12 and coinciding with the appearance of formal operations, the language acquisition potential may be disturbed by feelings of vulnerability and self-consciousness. Adult language acquisition is characterized by the use of both a subconsciously acquired system and a consciously learned system. The author explores practical implications of these theories for the bilingual classroom. He suggests classroom activities that promote language acquisition and learning.

Ventriglia, L. *Conversations of Miguel and Maria: How Children Learn a Second Language*. 1982. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 120 Interstate North Parkway East, Suite 168, Atlanta, GA 30339.

The author presents the basic steps in language learning as observed in over 400 conversations of children learning English as a second language. Emphasis is on the value of social learning and a "naturalistic" approach to the acquisition of a second language. According to Ventriglia, second language learning strategies are most effective when children are given opportunities for linguistic interaction. Every chapter in the book includes classroom applications for linguistic interaction activities. These suggestions should prove useful to primary teachers.

Teaching Strategies for Working With LEP Students

The feature article in this section outlines important instructional implications derived from the research on second language acquisition and suggests classroom applications of research findings.

The materials in this section include general strategies as well as specific strategies for working with elementary or secondary students. Some bibliographic entries deal specifically with the development of reading skills, since the ability to read plays an important role in academic achievement.

11

From Research to Reality: Implications for the Teacher

The previous chapters of this book presented the research findings available to date and extracted from them a comprehensive picture of second language learning. This chapter goes the next step: to the implied teaching guidelines. We do not prescribe a single teaching method, but guidelines which may be personalized in different ways. For example, one teacher might incorporate a silent phase into the curriculum by having students write responses. Another teacher might have students act out responses or even respond in their first language. All of these activities follow one guideline not requiring students to speak in the target language before they are ready.

The guidelines are based on "basic" rather than "applied" research studies. Basic studies focus on how learning takes place rather than on the evaluation of teaching techniques. They describe how learners behave, react and think in various learning situations.

Following are the major characteristics of second language learning that form the basis for the teaching suggestions to be presented.

1. There appear to be *innate learning processors* which guide L_2 acquisition. We have called these the Filter, the Organizer, and the Monitor. (See Figure 11-A below and Chapter 3.) The Filter and the Organizer work subconsciously, while the Monitor takes care of conscious processing.

2. Exposure to *natural communication* in the target language is necessary for the subconscious processors to work well. The richer the learner's exposure to the target language, the more rapid and comprehensive learning is likely to be. (See Chapter 2.)

3. The learner needs to *comprehend the content* of natural communication in the new language. Talk about "here-and-now" topics, for example, characterizes natural communication with child language learners; who usually acquire native-like fluency in a short time. (See Chapter 2.)

4. A *silent phase* at the beginning of language learning (when the student is not *required* to produce the new language) has proven useful for most students in cutting down on interlingual errors and enhancing pronunciation. The optimum length of the phase ranges from several weeks to several months. (See Chapter 2.)

5. The learner's motives, emotions, and attitudes screen what is presented in the language classroom, or outside it. This *affective screening* is highly individual and results in different learning rates and results. (See Chapter 3.)

6. The influence of the *learner's first language* is negligible in grammar. It is significant, however, in pronunciation. Adults are more prone to fall back on their first language; young children rarely do. (See Chapter 5.)

7. Second language learners subconsciously organize the new words and phrases they hear in systematic ways. The principles of organization they use have their source in the structure of the human brain. The result of this human characteristic is the *uniformity and predictability* of basic error types and the order in which certain structures are learned. (See Chapters 6, 7, and 8.)

8. *Conscious learning* and application of grammatical rules have a place in second language learning, but their purpose is different from the subconscious learning which produces native-like fluency. (See Chapter 3.)

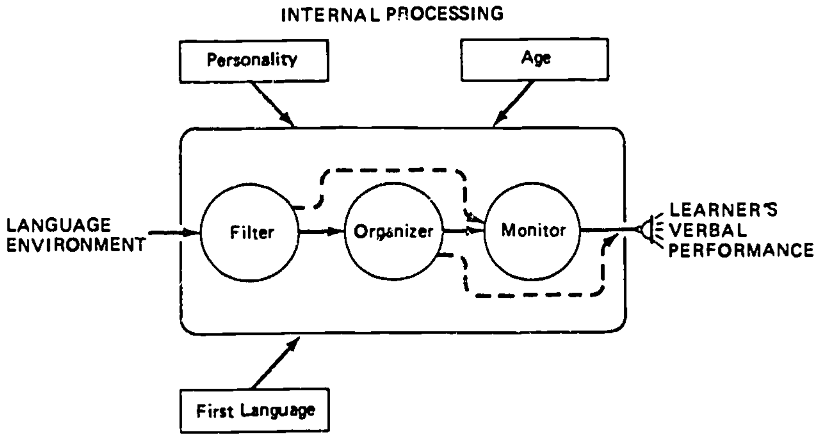
9. *Relaxed and self-confident* learners learn faster. (See Chapters 3 and 4.)

10. Learners who start learning a second language *before puberty* tend to achieve greater proficiency in the language than those who start after puberty. (See Chapter 4.)

11. *Differences between children and adults* may affect language acquisition. Adults are more self-conscious than children, thus tend to be less venturesome in using the new language. Adults are better able than children to consciously learn linguistic rules and extract linguistic patterns. Sometimes this ability works to their benefit; other times to their detriment. (See Chapter 4.)

12. Learners learn most from their peers and from *people with whom they identify*. (See Chapters 2 and 3.)

FIGURE 11-A Working Model for Creative Construction in L_2 Acquisition*



*An updated version of the chart on page 100, in *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language*, edited by Marina Burt, Heidi Dulay and Mary Finocchiaro. New York: Regents Publishing Co. Inc., 1977. Reprinted by permission.

13. *Correction* of grammatical errors does *not* help students avoid them. (See Chapter 2.)

14. Certain structures are acquired only when learners are mentally ready for them. Exposing a learner to a structure does not guarantee learning. If a learner hears a structure very frequently, the structure may be memorized as an unanalyzed whole instead of being graduallly incorporated into a productive system of rules. (See Chapters 2 and 9.)

These fourteen major conclusions from second language acquisition research suggest the following teaching guidelines.

TEACHING GUIDELINES

1. Maximize the Student's Exposure to Natural Communication Natural communication means the learner is focused on the message being conveyed, not on the linguistic form of that message. This enhances the creative construction process and the operation of the Organizer.

Classroom Techniques

- Ask real questions—those which you might ask any native-speaking child or adult. For example:

Are you hungry?
Do you want some milk or juice?
Why don't you have your coat on?

Artificial questions are those whose answers are of no interest to either the one who asks it or the one who has to answer it, either because the answer is already known or no one really cares. For example, *What color is my blouse?* Or (holding a pencil) *Is this a pencil?* Or, right after having said *His name is John*, asking *What's his name?*

- Do not require more of a learner than of a proficient native speaker. If a complete sentence is not grammatically required in response to a question, do not require the learner to provide one. One-word answers are sufficient for certain questions. For example:

Teacher: Is that your pencil? Student: Yes.
Or,
Teacher: What's his name? Student: John.

Insistence on complete sentences when one-word answers would be used in normal conversation may result in students' English sounding stilted and unnatural.

- If you want students to practice using complete sentences, construct questions that will naturally require them. For example:

Why are you late?
What happened to your finger?

Neither of these is typically answered with one word by a native speaker. A subject and verb are required.

- Respond to content when communicating with students, not to form. Do not correct pronunciation or grammar when students are communicating with you or each other. For example:

Teacher: Why are you late?
Student: I miss bus.
Teacher: Why did you miss the bus?

Do not say *No, say "I missed the bus,"* which will destroy the spontaneity of the communication. If you wish, you might say *Oh, you missed the bus* without drawing further attention to it. Correction should be limited to exercises where the focus is on the form of the language.

During communication, accept nonverbal responses as well as responses in the student's native language at first. (You should *not* respond in that language too, however. Respond in the target language.) If students nod their heads or gesture responses correctly, accept them and continue. This tells you the student has understood you, but is not yet ready to communicate verbally in the new language.

- Encourage and create situations where your students can interact with native speakers of the target language. If students are learning English in the U.S., make sure they interact with native English-speaking students. If your students are learning French or some other foreign language in the U.S., encourage trips to communities or countries where the target language is spoken natively.
- Do not do grammar lessons during communication activities.

2. Incorporate a Silent Phase at the Beginning of Your Instructional Program As mentioned earlier, the silent phase is a time during which learners listen and watch, and perhaps respond in their native language or through physical activities. They are not forced to speak in the target language yet.

Classroom Techniques

- Do not force students to produce the target language during the initial weeks of instruction. Instead, accept nonverbal responses, written responses, or responses in the native language. If students volunteer to speak in the new language, however, accept their responses.
- Techniques used in programs that have incorporated the silent phase:
  - Adult students wrote their responses for some weeks, after which they began to respond verbally (Postovsky, 1975, in a Defense Language Institute program).
  - Students (child and adult) acted out their responses during the initial weeks, after which they began to speak the target language (Asher, 1965, 1969; and Asher, Kusudo, and de la Torre, 1974). These findings have now been integrated into a text which provides many ideas and lessons for the silent phase of an English curriculum (Romijn and Seely, 1979).
  - Students (child and adult) were allowed to respond in their native language initially. After several weeks, students began to respond in the target language (Terrell, 1977).

3. Use Concrete Referents to Make the New Language Understandable to Beginning Students A concrete referent is anything or any activity which can be seen, heard, felt or smelled as it is being verbally described.

Classroom Techniques

- Use demonstrable objects and activities as lesson topics. Most teachers already use visual aids such as hand puppets and toys, or they use activities such as growing plants, cooking, games, etc. when teaching children. For older students, use science experiments, arts and crafts and other interesting and demonstrable activities.

4. Devise Specific Techniques to Relax Students and Protect Their Egos Relaxed students learn more easily. This is especially true for adults, most of whom are anxious and nervous about making errors in front of their peers. People who are in authoritative positions in their jobs are especially sensitive to making mistakes or sounding strange.

Classroom Techniques

• Have students invent new identities. They could pick a new name in the new language and take on an identity (e.g. a favorite actor, a gypsy, a policeman etc.) No real identities are known until the end of the program. This reduces the students' fear of looking silly when trying to speak the new language. (This technique has worked extremely well in natural language classes for adults given by The Natural Language Institute in Berkeley, California, for example.)

• Play baroque music softly during the lesson. (Great success has been reported by Lozanov and his colleagues who used this technique to facilitate foreign language and other kinds of learning.)

• Use comfortable chairs (Lozanov).

• Do breathing and stretching exercises before lessons.

• Do not focus on students' language errors, but on the content of what they say in the target language.

5. Include Some Time for Formal Grammar Lessons for Adults Many adults need to learn some formal grammar in order to feel that they are indeed learning a new language. Some adults can also consciously apply simple grammatical rules to produce sentences in the new language.

Classroom Techniques

• Include a regular time or a phase in your curriculum for formal grammar lessons. The amount of time allotted should be small in relation to the rest of the curriculum.

• During grammar lessons make clear that you are now focusing on the structure of the language rather than on communication.

• Focus on low-level, easy rules, not complex ones, e.g. the *it's/its* distinction is a low-level rule. When to put an apostrophe in *its* can be taught. On the other hand, the definite/indefinite *a/the* distinction seems to resist explicit instruction. The rules governing the use of *a* and *the* are so complex, they are not adequately stated in many grammar books. This distinction will be acquired subconsciously, if it is acquired at all.

6. Learn the Motivations of Your Students and Incorporate This Knowledge Into Your Lessons Knowing why your students are in your class, and knowing with whom they want to associate and like whom they want to sound will help explain their different success rates and the domain of the target language they learn.

Classroom Techniques

• Observe the peers with whom your students associate, and note the language variety they use.

• Accept speech that is different from what you have taught if the learner's peers use it too. (It is a waste of time to do anything else. The peer pressure is much stronger than that of the teacher or parent.)

• In order to teach students another "dialect" than the one they are learning from their peers (if it is different from that you are teaching), describe to the students the social situations in which each dialect is used. Avoid value judgments. For example, if the standard dialect which you are teaching is used to interview for a job, say so. Students can then practice interviewing for a job, using the standard dialect. If a nonstandard dialect is used among friends, say so. They can use it during those situations. If students know when to use each "dialect," there will be a purpose for them to learn each.

7. *Create an Atmosphere Where Students Are Not Embarrassed by Their Errors*

Classroom Techniques

- Expect errors (See Chapter 7).
- Do not focus on student errors du[illegible]mmunication.
- Do not show impatience with [illegible] errors.
- Respond to the content of student speech, not the language form they use.
- Use role playing activities to minimize students' feelings of personal failure when they make errors.

8. If You Teach Dialogues, Include Current and Socially Useful Phrases It has been observed that second language learners pick up socially useful phrases almost from the first day. With these phrases, they can get around a foreign country and participate in social activities.

Classroom Techniques

- Observe and note the most common social interactions in which the students are interested, e.g. games, introductions, working together, shopping, asking directions.
- List the stock phrases that are always a part of these situations. For example, for games: *It's my turn; We won.* For introductions: *Good Morning . . . How are you?* For working together: *What's that? Do you want X?* For socializing: *Would you like to dance? Sure.*
- Build dialogues around such exchanges.

9. *Certain Structures Tend to Be Learned Before Others. Do Not Expect Students to Learn "Late Structures" Early*

Classroom Techniques

- Become familiar with the general learning order observed for structures researched and presented here (Chapter 8).
- Avoid teaching late structures early but feel free to use them in your speech at any point in the instructional program.
- You need not teach to the learning order. Familiarity with it will help explain student learning patterns and give you an accurate sense of what to expect from them in so far as the learning of basic English structures is concerned.

There are undoubtedly many more guidelines and techniques that, like these, work in concert with learners' natural tendencies to construct the new language creatively and systematically. If language teaching builds upon these tendencies, both teacher and learner should find the second language experience exciting and productive.

10. Do Not Refer to a Student's L_1 When Teaching the L_2 The second language is a new and independent language system. Since successful second language learners keep their languages distinct, teachers should, too. No reference need be made to the student's first language unless the student requests it.

Classroom Techniques

- Avoid contrasting the L_1 and L_2 when explaining grammatical structure.
- Avoid translation tasks as a major technique. Use only where necessary to clarify meaning.

Bibliographic Entries: Teaching Strategies for Working With LEP Students

General

Maculaitis, J. D., and M. Scheraga. *What to do Before the Books Arrive*. 1981. The Alemany Press, Post Office Box 5265, San Francisco, CA 94101.

The authors have put together the results of over 30 years' experience working with limited English proficient students. The material is especially helpful to beginning ESL teachers. For more experienced teachers, Maculaitis and Scheraga have included references and suggested places for units of study. While the emphasis is on helping ESL teachers, teachers working with LEP st[illegible] [illegible]heir classrooms would find most activ[illegible] [illegible]ble for all students. The sections desc[illegible] [illegible]vities and study units are especially hel[illegible] [illegible]or classroom teachers (pp. 29-80; 96-124).

Pflaum-Conner, S., ed. *Aspects of Reading Education*. 1978. Mc Cutchen Publishing Corporation, 2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, CA 94704.

This is a collection of articles that address issues in the teaching and study of reading. One of the eleven articles included in this publication discusses non-English speaking children and literacy.

Santos, S. L. *Teaching Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies*. 1982. Teacher Edition Packet 3, Series C. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, Dallas, TX 75204.

This module, part of the Series *Bilingual Education Teacher Training Materials*, presents the content, methods, and materials for teaching mathematics, science, and social studies in the bilingual classroom. Of special interest to both elementary and secondary content area teachers are two readings. Reading 2, Unit II, which explains the concepts of the differentiated lesson plan to [illegible] students of different learning styles (pp. [illegible]), and Reading 3, Unit II, which suggests ideas for classroom learning centers to reinforce social studies concepts and topics (pp. 177-215).

Stricherz, G. *Before the Bell Rings*. 1982. The Alemany Press, Post Office Box 5265, San Francisco, CA 94101.

Especially designed to be used with limited English proficient students, this book features listening exercises to develop the skill of following oral commands. The exercises are to be used "before the bell rings," or at any other time when a change of pace is needed. The content of the exercises is varied and includes spelling practice, working with letters, numbers, fractions and geometrical shapes, and solving number problems.

This excellent collection of exercises should prove helpful to all teachers working with LEP students.

Thonis, E.W. *Literacy for America's Spanish Speaking Children*. 1976. International Reading Association, Inc., Newark, DE 19711.

This publication focuses on three major aspects of the teaching of reading to Spanish speaking children: the needs and strengths of different groups of children from literate to illiterate, program alternatives and methods, and the developmental nature of literacy from the point of view of first and second language literacy. It includes an informal language dominance instrument and a list of other available language measures.

Thonis, E.W. "Reading Instruction for Language Minority Students." *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*. 1981 Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

The author discusses the factors that help or hinder the development of reading skills in LEP students, suggests program alternatives, and describes a variety of approaches to teaching reading to LEP students.

Thonis, E.W. *Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers*. 1970. Collier Macmillan, 866 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022.

This book describes the reading process from the first and second language perspectives and gives classroom teachers practical suggestions on how to improve students' reading skills. Checklists to help teachers assess different aspects of the reading process accompany most chapters. The chapter entitled "Reading in the Content Areas" (pp. 86-102) describes the specialized reading and study skills needed for studying elementary and secondary math, social studies, and literature.

Twyford, C.W., W. Diehl, and K. Feathers, eds. "Reading English as a Second Language: Moving From Theory." *Monographs in Language and Reading Studies 4* (1981). School of Education, Indiana University.

This monograph aims to help teachers of LEP students understand the reading process, the factors that influence the development of reading skills, and the implications of research for the teaching of reading of English as a second language. The monograph includes articles under three major subtopics: theory, research, and application.

Elementary

Allen, V.G. "Books to Lead the Non-English Speaking Elementary Student Into Literacy." *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 32, No. 8 (May, 1979), pp. 940-946.

This article suggests ways in which the elementary classroom teacher can help non-English speaking students enjoy reading by offering them positive experiences with books. The annotated bibliography includes books that help develop concepts and vocabulary, picture books, information books, and books to help students feel good about their heritage.

Cainer, S.R. "At Home in Art." *Childhood Education*. 60:2 (1983) 102-108. ACEI, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20016.

This article presents ways in which the cultural and language needs of limited English proficient students can be integrated into art classes. The author suggests strategies for using folk art, art history, and children's literature to develop an appreciation for diversity and help LEP students feel comfortable in art classes.

Garcia, M.A. and J.G. Mena. *The Big E. An English Language Development Program for the Primary Grades*. 1976. Institute of Modern Languages. 2622-24 Pittman Drive, Silver Spring, MD 20910.

This book contains a series of developmental lessons to teach English as a second language in a systematic and sequenced manner. The experiences provided during the lessons are based on the premise that language acquisition is a natural process through which the learner creates and constructs language. The lessons introduce basic concepts about self and the world to primary students.

La Raus, M., K. Andreasen, M. Feder, and M. Wigman. "Some Suggested Classroom Activities for the Content Teacher With Non-English Speaking Students in Class." *Elementary SIG News* III:3 (1981) 4-7, 12.

The suggestions listed in this article come from classroom and content teachers who have worked with limited English proficient students. The activities are practical and feasible. Some of the suggestions are general, others are designed for working with beginning or intermediate and advanced students.

Sosa, A.H. *Practicum: Developing Oral Language Proficiency Through English As A Second-Language (ESL) Instruction*. 1983. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, Dallas Independent School District, Dallas, TX 75204 (202) 742-5991.

This is a collection of instructional games and activities that reinforce listening, speaking, and comprehension skills. The activities are intended for students in grades 1-4 who have intermediate to advanced proficiency in English. Although the activities are presented in the context of the ESL classroom, they could be used by a regular classroom teacher with all students.

Secondary

Cates, G.T., and J.K. Swaffar. *Reading a Second Language*. 1979. Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, Washington, DC 20007.

This publication is part of the series, *Language in Education: Theory and Practice*. It reviews past practices in the teaching of reading of English as a second language, discusses new strategies for fostering reading for comprehension, and offers guidelines for the selection of texts.

Robinson, H. A. *Teaching Reading and Study Strategies: The Content Areas*. 1975. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, MA 02210.

This book is intended for secondary school classroom teachers. The author discusses five major aspects of reading: evaluation procedures, readiness techniques, vocabulary strategies, comprehension strategies, and utilization tasks.

Of special interest to teachers of LEP students are the informal procedures for assessing strengths and weaknesses in reading and study skills. Sample skills inventories are included. The section on Readiness Techniques is particularly useful, since this area is not usually discussed in the context of reading in the content fields.

Although the book was not specifically written with the LEP student in mind, the author recognizes that there are students of varied educational and linguistic backgrounds in many classrooms. He offers suggestions for preparing differentiated lessons and assignments.

In chapters 6-10, the author provides strategies for reading different writing "patterns" characteristic of specific content areas.

TESOL Secondary School SIG Newsletter. Vol. 5, No. 2, Winter, 1983. TESOL, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20016.

This issue of the newsletter focuses on reading for ESL students. Included are a review of *Understanding Reading* by Frank Smith and strategies for helping ESL students improve reading skills.

Establishing Your Resource Center

Here are lists of resources to start your collection. Included are basic ESL teacher reference books and articles.

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education is a major source of information for school districts that need assistance in setting up programs for limited English proficient students.

The *ESL Information Packet* and the *Bilingual Education Information Packet* are invaluable start-up sources of information prepared by the Clearinghouse. These packets contain glossaries of terms, an overview of the field, references and suggested readings, funding sources, and information sources.

The *ESL Information Packet* also includes lists of public and private agencies, institutions, and organizations which provide information about programs for LEP students. The packet contains: an annotated list of textbooks; a directory of publishers; a section on teacher training; classroom activities for beginning, intermediate, and advanced students; and a section on testing. These packets are free from the Clearinghouse, which you can contact by calling (800) 336-4560, or writing to

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1555 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 600
Arlington, Virginia 22209

The following pages list other resources you will find helpful. In addition, other references cited in previous sections of this **Resource Book** should be consulted when selecting materials for the Resource Center.

Establishing Your Resource Center

ESL Teacher Reference Books and Articles

Allen, V.F. *Inside English*, 1983. Regents Publishing Company, Inc., 2 Park Avenue, New York, NY 10016.

This book is written for anyone concerned with helping people speak, understand, read, and write English. It attempts to show teachers how the system of English works through selected grammar structures. The "Comments" section in each chapter explains the grammatical structures, shows how to help students learn them, and tells why they should be learned.

Celce-Murcia, M. and L. Mc Intosh, eds. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. 1979. Newbury House Publishers, Rowley, MA 01969.

This is an introductory text about the theory and practice of teaching English as a second language. The book covers teaching methods, the four language skills, grammar and vocabulary, needs and characteristics of students. A final section offers practical suggestions for teachers.

Clark, R.C. *Language Teaching Techniques*. 1980. Pro Lingua Associates, 15 Elm Street, Brattleboro, VT 05301.

The techniques presented in this book are mainly for developing communicative competence and grammatical accuracy. However, suggestions for reading and writing activities are included.

Clark, R.C., P.R. Moran, and A.A. Burrows. *The ESL Miscelany*. 1981. Pro Lingua Associates, 15 Elm Street, Brattleboro, VT 05301.

This book is a compendium of materials for ESL teachers and ESL curriculum developers. Contents include ideas for lesson planning, lists of grammar points, topics, functions and related vocabulary, and cultural and linguistic information.

Dacanay, F.R. *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching*, 1967. Oceana Publications, Inc., Dobbs Ferry, NY 10522.

The introductory section describes the differences between teaching reading in a second language and teaching reading in the native language. In addition, the book contains practical suggestions for classroom teachers.

Krashen, S.D. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. 1982. Pergamon Press, Inc., Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, NY 10523.

This book summarizes current theory on second language acquisition, and discusses applications of research findings to methods of teaching language and the selection of materials.

Ovando, C. and V.P. Collier. *Bilingual and ESL Classrooms: Teaching in Multicultural Contexts.* 1984 (in press). McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020.

This book covers limited English proficient student characteristics; politics and programs; second language acquisition theory; methods of teaching language; methods of teaching math, social studies, and science; cultural issues, assessment; and school and community issues related to the education of the limited English proficient student. This book will be published during the fall of 1984.

Single copies of the following materials are free from the Refugee Materials Center, U.S. Department of Education, 324 East 11th Street - 9th Floor, Kansas City, MO 64106.

ESL Guidelines. Code No. 100-594.
These guidelines cover program goals, levels of instruction, survival ESL, methods, and lesson plans.

Klassen, J.R. *Some Suggestions for Tutoring Basic English as a Second Language.* Code No. 100-824.
Includes dialogues, drills, and resources.

Lafayette School Cooperation and Indiana SEA. *Project ESL.* Code Nos. 100-769, 100-770; 100-771.
This project developed suggested ESL lesson plans for Language Arts, Mathematics, and Physical Education in grades 1-6.

Nguyen Dan Liem. *English as a Second Language for Indochinese.* Paper presented at the TESOL convention, San Francisco, March 3-9, 1980. Code No. 100-581.
This paper explains some of the teaching and learning problems of English for Indochinese.

Trung Huu Vuong. *Teaching English For Your Vietnamese Students.* Code No. 220-157.
This paper offers tips on teaching and getting to know Indochinese students.

List of Periodicals

Bilingual Journal, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, 49 Washington Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140.

This is a quarterly publication. Subscription for non-federally funded bilingual programs is $7.50 annually.

Bilingual Resources, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

This periodical is published three times a year during the academic year. Price per annual subscription is $7.00.

NABE Journal, The National Association for Bilingual Education, 1201 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 10036, (202) 822-7870.

This journal is published three times a year. Membership in the Association for Bilingual Education includes a subscription to the Journal and to the NABE News.

TESOL Quarterly. TESOL, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20016.

Membership in TESOL includes a subscription to this publication and to the TESOL Newsletter.

Materials for the LEP Student

This concluding section includes an annotated list of textbooks and instructional materials for teaching limited English proficient students, a list of dictionaries and phrase books, and a list of the publishers and distributors that handle the materials listed. The textbooks and instructional materials have been identified by grade level, English proficiency level of the target students, and the major emphasis of the content. An effort was made to include not only ESL materials but also reading, math, science, and social studies materials that have been especially written for the LEP student.

ANNOTATED LIST OF TEXTBOOKS AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR THE LEP STUDENT

itle	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	n.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
r and Water IDE, 1981	X		X	X	X				X		This set of 10 books contains science concepts related to weather and temperature. The Teacher's Guide includes glossaries of technical and concept words. Available in English, Cambodian, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese.
l Purpose Photo brary (Sets 1 &) velopmental Learn-g Materials M #632	X		X			X					Excellent sets of photos that can be used in a variety of ways. Photos are organized by categories. Each category is accompanied by question cards. A good teacher's manual is available.
erica, A Nation Immigrants, ploration and scovery EDE, 1981		X	X	X		X				X	These social studies units have been developed to help LEP students learn historical events as well as develop fluency in English. Bilingual versions are available in English-Hmong, Lao, and Vietnamese.
erican History Course: To the New Land In the Colonies Statehood (The West and Civil War) The Americans Since 1914 Industrial Giant American History Activities P. Larned, ercus Corp. Inc., 83		X		X						X	This series is excellent for ESL students because the reinforcement activities focus on vocabulary and study skills development.

ames and addresses of publishers and distributors appear at the end of this section.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
American Holidays *Refugee Materials* Center Code No. 920-018		X		X	X		R/W			X	This booklet explains holidays and includes follow-up activities. Version is free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code number when ordering.
American Kernel Lessons: Intermediate by R. O'Neill, et al. Longmans, 1978		X		X	X	X	R				Provides opportunities for the development of the four skills. High interest. Reading selections are episodes of a continuous detective story.
America's Story by V. Bernstein Steck Vaughn, 1978		X		X			R			X	Content includes important people and events in the history of the United States. Language and structures are kept simple. The reading level is 2.3.
Basic Health Aids for Emergencies CEEDE, 1981		X	X	X					X		Versions in English, Spanish, Vietnamese, and Lao are available. Cambodian and Hmong versions are being prepared.
Basic Skills Around the House Ditto Masters CEBCO, 1974		X	X			X	R	X			These easy to use ditto masters provide good practice for beginners. Topics include telling time, calendar, dollars and cents.
Basic Skills in Getting Around CEBCO, 1974		X	X				R			X	These functional reading exercises provide good practice in reading maps and following directions.
The Bill of Rights *Refugee Materials* Center Code No. 420-019		X	X	X						X	Bilingual Laotian/English document. Version is free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code numbers when ordering.
The Bill of Rights *Refugee Materials* Center Code No. 420-015		X	X	X						X	Bilingual Spanish/English document. Version is free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code numbers when ordering.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Biology of Plants and Animals - Lab Book by K.B. Wardlow Quercus Corp., Inc., 1983		X		X					X		This lab book focuses on observation and study skills such as making and reading graphs.
Category Cards Developmental Learning Materials DLM #231	X		X			X					This game of cards is divided into nine categories. Provides an excellent way to develop basic vocabulary and classification skills.
Citizens Today by T.A. Rakes, A. De Caprio, and S.R. Randolph Steck Vaughn, 1979		X	X				R			X	Covers all main aspects of national, state, and local government. Enhances vocabulary.
Citizenship, Immigration, Naturalization Newhouse Press		X	X							X	A bilingual Spanish/English publication.
The Classification Game Instructo/McGraw-Hill	X		X			X					This 48-picture card kit develops vocabulary in four categories: clothing, food, pets, and toys. Activities are self-checking.
Composition: American English Guided Composition Houghton Mifflin, 1971		X	X	X			W				Provides for controlled composition writing using basic structures. Includes sample compositions.
Crane Reading System: Pacer Program Crane Publishing Co., 1981	X	X				X	R				A total language approach specifically designed for ESL students in grades K-9. The system includes: Reading Readiness, Readers, Practice Books, Skill Booklets, Story Writing Cards, Picture and Letter Cards, Reference Library, Classroom Management Guides, and Teacher's Guide.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Creative Story Starters Developmental Learning Materials Set I DLM #617 Set 2 DLM #618	X			X	X		W				Students can select their own topics for creative writing. Each page is divided into three sections: action, who or what is doing the action, where the action is taking place.
Democracy In Action by Rakes by T.A. Rakes, A. De Caprio, and J.R. Randolph Steck Vaughn, 1979		X					R			X	Presents a limited study of various aspects of national, state, and local government. Includes a variety of good exercises. The pre-vocabulary work-up section is helpful.
Developing Reading Skills by L. Markstein and L. Hirasawa (Intermediate, Advanced) Newbury House Pub. Co., 1981		X			X		R				Two good supplementary readers for intermediate and advanced students. These books develop high level thinking skills and reading comprehension.
Double Action Cards Addison-Wesley, 1981		X		X		X					These cards promote vocabulary building and provide opportunities for oral practice. Visuals are in black and white.
Easy Vocabulary Games by L. Schinke-Llano National Textbook Co., 1983	X		X	X							This is a collection of 32 ditto masters which include a variety of games that reinforce grammar, writing, and reading skills. Can be used effectively with beginning and intermediate students.
Encounters, A Basic Reader Pimsleur, et al. Eds. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1974		X		X			R				This collection of simplified journalistic articles is based on life in the United States. The reading selections are of high interest. Reading comprehension exercises and other exercises follow each selection.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
English Across the Curriculum, Preparing for Other Subjects in English Books 1-3 by M.M. Maggs National Textbook Co., 1983			X	X			R/W	X	X	X	Book 1 is a content area vocabulary supplement for the ESL beginning student. Books 2 and 3 present a variety of reading, writing, and study skills activities for the beginning to intermediate student. An important feature of this series is the teacher's manual, which outlines objectives and includes tests and separate teaching suggestions for the ESL teacher and for the content area teacher.
English as a Second Language--Study Skills by R.Y. Yorkey, et al. McGraw-Hill Co., 1970		X		X			R/W				Offers practical instruction i skills needed in the regular classroom: note-taking, outlining, using the library, reading for different purposes.
English for a Changing World Books 1-6 by R. Wardbaugh, et al. Scott Foresman & Co., 1976	X	X	X	X		X					Stresses all four skills. Exercises and content are based on real life situations. Accompanying cue book stimulates conversation. Books 2-6 are geared to intermediate students and can be used for grades 5-9.
English for International Communication (Intercom) Books 1-5 by R.Y. Yorkey, et al. American Book Company, 1978		X	X	X		X	R/W				Books 1-3 are appropriate for beginning-level students. Books 4 & 5 are appropriate for intermediate level. Vocabulary and content are of high interest to high school students. Functional reading is integrated into all lessons.
English Grammar for Laotians Refugee Materials Center Code No. 420-025		X	X	X		X					Single copies are free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code number when ordering.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
The English Notebook Minerva Books, Ltd., 1981		X		X							These fundamental structure drills can be used for independent study.
English Step by Step with Pictures by R.S. Boggs & R.J. Dixson Regents Publishing Company, 1980		X	X			X					Stresses vocabulary development through pictures. Is suitable for individual study.
The English Survival Series by M.M. Maggs National Textbook Co., 1981		X	X	X	X	X	R/W				This series is specifically designed to help LEP students in the gradual development of reading and writing skills. The series includes three titles, each with three levels (A, B, C). The titles are: "Building Vocabulary," "Recognizing Details," and "Identifying Main Ideas."
English That Works Books 1 and 2 by K.L. Savage, M. How, and E.L. Young Scott Foresman & Co., 1982		X				X				X	Functional job-related material for use with illiterate secondary students and adults. The tasks are organized into small segments. There are review lessons for each unit. Cultural booklets in Spanish, Vietnamese, and Chinese are available.
Entry to English Books 1-4 by K.K. Beal Steck Vaughn, Co., 1982		X	X			X	R/W				These basic skills workbooks can be used with illiterate, students with little or no education in their native language.
Everyday English Books 1 - 4 by D. Krulik & B. Zaffran National Textbook Company, 1980.		X	X			X					The contents of lessons are based on everyday life situations. Good vocabulary development activities in relevant situations are included in each lesson.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Expanding Reading Skills: Advanced by L. Markstein and L. Hirasawa Newbury House, 1977					X		R				Provides reinforcement of basic structures vocabulary building and guided reading practice.
First Aid CEEDE, 1981		X		X	X						Nine single-concept modules in English, Cambodian, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese.
First Steps in Reading and Writing by J. Wigfield Newbury House Publishers, 1982		X	X				R/W				A literacy text for the adult ESL learner. Reading and writing skills are presented in the context of everyday expressions and needs. Sound/spelling patterns are first introduced orally and later practiced in follow-up activities.
Follett Coping Skills Series: Becoming a U.S. Citizen The Government and You The Law and You Follett Publishing Company, 1982		X		X	X		R			X	These materials were written for secondary students at 3.5 reading level. The readings are short and are followed by reinforcement activities. These are good alternative materials for students who still cannot take social studies mainstream courses.
Fun With Arithmetic Basic Level CEEDE, 1981	X		X	X		X		X			This material reviews elementary concepts of numbers and basic facts. Includes language skills and vocabulary development exercises. Available in English, Cambodian, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese. Workbooks available also.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Fun With Arithmetic Intermediate CEEDE, 1981	X		X	X		X		X			This set of four modules and workbooks is designed to help students acquire math skills while learning English. Topics include prime and composite numbers, prime factorization, theory of sets, divisibility of numbers. Available in English, Cambodian, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese.
Fun With Arithmetic Advanced CEEDE. 1981			X	X		X		X			This set of five student texts and workbooks includes computation of fractions, mixed numbers and decimals, percents, ratios, proportions, and exponents. Available in English, Lao, and Vietnamese.
Getting to Know Myself Hap Palmer Educational Activities, Inc.	X		X			X					This record is part of the series Learning Basic Skills Through Music. All records in this series are excellent.
Go: Reading in Content Areas by H.L. Herber Scholastic Book Services, 1975		X		X			R/W	X	X	X	A skills text written to help students learn to understand classroom textbooks. The student works on understanding important facts and ideas through lessons in literature, social studies, math, and science. Excellent for use with students who are getting ready to be mainstreamed.
Government at Work by W. Lefkowitz & R. Uhlich Janus Publishers, 1982		X		X			R			X	This material is fairly easy to follow. The Teacher's Guide suggests follow-up exercises not included in the student's text.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
I Like English Books 1 & 2 by K. Gay & L. Hluchan Sintetos Scott Foresman Co., 1981	X		X			X					Emphasis is on communication skills. Presents good progression of skills. Includes very useful picture cards.
I Like English Books 3 & 4 by K. Gay & L. Hluchan Sintetos Scott Foresman & Co., 1981	X			X		X					Attention is given to all four skills. Unit tests provide opportunity for monitoring students' progress.
I Like English Books 5 & 6 by K. Gay & L. Hluchan Sintetos Scott Foresman & Co., 1981	X				X	X					Provides for increasing mastery of the four skills. Reading selections present a variety of topics and settings.
Introduction to Algebra - Basic CEEDE, 1981		X	X	X		X		X			This set of five student texts and workbooks is available in English, Lao, and Vietnamese.
Jobs You Get by R. Turner Follett Educational Corp., 1974		X		X		X	R			X	Provides functional reading material and presents practical, varied follow-up exercises.
Ladder Games: Sight Word Builders. Developmental Learning Materials DO 600E	X		X				R				Includes tw[illegible]ts of 26 word cards. Can [illegible]ed for a variety of le[illegible] experiences.
Language You Speak by R. Turner Follett Educational Corp., 1974		X		X		X	R				Contains short, interesting reading selections with practical and challenging exercises.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Magic of English Workbook by J.Vinson. Harper & Row Pub. Co., 1970	X		X				R/W	X			Stresses all four skills. Good for concept development. Introduces basic vocabulary and structures. Good math units.
Measurement CEEDE, 1981	X		X	X				X			There are 21 modules in this unit. The materials develop concepts and skills in length, volume, time, mass, and temperature. Glossaries of technical terms are included in the teacher's guide. Available in English, Lao, and Vietnamese.
The Measurement Mission CEEDE, 1981	X			X	X			X			An activity kit for upper elementary and middle school students. Students apply metric measurement skills in imaginative adventures in space travel. Materials include Teacher's Guide, student log book in English, Hmong, Lao, and Vietnamese, an audio cassette, and one filmstrip.
Mini Decks (set of 6) (PEEK) American Guidance Service	X			X							This set of six packs of cards has a variety of applications. A teacher's manual is not available.
Modern Short Stories in English Dixson, Ed. Regents Publishing Co. 1971		X			X		R				This is an introduction to well-known American authors. The selected short stories are of interest to the limited English proficient student.
My Country - The U.S.A. by E. Smith & F.R. Lutz Steck Vaughn, 1972		X	X				R/W			X	This book will help functionally illiterate adults and adolescents develop reading and writing skills while learning some aspects of the United States and its government.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
My First Picture Dictionary by Jenkins and Scheller Scott Foresman & Co. 1975	X			X							Contains easy definitions. Words are organized by categories. Accompanying exercise book and answer key are available.
My Pictionary by M. Monroe & A. Schiller Scott, Foresman & Co. 1975	X		X								Pictures and words are presented in categories. The classroom teacher can plan activities based on this dictionary.
Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English: Monolingual English Edition by E.C. Parnwell Oxford University Press, 1978	X			X							The vocabulary is presented in the context of over 70 topics. It is also available in an English/Spanish edition. Provides for self-study.
Passage to ESL Literacy by D.M. Lonfield Delta Systems, Inc. 1981		X	X			X	R/W				This workbook helps older illiterate secondary school and adults develop skills in visual discrimination, sound symbol association, sight word recognition, reading, and writing.
Photo Sequential Cards Developmental Learning Materials DLM #325	X		X			X					Full-color photo cards provide for practice in sequencing of events. Can be used with 5th or 6th graders.
Play and Practice! Duplicating Masters National Textbook Company, 1979	X			X		X					This is a set of twenty duplicating masters containing games and activities for ESL students.
Practical English Books 1 & 2 by T. Harris Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1980		X		X	X	X					Excellent for a newcomer who has studied English but needs review of basic structures. Culturally and ethnically diverse in content and illustrations.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Profiles by Z. Clements & L. Burrell Globe Book Company, 1971		X		X			R				Contains short biographies of famous Americans of various ethnic groups. Develops critical thinking skills. The material is of high interest and is not difficult to read.
Questions and Answers on American Citizenship by S. Wiener Regents, 1982		X		X						X	Contains an excellent variety of information. The format is easy to follow.
Reading and Conversations: About the U.S., Its People, Its History, and Its Customs Books 1 & 2 English Language Services, 1976.		X		X	X		R			X	Contains excellent reading and discussion material. Topics include American life and culture, geography, government, education entertainment, art, sports, and music.
Reading, Thinking and Writing by M. Lawrence Univ. of Michigan Press, 1975		X		X	X		R/W				This is challenging and interesting reading material.
Science Readings for Students of English as a Second Language by K. Croft & B. Walker Brown McGraw-Hill, 1966		X		X			R		X		This general science reader includes biology, chemistry, earth science, math, medicine, and space travel. It also contains exercises for vocabulary development.
Speak English! by M. A. Corley, J. M. Coyle, & B. Ansin Smallwood Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1981	X		X			X					Teaches survival English skills to the adult learner.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Speaking of Numbers, I Institute of Modern Languages, 1979.	X	X	X					X			This material is very good for beginners who need basic math vocabulary to succeed in class.
Spin and See Games Milton Bradley	X		X	X	X						Set of games that can be used with different levels. Each card has instructions on the back.
Stepping Into English by C. Barnett National Textbook Co., 1980	X			X	X		R				This series of six readers contains supplementary reading specifically designed for ESL students. Duplicating masters, cassettes, and filmstrips are available for each book.
Target on Language Workbook Christ Church Child Center	X		X			X					This workbook is to be used in conjunction with the Target on Language Manual and curriculum units. Can be easily used by a volunteer or aide. Activities stimulate language learning through vocabulary development, classification skills, following directions, and expressing ideas.
This Is the Way I Go Developmental Learning Materials DLM #429	X		X				R				These six small paperback readers introduce six actions: swim, run, crawl, fly, jump. Good for early readers.
Tutorette Programs Audiotronics	X	X	X	X		X		X		X	This series of audio card programs include language master cards in ESL, math, and survival skills for K-adult levels. Most programs are for beginners or intermediate levels of proficiency.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Twentieth Century American Short Stories by J. McConochie Macmillan & Co., 1975		X		X			R				These short stories were specifically prepared for limited English proficient students. The selections are of high interest.
U.S. Constitution Refugee Materials Center Code No. 420-027		X	X	X	X					X	Bilingual Laotian/English document. Version is free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code number when ordering.
U.S. Declaration of Independence Refugee Materials Center Code No. 920-015		X	X	X						X	Bilingual Spanish/English document. Version is free from the Refugee Materials Center. Use code number when ordering.
United States History 1, Vols. 1-3 United States History 2, Vols. 1-5 Modulearn Inc., 1979		X			X					X	This is a very comprehensive U.S. history textbook that provides many opportunities to reinforce concepts. The coverage of historical events might be too extensive for the LEP student.
The U.S. in the Making Series Vol. I The Road To Independence, Exploration--1783 Vol. II The Development of a Nation--1783-1876 Vol. III Expansion Through The 20th Century--1876 To The Present by K. and S.A. Uva Globe Book Company, 1979		X		X			R			X	These U.S. history textbooks are written at the 5th grade reading level. The books provide good comprehension questions at the end of each chapter. A teaching guide is available.

Title	Grade Level		English Proficiency Level			Topic					Comments:
	Elem.	Secon.	Begin.	Intermed.	Advanced	ESL	Reading/ Writing	Math	Science	Social Studies	
Where Have You Been All These Years? Book 1--Prehistory-War of 1812 Book 2--1820's-1860's Book 3--Civil War-World War I Book 4--1920's-1970's. Amidon Publications No date available		X		X						X	Written at approximately 3rd - 4th grade reading level, this high interest U.S. history material provides many opportunities to reinforce concepts. The coverage of historical events might be too extensive for the LEP student.
Words, Words, Words Book I by W.D. Sheer and R.W. Markley Regents Pub. Co., 1981		X		X		X					These short, purposeful exercises are designed to teach vocabulary. This book can be used as a self-study text.
Write! Exploring English for Speakers of Other Languages by L. Mellgren & M. Walker Addison-Wesley, 1976		X	X	X			W				Reinforces writing skills through everyday life topics. The format allows for individualized use.
Yes! English for Children, Books A, B, and C by M. Walker Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 19(	X		X			X	W				Emphasis is on listening, comprehension, and communication skills. Teacher's Guide provides lesson plans. Book C introduces writing skills.
Yesterday a Today in the U.S.A. by A. Live Prentice-Hall, 1971		X		X	X		R			X	These reading selections deal with important aspects of U.S. history up to the present. Good vocabulary and social studies concept development activities follow the readings.

Materials for the LEP Student

Dictionaries

LANGUAGES	PUBLISHER/DISTRIBUTOR
Cambodian	
Cambodian-English/English-Cambodian Dictionary	Iaconi Book Imports 300 Pennsylvania Avenue San Francisco, CA 94107
Korean	
Essence Korean-English-Korean Dictionary Minjung Seogwan	Seoul Books 3450 West Peterson Avenue Chicago, IL 60659
Korean-English Dictionary (pocket size)	Seoul Books 3450 West Peterson Avenue Chicago, IL 60659
Lao	
English-Lao/Lao-English Dictionary M. Russell	Iaconi Book Imports 300 Pennsylvania Avenue San Francisco, CA 94107
Tuttle-English-Lao/Lao-English Dictionary	Editorial Excelsior 15 North Market Street San Jose, CA 95113 (408) 293-3734 or 3735
Portuguese	
Collins Portuguese-English English-Portuguese Dictionary	Editorial Excelsior 15 North Market Street San Jose, CA 95113 (408) 293-3734 or 3735

Spanish

A Beginner's Bilingual Pictorial Dictionary Code #T01	Bilingual Educational Services Post Office Box 669 South Pasadena, CA 91030-0669 (211) 682-3456 (800) 423-3557
Cassell's Spanish-English/English-Spanish Code #MT001	Continental Book Company 11-03 46th Avenue Long Island City, NY 11101
Diccionario Abreviado Inglés-Español/Español-Inglés Code #VX126	Continental Book Company 11-03 46th Avenue Long Island City, NY 11101
Diccionario Bilingüe Ilustrado Spanish-English Vols. I, II, III Code #s TB6, TB7, TB8	Bilingual Education Services Post Office Box 669 South Pasadena, CA 91030-0669
Diccionario Inglés for Spanish Speakers	Bilingual Publications Company Post Office Box 669 South Pasadena, CA 91030-0669
Diccionario Moderno Español-Inglés/English-Spanish R.G. Pelay Code #LA351	Continental Book Company 11-03 46th Avenue Long Island City, NY 11101
Mi Primer Diccionario Ilustrado (Spanish-English/English Spanish Bilingual Picture Dictionary)	Bilingual Education Services Post Office Box 669 South Pasadena, CA 91030-0669
The Random House Basic Dictionary: Spanish-Spanish/English-English/English-Spanish Sola	Bilingual Publications Company Post Office Box 669 South Pasadena, CA 91030-0669

Vietnamese

English-Vietnamese/Vietnamese-English Combined Dictionary (medium size) Nguyen Van Khon Code #DN-004	Dainam Company 1334 North Pacific Avenue Glendale, CA 91202 (213) 244-0135
Vietnamese-English Dictionary Nguyen Hoa Dinh	Iaconi Book Imports 300 Pennsylvania Avenue San Francisco, CA 94107
Primary Word Book English-Cambodian English-Hmong English-Lao English-Spanish English-Vietnamese	Centers for Educational Experimentation, Development, and Evaluation (CEEDE) 218 Lindquist Center The University of Iowa Iowa City, IO 52242 (319) 353-4200

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Phrase Books

English-Chinese Phrasebook
(for Cantonese Speakers)
Cassette tapes available

Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street, 2nd Floor
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 298-9292

English-Hmong Phrasebook
1981
Cassette tapes available

Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street, 2nd Floor
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 298-9292

English-Khmer Phrasebook With Useful Wordlist
(for Cambodians), 1980
Cassette tapes available

Iaconi Book Imports
300 Pennsylvania Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94107

English-Lao Phrasebook With Useful Wordlist (for
Laotians)
Cassette tapes available

Iaconi Book Imports
300 Pennsylvania Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94107

English-Spanish (Cuban) Phrasebook, 1981
Cassette tapes available

Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street, 2nd Floor
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 298-9292

English-Vietnamese Phrasebook
Nguyen Hy Quange
Cassette tapes available

Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street, 2nd Floor
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 298-9292

Publishers

Addison-Wesley Publishing Company
120 Interstate North Parkway East
Suite 168
Atlanta, GA 30339

Alemany Press
Post Office Box 5265
San Francisco, CA 94101

American Book Company (see D.C. Heath)

American Guidance Services
Publisher Building
Circle Pines, MN 55014

Amidon Publications
1966 Benson Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55116-9990

Barnel Loft, Ltd.
958 Church Street
Baldwin, NY 11510

Borg-Warner Educational Systems
600 West University Drive
Arlington Heights, IL 60004

Bowmar/Noble Publishing Company
4563 Colorado Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90039

CEBCO Publishing Company
9 Kulick Road
Fairfield, NJ 07006

CEEDE
Center for Educational Experimentation,
Development, and Evaluation
218 Lindquist Center
The University of Iowa
Iowa City, IO 52242

Christ Church Child Center
8011 Old Georgetown Road
Bethesda, MD 20814

Collier Macmillan International
866 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Continental Press Inc.
Elizabethtown, PA 17022

Crane Publishing Company
1301 Hamilton Avenue
Post Office Box 3713
Trenton, NJ 08629

Curriculum Associates
5 Esquire Road
North Billerica, MA 01862

D.C. Heath
(Includes American Book Company)
125 Spring Street
Lexington, MA 02173

Delta Systems, Inc.
215 N. Arlington Heights Road
Arlington Heights, IL 60004

Developmental Learning Materials
Post Office Box 4000
One DLM Park
Allen, TX 75002

Easy Aids Inc.
256 South Robertson Boulevard
Beverly Hills, CA 90211

English Language Services
5761 Buckingham Parkway
Culver City, CA 90230

Follet Publishing Company
1010 West Washington Boulevard
Chicago, IL 60607

Frank Schaffer Publisher
26616 Indian Peak Road
Dept. 46
Rancho Palos Verde, CA 92074

Glencoe Publishing Company
17737 Ventura Boulevard
Encino, CA 91316

Globe Book Company
50 West 23rd Street
New York, NY 10017

Hap Palmer Educational Activities
Freeport, NY 11520

Harper and Row Publishing Company
10 East 53rd Street
New York, NY 10022

Houghton Mifflin Company
One Beacon Street
Boston, MA 02107

Institute of Modern Languages, Inc.
Post Office Box 1087
Silver Spring, MD 20910

Instructo/McGraw-Hill
18 Great Valley Parkway
Malvern, PA 19355

Longman, Inc.
19 West 44th Street
New York, NY 10036

McDougal, Littell & Company
Post Office Box 1667-C
Evanston, IL 60204

McGraw-Hill Book Company
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Macmillan Publishing Company
Front and Braun Streets
Riverside, NJ 08370

Melton Peninsula, Inc.
1949 Stemmons Freeway
Dallas, TX 75207

Milliken
c/o Kunz, Inc.
207 East Patapsco Avenue
Baltimore, MD 21225

Milton Bradley Company
c/o Chaselle, Inc.
9645 Gerwig Lane
Columbia, MD 21046

Minerva Books, Ltd.
137 West 14th Street
New York, NY 10011

Modern Curriculum Press
13900 Prospect Road
Cleveland, OH 44136

Modulearn, Inc.
Post Office Box 669
1602 Hope Street
South Pasadena, CA 92030

National Textbook Company
8259 Niles Center Road
Skokie, IL 60077

New Readers Press
Laubach Literacy International
Box 131
Syracuse, NY 13210

Newbury House Publishers
Rowley, MA 01969

Newhouse Press
Post Office Box 76145
Los Angeles, CA 90076

Oxford University Press
200 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Prentice-Hall
Educational Book Division
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Quercus Corporation
2768 Pineridge Road
Castro Valley, CA 94546

Random House
School Division
400 Hahn Road
Westminster, MD 21157

Reader's Digest Services, Inc.
Educational Division
Pleasantville, NY 10570

Refugee Materials Center
324 East 11th Street, 9th Floor
Kansas City, MO 64106

Regents Publishing Company
2 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Riverside Publishing Company
(Includes Rand McNally)
8420 Bryn Mawr Avenue
Chicago, IL 60631

Scott, Foresman & Company
1900 East Lake Avenue
Glenview, IL 60025

Silver Burdett Company
250 James Street
CN -18
Morristown, NJ 07960

Steck Vaughn Company
Post Office Box 2028
Austin, TX 78768

University of Michigan Press
Post Office Box 1104
Ann Arbor, MI 48106