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ABSTRACT

In order to study for citizenship tests, amnesty students need to be able to read U.S. history material, although they usually have no background knowledge for it. According to schema theory, background knowledge is important for reading comprehension. Research has shown significant improvement in the reading comprehension of intermediate level English-as-a-Second-Language students as a result of the provision of appropriate background knowledge. To discover whether the provision of background knowledge would help beginning-level ESL students, beginning-level amnesty students were tested. The provision of appropriate, multisensory, background experiences on Abraham Lincoln for the experimental group resulted in statistically significant improvement in reading comprehension, as shown on a free written recall test. The control group received multisensory experiences irrelevant to the test. Differences in syntactic complexity of texts used in the tests were insignificant. Lesson plans on Abraham Lincoln and Martin Luther King, Jr. are included. Eight appendices include charts, texts, tests, scoring criteria, and scripts for slides. (Contains 54 references.) (Author/KM)

SCHEMA THEORY: TEACHING U.S. HISTORY TO BEGINNING AMNESTY STUDENTS

A THESIS

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Intercultural Studies

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Master of Arts in TESOL

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by

Ellen Cecelia Chervenick

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ABSTRACT

SCHEMA THEORY: TEACHING U.S. HISTORY
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In order to study for citizenship tests, amnesty students need to be able to read U.S. history material, although they usually have no background knowledge for it. According to schema theory, background knowledge is important for reading comprehension. Experiments have shown significant improvement in the reading comprehension of intermediate-level ESL students as a result of the provision of appropriate background knowledge (Floyd and Carrell, 1987). However, to discover whether the provision of background knowledge would help beginning-level ESL students, I taught and tested beginning-level amnesty students. The provision of appropriate, multisensory, background experiences on Abraham Lincoln for the experimental group resulted in statistically significant improvement in reading comprehension, as shown on a free written recall test. The control group received multisensory experiences irrelevant to the test. Differences in syntactic complexity of texts used in the tests were insignificant. Lesson plans on Abraham Lincoln and Martin Luther King, Jr. are included.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

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INTRODUCTION

The teaching of reading in the field of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) is currently dominated by the concept of schema theory. Schemata (plural of schema) are thought to be patterns and "patterns within patterns" (Kenneth Pike, 1990) of background knowledge that the reader brings to the reading process. The reader's schemata plays an essential role in the process of reading comprehension.

Some educators suggest that ESL students should have written material to read that correlates with their background knowledge and is relevant to their experiences and interests. While this is an excellent idea and should be implemented whenever possible, it is not always an option, due to the fact that most teachers have such a wide diversity of students and backgrounds in their classes. With this diversity, teachers might have to spend too much time locating materials to meet each student's individual needs. Another equally viable and possibly more practical option for teachers to consider is the teaching of background knowledge to students by providing first-hand experiences related to the topics that they want the students to read about. In other words, when background knowledge is lacking within students, it can be supplied to some degree through appropriate multisensory activities. These activities create background knowledge in the students and will cause subsequent improvement in their reading comprehension for that topic.

What better place to utilize these concepts of schema theory than with amnesty students? These disadvantaged students have gone through great perils to get to this country and our classrooms. Many are now faced with amnesty requirements that seem difficult to them, such as needing to learn about U.S. history. However, lessons that provide multisensory experiences on U.S. history will be enjoyable for them and create background knowledge for them, thus making it easier for them to comprehend U.S. history material.

Chapter one explains the background of the amnesty program and describes the program and its educational requirements. Chapter two provides background information on schema theory: its history and implications for reading comprehension in general and with ESL students. It concludes with a description of Floyd and Carrell's (1987) experiment which utilized schema theory by providing appropriate background knowledge for a U.S. history text for intermediate-level ESL students. In chapter three I present my experiment which was based on Floyd and Carrell's (1987) study, but with beginning-level amnesty students. Statistical results and a discussion of these results follow the description of my experiment. Chapter four presents lesson plans on Abraham Lincoln and Martin Luther King, Jr. which will build schemata in students for reading material on these topics. These lesson plans would be excellent for use in teaching amnesty students about U.S. history.

CHAPTER I. BACKGROUND OF THE AMNESTY PROGRAM

General Description

Some have come for work, others have come to join their families, and others have come to flee political and economic problems. For a variety of reasons there has been an overwhelming tide of illegal immigration to the United States in recent years. In an effort to stem this tide and gain some control over this immigration, Congress enacted a law in 1986. The Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) has brought about significant changes in U.S. immigration policy. These changes may be the most important ones related to immigration in this country in the last century and may have the broadest impact.

The rationale behind the IRCA was that it would eliminate the primary lure that draws illegal immigrants to this country--jobs. This law requires that every employer in the U.S. must determine that every worker he or she hires is a legal resident. This means that the worker must either be a U.S. citizen or an immigrant registered with the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS). Any employer, whether a big business or an individual hiring household help, who does not determine this will have to pay a stiff fine. If the employer is found guilty of repeated offenses he may go to jail.

The IRCA has been quite controversial. There has been disagreement as to whether the law is necessary. As the new rules were being drawn up, employers' groups (especially those in agriculture) argued that foreign workers fulfill an important need for this country. They do heavy labor that U.S. citizens do not want to do, and they do it for lower pay than most U.S. citizens would accept. Other critics (civil rights advocates for Hispanic and Asian Americans) warned that the new rules could increase employment discrimination.

As a result of these disagreements, the restrictions of IRCA were balanced with an amnesty program to help some of the illegal immigrants become legal. If qualified, these legalized immigrants could later apply for citizenship.

Within the amnesty program there are two categories that an Eligible Legalized Alien (ELA) can fall into--"245"s, who have resided in the United States from December 31, 1981 to the present; and "210"s sometimes referred to as Special Agricultural Workers (SAW)s. "245"s had to apply for amnesty by May, 1988; "210"s had to apply for amnesty by December, 1988.

Phase I of the amnesty program refers to the application of these ELAs for temporary residency. A total of 3,540,857 ELAs applied for Phase I, of which 1,767,033 were "245"s and 1,287,824 were "210"s. Only 1,643,770 of the total applicants were approved for temporary residence by the INS, of which 1,311,560 were "245"s and 332,220 were "210"s.

There are two kinds of SAWs, "A"s and "B"s, described as follows: "A"s are farm workers who had to prove that they worked in the U.S. for 90 days of eligible seasonal employment in each of three years between the dates of May 1, 1983 and May 1, 1984; May 1, 1984 and May 1, 1985; May 1, 1985 and May 1, 1986. "B"s are farm workers who had to prove that they had worked for 90 days of eligible seasonal employment between the dates of May 1, 1985, and May 1, 1986. "A"s were automatically adjusted to permanent residency status in December of 1989. "B"s will automatically be adjusted to permanent residency status in December of 1990. All SAWs are required to go to an INS office and fill out a form for this adjustment to permanent residency status to occur. The only reason these "210"s would be denied this status would be if they were in the U.S. for less than six months out of the year because of returning to their native country during that time.

Educational Requirements

"210"s are not required to fulfill any educational requirements because they are such needed workers. However, the "245"s are required to fulfill some educational requirements.

The reason for the "245"s having educational requirements is due to the fact that further disagreements over the IRCA occurred as the policy was being drawn up. Some lawmakers from Texas were arguing against even having the amnesty program, but finally compromised by insisting that the applicants had to learn to speak English. As a result, Congress included an educational requirement that applicants must document the fact that they are learning to speak English and that they know something about the United States. In other previous circumstances it was not necessary for immigrants to fulfill any such requirements. This is a special case for this particular group of immigrants. The educational requirements are a part of Phase II of the amnesty program.

Phase II refers to the period between the time an applicant has been granted temporary resident status (not merely a work permit) and the time this applicant has been adjusted to permanent residency status. Sometimes this is referred to as "green card" status. This time includes a mandatory residency period of eighteen months, after which an applicant has a maximum of twelve months to adjust to permanent residency status. The way that an applicant adjusts to permanent residency status is to apply for an interview with the INS. At the interview, the applicant need satisfy only one of the following educational requirements to receive permanent residence (U.S. Department of Justice Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1989):

-pass an oral test on U.S. goverment and history, given in English at the time of interview. This test is based on a list of one hundred questions (see appendix A).
-pass an INS-approved test on U.S. government and history, given in English at an independent test site
(If one of the above options is chosen, both of which include an English reading and writing test, the applicant need not take another test when applying for U.S. citizenship later).
-complete at least forty hours of an INS-approved sixty hour course and present a "Certificate of Satisfactory Pursuit" (from an INS-approved school) with the application or at the interview.
-complete at least forty hours of self study in English, U.S. government and history, and pass the videotaped "IRCA Test for Permanent Residency", a simple, fifteen-question test given at an INS legalization office or an INS-approved site.
-present a U.S. high school diploma or general education development diploma (GED). If the GED was not taken in English, pass an English proficiency exam.
-present proof of completing one academic year in a state-approved school including at least forty hours of English, U.S. history, and government.
Applicants are exempt from the above requirements if they are:
-under sixteen years of age.
-age sixty-five or older.
-over age fifty and have lived in the U.S. for at least twenty years.
-developmentally disabled or physically unable to comply and have medical certification.

Due to these educational requirements, state funds were made available called State Legalization Impact Assistance Grants (SLIAG). The money for these grants comes from the federal government's department of Health and Human Services (HHS). This money is administered by the State Department of Education who gives it to Community Based Organizations (CBO)s and Qualified Designated Entities (QDE)s. These acronyms are often used in conversations regarding the amnesty program.

ESL classes that are SLIAG funded must include English language instruction at the students' level that involves survival skills, U.S. history, and government. As stated above, students who have attended these classes for forty hours will need to get a Certificate of Satisfactory Pursuit to show as proof at the interview.

One of the main problems associated with these educational services is that the regulations have changed quite often. There has been controversy over how many hours would be required and what skills would need to be demonstrated. The INS has had the responsibility of overseeing the program and has not been happy about it. The INS is responsible for interpreting the intent of Congress and making sure it works. The law states, "The applicant must demonstrate minimal understanding of ordinary English and a knowledge and understanding of the history and government of the United States." This wording is vague enough that it leaves room for a wide range of interpretation.

Earlier versions of the legislation required that applicants take a citizenship test. Currently, however, these requirements have been become optional. Educators argued that beginning-level ESL students were incapable of understanding U.S. history and government. Due to this controversy, the requirements have allowed for instruction at the students' level. For example, at the beginning level, students may be able to learn the colors of the flag and how to mail in a certified letter to the INS. They cannot be expected to understand a weakness of the Articles of Confederation or why Congress is called a bicameral legislature.

The education requirements have created quite a backlog in ESL classes. It was estimated in 1988 that sixty-six thousand people in the Los Angeles area alone needed to get ESL certification. At Monrovia Adult School, where I teach, there was a waiting list of more than seven hundred people in 1989. Lynne Whitaker, Amnesty and ESL Coordinator of the school, stated (1989, personal communication), "If they (ELAs) do not meet the educational requirements by the time of the expiration date on their Phase II temporary resident card, they could be subject to deportation." Even if these students are on the waiting list now, they may have to wait a long time--as late as 1991. Whitaker further stated, "We are asking INS to be lenient with those people on the waiting list."

No one is required to become a citizen or to take a citizenship test. An immigrant may stay in the U.S. with a "green card" indefinitely and there is no problem legally. It is hoped, however, that these immigrants will want to take the tests and become citizens.

Evaluation of Existing Materials

Since one of the purposes of this paper was to find better ways of teaching amnesty students, I decided to get a general idea about some of the materials that are available for teaching citizenship to amnesty students. Currently, there are about fifteen books written for ESL amnesty students including the books written by the U.S. government (some of these books are in Spanish only; some have one edition in Spanish and one in English; one is in Spanish and English in the same book; and some are at a preliterate level). Due to time and financial constraints, I was not able to evaluate every one of these books. Nevertheless, the following is an alphabetical list (according to author) of the titles of the books that I evaluated. The actual evaluations follow the list in the same order.

List of Materials

--Collins, Carolyn, Diane Pun-Kay, and Linda Bainbridge, Bridge to Permanent Residence, English through U.S. History and Government: The Basic Course

--Nutall, Linda Renae, Participating in Government

--Scott, Corinn Codye, Government is News: Studying the Constitution

--Seely, Margaret, Handbook for Citizenship: Second Edition

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, A Reference Manual for Citizenship Instructors

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Citizenship and Naturalization Information

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, United States History 1600-1987 Level 1

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, U.S. Government Structure

Evaluation of Materials

I evaluated the following materials on the basis of content, format, level, and suitability for a teacher to use with beginning-level amnesty ESL students:

--Collins, Carolyn, Diane Pun-Kay, and Linda Bainbridge. 1988. Bridge to Permanent Residence. English through U.S. History and Government: The Basic Course. La Puente: Hacienda La Puente Unified School District, Adult Education.

There are 10 units of consumable material (inexpensive newprint booklets that the students can write on); each unit is 8-19 pages long. The following is a list of the titles of the units:

I. The Beginning
II. Independence
III. Civil War
IV. The President
V. Congress
VI. Laws and the Courts
VII. The U.S. Constitution
VIII. Federal Government Today
IX. State and Local Government Today
X. The United States and You

There are two other booklets in this series at higher levels, but this is the basic beginner-level course. It was designed to fulfill the need for materials to teach U.S. History and Government to the beginning and pre-literate limited English speaker.

The materials provide an illustrated outline of U.S. history and government. The teacher can use this as a basis for teaching the students on their level. The illustrations seem to be mostly understandable, although some are a bit ambiguous. The content includes information traditionally thought important which is included in the federal textbook series on citizenship from which INS has traditionally chosen questions for the citizenship examination. Also included in the series is a "Mini-Guide" to the use of the course. Helpful suggestions for the teaching of the materials are included. The level of the series would be excellent for use with beginners. This series was specifically designed and written for the amnesty student.

--Nutall, Linda Renae. 1988. Participating in Government. Castro Valley: Quercus Corporation.

The book is 64 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Who Runs the Country?
Think About Issues
Form Opinions
Ready, Set, Vote!
Write to a Representative
Join a Political Party
Take Part in Interest Groups
Use the Courts
Re-runs

This book is well written and has several good illustrations. The text is designed for teenagers and young adults who are at the 2.2 Spache Reading Level. The purpose of the book is to provide students with information and motivation to become active U.S. citizens. The book teaches students to weigh the pros and cons of issues before taking action in government. Practical ideas are presented about registering to vote, writing to a party or interest group, etc. This helps students understand government and encourages them to participate in it.

The issues raised in the text are of interest to young people. The activities encourage thinking and give students practical experience in writing letters or filling out forms.

The book would be useful for native English speaking teenagers or intermediate to advanced ESL students.

--Scott, Corinn Codye. 1987. Government is News: Studying the Constitution. Castro Valley: Quercus Corporation.

The book is 64 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Tune In to These Words
Government is News
Democracy
The Constitution is News
Article I: The Legislative Branch
Article II: The Executive Branch
Article III: Between the States
Articles V, VI, and VII: Changes, Highest Law, and Acceptance
The Bill of Rights: The First 10 Amendments
Citizens Are News
Channel Your Thoughts

The book is interestingly written with good illustrations, which are numerous. The text is designed for teenagers and young adults at the 2.5 Spache Reading Level. The book covers the basics of U.S. government as in the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. Due to the fact that many young people have almost no contact with government, except for what they pick up through the news media, the book presents government as news. This format helps students understand what they hear on the news and associate new words with their governmental contexts.

The use of "live" TV news stories helps dramatize constitutional concepts. Before each chapter, "Tune In to These Words" alerts students and teachers to difficult words that are coming up. Teachers are encouraged to teach these words to the students before they read the chapter.

This book would be excellent for native English speaking teenagers or advanced ESL students. However, it would not be suitable for beginning-level ESL students.

--Seely, Margaret. 1989. Handbook for Citizenship: Second Edition. Hayward: Janus Book Publishers, Inc.

The book is 104 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Naturalization
Early U.S. History
U.S. Government
State and Local Government
Appendices
Practice Questions and Answers: Cassette Tape/Tapescript
Writing Practice for the Naturalization Exam

This is a comprehensive guide designed for ESL studentswho are studying for the U.S. Naturalization Exam. The first edition was originally written for the old citizenship test (which was more difficult) given by the INS, but the second edition is written at a lower level. The second edition is an improvement over the first edition in terms of quality and quantity. Also, the second edition has a teacher's manual and includes facsimiles of naturalization forms. In addition, an audio cassette is available with sample questions from previous exams.

The book seems to be at a high beginning level or almost an intermediate level. In my opinion, it is too advanced for most beginners. However, it could be used with some beginners with extra help from the teacher.

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1987. A Reference Manual for Citizenship Instructors. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

This book is 73 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Introduction
Overview of Citizenship Instruction
Assumptions Underlying Texts
Description of Texts
Organization and Use of Texts
Instructional Activities
Improving Communication Skills in Limited English Proficient Adults
Evaluating Learner Progress
Additional Resources and Materials
Appendices
Exhibits

This book has some very heplful suggestions for teaching citizenship. It is thoughtfully written and discusses things such as learners' characteristics and needs. Some of the techniques for improving communication skills are good, such as: bingo, multiple choice, memory, dictionary development, and role plays. Charts that show advantages and disadvantages of different activities are presented. The naturalization exam is discussed, and suggestions for preparing students for the exam are made, e.g., giving students oral tests in class. Guidelines for this type of test are given.

Additional resources are listed in the appendices: a) suggested instructional activities for the history, government, and civics texts, and b) questions for discussion for these texts.

Most of the suggestions are written for teachers of advanced-level ESL students. However, some of the suggestions can be used with beginning or intermediate-level students with some adaptation. The book is well worth studying for the amnesty ESL teacher.

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1987. Citizenship Education and Naturalization Information. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

This book is 57 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Learning Objectives
I. Being a U.S. Citizen
II. Becoming a U.S. Citizen
Glossary
Index
Illustrations

This book is a must for amnesty ESL teachers. It is designed to be a teacher resource book, but can be used with advanced-level ESL students and there are some one-page descriptions of things like the Statue of Liberty and the Liberty Bell which are possibly suitable for intermediate or high beginning-level students. Across from each of these pages is a good picture of the subject. I think students would like these sections, because they can get a good idea about these important American landmarks.

The book's listed objectives are to enable students to:

-Describe the relationship between the U.S. form of government and the authority, rights, and privileges of U.S. citizens.

-Discuss the importance of freedom and independence in U.S. history.

-Discuss the rights granted by the Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

-Discuss the citizens' duties and responsibilities to their communities and their country.

-Recognize national symbols and landmarks and their importance.

-Describe the steps to take to become naturalized.

In chapter one the U.S. System of Government is explained. Also, freedom and the basic rights, duties, and responsibilities of citizens are explained.

In chapter two the procedure for filing for citizenship is explained: file an application, take the examination, and appear for a final court hearing. Also, eligibility requirements are discussed.

Review questions are included after each chapter. These questions are included in the citizenship test and can be asked by the INS examiner. Teachers can use the text and the review questions as the basis for instruction, although it would have to be summarized and simplified.

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1987. United States History 1600-1987 Level I. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

The book is 222 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Learning Objectives--United States History: 1600-1987
I. Discovery and Colonization
II. Revolutionary War and the Constitution
III. The New Nation
IV. The Nation Grows
V. The Civil War
VI. From Agricultural to Industrial Society
VII. World War I
VIII. World War II
IX. After World War II
Appendices
Glossary
Index

This book is designed for ELAs who are in the amnesty program; however, it is written at an advanced level. In fact, it might even be difficult for some native speakers who have a limited vocabulary. Nevertheless, it is interestingly written and clearly explains many aspects of American history. There are some very nice pictures that go with each section. The review questions are helpful at the end of each chapter. The definitions of difficult words are also helpful. However, even the definitions of the words are at an advanced level. Students would at least have to be familiar with the past tense so that they can understand the historical passages. This book is best used as a resource for teachers to look up U.S. History material so that they can simplify it for beginning and intermediate-level ESL students.

The citizenship test is based on the review questions from this text. Teachers can use the text and the review questions as the basis for instruction, although it would have to be summarized.

--U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1987. U.S. Government Structure. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

This book is 111 pages long. The following is a list of the table of contents:

Learning Objectives
I. The Constitution
II. The Federal Government
III. State Government
IV. Local Government
Appendix
Glossary
Index
Exhibits
Illustrations

This book, written for advanced ESL students, is best used as a teacher resource book. Because it supplies a lot of useful information on U.S. government in a summarized form, it can become the base for creating simplified materials or the substance of a refresher course for teachers. The book's listed objectives are to enable students to:

-Describe the organization of U.S. government as established by the Constitution.
-Identify the Bill of Rights and its importance to all people living in the U.S.
-Identify the three main principles of the Constitution.
-Explain the concept of separation of powers and checks and balances.
-Explain the concept of government by the people.
-Name the three branches of government and the powers of each.
-Discuss the importance of the amendment process.
-Discuss the three levels of U.S. Government.
-Explain the procedure for the general presidential election.
-Identify local, state, and national leaders.
-Identify types of county and city government.

In chapter one, The Constitution, the following topics are covered: main principles, inherent rights, government by the people, separation of powers, structure of the constitution, and definitions.

In chapter two, The Federal Government, the following topics are covered: the executive branch, the legislative branch, the judicial branch, making it work, responsibilities, and definitions.

In chapter three, State Government, the following topics are covered: authority, structure, responsibilities, and definitions.

In chapter four, Local Government, the following topics are covered: authority, structure, responsibilities, and definitions.

The review questions at the end of the chapters are included in the amnesty test and may be asked by an INS examiner. In the appendix is the Constitution of the U.S.

Update on the U.S. Government Texts

The U.S. government books evaluated above were rewritten from material written in the seventies. As mentioned above, they were too advanced (grade level 5-8) for amnesty students. Due to this problem, the INS commissioned the Center for Applied Linguistics to rewrite the texts. The revised editions first became available in December of 1989. These revisions are more appropriate (grade level 3-4) for beginning-level amnesty students and have good illustrations and layout. Unfortunately, these more appropriate revisions are too late to help the majority of amnesty students who have already gone through their forty hours of instruction. However, these revised texts could be helpful to those who want to use them to study for one of the optional citizenship tests.

The Tests

As stated previously, amnesty applicants can choose to take one of two tests that will satisfy the educational requirements and allow them to waive the required test later when they apply for U.S. citizenship. The two tests are as follows: (a) an oral test on U.S. government and history, given in English at the time of the interview and referred to as a "312," or (b) an INS approved test on U.S. government and history given in English at an independent site.

The "312" citizenship test is verbally administered by an INS interviewer. The test is based on one hundred questions on U.S. history and government (see appendix A). The applicant should study these one hundred questions before going to the interview. The examiner usually tries to assess the applicant's educational level and then chooses ten questions to ask the applicant out of the one hundred that correspond to this level (Winston Williams. 1990. Legalization Assistance/Outreach Coordinator, INS, Pomona, CA, personal communication). Currently, the examiners generally want the applicant to be able to pass the test (they are not trying to trick them or purposely make things difficult for them). Six of these ten questions must be answered correctly in order for the applicant to pass the test. At the end of the exam the applicant is required to write one complete sentence in English.

In the past, a criticism directed at the INS was that too much was left to the individual examiner's discretion in the choice of questions asked. Some examiners asked fair questions, while others asked questions that were unfair because they were far too complicated or obscure for the applicant to have known. This was due, in part, to no standardization of questions that the examiner could ask. Currently, the examiners can only ask questions from the list of one hundred questions that are taken from the federal textbooks (see descriptions of these books on pages 7 to 10).

Beginning ESL students probably should not attempt to take this test. Intermediate or advanced ESL students would be better candidates for it.

The test that is offerred at independent sites (such as churches and schools) is considered to be less difficult than the "312." It is newly available and is presented on videotape. An applicant may be charged as much as $10 to take it. The test is based on one hundred questions on U.S. history and government (see appendix A). The applicant can study these one hundred questions and/or study a booklet from the INS designed for preparing an applicant for the test (the booklet and test cover general information that a person living in this country needs to know, e.g., "Where do you go to get a driver's license?" and other common sense questions). The test has eighteen questions, although the first three are just for practice. The applicant must get nine out of fifteen questions correct in order to pass the test. An ESL student who is a Level Two (intermediate-level

beginner) or Level Three (advanced-level beginner) could pass this test; any person with a second or third grade education could probably pass it.

There is a third test that amnesty applicants can take but which does not count later as a citizenship test. As stated previously, it can satisfy the educational requirement for Phase II if taken in conjunction with forty hours of self study in English and U.S. government and history. This videotaped test was developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) and is called the "IRCA Test for Permanent Residency." It is a fifteen-question test given at an INS Legalization Office or an INS-approved site. The applicant can study for this test in the same way he or she would study for the previously mentioned videotaped test (described above).

Update on the Amnesty Program

Phase II of the program is not over at the time of writing this thesis. The target date for Phase II to be completed is December, 1990. However, since there still are applications coming in for Phase I (due to deadlines being extended for special situations), the date for Phase II's completion will be "when the last approved temporary resident's eligibility ends or when he/she applies and is accepted for permanent residency" (Winston Williams, INS, personal communication, 1990).

So far, the amnesty program seems to be a failure in some ways and a success in others. Some educators and INS personnel feel that it has been a failure at stemming the tide of illegal immigrants at the border. Currently, illegal immigrants are still crossing the Mexican border to the U.S.

The main reason for this seems to be that the living conditions of the poor in Mexico are still immeasurably low and wretched. The devaluation of the peso has increased this abysmal economic situation. These people are starving and their families are starving; they are desperate to "find a better life," (Carol Mares, 1990, Instructional Consultant of Adult and Occupational Education, Los Angeles Unified School District, personal communication) even if it means trying to survive in the U.S. illegally. This is even more difficult to do now that most employers are checking to see that employees are legal. Employers in the skilled professions seem to be complying with the IRCA, but some employers in unskilled professions are not. Unfortunately, those who are not complying often are taking advantage of these desperate immigrants and pay extremely low wages for grueling work.

Although these new immigrants are not eligible for the current amnesty program, many are hoping that another one will occur in the future, so "they are beginning to collect proof of residency now, such as registering at schools" (Lynne Whitaker, August, 1990, Amnesty and ESL Coordinator, Monrovia Adult School, Monrovia, CA, personal communication). Some educators speculate that the reason that many new immigrants are now here is the fact that INS officials are not checking workplaces for illegal immigrants as rigorously as they did at first. In the beginning stages of the IRCA, INS officials would often conduct raids on factories to find illegal immigrants. Due to these raids, some lawsuits have been filed against the INS by Hispanic groups; these lawsuits have charged the INS with rough and discriminatory treatment of Hispanic workers. Until the outcome of these lawsuits is determined, the INS may continue to be less strict in checking workplaces for illegal immigrants.

Another aspect of the program that some consider a failure has been that few new permanent residents seem to be interested in becoming U.S. citizens. As mentioned earlier, it had been hoped that many of them would want to become citizens. It may be that these new permanent residents feel satisfied with their residency status, and becoming a citizen will not do much more for them. Specifically, the eligibility to vote and serve on a jury may not be much of an incentive for them to become citizens.

The majority of Phase II applicants have chosen to take the forty hours of an INS-approved sixty hour course and to present a "Certificate of Satisfactory Pursuit" with their application or at the interview. These forty hours do not qualify immigrants for citizenship in five years. However, the forty hours are the safest choice especially for beginners because they cannot fail as they could if they took one of the tests (although applicants are given two chances to try to pass the tests). Also, either of the two citizenship-qualifying tests can be taken in addition to the forty hours of English instruction at a later time.

When asked why the majority of amnesty applicants choose to take the forty hours instead of the two citizenship tests, Carol Mares (1990, Instructional Consultant of Adult and Occupational Education, LAUSD, personal communication) replied, "The forty hours are a lot easier and less scary than the tests. However, it is unfortunate that (as easy as these tests are now) more people do not take them." Mares further explained that most amnesty applicants do not realize that if they did take the tests (which allow them to become eligible to become citizens in five years), it would enable them to bring loved ones over the border a lot faster (when they have become citizens). For permanent residents (not citizens) the waiting period for bringing family members to the U.S is five to ten years; for citizens the waiting period is as little as a year. Also, as citizens, they can sponsor anyone coming to the U.S. even if not related (if the citizen can show proof of being financially capable of support). It is unfortunate that most amnesty applicants do not realize the full benefits of taking the tests that will qualify them to become citizens in five years.

Several factors may be causing these applicants to be unaware of the benefits of taking the tests. First, it is possible that publicity (that is clear and understandable to them) is not getting out to the amnesty population about the situation. Second, it is possible that people who do not want more immigrants in the U.S. are not encouraging a situation where many more could be immigrating in the future. Moreover, these applicants have been "through the mill" and have lived in a "shadow of fear" as illegal aliens; there have been so many changes in INS policy that some are scared to "come out of the woodwork" any more than is necessary (Carol Mares, 1990).

Another problem is that most educators feel that only forty hours of English instruction is not enough for these new immigrants to really learn much English. A small percentage of ESL amnesty students continue on in English classes, but most drop out after their required forty hours are over.

On the other hand, the amnesty program is considered a success by many. A very positive outcome has been that a large number of illegal immigrants have become permanent residents. At this time, 76% of those who were approved through Phase I have completed Phase II (Winston Williams, 1990). These new permanent residents now have the privilege of being legally employed in the United States with no fear of deportation. Also, they have the privilege of continuing on with free instruction in English. Further, they have the option of becoming citizens later if they so choose. Families eventually can be reunited after many years of separation. For many of these greatly persecuted immigrants, the amnesty program is a dream come true.

Teaching Beginning Amnesty Students United States History and Government

As stated previously, in the beginning of the amnesty program, teachers were expected to teach low-level students complicated information on U.S. history and government. So, when I began research for this thesis in 1988, I set out to find a way that teachers could improve students' reading comprehension for material that was above their level.

In the meantime, regulations have changed so that now teachers are only required to teach material that is at the students' level. The students can now understand the material,

but another problem has emerged: students cannot pass the optional citizenship tests. U.S. history and government material currently taught in beginning ESL classes is at such a low level that it does not adequately prepare students for the tests.

Knowing that it is to the students' benefit to apply for U.S. citizenship, teachers should encourage them to learn the more advanced material. This material is most frequently presented in written form. Thus, reading comprehension is the most important skill that students must have. However, students often have very low levels of reading comprehension for materials on U.S. history topics.

Therefore, the question remains: how can ESL teachers enable students to read material that is above their level to prepare them for these tests? I propose that the building of background knowledge will enable low-level readers to understand more advanced materials. In my experiment, I tried to find a way to build background knowledge.

CHAPTER II. BACKGROUND OF SCHEMA THEORY

What is Schema Theory?

Since the theoretical underpinning of my study is schema theory, the purpose of this chapter is to provide some background information about schema theory. Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary defines the word "schema" as being from the Greek:

1. a diagrammatic presentation; broadly: a structured framework or plan; outline
2. a mental codification of experience that includes a particular organized way of perceiving cognitively and responding to a complex situation or set of stimuli.

The main idea behind schema theory is that written (or spoken) words do not in and of themselves carry meaning. The meaning comes from the person reading the words; the words only provide clues from which the reader constructs meaning using his or her own background knowledge. An example of this is what you are doing right now. As you are reading the words on this paper, you are bringing your own background knowledge into play in order to comprehend what I am trying to convey to you through these words, which are symbols of my thoughts.

Schemata (plural of schema) are thought of as being "higher-level complex knowledge structures" (van Dijk, 1981). Widdowson (1983, 54) defines schemata as:

> cognitive constructs or configurations of knowledge which we place over events so as to bring them into alignment with familiar patterns of experience and belief. They therefore serve as devices for catagorizing and arranging information so that it can be interpreted and retained.

Schemata function as "ideational scaffolding" (Anderson and Reynolds, 1977) in the organizing and interpreting of experience and "are a means of representing that background knowledge which we all use" (Brown and Yule, 1983). A person's schemata can determine the way new information is processed. A negative example of this is racial prejudice. If a person has an existing schemata for people of a certain race which assigns them undesirable traits, the old schemata is activated when new people of this race are encountered regardless of their traits (desirable or undesirable).

Conversations sometimes reflect the evidences of schemata. Brown and Yule (1983) cite an example of this as follows:

A. There's a party political broadcast coming on--do you want to watch it?
B. No--switch it off--I know what they're going to say already.

In this conversation, "B" has heard political broadcasts before and already has a mental framework for the basic content of the upcoming one even though he has never heard the new one before.

"A schema is an abstract knowledge structure . . . abstract in the sense that it summarizes what is known about a variety of cases that differ in many particulars" (Anderson and Pearson, 1984). An example of a knowledge structure is shown in the following illustration of a ship christening schema. It shows that a typical person's knowledge of a ship christening can be broken into six parts: it is done by a celebrity; it is done to bless a ship; etc. (see figure 1). These parts are sometimes referred to as "slots." When one or more of these slots are "instantiated" with corresponding information, the schema becomes activated and is used to interpret incoming data. Anderson and Pearson (1984) use this example:

> Queen Elizabeth participated in a long-delayed ceremony in Clydebank, Scotland, yesterday. While there is still bitterness here following the protracted strike, on this occasion a crowd of shipyard workers numbering in the hundreds joined dignitaries in cheering as the HMS *Pinafore* slipped into the water.

Although the term "ship christening" is not used in this passage, certain bits of information fit into some of the slots of the ship christening schema; e.g., Queen Elizabeth

fits the "done by celebrity" slot; Clydebank and shipyard workers fit the "in dry dock" slot; HMS *Pinafore* fits the "involves new ship" slot, and so on. Hence, the information is interpreted as a ship christening. In other words, the mind has a network of background knowledge which is activated when bits of new information are plugged in.

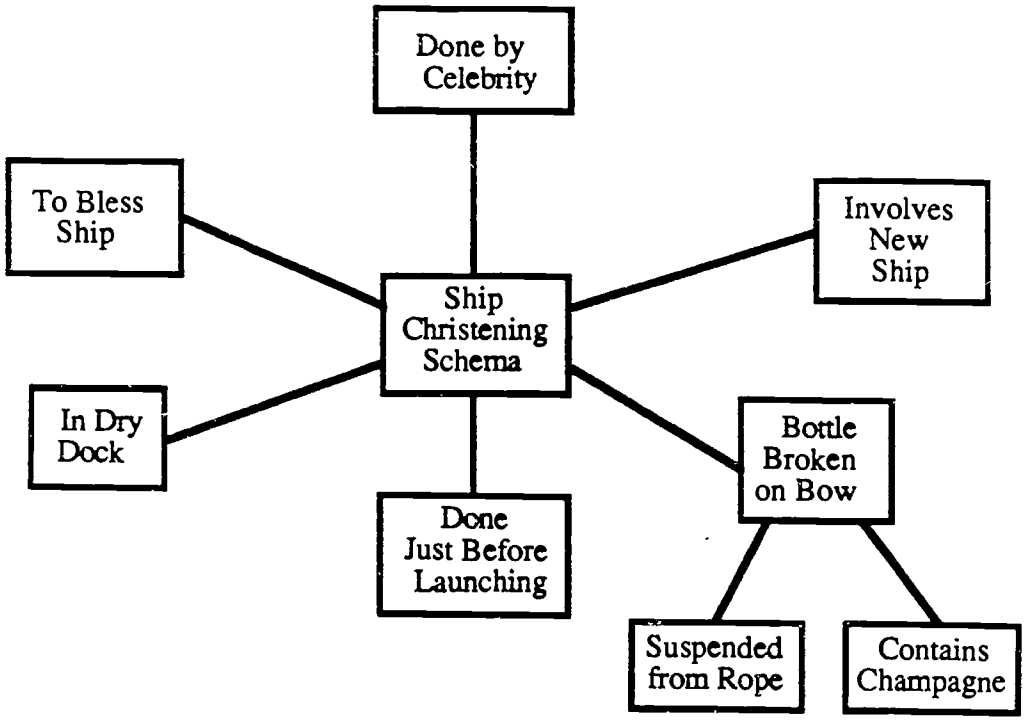

Figure 1: Ship Christening Schema (Anderson and Pearson, in Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988, 43)

Figure 1 illustrates one of the key concepts in schema theory: concept-driven or top-down processing. This processing entails making predictions about a text based on higher level, general schemata and then checking the text to corroborate or refute these predictions. In this top-down approach, the reader's previous linguistic knowledge and proficiency level in the language are important; however, the reader's previous background knowledge of the content of the text (content schemata) and the rhetorical structure of the text (formal schemata) are equally as important.

On the other hand, data-driven or bottom-up processing, is essential as well. Bottom-up processing involves decoding individual linguistic units (e.g., phonemes, graphemes, words) and constructing meaning starting from the smallest units and going to the largest. Bottom-up processing is thought to be activated by incoming information which enters the system through the best fitting bottom-level schemata. Then these bottom-level schemata converge into, and thus activate higher-level, more general schemata (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983).

Schemata are speculated to be hierarchically organized in the brain with "the most general knowledge structures at the top and the most specific at the bottom" (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). This hierarchy may look something like figure 2:

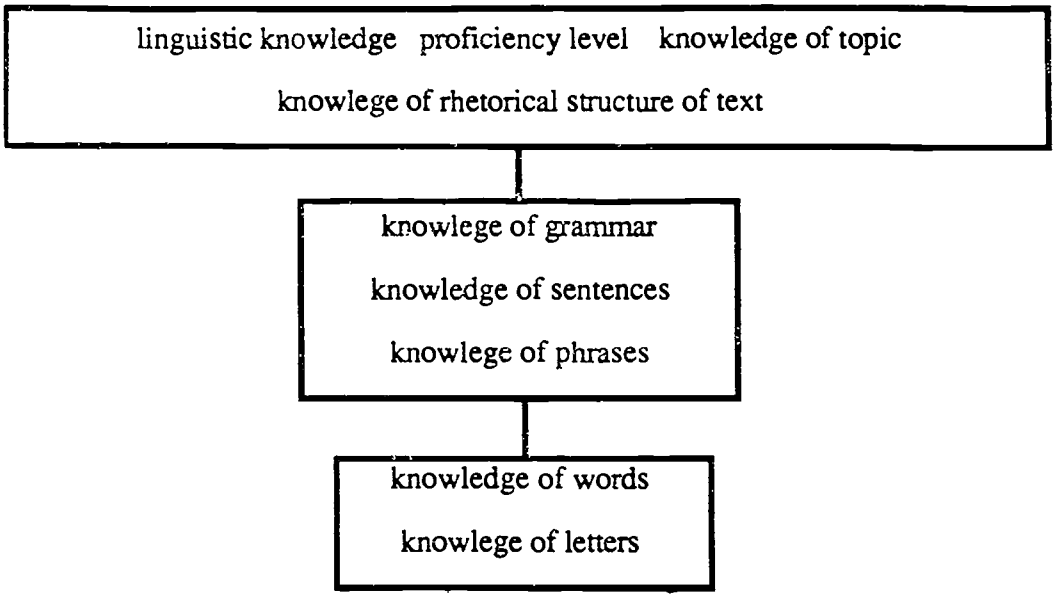

Figure 2. Possible Hierarchy of Schemata

Significantly, both top-down and bottom-up modes are needed for effective information processing and should be occurring simultaneously. It is interesting to consider how this may operate:

> The data that are needed to *instantiate*, or fill out, the schemata become available through bottom-up processing; top-down processing facilitates their assimilation if they are anticipated by or consistant with the listener/reader's conceptual expectations. Bottom-up processing ensures that the listeners/readers will be sensetive to information that is novel or that does not fit their ongoing hypothesis about the content or structure of the text; top-down processing helps the listeners/readers to resolve ambiguities or to select between alternative possible interpretations of the incoming data (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983).

This technical vocabulary has caused some people in the ESL field to become skeptical about schema theory. An article written by Mohsen Ghadessy ("Is Schema Theory Telling Us Anything New?") expresses this point of view. He is critical of the terminology used in the field of schema theory and the fact that some of the concepts in it have been expressed in other ways before. Also, he states that:

> their theory and the resulting technical jargon may suit computers and robots but not humans whose creativity in both production and perception of language cannot be accounted for by a rigid and static approach to text interpretation advocated by schema theory (Ghadessy, 1987).

Ghadessy cites an imaginary example of a teacher using schema theory "jargon" with a student. However, the technical vocabulary is not meant to be used in conversations with students; it is meant for use with informed colleagues. Further, though some forms of schema theory may have been expressed before, current research does shed new light on this aspect of human cognition. Finally, schema theory, although influenced by computer research, is not dealing with humans as computers or robots. It is one way of looking at what people do when they process information.

The emphasis many schema theorists have placed on top-down processing has also produced skepticism. Although there may have been an overemphasis on top-down processing in recent years, it was due to an underemphasis on it in the past. An interactive approach between top-down and bottom-up is the goal (Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988).

The History of Schema Theory

The concept of schema theory has existed for a long time, although it was not always referred to as schema theory. A statement that Immanuel Kant made in 1781 was quoted in an article about recent brain research: "Perception is not likely to be just a passive process--in some sense, the brain *builds* the model of the world (Allman, 1988)." Patricia Carrell and Joan Eisterhold (1983) also refer to Kant's claim "that new information, new concepts, new ideas, can have meaning for an individual only when they can be related to something the individual already knows." Kant was obviously ahead of his time, as was Sir Frederic Bartlett, who first used the term, "schema theory."

In 1932, Bartlett, a psychologist, used the term schema theory in his book, Remembering. He defined the word "schema" as:

> An active organisation of past reactions, or of past experiences, which must always be supposed to be operating in any well-adapted organic response. That is, whenever there is any order or regularity of behaviour, a particular response is possible only because it is related to other similar responses which have been serially organised, yet which operate, not simply as individual members coming one after another, but as a unitary mass (1932, 201).

Bartlett's thinking sounds somewhat similar to current brain research: "It may be this collection of neurons acting all at once in the manner of a New England town meeting that allows the brain to draw scattered bits of data into a cohesive picture and make intuitive leaps" (Allman, 1988). Bartlett believed the schema is not static (fixed), but something that is "active" and "developing." (On the other hand, others in the field of schema theory suggest that "schemata represent stereotypes of concepts" (Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977). It may be that schemata are both fixed and active.) Although Bartlett was not entirely clear about how schema worked, he wrote of a top-down influence:

> . . . An individual does not ordinarily take . . . a situation detail by detail and meticulously build up the whole. In all ordinary instances he has an overmastering tendency simply to get a general impression of the whole; and, on the basis of this, he constructs the probable detail. Very little of his construction is literally observed. . . . But it is the sort of construction which serves to justify his general impression (1932, 206).

Even though Bartlett was the first to use the term "schema theory," most scholars agree that historically the credit for the origin of schema theory goes to the Gestalt school of psychology. Bartlett and the Gestalt psychologists appreciated and were aware of each other's work, yet they did not interact or exchange ideas. Gestalt psychology started with a paper that was written on some experimental research by Max Wertheimer in 1912. Many papers followed, reporting on research in memory and the way people process information. This research became the hub of the Gestalt school.

The German word Gestalt means "shape" or "form." Gestalt psychology was the study of mental organization which emphasized holistic properties. It was a reaction to the psychology of the day which emphasized the pieces of the mental process; mental chemistry or "the analysis of conscious processes into elements" (Wundt, cited in Boring, 1950, 333) rather than the whole picture.

Contrary to the popular beliefs of the day, the Gestalt psychologists believed that "the properties of a whole experience cannot be inferred from its parts" (Anderson and Pearson, 1984). An example relating to the mental chemistry idea that Gestalt psychologists used to

illustrate this concept was: chemical compounds have properties that cannot be predicted from the characteristics of the individual elements from which they are composed.

An example of Gestalt experimentation was Wulf's (1922/1938) research on visual memory. He showed subjects geometric designs and asked them to reproduce them at different intervals of time. Wulf observed "leveling" and "sharpening" changes in the reproductions over time. Leveling means a smoothing of irregularities; sharpening means an emphasizing of a prominant feature. Wulf explained the results as follows:

> In addition to, or even instead of, purely visual data there were also general types or schemata in terms of which the subject constructed his responses. . . . The schema itself becomes with time ever more dominant; visual imagery of the original disappears, . . . details contained in the original are forgotten and incorrectly reproduced, yet even the last reproduction will usually show a steady progress towards representation of the type or schema originally conceived (Wulf, 1922/1938, 141, cited in Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988).

A more recent contributer to this field is David Ausubel. Ausubel (1963), and Ausubel and Robinson (1969) state that in meaningful learning, already-known general ideas "subsume" or "anchor" the new information found in texts. Ausubel has had a strong influence on many people in the schema theory movement today.

Computer science has been one of the main influences on schema theory in the last two decades. As computer scientists have studied how to program computers by studying human cognition, major breakthroughs have occurred in the field of schema theory, which have confirmed it as a thoery (Minsky, 1975; Winograd, 1975). Most of this research has been applied to the reading process (Anderson, 1977).

Interestingly, an explosion of recent findings on how the brain really works seems to support the notions behind schema theory. Allman (1988, 49) explains these findings as follows:

> From a combination of computer simulations and biological experiments, a radically new picture of the brain is emerging: Brain cells are tied together in complex networks that allow them to quickly recognize patterns . . . and call up related memories.

For the first time, current brain research is beginning to explain how the brain can recognize complex patterns by calling up distant memories from its vast storehouse of recollections--tasks that even the most powerful computers are unable to do. Scientists now understand that the brain is quite different from an orderly, computerlike machine that methodically makes calculations in a step by step manner. Instead, it seems to be more like a "beehive or a busy marketplace, a seething swarm of densely interconnected nerve cells" (Allman 1988, 48). Input enters the system and triggers a pattern of electrical activity in a network of neurons. Because of background information, and variations in input, the signal is not the same every time. The brain must identify the input not by making an exact match but by recognizing fundamental similarities to a pattern stored in its memory.

> The neurons in the network do this by communicating with one another to find the best match between the incoming pattern and one stored in the memory. Pieces of the incoming pattern that resemble a stored pattern are reinforced; those that don't match are weakened. By this process, the incoming signal evolves to the pattern it most closely resembles--and the incoming [information] is recognized (Allman 1988, 49).

Although Allman does not mention schema theory by name, clearly it is related to this new information about how the brain works. When a network is given repeated stimuli, such as two neurons being active at the same time, these neurons will communicate more strongly; and the brain will "organize itself" to perform a task. As researchers continue to explore how the brain accomplishes sophisticated information processing, more credence may be given to the concept of schema theory.

Implications for Reading Comprehension in General

In the field of education, schema theory has had a major influence on reading comprehension. In the early 1900's Huey wrote of something like schema theory:

> So it is clear that the larger the amount read during a reading pause, the more inevitably must the reading be by suggestion and inference from clews [sic] of whatsoever kind, internal or external. In reading, the deficient picture is filled in, retouched by the mind, and the page is thus made to present the familiar appearance of completeness in its detail which we suppose to exist in the actual page (Huey 1908/1968, 67- 68).

Another early example of the use of schema theory in reading comprehension was the influence of Francis Parker (Mathews, 1966) when he was the director of the laboratory school at the University of Chicago in the early 1900's. He emphasized the importance of building knowledge structures through experience as a prerequisite to reading.

Ernest Horn, although mainly recognized for his work in spelling, contributed support to the concept that the reader contributes much to the reading process. Horn explains and elucidates this concept so wonderfully (especially for his time), that I have included a whole passage from his book, as follows:

> The significance of the symbolic character of language cannot be overemphasized. The words of the text represent the author's attempt to depict some aspect of social reality. The embodiment of reality into language, even for the purposes of the author's own thought, is not easy, but language, . . . involves a sayee as well as a sayer; i.e., it must be chosen with reference to the limitations and abilities of some audience. **The author, moreover, does not really convey ideas to the reader; he merely stimulates him to construct them out of his own experience. If the concept is already in the reader's mind, the task is relatively easy, but if, as is usually the case in school, it is new to the reader, its construction more nearly approaches problem-solving than simple association.** Moreover, any error, bias, or inadaquacy in the author's statement is almost certain to be reflected in the ideas formed by the student. **All this is so obvious that elaboration would be gratuitous were it not for the fact that the implications of the symbolic character of language are either not apprehended by teachers and by authors of texts in the social studies or are generally disregarded by them in practice** (Horn 1937, 154-55, emphases mine).

Another contributor to this way of thinking was William Gray (1948). He suggested that it was necessary for children's prior knowledge to be engaged before they read texts.

The psycholinguistic model of reading exerted a strong influence in the field of first language learning. Goodman described reading as a "psycholinguistic process by which the reader, a language user, reconstructs . . . a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display" (Goodman 1971, 135). The reader accomplishes this by "sampling, predicting, testing, and confirming" information (Goodman 1971, 136). Problems can occur for the reader when he or she has no appropriate background knowledge to draw from while reading. If there is no schemata in the reader's mind for the topic he or she is reading about, incorrect assumptions are likely to be made.

When background was lacking in childrens' minds, Gray (1948, 57) suggested that "in preparing children to read any given selection, the wise teacher is careful to provide such background." Gray continued, "One very effective way to ensure that the words in a given selection are in the children's speaking-meaning vocabularies is to provide first-hand experiences through which youngsters acquire concrete meanings for the words (Gray 1948, 58)."

Studies conducted with English-speaking children reading English have shown that students' reading can be improved by helping them build background knowledge on a topic before reading. Stevens (1982) increased learning from text for an experimental group of tenth-grade students reading a history passage (about the Alamo), compared to a control group reading the same history passage, by teaching the experimental group relevant background information for that passage (the Texan Revolution of 1836).

Implications for Reading Comprehension and ESL

Recently, the field of ESL reading comprehension has been strongly influenced by schema theory. In the early 1970's the psycholinguistic model of reading was applied to ESL. At that time, Goodman's theory (1971) of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game," began to have an effect on ESL and reading comprehension. Although Goodman did not describe his theory as a top-down model, his theory appears to be similar to the top-down model. Other ESL reading experts such as Anderson (1978) and Cziko (1978) have described Goodman's theory as a concept-driven, top-down pattern in which the reader is actively involved in processing information provided by clues from a text.

More recently, others in the ESL field, notably, Clarke and Silberstein (1977), Clarke (1979), Mackay and Mountford (1979), and Widdowson (1978, 1983) began to view reading by the ESL reader as an active process in which the reader processes information and predicts upcoming information by sampling small portions of the text. Widdowson created a diagram (see figure 3) to illustrate this process in which available information is modified through schema, which directs the reader to explore by sampling the information.

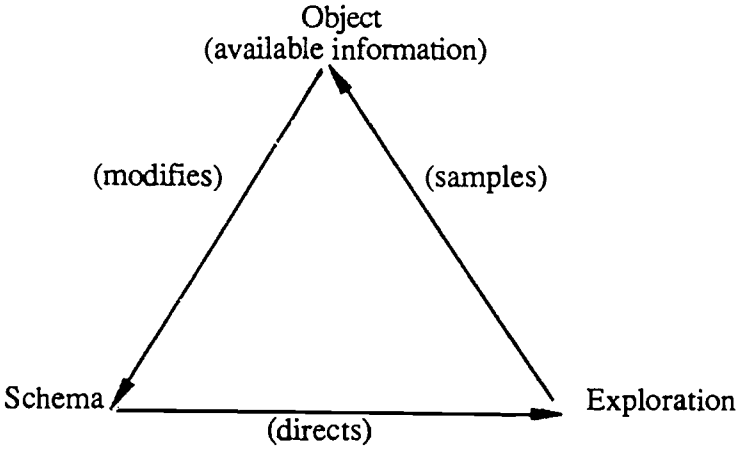

Figure 3. The Perceptual Cycle (Widdowson 1983, 66)

During the 70's, while the contribution of the reader to the reading process became emphasized in the ESL field, ESL teachers were also getting tired of the past overemphasis on the audio-lingual method. They had noted that aural-oral proficiency did not necessarily help ESL students with reading comprehension. Reading experts in the field began to suggest that reading needed to be taught separately rather than just as an appendage to the teaching of oral skills (Eskey, 1973; Saville-Troike, 1973).

However, the main advent of the emphasis on top-down processing in ESL reading did not come until Coady (1979) elaborated on this theme and proposed a psycholinguistic

model for ESL reading in which the reader's background knowledge, conceptual abilities, and process strategies work together to produce comprehension. This top-down emphasis has had a profound effect on the field; so much so, that there has been a "tendency to view the introduction of a strong top-down perspective as a *substitute* for the bottom-up decoding view of reading, rather than its complement" (Carrell 1988, 4). On the contrary, both processes must interact for effective reading to take place.

While it is true that both processes are important, it must be emphasized that if a reader does not possess the background knowledge appropriate to a reading passage, comprehension can be significantly impaired. As Floyd and Carrell state in their study (1987, 89),

> A number of second-language, ESL studies have shown that prior background knowledge of the content area of a text, what Carrell (1983) has called a reader's content schema, significantly affects reading comprehension of that text. This has been demonstrated in particular for prior background knowledge of culture-specific text content.

As in reading comprehension in general, the ESL reader can encounter difficulties when he or she has no background knowledge appropriate for the reading material.

A seminal study in this area was done by Steffensen, Joag-dev, and Anderson (1979). This study was done with nineteen Indians (natives of India) and twenty Americans at the university level. These students read two letters: one about a typical Indian wedding and one about a typical American wedding. Participants then recalled these letters following interpolated tasks. An analysis of the results showed that subjects read their native passage faster, recalled a larger amount of information from their native passage, and produced more culturally appropriate elaborations on their native passage. Conversely, more culturally based distortions surfaced from reading the foreign passage. These results demonstrated that implicit cultural background knowledge presupposed by a text and the reader's own cultural background knowledge interact to make texts based on one's own culture easier to read, understand, and recall than equivalent texts based on less familiar cultures.

Carrell (1981) conducted an experiment using two groups of subjects. The first group consisted of thirteen Chinese and thirteen Japanese advanced ESL students. The second group consisted of twenty-six native speakers of English. Subjects read folktales from three different cultural orientations: native culture (Japanese and Chinese, respectively), second culture (Western European/English), and totally unfamiliar culture (American Apache Indian). Written recall was used to test them following the reading. Also, subjects were asked to rate each folktale on how difficult or easy it seemed to them. Statistical analysis of the data indicated that reading comprehension and recall are affected by the cultural origin of the story according to the background of the reader. This is especially true in the case of texts from a totally unfamiliar culture (in this case, American Apache Indian). Results also indicated that the cultural origin of the text and the subject's prior familiarity or lack of familiarity with that culture affected the ESL subjects' judgments of the level of difficulty of the texts.

Johnson (1981) determined that the cultural origin of a text is more important for ESL students' reading comprehension than is linguistic complexity. In Johnson's study, Iranian intermediate-to-advanced-level ESL students and American students read one folktale each from Iran and America. Half of the subjects in each group read the unadapted English texts of the two stories. The other half read the same stories in simplified or adapted English. Subjects were tested on their reading comprehension by using multiple choice questions and free written recall. Statistical analysis of the data indicated that linguistic complexity was secondary to the cultural origin of the text. From the results, Johnson concluded that if ESL readers have appropriate background knowledge for a text, they can cope equally well with unsimplified or unadapted texts.

A study conducted by Aron (1986) involved freshmen at a community college in New Jersey. Half of the subjects were native English speakers and half were very advanced ESL students (at a comparable level with the other subjects in English language proficiency). All subjects were asked to read two passages selected from those on the reading comprehension subtest of the New Jersey College Basic Skills Placement Test. One of these passages was culturally bound to U.S. culture, and the other had a universal theme. All subjects were tested individually with a free oral recall of each of the two passages. A statistical analysis of the results indicated that all of the subjects brought similar background knowledge to the passage with the universal theme and did equally well on it. However, the native English speakers did statistically significantly better than the non-native speakers on the passage with the culturally bound theme. These results showed that if cultural knowlege was not present in the reader's schemata, reading comprehesion was impaired. Further, this study demonstrated that these ESL readers were discriminated against on the mandatory New Jersey reading placement tests; these readers lacked the cultural background knowledge (or schemata) to be able to fully comprehend reading passages on these tests.

From these studies and others it seems obvious that prior background knowledge of culture-specific information presupposed by a text affects reading comprehension of that text. The pedagogical question that is raised with studies of this type is: "Can we improve students' reading by helping them build background knowledge on a topic prior to reading, specifically culture-specific background knowledge?" (Floyd and Carrell, 1987)

Previous studies in English as a first language lead us to conclude a positive answer to this question. There has also been some research in the EFL/ESL field that has supported the concept that training in background knowledge can improve reading comprehension.

Yousef (1968) conducted research in an EFL setting. The subjects in the study were Arab employees of an American business organization. Yousef found that the subjects did well when answering objective questions concerning American behavioral patterns which came directly from the text. However, when the questions related to everyday American situations not in the text, "the students unconsciously answered according to their own native behavioral patterns" (Yousef 1968). After a training period of cultural orientation, the subjects' negative attitudes toward American culture became somewhat more positive (as shown on written tests) and a gradual understanding and acceptance of the target culture was indicated by answers to multiple choice questions on tests.

Similar findings in an EFL setting were arrived at by Gatbonton and Tucker (1971). They compared Filipino and American high school students' interpretation of typical American short stories. After a pretest, it was discovered that the Filipino group had misunderstandings due to the application of Filipino values, attitudes, and judgments to the American stories. The Filipino group was divided in half to determine whether these cultural barriers could be overcome. One group was instructed using a traditional literature approach (teach the target culture through literature texts in that culture) without any particular cultural orientation. The other group received a "cultural contrastive analysis" approach to instruction. This second method of instruction involved alerting students to the meaning of cultural attributes in certain stories and helping them to be alert to other signals which could be generalized when approaching new texts. The group instructed with a cultural contrastive analysis approach behaved more like the American control group after training (as shown on written tests).

In an ESL setting, Johnson (1982) investigated the effects of building background knowledge on reading comprehension. The advanced-level ESL students in the study participated in a typical American Halloween celebration. Two weeks following this experience, the subjects read a text on the topic of Halloween that contained some familiar and some unfamiliar (historical) information based on the subjects' recent experience of this celebration. Statistical analyses of free written recalls of the passage and of a sentence

CHAPTER III. PRESENTATION OF EXPERIMENT WITH BEGINNING-LEVEL ESL AMNESTY STUDENTS

I basically replicated Floyd and Carrell's (1987) study, but with beginning-level amnesty students. In the interests of tightening the experimental design, the following procedures used in my study differed from those in Floyd and Carrell's experiment: the control group was more tightly regulated (given more structured placebo training); subjects were tested in their native language (Lee, 1987) for the objective test; an oral recall was added to the written recall and objective tests; and methods of scoring for the written recall were more objective rather than subjective.

My first hypothesis, similar to Floyd and Carrell's (1987) was: the experimental training group will perform better than the control group on recall and objective tests due to the effects of training in appropriate cultural content schemata. Based on Floyd and Carrell's (1987) results my second hypothesis was: there will not be significant differences in recall and objective tests between a syntactically easier text and a syntactically more difficult text.

Method

Subjects

Subjects in this study were all beginning-level ESL students attending Monrovia Adult School in Monrovia, California. These students were part of a SLIAG (State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant) funded amnesty program, though there were a few non-amnesty students in the class. Carmen Morrison and I alternated teaching this Level Two class; she taught Monday and Wednesday nights and I taught Tuesday and Thursday nights. The class consisted of Central American, South American, and Chinese students.

The whole class participated in the study. Half of the class was in the experimental group and the other half was in the control group. When the study began there were 38 students. However, the scores of any subjects who did not attend all four training sessions were dropped. This lowered the number of eligible participants considerably because adult school students typically have sporadic school attendance. Therefore, the final analysis of data was done with fifteen subjects: seven in the experimental group and eight in the control group (see appendix B). All the subjects were Hispanic except for one Chinese in the experimental group. This imbalance was not considered a problem due to the fact that the Chinese student's ablities were consistent with the other students' abilities. The subjects ranged in age from approximately twenty to forty. There were approximately two times as many women involved in the study as men.

Due to the participants' low level of English it was assumed that they had little or no exposure to information on Abraham Lincoln (the subject of this study). Care was taken throughout the months preceding the experiment not to mention Abraham Lincoln or events relating to him. Unfortunately, due to unforeseen circumstances, the class was exposed to a small amount of information on Lincoln by a substitute teacher. Due to this exposure which occurred in early February, the experiment was postponed for two months to late March/early April. It was hoped that this delay would prevent the information on Abraham Lincoln from affecting the study results. The information that the substitute teacher used was basically different from the information used in the experiment.

Subjects were told ahead of time that if they attended all four sessions (March 22, 27, 29, and April 3, 1989) they would receive a gift certificate as a thank you. These certificates were worth fifty cents at Baskin-Robbins ice cream stores.

recognition task indicated that previous cultural experience related to a text prepared the subjects for comprehension of the familiar information in that text. Several lessons on vocabulary prior to and with the teaching passage seemed not to have a significant effect on reading comprehension.

Floyd and Carrell's (1987) study provided more research on whether explicit teaching of appropriate background knowledge would improve ESL students' reading comprehension for material that was at or above their level.

Floyd and Carrell Experiment

Floyd and Carrell's (1987) experiment was concerned primarily with the question, "Can we improve students' reading by helping them to build background knowledge on the topic prior to reading?" The study provided proof that this can be done with intermediate-level ESL students.

Their study used pre- and posttests with experimental and control groups of intermediate-level students. The experimental group received appropriate background knowledge for a reading passage on Boston and Fourth of July Festivities and the control group did not. Half of each group received texts that were syntactically more complex. The other half received texts that were simplified.

Subjects were tested by an objective test and a written recall. The results showed that the experimental group did significantly better than the control group on the posttests. The syntactically different texts had no significant effect on the performance of the subjects.

In the following chapter I will report on a study I conducted which was very similar to Floyd and Carrell's, but with beginning-level amnesty students.

Materials

Materials consisted of a reading passage about Abraham Lincoln (in two versions, complex and simple), and three tests: an objective test, a written free recall test, and an oral guided recall test.

In order to see whether syntactic complexity affected recall, I wrote two texts containing the same basic information about Abraham Lincoln, but differing in syntactic complexity (see appendix C). This was measured by T-units. As defined by Hunt (1965, cited in Floyd and Carrell, 1987), a T-unit is a minimal unit capable of terminal punctuation. It is able to begin with a capital letter and end with a period. The syntactically more complex text had T-units with an average length of 8.61 words. The syntactically less complex text had T-units with an average length of 6.09 words. Thus, the difference between the T-units of the two different texts was 2.52. In Floyd and Carrell's (1987) experiment the difference in T-units from the more to the less complex text was 2.67. The syntactically more complex version of my text had 181 words, while the less complex version contained 189 words. Each of the texts had 34 comparable idea units.

Abraham Lincoln was chosen as the subject of the texts because he is lesser known than George Washington and it was hoped that the subjects would have little or no previous knowledge of him. Also, because there are test questions on Abraham Lincoln in the amnesty program, students would benefit from knowledge of Lincoln in the long run. In addition, books and materials on Lincoln were readily available for use in developing class materials. Further, I had an interest in Lincoln as an admirable person in U.S. history.

I decided to use multiple measures to test the subjects' comprehension of the texts (Patricia Carrell, personal communication, 1988). This was a way of more accurately determining the subjects' comprehension. The first test was a free-written recall, in English. The second test was an objective test similar to Floyd and Carrell's (seven multiple choice questions and three true-false questions), but in the subjects' native language. Use of subjects' native language was suggested (Patricia Carrell, personal communication, 1988) as a better measure for beginners (Lee, 1987). The third test was a guided oral recall, in English. (See appendix D for the tests). These served both as pre- and posttests.

Procedure

Subjects were first given a pretest on March 22. A week later, March 27 and 29, the subjects were divided into two groups, with the experimental group receiving background information on Abraham Lincoln in two sessions and the control group receiving placebo training on Martin Luther King, Jr. Five days later on April 3 the posttest was given to the entire class.

Tests

The pretest was given to the entire class (N= 38) on March 22 during their regularly scheduled class (my colleague was teaching, so I could concentrate on the research). Each subject was given an envelope containing one version of the text, a lined piece of paper for the written recall, and an objective test. Version "a" (regular) and version "b" (simplified) were distributed alternately to the students as they sat in their seats, so that half of the class had version "a" and half had version "b." Instructions were given in the students' native language (Lee, 1987) before the subjects were allowed to open the envelope and begin. The English instructions which I wrote (see appendix G) were translated for the students by Carmen Morrison and the Chinese translation was played on a tape.

After a brief introduction, the students were told that they were first going to read a paper about Abraham Lincoln. After completing the reading they were to insert the text

back into the envelope and write down everything they could remember. They were told to try to reproduce the text as closely as possible. Then, they would take a brief objective test. Finally, they would be given a chance to retell orally what they had read.

Students were allowed thirty-five minutes to read and then recall the text. They were given fifteen minutes to complete the objective test in their native language. The times allotted proved to be too long for the majority of the students. However, a few of the students did work right up to the time limit. I and the assistant walked around the room to insure that the correct procedures were followed.

After that, for the oral recall test, students were called to a corner of the classroom one at a time and interviewed. I and an assistant (two assistants for the posttest) took an average of five minutes per subject. Five questions were asked (see appendix D) and the students' responses were both written down as accurately as possible and recorded. The posttest consisted of exactly the same materials and the same procedure. However, there were some technical difficulties with the tape recordings: one tape did not record anything, and another tape was muffled. This created a problem because I could not check all the tapes for accuracy of the assistant's notation.

Training Sessions

Two fifty minute training sessions were conducted for each of the groups and were held between the pre- and posttests. (An inventory of training materials is given in appendix H). The first training session began five days after the pretest. It was conducted during the students' regularly scheduled class with Carmen Morrison.

The evening of March 27, before the training sessions began, students were randomly selected for each group. This was accomplished by allowing each student to choose a small slip of paper (face down) from a shuffled stack of papers with either a "1" or a "2" on it. The students who had selected "2" went with me to the cafeteria for the experimental training sessions. The students who had selected "1" remained in the classroom with Carmen Morrison for control training sessions. This procedure later created a problem for several reasons. First, there were more slips than students; the number of students was not evenly divided into both groups. Second, I could not predict which students would attend all four of the sessions and which ones would later have to be eliminated. Therefore, the number of subjects in each group could not be controlled. Also, the groups were not divided until after the pretest was over and versions "a" and "b" distributed. Thus, I could not guarantee an even distribution of versions in each group. In the final analysis the majority of subjects in the experimental group happened to have received version "b" of the pretest. The majority of the students in the control group happened to have received version "a" of the pretest.

Experimental Group

The purpose of the training for the experimental group was to give them appropriate background information on Abraham Lincoln.

In the experimental group's first session, as in Floyd and Carrell's (1987) experiment, the students were asked to recall verbally any information from the pretest reading about Abraham Lincoln. This information was discussed for five minutes and served as a warm-up time. Next, I read from a children's book on Abraham Lincoln and showed the pictures to the group. As the book was read I asked the subjects pertinent questions which they answered. This activity lasted for fifteen minutes.

Each student was then given a map of the states where Lincoln lived and a map depicting the Union and Confederate states during the Civil War. These maps became a tool for the students to refer to as they were shown slides of Lincoln, places where he lived, his family, and scenes from the Civil War. This activity lasted for twenty-five minutes.

For the remaining five minutes, students were given a copy of a poem from the perspective of Lincoln's dead mother, asking what became of her son. Students listened to the poem as I read it aloud. Students asked questions about vocabulary that they did not know. In fact, throughout the whole session, students were encouraged to ask questions.

The second training session was held two days after the first. This session took place during Carmen Morrison's regularly scheduled class time. The main purpose of this session was to allow the students to participate experientially in activities that related to Lincoln and his time. They were to take a more active role in familiarizing themselves with these topics.

The first activity was singing a song about Lincoln called "Old Abe Lincoln." Students were provided with song sheets and sang along with a tape I had made of the piano music. This was sung three times and lasted for five minutes.

Secondly, students were introduced to some songs and a dance which were popular when Lincoln was a boy, which he probably participated in. A tape of "Pop Goes the Weasel/ Skip to My Lou" was played and students were instructed in how to do the dance, "Skip to My Lou." I instructed the students to take a partner and with that partner to walk around hand in hand in a circle. There were some extra women in the group who stood in the middle of the circle and watched the others with partners walk around the circle. As long as the music played "Pop Goes the Weasel" the subjects were instructed to walk around the circle. However, when the music changed to "Skip to My Lou" students were directed to start skipping around the circle and the women in the middle could walk over and take the hand of any one of the men. The displaced women had to go and stand in the middle of the circle. They then had the opportunity to steal someone else's partner. The dancing lasted about fifteen minutes.

Then, each subject was given a crossword puzzle on Abraham Lincoln to complete. This helped them to review material learned in the previous training session. While they did the crossword puzzle they ate cornbread. It was explained that cornbread was a favorite food in Lincoln's time and locale. Also, students listened to the tape of "Pop Goes the Weasel/Skip to My Lou" during this time. To refresh their memories, books and pamphlets about Abraham Lincoln were provided for them to browse through, especially if they needed help with the crossword puzzle. These activities lasted about twenty minutes.

The last ten minutes were spent in teaching the students a song about the Civil War. Songsheets were provided with the words to "When Johnny Comes Marching Home." The students listened as I read and explained the words to the song. Students asked questions about new vocabulary words which I answered. Then, a tape of the music and singing of the song was played. Students listened and sang along.

In order to help familiarize the students with fashions of the Civil War, I wore a dress that would have been fashionable at that time. The subjects responded with great interest to my dress.

Patterning my session after Floyd and Carrell's (1987) training session, care was taken not to explicitly teach for the text of the test in the training session. In other words, I was careful not to use the exact same words that were used in the text. In the slide presentation, other important events from Lincoln's life which did not appear in the text were discussed and elaborated on. As in the Floyd and Carrell (1987) study, words used in the crossword puzzle were from the text because I was "trying to develop the students' networks of association or schemata underlying these concepts" (Floyd and Carrell, 1987).

Control Group

While I was conducting the experimental training sessions in the cafeteria, the control group also received special training that I had prepared, taught by Carmen Morrison in our classroom. This was done in order to rule out the "Hawthorne Effect." In other words, all participants felt that they were getting "special treatment." In Floyd and Carrell's (1987,

97-98) experiment it was stated that "no specific alternate training was provided . . . and . . . a more tightly controlled experiment might have resulted if we had included a specific alternate training for the control group . . . It must be left to future studies to more tightly regulate the alternate activities of a control group."

The control group therefore received training of the same nature as the experimental group, including songs, slides, crossword puzzles, books to browse, and food. However, the training was on another famous person. Martin Luther King, Jr. was chosen for three reasons: there was material available on him, he was a famous American that amnesty students should know about, and I had a special interest in him as a historical figure since my parents had taken me to hear him preach when I was a child.

The control group sessions paralleled the experimental sessions. The first session was held five days after the pretest. It was held during the regularly scheduled class and lasted fifty minutes. In this session, students were given a text on Martin Luther King, Jr.'s life which the teacher read and explained as she showed slides of Martin Luther King, Jr. The slides depicted episodes in King's life. This lasted for about thirty-five minutes. Following this, songsheets were passed out with the words to "We Shall Overcome." A tape of the song in piano music was played. Students were encouraged to sing all the verses with the tape. This activity lasted for fifteen minutes.

The second session consisted of activities similar to those done in the experimental group and also provided an opportunity for them to participate more actively in the learning experience. First, the students watched a video of Peter, Paul, and Mary singing two songs from the 1960's (Martin Luther King, Jr.'s era). The songs were "Blowin' in the Wind" and "This Land is Your Land." Students were given songsheets for these songs and asked to sing along as the video was played again. This singing lasted for twenty-five minutes.

Next, students worked on a crossword puzzle on Martin Luther King Jr. while listening to the tape of music for "We Shall Overcome" and eating cornbread (popular food from the South, where King was from). At the same time, books about Martin Luther King, Jr. were provided so that interested students could browse through them. Students were instructed to use them if they needed help with their crossword puzzles. This took about twenty-five minutes.

All of the students in both groups felt that they were getting an enjoyable and special experience. Further, all students were taught by a teacher with whom they were familiar.

Scoring

Pretests and posttests were scored by other people (not me) who did not know whether the subjects were of the experimental or control group. In the scoring of the oral recall, the scorer was also not aware of which were pretests and which were posttests.

The answers to the objective test were either right or wrong and scored in that fashion. The score was the number correct out of the ten possible points.

The written recall was scored by one judge, against the number of words that could have been reproduced from the text. The reasoning behind scoring the papers according to exact words as opposed to scoring by reproduction of idea units was to capture all possible differences shown. For instance, a correctly spelled word got one point; however, an incorrectly spelled word got half a point. Interestingly, some subjects' spelling improved on the posttest.

The oral recall was graded by another judge. Since I did not have viable tape recordings of all of the interviews, scoring was carried out solely on the basis of the interviewers' notations. The scoring was not done on an exact word basis, but was done on the basis of idea units. Each idea unit was worth one point. (Appendix E contains the complete scoring criteria.)

Results

Data Analysis

Test scores are in appendix F. Mean scores for the two groups for all tests are reported in tables 1-3. The data are shown graphically in figures 4-6. Mean scores for the two text types (simple and complex) and all tests are reported in tables 4-6. The data are shown graphically in figures 7-9.

TABLE 1

Mean Scores of Written Recall Test for Experimental and Control Groups with Levels of Syntactic Complexity Combined

	Pretest Written Recall	Posttest Written Recall
Experimental Group	27.71	40.57
Control Group	18.38	22.38

TABLE 2

Mean Scores of Objective Test for Experimental and Control Groups with Levels of Syntactic Complexity Combined

	Pretest Objective Recall	Posttest Objective Recall
Experimental Group	74.29	92.86
Control Group	71.25	87.5

TABLE 3

Mean Scores of Oral Recall Test for Experimental and Control Groups with Levels of Syntactic Complexity Combined

	Pretest Oral Recall	Posttest Oral Recall
Experimental Group	23.93	43.21
Control Group	18.75	23.75

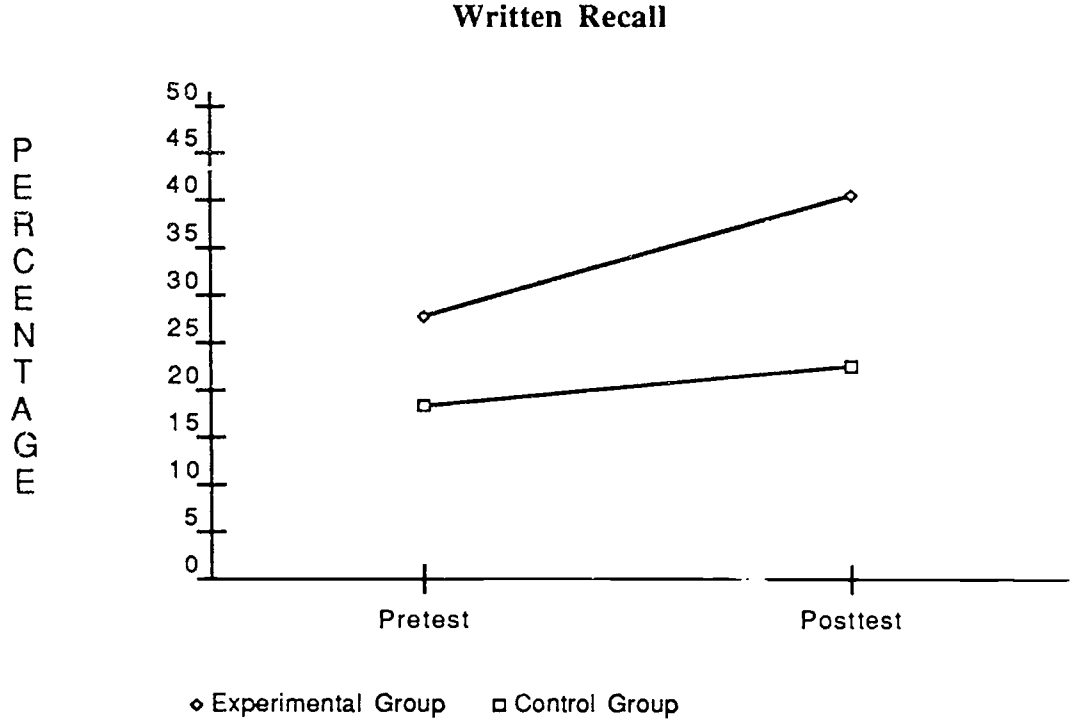

Figure 4. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages for Written Recall

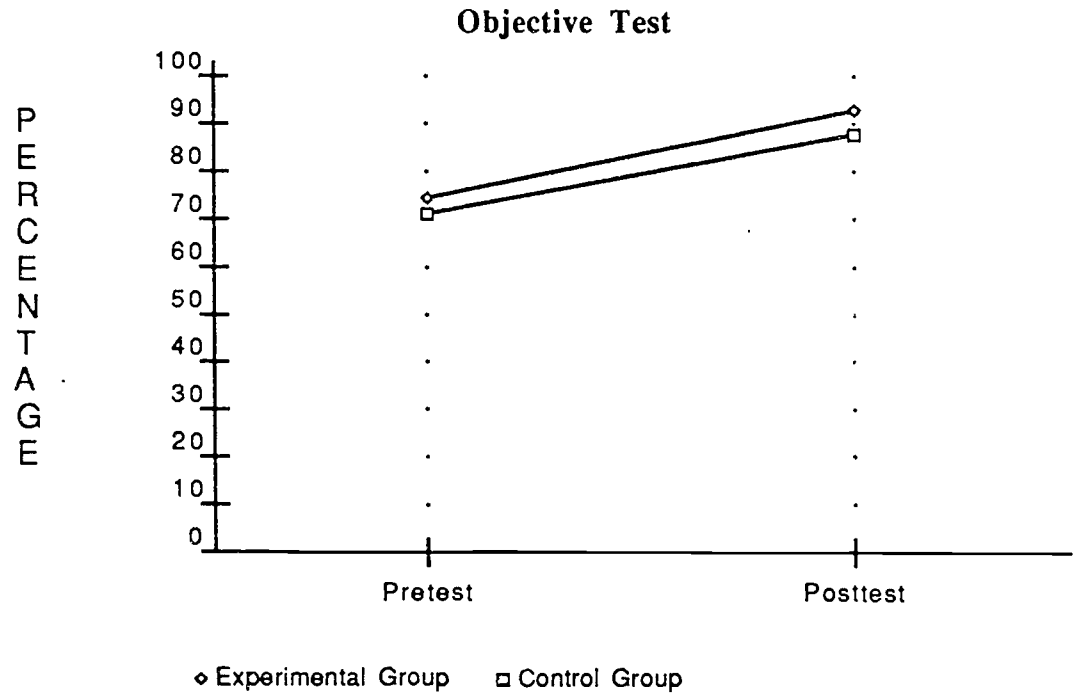

Figure 5. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages for Objective Test

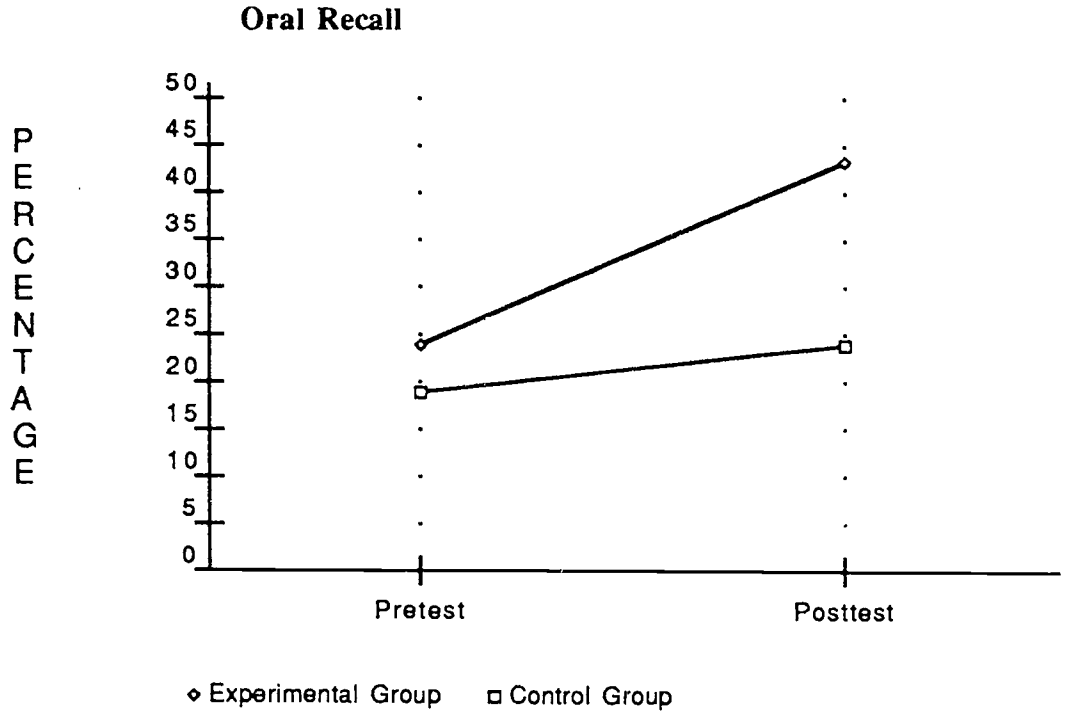

Figure 6. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages for Oral Recall

Statistics to determine the effect of group (experimental vs. control--see tables 1-3 and figures 4-6) and text (easy vs. difficult--see tables 4-6 and figures 7-9) on the three test scores were run.

TABLE 4

Mean Scores of Written Recall Test for Both Levels of Syntactic Complexity

	Pretest Written Recall	Posttest Written Recall
Easy	18.29	30
Difficult	26.63	31.63

TABLE 5

Mean Scores of Objective Test for Both Levels of Syntactic Complexity

	Pretest Objective Recall	Posttest Objective Recall
Easy	67.14	90
Difficult	77.5	90

TABLE 6

Mean Scores of Oral Recall Test for Both Levels of Syntactic Complexity

	Pretest Oral Recall	Posttest Oral Recall
Easy	19.64	36.43
Difficult	22.5	29.69

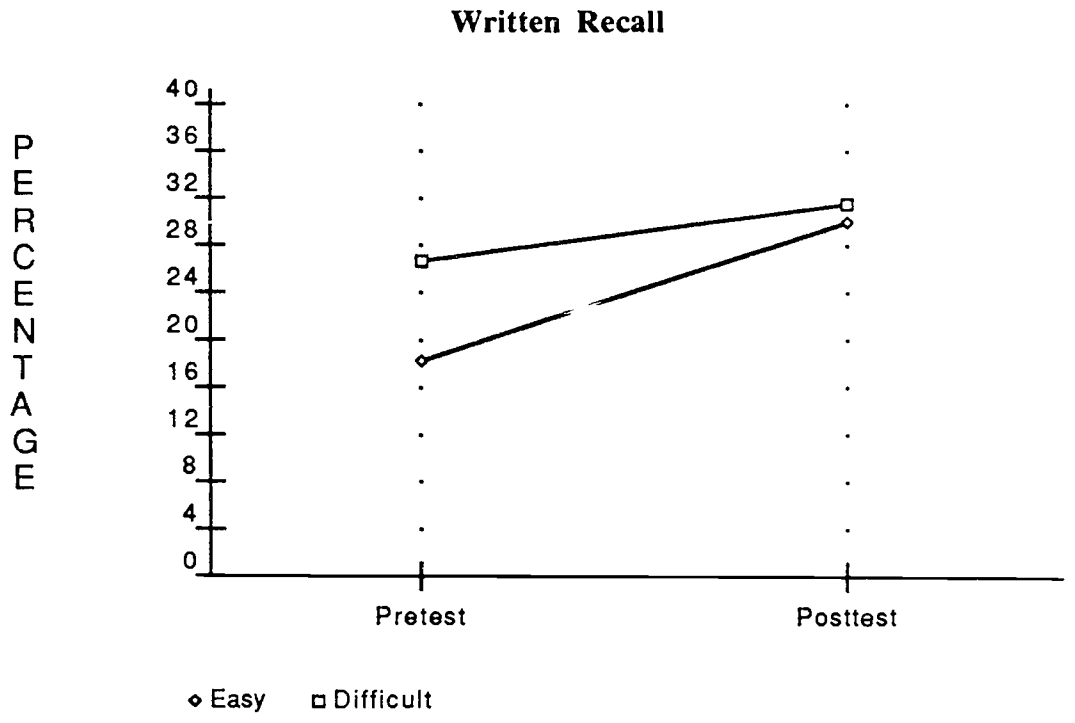

Figure 7. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages of Written Recall in Relation to the Syntactic Complexity of the Text

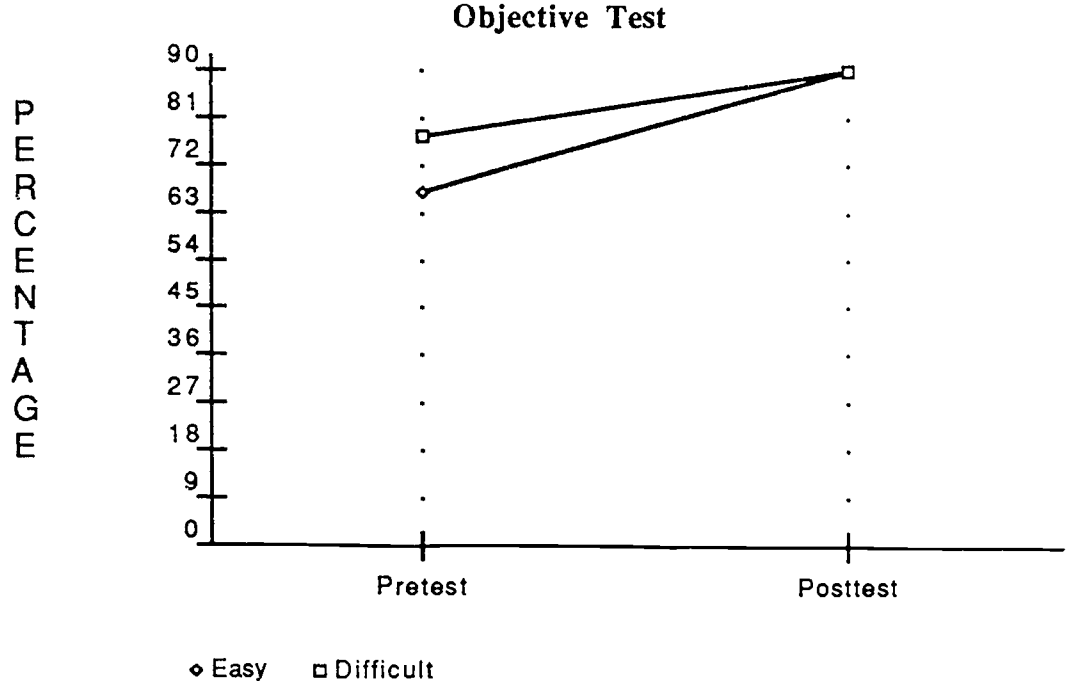

Figure 8. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages of Objective Test in Relation to the Syntactic Complexity of the Text

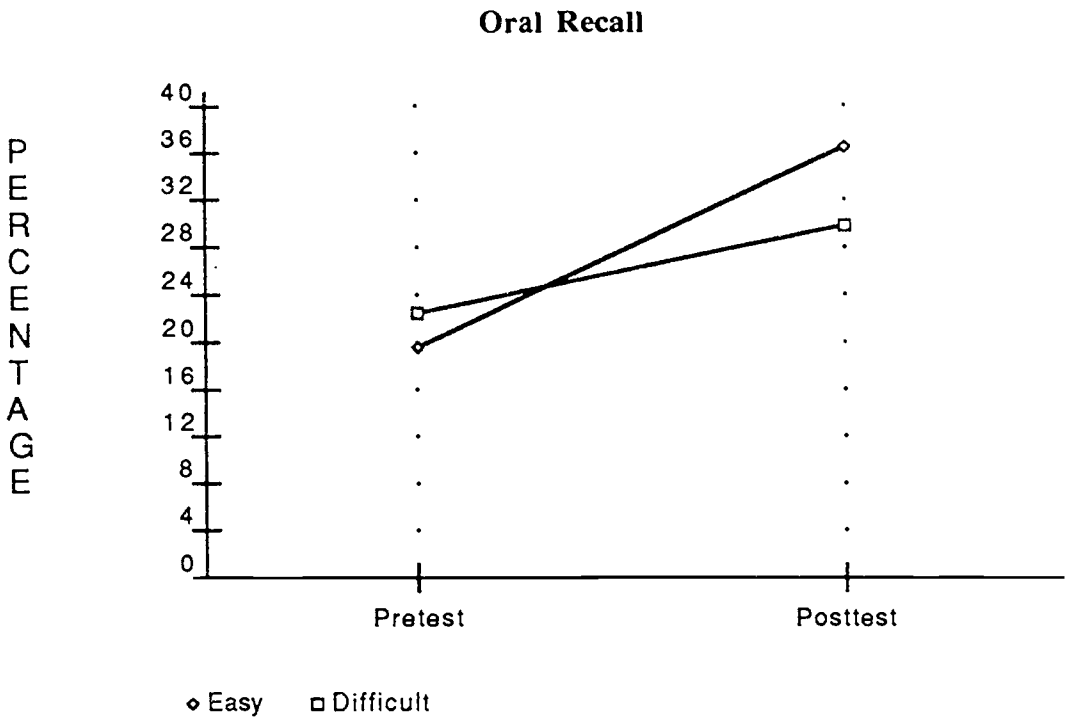

Figure 9. A Comparison Between Pre- and Posttest Measures of Mean Percentages of Oral Recall in Relation to the Syntactic Complexity of the Text

Levene's test for variances indicated that the groups were equal in terms of variability (i.e., that such variables as the presence of illiterate students in the groups did not have an effect). The overall F value was 503.85 (df= 2, 13; $p<0.00$), obtained from a two-way ANOVA (see tables 7, 8, and 9) with repeated measures. Two covariates were also examined--text and interviewer--since it turned out that the two versions of the text were not randomly distributed between the groups, and it was also feared that different interviewers might have affected test scores.

For the ANOVA with group as independent variable and text as covariate, the results are as follows. There was no significant effect on the objective test: F= 1.07 (df= 1, 12; N.S.) (see table 9). On the oral recall test there was a tendency for the experimental group to do better, though it was not statistically significant, given the small sample: F= 3.54 (df= 1, 12; N.S.) (see table 7). There was a statistically significant difference on the written recall test between the two groups: F= 4.95 (df= 1, 12; $p<0.05$) (see table 8).

Looking at group as an independent variable and interviewer as a second covariate, effects on the oral recall test were less significant: F= 2.60 (df= 1, 10; N.S.).

With text as independent variable (and group as covariate), there were no significant results. For the objective test, F= 1.25 (df= 1, 12; N.S.) (see table 9). For the written recall test, F=2.48 (df = 1, 12; N.S.) (see table 8), and for oral recall test, F= 0.39 (df= 1, 12; N.S.) (see table 7).

TABLE 7
Results of two-way ANOVA on Oral Recall Test

Source	SS	DF	MS	F
Group	1241.32	1	1241.32	3.54
1st COVAR (text)	135.91	1	135.91	0.39
Error 1	4210.52	12	350.88	
Oral Recall Test	1100.95	1	1110.95	31.93*
Group/Test Interaction	380.95	1	380.95	11.05*
Error 2	448.2113	34.48		

* $p < 0.05$

TABLE 8
Results of two-way ANOVA on Written Recall Test

Source	SS	DF	MS	F
Group	2461.46	1	2461.46	4.95*
1st COVAR (text)	1231.46	1	1231.46	2.48
Error 1	5964	12	497	
Written Recall Test	530.44	1	530.44	27.65*
Group/Test Interaction	146.44	1	146.44	7.63*
Error 2	249.43	13	19.19	

* $p < 0.05$

TABLE 9
Results of two-way ANOVA on Objective Test

Source	SS	DF	MS	F
Group	414.72	1	414.72	1.07
1st COVAR (text)	483.47	1	483.47	1.25
Error 1	4631.71	12	385.98	
Objective Recall Test	2263.4	1	2263.4	20.48*
Group/Test Interaction	10.06	1	10.06	0.09
Error 2	1436.61	13	110.51	

* $p < 0.05$

Discussion

The results of the data analyses show a statistically superior performance by the experimental group on the written recall test, and improved performance on the oral recall test after training. The results on the objective test were not significant. Differences in the syntactic complexity of the text showed no significant effects on the performance of the subjects.

One reason for the lack of statistically significant difference on the objective test could have been that the test was in each subject's native language. This could have made the test easier for everyone, whether it was a pre- or posttest. Furthermore, there may have been a ceiling effect. Most of the subjects did well on the objective pretest and one subject got 100% on it. As a result, his 100% posttest did not show significant results. If the objective test had been more difficult, it is possible that results could have been significant.

Although the results of the oral recall test were not statistically significant, they approached significance. Had there been more subjects in the sample, there might have been significant results. Also, the interviewers did not have a set amount of time to conduct the interview. This may have led to skewed results due to variances in time spent with each subject. Although the statistics showed no significant differences when the interviewer was used as a covariate, it is my opinion that students who were interviewed by me were more comfortable with me (because they knew me) and thus perhaps performed better than those with the other interviewers.

The significant differences between the experimental group and the control group for the written recall test could have been due to several factors. The first is that the written recall test may have, in fact, been the best measure of student comprehension, thus confirming my hypothesis that the teaching of background information can result in improved reading comprehension. Other factors, not directly related to my hypothesis, must also be considered. One is that because the written recall test was the one given first after the reading, positive results on it, compared to the other tests, may simply reflect short-term memory advantages or just the fact that the students' minds were fresher. Another factor is the scoring procedure. The measure of very small units, including spelling, may have created an emphasis less on reading comprehension than on writing skills. Additional studies should account for the latter two possibilities so as to more rigorously confirm the positive role of background information in reading comprehension.

The main problem with this study was that the number of subjects in the study was small. It must be left to further studies to conduct a similar experiment with a larger group. Another problem was that the complex "a" and simple "b" versions were not evenly distributed between the experimental and control groups because I distributed the versions before I divided the subjects into the groups. Thus, I could not guarantee an even distribution of versions in each group. In the final analysis the majority of subjects in the experimental group happened to have received version "b" of the pretest; the majority of the students in the control group happened to have received version "a" of the pretest. It must be left to future studies to repeat this type of experiment, ensuring random distribution of simple and complex versions of the pretest within the experimental and control groups.

Ramifications of the Findings

A summary of the results of the study are as follows: as in the Floyd and Carrell (1987) study, first, there is a relationship between the background knowledge that the student brings to the text and his/her ability to recall it. Second, similar to the findings in first-language studies, background knowledge relevant to reading comprehension can effectively be taught in the ESL classroom, with consequential improvement in reading comprehension. Third, similar to Floyd and Carrell's (1987) findings with intermediate-

level students, my results with beginning-level students show that background knowledge is more of a determining component in reading comprehesion than is syntactic complexity.

This study extends the findings of the Floyd and Carrell (1987) study to beginning-level students. It indicates the robustness of the influence of building background knowledge to improve reading comprehension even with beginning-level students.

Several implications for ESL reading teachers can be suggested. In the ESL classroom, cultural content is very important and content may be, and often must be explicitly taught. Teachers of ESL reading need to be providers of appropriate background knowledge and experiences. "A teacher of reading might thus be viewed as a teacher of relevant information as well as a teacher of reading skills" (Stevens, 1982). If students are going to develop proficiency in culturally unfamiliar material, the teacher must provide the student with the appropriate cultural schemata he or she is lacking.

In the next chapter, lesson plans are presented which a teacher can use for providing ESL students with appropriate background knowledge and experiences on Abraham Lincoln and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. These were adapted from the materials used in my experiment.

CHAPTER IV. LESSON PLANS FOR BUILDING SCHEMATA IN ORDER TO TEACH U.S. HISTORY CONCEPTS

The following lesson plans are adapted from the two lessons used as part of the preceding experiment. The unit on Abraham Lincoln was used to build background knowledge for the experimental group. The unit on Martin Luther King, Jr. provided background knowledge for the control group.

Description of Class

Students in beginning levels were the target group for these lessons. However, students of all levels would benefit from these activities. The lessons in fact are appropriate for adults, children, and adolescents.

Objectives

To improve students' reading comprehension by providing interesting and enjoyable background activities for students in U.S. history, such as: showing pictures; teaching songs and dances; using crossword puzzles; providing food; providing additional resources such as books, maps, and pamphlets; and demonstrating period costumes.

Abraham Lincoln

A. Materials

Photocopied packet: Two copies of a text on Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War (one used as a pretest, the other used as a posttest); map of places Lincoln lived; "Nancy Hanks" poem; "Skip to my Lou" song and dance instructions; "Old Abe Lincoln" song; map of the Union and the Confederacy during the Civil War; "When Johnny Comes Marching Home" song; crossword puzzle (see appendix H).

Slides, books, maps, and pamphlets on Abraham Lincoln; slide projector; tapes of songs; and a costume from the period.

B. Activities

@ =reference to packet

** =reference to pictures--from slides or book(s) or posters, shown in chronological order, alternating with activities in packet. The script I used with the slides available to me is in appendix H.*

@1. The teacher gives the students the packets of the photocopied materials. He/she reads the first page which is the text on Lincoln and explains the terms that the students might not know. Then, the teacher reads each line or sentence and the students repeat. Next, the students read the passage chorally. Finally, the teacher instructs the students to read the passage silently for ten minutes, and then take ten minutes to recall the text in a free written form on the back of the page. The teacher reminds the students not to "peek" at the text after they have decided to try to recall the text on the back of the page.

*2. The teacher shows pictures and/or map(s) of places where Lincoln lived as a boy.

@3. The teacher directs students to look at their map of places Lincoln lived and asks the students questions about it. For example: "When Abe was seven, his family moved to Indiana. What was the name of their farm?"

*4. The teacher shows pictures of Abe's family's home in Indiana, Pigeon Creek Farm (now a National Park).

@5. The teacher directs students to look at "Nancy Hanks" poem. The teacher reads it aloud and explains it as he/she goes; in other words, with the level of the students in mind, the teacher may stop to use easier synonyms and to act out or draw pictures to illustrate

words the students might not know. Also, students are encouraged to ask questions about new vocabulary as they read along silently while the teacher reads aloud. Then, the teacher reads each line and the students repeat. Then everyone reads the poem aloud together.

*6. The teacher shows pictures of Abe's family after his mother died, possibly including a picture of the new stepmother. The teacher shows pictures of Abe reading (he especially liked Weems' "Life of Washington"). The teacher can show pictures of Lincoln with animals (Abe loved animals and there is a famous true story about him rescuing a little dog). The teacher shows pictures of Abe as an adolescent.

@7. The teacher directs students to look at "Skip to My Lou" the song and dance instructions. The teacher explains that this was a popular song and dance when Lincoln was a boy and an adolescent. Lincoln probably participated in it many times. The teacher reads the words to the song and explains the words the students do not know. The teacher asks if the students have any questions. Then, the teacher plays the music on the piano, or plays a tape of the music being played on the piano. The students sing with the teacher (practice up to three times). Next, the teacher reads the instructions for the dance and demonstrates the dance (the teacher asks at least three couples and one extra man to participate--the teacher starts out as a partner for one of the people in a couple then backs out as the students get the idea). The other students who are not dancing sing the verses as music for the dancing couples.

*8. The teacher shows pictures of the next stage of Lincoln's life, for example: Mary Todd (his wife); Lincoln's law offices; Lincoln's home in Springfield, Illinois; Lincoln serving in the state legislature; Lincoln's campaign photo for the Presidential election. The teacher can help students understand the notion of a campaign by asking them who the candidates for the last election were.

@9. The teacher directs the students to the song "Old Abe Lincoln." The teacher explains that this song was popular when Lincoln ran for President in 1860 and contains a lot of information about Lincoln and the situation with the South. For example: the words "Old Jeff Davis tore down the government" can be used to explain that Jefferson Davis became the President of the South when it pulled away from the North. The teacher reads the words and explains words the students might not know. Then, the teacher asks if the students have any questions. Next, the teacher reads each line or sentence and the students repeat. Finally, it is sung with the music (which can be played on the piano, or can be played on a tape of the piano music). This can be sung three times.

*10. The story can be told of the little girl who wrote to Abe and suggested that he grow a beard. The teacher shows pictures of (bearded) Abe when he became President. The teacher can show pictures of the White House and the First Lady during Abe's term.

@11. The teacher directs students to look at the map of the North and the South during the Civil War. The teacher points out and explains the division of the states.

*12. The teacher shows pictures of a slave auction and explains that slavery was popular in the South (economic reasons can be explained at this time). The teacher can show pictures of Jefferson Davis and explain his role in the conflict. The teacher then explains that the U.S. was being torn apart (teacher dramatically tears the paper of the map of the U.S.).

*13. The teacher explains that at that time the Civil War started and shows pictures of various battle scenes from the Civil War. The teacher then can tell students statistics, such as, at the end of the war 618,000 people had died. The teacher should emphasize that the North won the war and the South was almost totally destroyed.

@14. The teacher points out that in spite of the deaths, many soldiers did come home and were greeted enthusiastically. The teacher directs the students to look at the song "When Johnny Comes Marching Home" and explains that the song was popular after the Civil War and contains pertinent information about Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War. The teacher reads the song and explains words that the students might not understand. Then,

the teacher asks if there are any questions. Next, the teacher reads each line and the students repeat. Finally, the class sings along with the tape of the song.
*15. The teacher shows pictures of the slaves thanking Lincoln for their freedom. Pictures of Lincoln's sons can be shown. The teacher explains that two of the four sons had died by the time Abe was in his second term of office. The teacher can show the famous picture of Abe and his son "Tad" and tell students that "Tad" would die at the age of eighteen, but he would not die before his father died. The teacher then shows pictures of Ford's Theater and describes the events surrounding Lincoln's assasination. The teacher then can show pictures of Mary Todd Lincoln as a widow, the funeral train, Lincoln's Tomb, the Lincoln Memorial, etc. The teacher concludes by saying that Lincoln is probably the best loved President in the history of the U.S.
@16. The teacher directs students to the crossword puzzle and helps the students when needed (the students can work in pairs or small groups to solve the crossword puzzle). Cornbread muffins are served at this time, with the teacher explaining that cornbread was a popular food during Lincoln's time and he ate a lot of it (the family was poor). Books, maps, and pamphlets are made available at this time for browsing (as needed as resources to help with the puzzle). Also, a tape of the previously learned music can be played as background music at this time.
@17. Posttest--the students take out the second copy of the text and read it silently for ten minutes. Then they take ten minutes to recall it, in the form of a free written recall on the back of the paper. The teacher instructs the students not to "peek" back at the passage after they have decided to start the recall part.

C. Language
The teacher adjusts the overall level of the presentation to that of the students. Past tense is necessary, so students should be able to recognize it.

D. Possible Problems
This information can be overwhelming. To help with this problem, it could be broken up into smaller chunks and presented over a week's time.

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Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

A. Materials

Packet of photocopied materials: Two copies of a text on Martin Luther King (one used as a pretest, the other used as a posttest); words to songs "We Shall Overcome," "Blowin' in the Wind," and "This Land is Your Land;" crossword puzzle on Martin Luther King (see appendix H).

Slides, books, and maps on Martin Luther King; slide projector; tapes of songs; VCR; video tape; and a costume from the period.

B. Activities

@ =reference to packet

** =reference to pictures--from slides or book(s) or posters, shown in chronological order, alternating with activities in packet. The script I used with the slides available to me is in appendix H.*

@1. The teacher gives the students the packet of materials on Martin Luther King. He/she refers the students to the text on Martin Luther King. The teacher reads the text and explains words the students might not understand. The teacher asks if there are any questions. Then, the teacher reads each sentence and the students repeat. Next, the whole class reads the passage chorally. Finally, the teacher instructs the students to read the passage silently for ten minutes, and then take ten minutes to recall the text in a free written form on the back of the page. The teacher reminds the students not to "peek" at the text after they have decided to try to recall the text on the back of the page.

@ *2. The teacher reads the script and shows slides or pictures of Martin Luther King at the appropriate points in the text while students follow along with their copy of the text on Martin Luther King:

*a. The teacher shows a picture of Martin Luther King when he was a boy with his family.

@b. The teacher reads the first, second, and third paragraphs from the text.

*c. The teacher shows a picture of Martin Luther King preaching.

@d. The teacher reads the fourth paragraph from the text.

*e. The teacher shows a picture of Martin Luther King and Coretta Scott at their wedding.

@f. The teacher reads the fifth paragraph from the text.

*g. The teacher shows a picture of Martin Luther King reading about Gandhi.

@h. The teacher reads the sixth paragraph.

*i. The teacher shows another picture of Martin Luther King (e.g., with flag).

@j. The teacher reads the seventh and eighth paragraphs.

*k. The teacher shows a picture of the march on Washington.

@l. The teacher reads paragraphs 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14.

*m. The teacher shows a picture of Martin Luther King's grieving wife and children after his death.

@n. The teacher reads the last paragraph of the text.

@3. The teacher passes out songsheets with words to "We Shall Overcome." The teacher reads the words to the song and explains words that the students might not understand. Then, the teacher asks if the students have any questions. Next, the teacher reads each line and the students repeat. Finally, the whole class sings along with the tape. Also, the students can then stand in a circle and hold hands as they sing.

*4. The teacher shows a video of Peter, Paul, and Mary singing songs from the 1960's, "Blowin' in the Wind" and "This Land is Your Land." If a video is not available, the teacher can play a tape of the music. The teacher gives the students songsheets. For each of the songs, the teacher reads the words and explains words that the students might not understand. Then, the teacher asks if the students have any questions. Next, the teacher reads each line and the students repeat. Finally, the whole class sings along with the tape.

@5. The teacher gives the students a crossword puzzle on Martin Luther King (they can help each other with this--in pairs or small groups). During this time, cornbread is served and the teacher explains that cornbread was and is a favorite food in the South. Books, and maps are made available for students to browse through (as needed as resources to help with the puzzle). The music from "We Shall Overcome" can be played as background music at this time.

@6.Posttest--the students take out the second copy of the text and read it silently for ten minutes. Then they take ten minutes to recall it, in the form of a free written recall on the back of the paper. The teacher instructs the students not to "peek" back at the passage after they have decided to start the recall part.

C. Language
The teacher adjusts the overall level of the presentation language to that of the students. Past tense is necessary, so students should be able to recognize it.

D. Possible Problems
The text for Martin Luther King may be too long for some students. It could be split up and discussed, a paragraph at a time. Also, the presentation could be made in smaller chunks of time over the period of a week.

E. Resource List

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APPENDIX A

Questions for Citizenship Tests

Source: a handout used at Monrovia Adult School

1. Q: What are the colors of our flag?
   A: Red, White and Blue
2. Q: How many stars are there in our flag?
   A: 50
3. Q: What color are the stars on our flag?
   A: White
4. Q: What do the stars on the flag mean?
   A: One for each state in the Union
5. Q: How many stripes are there in the flag?
   A: 13
6. Q: What color are the stripes in the U.S. flag?
   A: Red and White
7. Q: What do the stripes on the flag mean?
   A: They represent the original 13 states.
8. Q: How many states are there in the Union (U.S.)?
   A: 50
9. Q: What is the 4th of July?
   A: Independence Day
10. Q: What is the date of the U.S. Independence Day?
    A: July 4th
11. Q: From what country did the U.S. win independence?
    A: England/U.K.
12. Q: What country did we fight during the Revolutionary War?
    A: England/U.K.
13. Q: Who was the first President of the United States?
    A: George Washington
14. Q: Who is the President of the United States today?
    A: George Bush
15. Q: Who is the Vice-President of the United States today?
    A: Dan Quayle
16. Q: Who elects the President of the United States?
    A: The electoral college
17. Q: Who becomes President of the U.S. if the President should die?
    A: Vice-President
18. Q: For how long do we elect the President?
    A: Each term=four years
19. Q: What is the Constitution?
    A: The supreme law of the land
20. Q: Can the Constitution be changed?
    A: Yes, by amendment
21. Q: What do we call a change to the Constitution?
    A: Amendment
22. Q: How many changes or amendments are there to the Constitution?
    A: 26
23. Q: How many branches are there in the U.S. government?
    A: 3

24. Q: What are the three branches of the U.S. government?
A: Legislative/Executive/and Judicial
25. Q: What is the legislative branch of the U.S. government?
A: Congress
26. Q: Who makes the laws of the United States?
A: Congress
27. Q: What is Congress?
A: The Senate and the House of Representatives
28. Q: What are the duties of Congress?
A: To make laws
29. Q: Who elects Congress?
A: The people
30. Q: How many senators are there in the U.S. Congress?
A: 100
31. Q: Name the two U.S. Senators from California.
A: Alan Cranston and Pete Wilson
32. Q: For how long do we elect each senator?
A: Each term=6 years
33. Q: How many representatives are there in Congress?
A: 435
34. Q: For how long do we elect the representatives?
A: Each term=2 years
35. Q: What is the executive branch of the U.S. government?
A: The President/Cabinet/departments
36. Q: What is the judicial branch of the U.S. government?
A: The Supreme Court
37. Q: What are the duties of the Supreme Court?
A: To interpret laws
38. Q: What is the supreme law of the United States?
A: The Constitution
39. Q: What is the Bill of Rights?
A: The first 10 amendments of the Constitution.
40. Q: What is the capital of the state of California?
A: Sacramento, CA
41. Q: Who is the current Governor of California?
A: George Deukmejian
42. Q: If both the President and the Vice President die, who becomes President?
A: House Speaker
43. Q: Who is the current Chief Justice of the Supreme Court?
A: William Rehnquist
44. Q: Name the thirteen original states.
A: CN, NH, NY, NJ, MA, PA, DE, VA, NC, SC, GA, RI, MD
45. Q: Who said, "Give me liberty or give me death"?
A: Patrick Henry
46. Q: Which countries were our enemies during WWII?
A: Germany, Italy and Japan
47. Q: What are the 49th and 50th states of the Union (U.S.)?
A: Alaska and Hawaii
48. Q: How many terms can a President serve?
A: 2
49. Q: Who was Martin Luther King, Jr.?
A: A civil rights leader

50. Q: Who is the head of local city government?
A: Mayor
51. Q: Eligibility to be President?
A: Native born/35 yrs. old/lived in U.S. 14 years
52. Q: Why are there 100 Senators in the Senate?
A: Two (2) from each state
53. Q: Who selects the Supreme Court Justices?
A: Appointed by the President
54. Q: How many Supreme Court Justices are there?
A: Nine (9)
55. Q: Why did the Pilgrims come to America?
A. For religious freedom
56. Q: What is the head executive of a state government called?
A: Governor
57. Q: What is the head executive of a city government called?
A: Mayor
58. Q: What holiday was started by the American colonists?
A: Thanksgiving
59. Q: The main writer of the Declaration of Independence?
A: Thomas Jefferson
60. Q: When was the Declaration of Independence adopted?
A: July 4, 1776
61. Q: Basic belief of the Declaration of Independence?
A: All men created equal
62. Q: What is the national anthem of the U.S.?
A: The Star-Spangled Banner
63. Q: Who wrote the Star-Spangled Banner?
A: Francis Scott Key
64. Q: Where does freedom of speech come from?
A: The Bill of Rights
65. Q: What is the minimum voting age in the United States?
A: Eighteen (18)
66. Q: Who signs bills into law?
A: The President
67. Q: What is the highest court in the United States?
A: The Supreme Court
68. Q: Who was President during the Civil War?
A: Abraham Lincoln
69. Q: What did the Emancipation Proclamation do?
A: Freed the slaves
70. Q: What special group advises the President?
A: The Cabinet
71. Q: Which President is called the Father of our Country?
A: George Washington
72. Q: What INS form is used to apply to become a naturalized citizen?
A: Form N-400
73. Q: Who helped the Pilgrims in America?
A: Native American Indians
74. Q: The first Pilgrims sailed to America in what ship?
A: The Mayflower
75. Q: What were the 13 original states of the U.S. called?
A: Colonies

76. Q: First Amendment to Constitution...
A: Speech/press/religion/assembly/government change
77. Q: Who has the power to declare war?
A: The Congress
78. Q: What kind of government does the United States have?
A: Republican
79. Q: Which president freed the slaves?
A: Abraham Lincoln
80. Q: In what year was the Constitution written?
A: 1787
81. Q: The first 10 amendments to the Constitution called...?
A: The Bill of Rights
82. Q: Name one purpose of the United Nations.
A: Try to resolve problems/aid
83. Q: Where does Congress meet?
A: Capitol in Washington, DC
84. Q: Whose rights are guaranteed by the Constitution and the Bill of Rights?
A: Everyones (citizens and non-citizens living in the U.S.)
85. Q: What is the introduction to the Constitution called?
A: The Preamble
86. Q: Benefits of citizenship....
A: Federal jobs/U.S. passport/petition for relatives
87. Q: What is the most important right granted to U.S. citizens?
A: Vote
88. Q: What is the United States Capitol?
A: The place where Congress meets
89. Q: What is the White House?
A: The President's official home
90. Q: Where is the White House located?
A: Washington, DC
91. Q: What is the name of the President's official home?
A: The White House
92. Q: First amendment rights...
A: Speech/press/religion/assembly/req chg gov't
93. Q: Who is the Commander in Chief of the U.S. military?
A: The President
94. Q: Who was the first Commander in Chief of the U.S. military?
A: George Washington
95. Q: In what month do we vote for the President?
A: November
96. Q: In what month is the new President inaugurated?
A: January
97. Q: How many times may a Congressman be re-elected?
A: There is no limit.
98. Q: How many times may a Senator be re-elected?
A: There is no limit.
99. Q: What are the 2 major political parties in the U.S.?
A: Republican/Democrat
100. Q: How many states are there in the United States?
A: 50

APPENDIX B

Attendance Chart for the Four Sessions of the Experiment

	ATTENDANCE			
	Pretest	Session I	Session II	Post test
Acosta Marta	X	1	1	1
Alpire Maria	X	1	1	1
Alvarez Pablo	X	1	1	
Arias Juaquin	X	1	1	1
Barrios Romelia	X	1	1	1
Bustos Rafaela	X	1	1	1
Castillo Raphael	X	2	2	2
Chang Ester	X	2	2	2
Chen Tracy	X	1	1	
Delgado David	X			
Garcia Adelaida	X	2	2	2
Garcia Belisario	X			
Garcia Ramon	X	1	1	1
Gutierrez Ana Maria	X	1	1	
Hernandez Ricardo	X	L1	1	
Hulzar Jose	X			
Luzzi Emilio	X	2	2	2
Marquez Jovita	X			
Medina Rosa	X	1	1	1
Mendoza Marcia	X	2	2	2
Ortega Elena	X	1	1	1
Ortiz Isabelle	X	1	1	
Paredes Maria	X	2	2	
Perez Juan	X			
Perez Oscar	X	2	2	2
Sanchez Rosa	X	2	2	2
Vargas Alfredo	X			
Virrueta Gabriel	X	1	1	
Munoz Alfredo		L1	1	
Hernandez Jose		L1	1	
Ledesma Arnulfo		L1	1	
Ledesma Aurora		L1	1	
Avila Julian		L2	2	
Ayala Maria		L2	2	
Lamas Maria		L2	2	
Virrueta Edila		L2	2	
Medina Margot		L2	2	
Salgado Edgard		L2	2	
(	X = student attended pretest, no group assigned yet			)
(	L = student arrived late for class			)
(	1 = control group			)
(	2 = experimental group			)

APPENDIX C

Pretest and Posttest Texts, Version "a" (regular) and Version "b" (simplified)

Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War

Abraham Lincoln is a famous American. Lincoln, sometimes called "Abe," was born in Kentucky. He was born on February 12, 1809. His father was a farmer and the family was very poor. They lived very far from cities and schools. Abe taught himself to read. His family moved to Indiana and then to Illinois. They were looking for better land.

Abe Lincoln believed that slavery was wrong. Americans learned about his ideas during some debates about slavery with Illinois Senator Douglas. In 1860 Abraham Lincoln was elected the 16th President of the United States.

Then, eleven states in the South broke away from the United States to make a new country. They wanted slavery. The North decided to fight against the South. This was called the Civil War. Abraham Lincoln was the leader of the North. The North won the war, which ended on April 9, 1865.

One week later, on April 15, 1865, Abraham Lincoln died. A man who loved the South shot him. Today, we remember Lincoln for two things. He freed the slaves and saved the United States.

"a" adapted from Seely, Margaret. 1989. Handbook for citizenship: Second Edition. Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.

Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War

Abraham Lincoln is a famous American. Some people called him "Abe." He was born in Kentucky. He was born on February 12, 1809. His father was a farmer. The family was very poor. They lived very far from cities. They lived very far from schools. Abe taught himself to read. His family moved to Indiana. Then, they moved to Illinois. They were looking for better land.

Abe Lincoln believed that slavery was wrong. He had some debates with Illinois Senator Douglas. Americans learned about his ideas. In 1860 Lincoln was elected President. He was the 16th President of the United States.

Then, eleven states in the South broke away from the United States. They made a new country. They wanted slavery. The North decided to fight against the South. This was called the Civil War. Abraham Lincoln was the leader of the North. The North won the war. It ended on April 9, 1865.

Lincon died one week later. It was April 15, 1865. A man shot him. This man loved the South. Today we remember Lincoln for two things. He freed the slaves and saved the United States.

"b" adapted from Seely, Margaret. 1989. Handbook for citizenship: Second Edition. Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.

APPENDIX D: TESTS

OBJECTIVE TEST

Name_____

QUESTIONS: Circle the correct response.

1. Abraham Lincoln was born on _____.

a) February 12, 1809
b) February 12, 1609
c) February 12, 1909
d) February 12, 1709

2. The family was very _____.

a) big
b) poor
c) small
d) rich

3. Abraham taught himself to _____.

a) sing
b) swim
c) dance
d) read

4. He believed that slavery was _____.

a) OK
b) wrong
c) right
d) good

5. He was the _____ President of the United States.

a) 1st
b) 20th
c) 41st
d) 16th

6. The war between the North and the South was called the_____.

a) North/South War
b) Revolutionary War
c) Civil War
d) Vietnam War

7. Abraham Lincoln was the leader of the _____.

a) North
b) South
c) East
d) West

Circle the correct response.

8. The South won the war.	TRUE	FALSE
9. A man who loved the South shot Lincoln	TRUE	FALSE
10. Abraham Lincoln freed the slaves and saved the United States.	TRUE	FALSE

SPANISH TRANSLATION--Examen

Nombre_____

PREGUNTAS: Circule la respuesta correcta.

1. Abraham Lincoln nacio el _____.

a) 12 de febrero, 1809
b) 12 de febrero, 1609
c) 12 de febrero, 1909
d) 12 de febrero, 1709

2. La familia era muy _____.

a) grande
b) pobre
c) pequena
d) rica

3. Abraham aprendio por su cuenta a _____.

a) cantar
b) nadar
c) bailar
d) leer

4. El creia que la esclavitud era _____.

a) permitida
b) injusta
c) justa
d) buena

5. El fue el presidente de Los Estados Unidos numero_____.

a) 1
b) 20
c) 41
d) 16

6. La guerra entre el norte y el sur fue llamada _____.

a) La Guerra del Norte/ Sur
b) La Guerra Revolucionaria
c) La Guerra Civil
d) La Guerra de Vietnam

7. Abraham Lincoln fue lider del _____.

a) norte
b) sur
c) este
d) oeste

Circule la respuesta correcta.

8. El Sur gano la guerra. Verdadero Falso

9. Un hombre leal a los estados del sur asesino a Lincoln. Verdadero Falso

10. Abraham Lincoln liberó a los esclavos y salvo a Los Estados Unidos. Verdadero Falso

Translation by Pati MacLaren

CHINESE TRANSLATION

測驗　　姓名 _____

問題：請圈正確的答案

1) 阿伯拉罕·林肯生於 _____
a) 1809年2月12日　　c) 1909年2月12日
b) 1609年2月12日　　d) 1709年2月12日

2) 他的家庭很 _____
a) 大　　c) 小
b) 窮　　d) 富

3) 阿伯拉罕·林肯自學 _____
a) 唱歌　　c) 跳舞
b) 游泳　　d) 閱讀

4) 他相信奴隸制是 _____
a) 可以的　　c) 對的
b) 錯的　　d) 好的

5) 他是美國第 _____ 任總統
a) 1　　c) 41
b) 20　　d) 16

6) 北邊和南邊的戰爭叫 _____
a) 重北戰爭　　c) 國內戰爭
b) 革命戰爭　　d) 越南戰爭

7) 阿伯拉罕·林肯是 _____ 的領袖
a) 北邊　　c) 東邊
b) 南邊　　d) 西邊

8) 南邊打胜仗　　真　　假
9) 捌扒南邊的人槍殺林肯　　真　　假
10) 林肯释放奴隸拯救了美国　　真　　假

Translation by Ka Yee Chau

ORAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Tell me anything you remember about Abraham Lincoln's birth and when he was a boy.

2. Tell me anything you remember about his ideas on slavery and his Presidency.

3. Tell me anything you remember about the Civil War.

4. Tell me anything you remember about Lincolr's death.

5. What two things do we remember Lincoln for today?

APPENDIX E

Scoring Criteria for Written Recall and Oral Recall

***Written Recall**

There were 195 possible points. Each word got one point if it was true and in the text. Each true idea got one point even if the actual words were not the same as the text; facsimile words were given one point. One point was given for each Lincoln name, e.g., Abe, Abraham, Lincoln; one point was given for each use of "he" or "him" (only if connected with another idea). Within a true idea, any words from the text got one point even if in random placement or amidst untrue words. Words that were true, but not in the text were given one half a point. One half a point was given for each misspelled word, Spanish word, or out of order word. Untrue statements or words got no credit, but correct words in an untrue statement got one point. Untrue information about the topic from outside the text was given no credit. No points were given for illegible words.

*Scoring was done by Kim MacDonald

***Oral Recall**

There were 40 possible idea units. Each idea unit was given one point, even if out of order. If a statement was true and inferred from the text, one point was given. If the statement was not true or not from the text, no point was given. No credit was given for repeated statements.

*Scoring was done by Joseph Chervenick

ORAL RECALL GRADING CRITERIA
Idea Units Graphically Displayed

1
Famous
Sometimes called "Abe"
Born Kentucky
Born February 12, 1809
Father was farmer
Family was very poor
Lived far from cities
Lived far from schools
Abe taught himself to read
Family moved to Indiana
Then, family moved to Illinois
They were looking for better land

2.
Believed slavery was wrong
Had debates with Illinois Senator Douglas
Americans learned about his ideas
Was elected President in 1860
Was 16th President of U.S.

3.
Then, eleven states broke away
These states were in the South
They (South) made a new country
They (South) wanted slavery
The North decided to fight the South
Lincoln was leader of the North
The North won the war
The war ended April 9, 1865

4.
One week later Lincoln died
It was April 15, 1865
A man shot him
This man loved the South

5.
He freed the slaves
He saved the U.S.

* All idea units (even if out of order)--one point
* If statement is true and inferred from text--one point
(if not from text or untrue, no point)

APPENDIX F
TEST SCORES FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

TEST SCORES FOR EXPERIMENT

GROUP 1-control group	PRETEST	POSTTEST
Acosta, Marta-a	1 80% 2 13% 3 12.5%	1 100% 2 15% 3 25%
Alpire, Maria-a	1 90% 2 35% 3 42.5%	1 90% 2 42% 3 42.5%
Arias, Juaquin-a	1 80% 2 7% 3 17.5%	1 80% 2 7% 3 12.5%
Barrios, Romelia-b	1 70% 2 12% 3 20%	1 80% 2 18% 3 27.5%
Bustos, Rafaela-a	1 90% 2 45% 3 30%	1 100% 2 56% 3 35%
Garcia, Ramon-b	1 50% 2 6% 3 10%	1 90% 2 8% 3 25%
Medina, Rosa-a	1 40% 2 17% 3 0%	1 80% 2 15% 3 2.5%
Ortega, Elena-a	1 70% 2 12% 3 17.5%	1 80% 2 18% 3 20%

1. objective test
2. written test
3. oral recall

a=regular version of the text
b= simplified version of the text

TEST SCORES FOR EXPERIMENT

GROUP 2-experimental group	PRETEST	POSTTEST
Castillo, Rafael-a	1 90%	1 100%
	2 33%	2 41%
	3 25%	3 47.5%
Chang, Esther-b	1 70%	1 90%
	2 29%	2 42%
	3 12.5%	3 40%
Garcia, Adelaida-b	1 30%	1 70%
	2 6%	2 8%
	3 10%	3 15%
Luzzi, Emilio-b	1 70%	1 100%
	2 4%	2 28%
	3 17.5%	3 52.5%
Mendoza, Marcia-b	1 80%	1 100%
	2 24%	2 46%
	3 20%	3 32.5%
Perez, Oscar-b	1 100%	1 100%
	2 47%	2 60%
	3 47.5%	3 62.5%
Sanchez, Rosa-a	1 80%	1 90%
	2 51%	2 59%
	3 35%	3 52.5%

1. objective test
2. written test
3. oral recall

a=regular version of the text
b= simplified version of the text

APPENDIX G

Explanation and Instructions for Students about Experiment

I am a student at a University in Pasadena. I am working on a Master's degree in teaching English as a Second Language. This experiment is part of my studies. I need you to help me with this experiment. If you come to the class for all four of the experimental sessions--March 22, 27, 29, and April 3--I will give you a fifty cent gift certificate for Baskin Robbins ice cream. This test may be difficult for you, but just do the best you can. Do not look at anyone else's paper!

Please follow the instructions exactly:

Everyone will receive an envelope. Do not take anything out of the envelope until I tell you.

First you are going to read a paper about Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War. After you complete reading the paper, insert the paper back into the envelope. Then, take out the lined sheet of paper. At that time, write down everything you can remember from the written paper. Try to reproduce the words as closely as possible. You will be given thirty-five minutes to read and then recall the paper. When the thirty-five minutes is up, insert the lined paper back into the envelope. At that time, take out the written test in your native language. You will have fifteen minutes to complete this test. Make sure that your name is on the written test. When you are finished, insert all papers back into the envelope and raise your hand. Give the envelope to your teacher. Then, we will send you outside where you will be asked some oral questions about Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War. Do not talk to other students during this whole test.

Thank you for your help!

APPENDIX H

Inventory of Training Materials for Experiment

List of Training Materials for Experimental Group

Children's book used to tell subjects about Lincoln-
Abraham Lincoln -Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire. Garden City, NY: Doubleday. 1957.

*Slides of Abraham Lincoln and his life-
Map of portion of U.S. showing Lincoln's residences; map of Kentucky, Illinois, and Indiana; log cabin where Lincoln was born; Lincoln boyhood home in Indiana-horse and carriage, woman and spinning wheel, woman cooking over fireplace, women washing clothes, Lincoln home, horse, driver, and carriage; illustration depicting Lincoln rescuing family dog; young Mary Todd Lincoln; young Abe Lincoln; Lincoln Law Offices, Springfield, Illinois; Lincoln family home, Springfield, Illinois; Illinois Legislature, interior; campaign photo of Lincoln; oil painting of Lincoln; painting of White House when Lincoln was President; Mary Todd Lincoln during Presidency; illustration of slave auction; political cartoon of Lincoln and Jefferson Davis tearing map of U.S. apart; seventeen photos and illustrations of Civil War battle scenes (on land and sea); ruins of South; illustration of family decorating grave of Civil War casualty; illustration of slaves rejoicing and thanking Lincoln after Civil War; Abe Lincoln and son Tad, reading; Ford's Theater, interior; Ford's Theater, the Lincoln family's seating in balcony; Mary Todd Lincoln in widow's dress; Lincoln family tomb, Springfield, Illinois; Lincoln statue at Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C.; exterior of Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C.

Materials Provided to Help Students with Crossword Puzzle-
Pamphlets-"Mr. Lincoln's Hometown, Springfield, Illinois,"
"Visit the Lincoln Sites in Springfield, Illinois," "Springfield, Illinois Visitors Guide 88/89 Walk/Drive Tours," "Experience Springfield, Mr. Lincoln's Hometown" Springfield Convention and Visitor's Bureau; "Tour Illinois, 1988" In cooperation with Illinois Department of Commerce and Community Affairs/Office of Tourism.

Maps-"The Territorial Growth of the United States" -National Geographic Society.

Books- Abel, Sam, (photography) and Brian C. Pohanka (text). 1988. Distant thunder: A photographic essay on the American Civil War. Charlottesville, Virginia: Thomasson-Grant.

Bailey, Ronald H., and the editors of Time-Life Books. 1984. The Bloodiest Day: the battle of Antietam. The Civil War Series. Alexandria, Virginia: Time-Life Books.

Clark, Champ, and the editors of Time-Life Books. 1985. Gettysburg: The Confederate high tide. The Civil War Series. Alexandria, Virginia: Time-Life Books.

d'Aulaire, Ingri, and Edgar Parin d' Aulaire. 1957. Abraham Lincoln. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Davis, William C., and the editors of Time-Life Books. 1983. Brother against brother: The war begins. The Civil War Series. Alexandria, Virginia: Time-Life Books.

Freedman, Russel. 1987. Lincoln: A photobiography. New York: Clarion Books/Ticknor and Fields: A Houghton Mifflin Company.

Home Library, ed. 1976. Abraham Lincoln: His words and his world. Fort Atkinson, WI: Home Library.

Time-Life Books, ed. 1985. Spies, Scouts and Raiders: Irregular operations. The Civil War Series. Alexandria, Virginia: Time-Life Books.

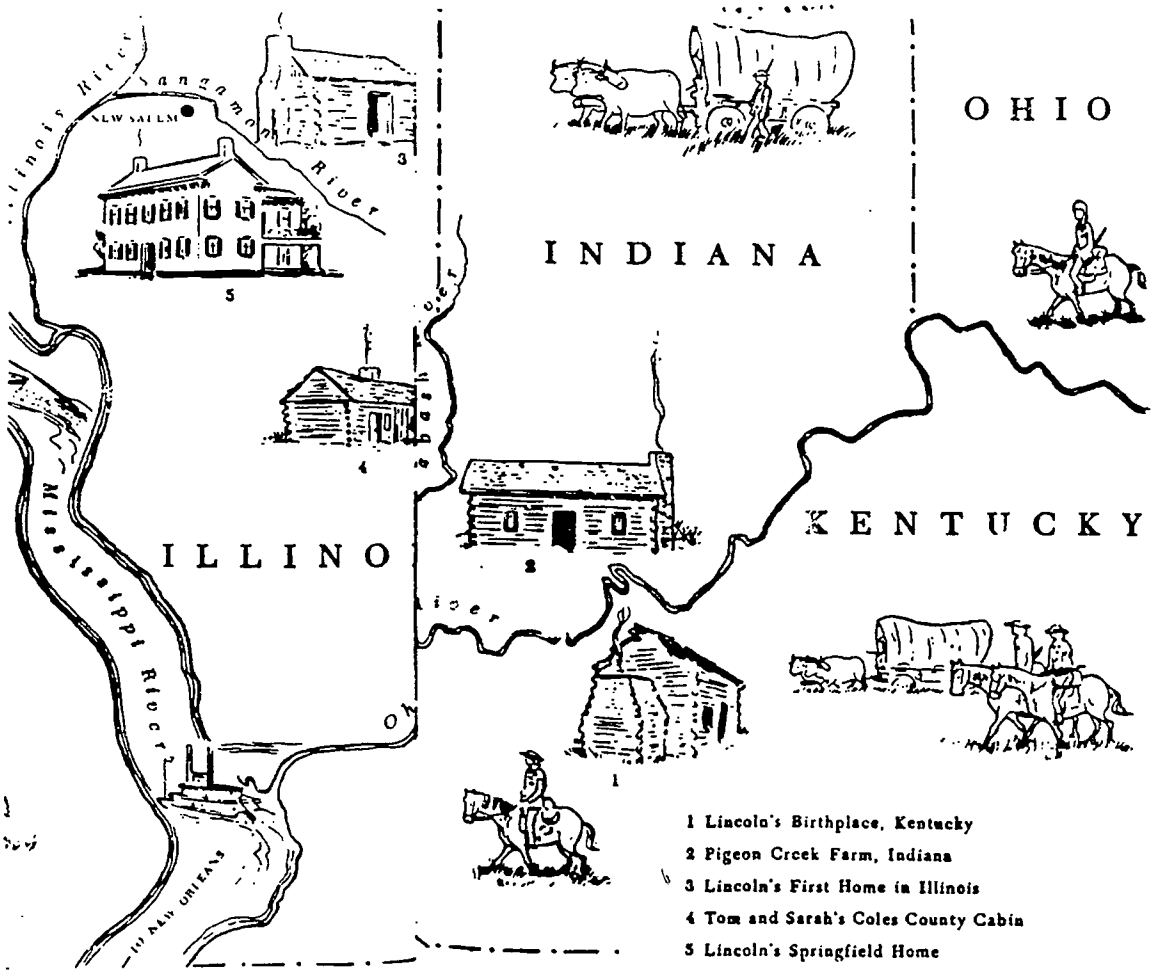
Waldron, Larry. 1986. Lincoln Parks: The story behind the scenery. Las Vegas: KC Publications

Music Played-

"Old Abe Lincoln" (my recording)
"Pop Goes the Weasel/Skip to My Lou" medley -Sing Along with Mitch
"When Johnny Comes Marching Home" -Sing Along with Mitch

Food Provided- cornbread muffins

*Slides were taken with a 35 millimeter camera from the books on Lincoln, as listed above, and in the resource list of chapter four.



Source: Frances Cavanah, Abe Lincoln Gets his Chance,(Chicago: Rand McNally, 1959), Frontispiece.

NANCY HANKS (1784-1818)

If Nancy Hanks
Came back as a ghost,
Seeking news
Of what she loved most,
She'd ask first
"Where's my son?
What's happened to Abe?
What's he done?

"Poor little Abe,
Left all alone
Except for Tom,
Who's a rolling stone;
He was only nine
The year I died.
I remember still
How hard he cried.

"Scraping along
In a little shack,
With hardly a shirt
To cover his back,
And a prairie wind
to blow him down,
Or pinching times
If he went to town.

"You wouldn't know
About my son?
Did he grow tall?
Did he have fun?
Did he learn to read?
Did he get to town?
Do you know his name?
Did he get on?"

-Rosemary and Stephen Vincent Benet

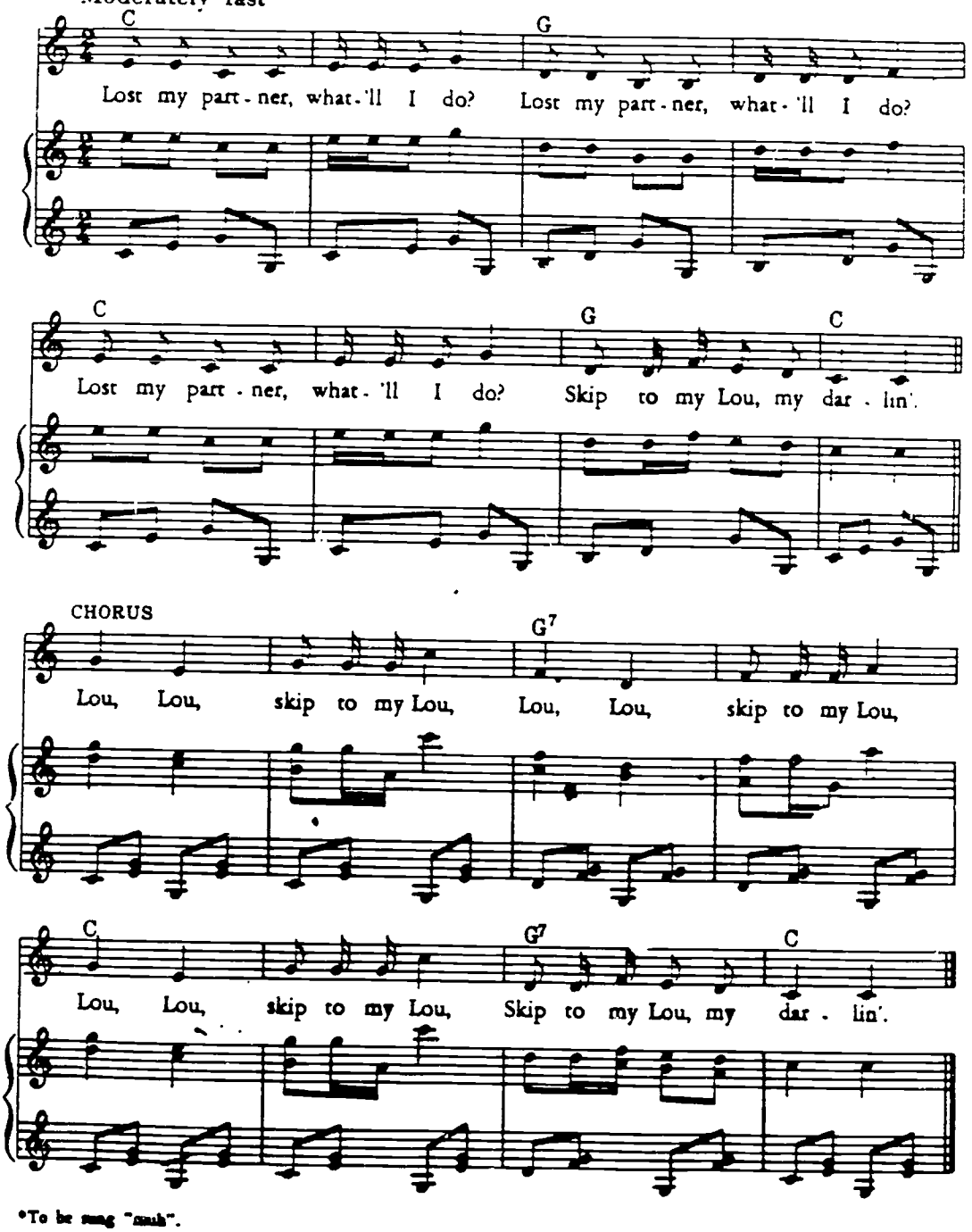
Source: Edna A. Neidelman, ed. America's Lincoln: From the Hearts of Many Poets: A Compilation of Poetry About Him. (New York: Pageant Press, 1966).

Skip to My* Lou

Words and melody adapted and arranged by
John A and Alan Lomax

Piano arrangement by
Charles and Ruth Seeger

Moderately fast



*To be sung "mah".

1. Lost my partner, what'll I do?
Lost my partner, what'll I do?
Lost my partner, what'll I do?
Skip to my Lou, my darlin'?

CHORUS: (to be sung whenever you feel like it)
Lou, Lou, skip to my Lou,
Lou, Lou, skip to my Lou,
Lou, Lou, skip to my Lou,
Skip to my Lou, my darlin'?

2. I'll get another one prettier'n you,
I'll get another one prettier'n you,
I'll get another one prettier'n you,
Skip to my Lou, my darlin?

3. Can't get a red bird, a blue bird'll do,
Can't get a red bird, a blue bird'll do,
Can't get a red bird, a blue bird'll do,
Skip to my Lou, my darlin'?

4. Little red wagon painted blue.

5. Fly in the sugar-bowl, shoo, fly, shoo.

6. Gone again, what'll I do?

7. Hair in the butterdish, six feet long.

8. Cows in the cornfield, two by two.

9. Rats in the breadtray, how they chew.

10. One old boot and a run-down shoe.

Source: John and Alan Lomax, Folk Song: USA, (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1947).

SKIP TO MY LOU--THE DANCE

This is a dance of stealing partners. It begins with any number of couples hand in hand, skipping around the ring, as couples. A person without a partner stands in the middle of the moving circle and sings:

"Lost my partner, what'll I do?"

As the couples skip by, the person in the center decides which partner he will steal. As he sings:

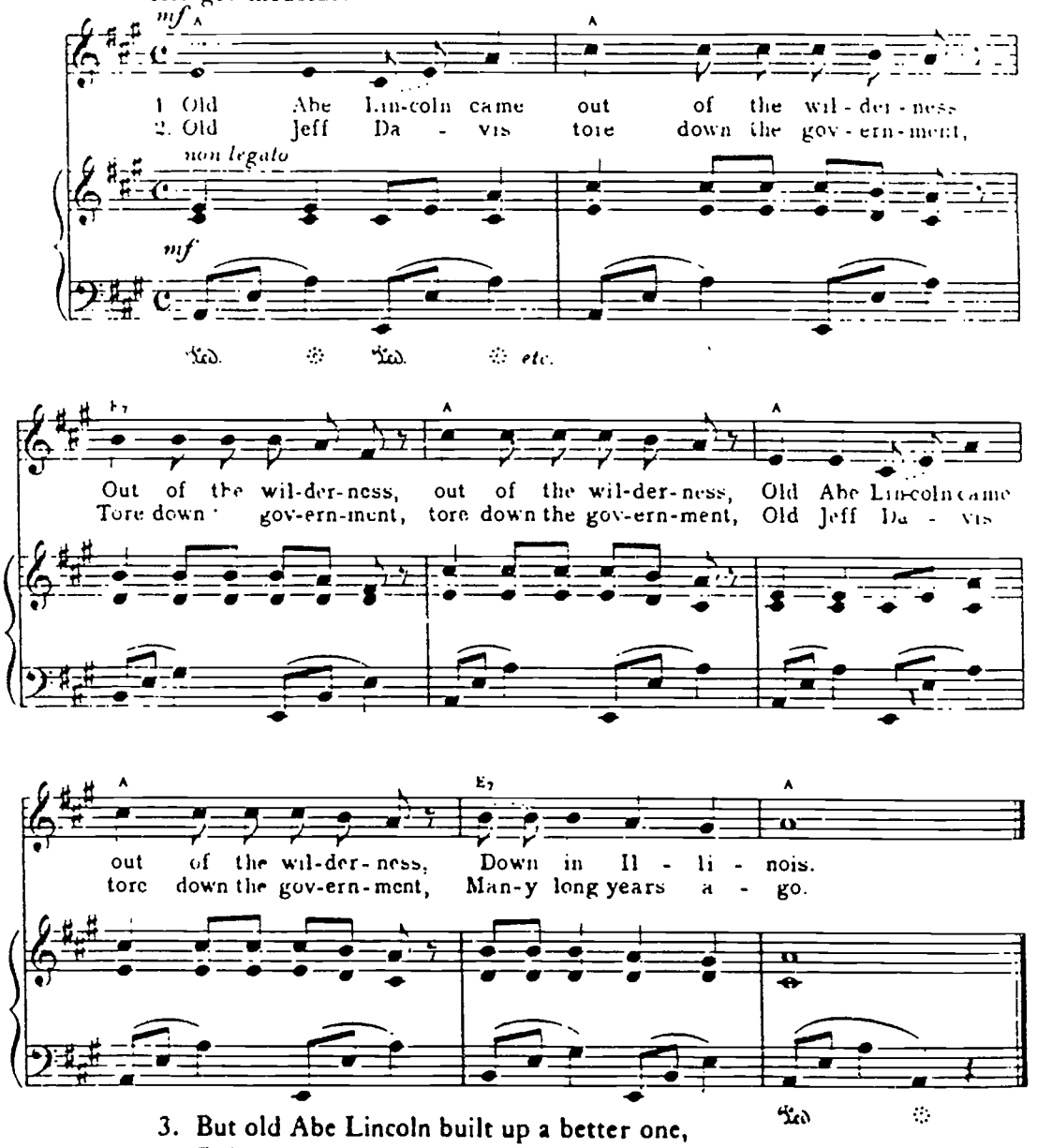
"I'll get another one prettier'n you,"

he grabs for the hand of the partner he has decided on. He then joins the circle, while the displaced partner takes the place in the middle of the dancing ring. He steals a partner in the same way as the first and the game continues.

Source: John and Alan Lomax, Folk Song: USA, (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1947).

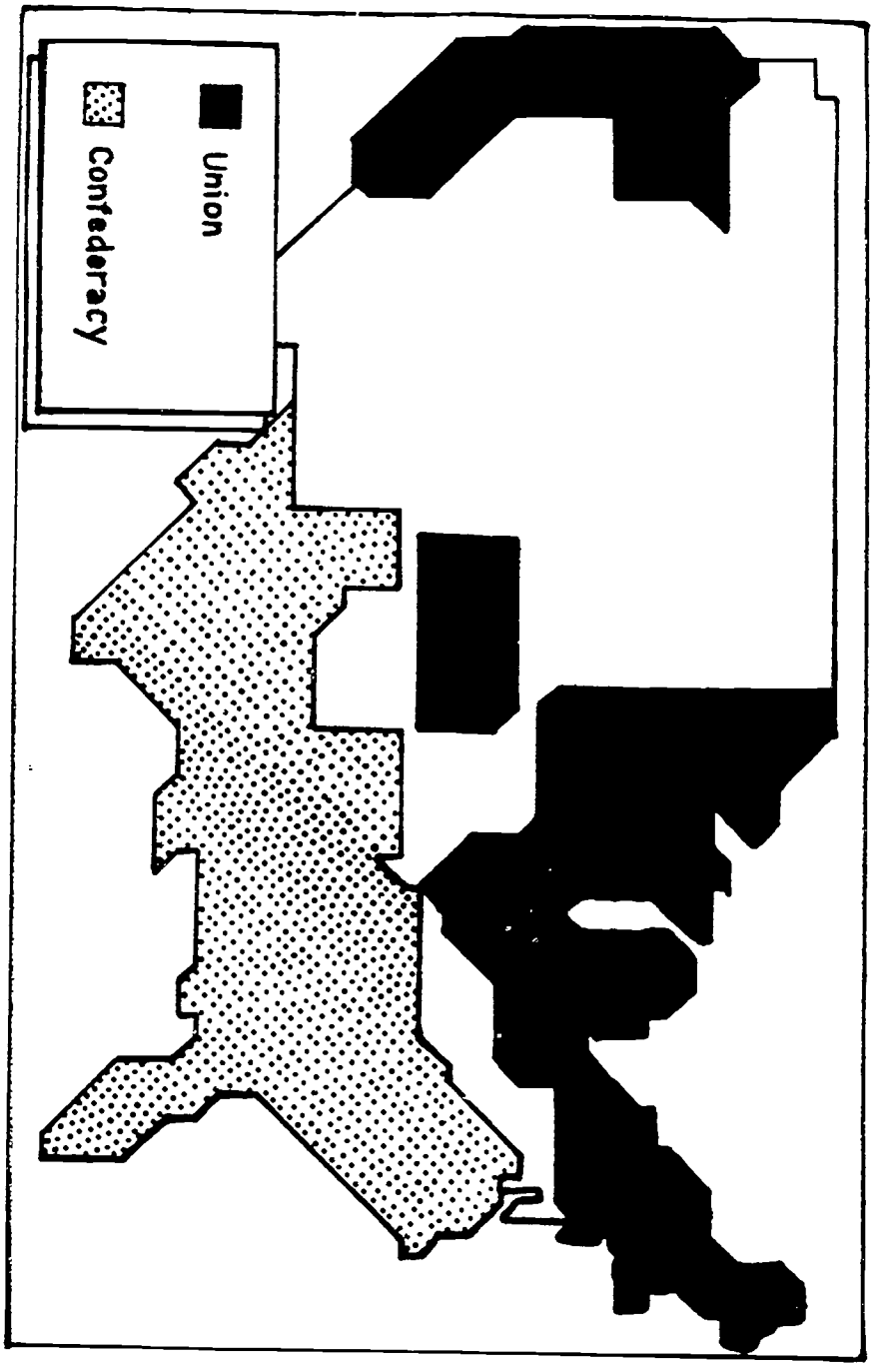
Old Abe Lincoln

A famous campaign song in the exciting Presidential election of 1860. The tune is from the Negro spiritual "Ol' Gray Mare Come Tearin' Out de Wilderness." "The Old Gray Mare, She Ain't What She Used to Be" is derived from the same spiritual.



3. But old Abe Lincoln built up a better one,
   Built up a better one, built up a better one;
   Old Abe Lincoln built up a better one,
   Many long years ago.

Source: Margaret Bradford Boni, The Fireside Book of Favorite American Songs, (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1952).



Source: Dorothy Levenson, The First Book of the Civil War, (New York: Franklin Watts, 1968), 12-13.

WHEN JOHNNY COMES MARCHING HOME

When Johnny comes marching home again,
Hurrah! hurrah!
We'll give him a hearty welcome then,
Hurrah! hurrah!
Oh, the men will cheer and the boys will shout,
The ladies they will all turn out,
And we'll all feel gay
When Johnny comes marching home.
And we'll all feel gay
When Johnny comes marching home.

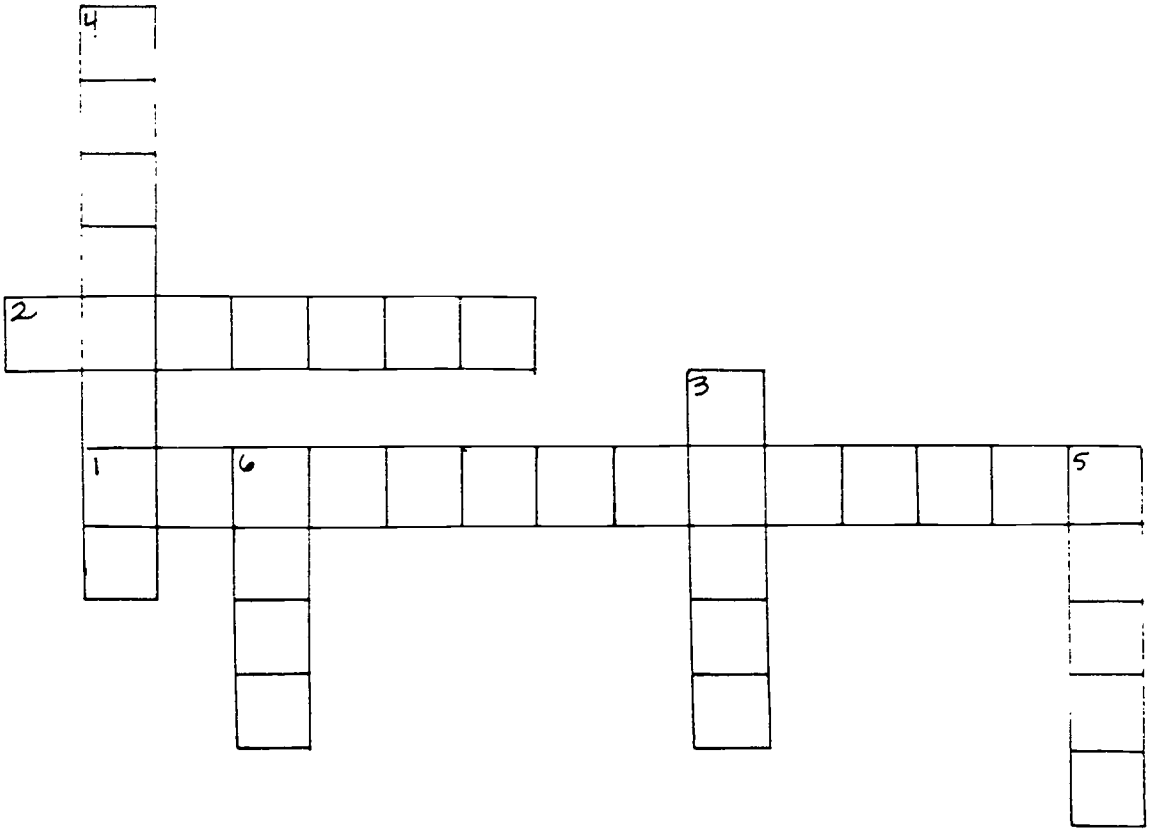
Get ready for the jubilee,
Hurrah! hurrah!
We'll give the hero three times three,
Hurrah! hurrah!
Oh, the laurel wreath is ready now
To place upon his loyal brow,
And we'll all feel gay
When Johnny comes marching home.
And we'll all feel gay
When Johnny comes marching home.

In eighteen hundred and sixty one,
Hurrah! hurrah!
That was when the war begun,
Hurrah! hurrah!
In eighteen hundred and sixty two,
Both sides were falling to,
And we ll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.
And we'll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.

In eighteen hundred and sixty three,
Hurrah! hurrah!
Old Abe, he ended slavery,
Hurrah! hurrah!
In eighteen hundred and sixty three,
Old Abe, he ended slavery,
And we'll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.
And we'll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.

In eighteen hundred and sixty four,
Hurrah! hurrah!
Abe called for five hundred thousand more,
Hurrah! hurrah!
In eighteen hundred and sixty five,
They talked rebellious strife,
And we'll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.
And we'll all drink stone wine
When Johnny comes marching home.

Source: Mitch Miller and the Gang, Folk Songs, (Columbia).



ACROSS

1. Our 16th President was _____ _____.
2. Lincoln believed that _____ was wrong.

DOWN

3. The North began to _____ the South.
4. The name of the war between the North and South was the _____ _____.
5. The _____ won the war.
6. Abe taught himself to _____.

SCRIPT FOR SLIDES ON ABRAHAM LINCOLN

1. This is a map of the places that Lincoln lived in his life. He was born in Kentucky. Then, his family moved to Indiana. Next, they moved to Illinois. From there, when he was elected President, he moved to Washington, D.C.
2. This map shows the places Lincoln lived as a boy. He was born in _____. Then his family moved to _____. Next, they moved to ___. At that time, Illinois was the Western boundary of this country.
3. This is the log cabin that Abe was born in. Now it is kept inside a big building so it will not fall apart.
4. When Abe was seven, his family moved to Indiana. What was the name of their farm? (Students look at their map.) At that time, it was a wilderness. There were lots of trees and no houses. They didn't have cars, they had wagons and horses.
5. At that time women, like Abe's mother, Nancy Hanks Lincoln, had to spin wool. This is called a spinning wheel. This is how women dressed at that time.
6. Abe's mother, Nancy, had to cook food over a fire.
7. Abe's mother and sister had to do the washing in a pot like this.
8. This was the family's home, a log cabin at Pigeon Creek Farm, Indiana. Now it is a National Park. The cabin was small because the family was not rich.
9. This is another view of the Lincoln home in Indiana. Sometimes his father, Tom Lincoln, was a carpenter. But mainly he was a farmer. Abe's mother, Nancy, died in this house from a sickness called, "Milk Sick" when Abe was nine years old. *Poem--Nancy Hanks.
10. Later, Abe's father married again. The new step mother loved Abe and encouraged him to learn to read. One of Abe's favorite books was Weems' "Life of Washington." The family decided to move to Illinois when Abe was older. Abe helped them move.
11. One time, the family was crossing a cold river. They got across the river when they remembered their dog was left on the other side. The dog was crying and barking. Tom refused to go back across the river to get the dog; but Abe loved animals and wanted to help the dog. He took off his shoes and socks and waded across the river; returning with the shivering animal under his arm. Abe was glad that he helped him because the dog showed how happy it was by wagging its tail. *Dance--Skip to my Lou
12. Then, Abe met an intelligent and beautiful young woman, who was active in politics. Her name was Mary Todd. She lived in Springfield, Illinois. She and Abe were married Nov. 4, 1842. This photo was taken after they had been married for 4 years and they had two sons.
13. This photo of Abraham Lincoln was taken at the same time. It is the first picture, we know of, that was taken of him.
14. Lincoln was a lawyer. This is a picture of his law office in Springfield, Illinois.
15. This is the Lincoln family's house in Springfield. They bought it for $1,500. It was the only house Lincoln ever owned.
16. Lincoln was elected to serve in the Illinois state government. He gave speeches in this room.
17. Then, Abe decided to run for President. This picture was taken when he was a candidate in 1860. Who were the candidates for President in the most recent election? *Song--Old Abe Lincoln (contains information about Lincoln and the situations present in the South at the time)

At this time--a little girl wrote him a letter, saying that she thought he would look better with whiskers; and if he grew a beard, her brothers would vote for him. So . . .

18. Abe grew a beard and he was elected.
19. This is what the White House looked like when Abraham Lincoln was President.

20. This is what Mary Todd Lincoln looked like when her husband was President. She loved to wear beautiful dresses and she had lots of them.
*(Students look at U.S. map of N. and S. states)
21. Slavery was popular in the South when Lincoln was elected. This shows a slave auction in the South. The black people are being sold to white people just like they were not people, but things. Abe hated slavery and thought it was very bad.
22. This cartoon shows what happened when Lincoln was elected. The South wanted slavery and pulled away from the U.S. They wanted to have a new country so they could have their slaves. The South even elected their own President--Jefferson Davis. The U.S. was being torn apart (teacher rips paper).
23-38. Because of the differences, the Civil War started. The battles were fought on land and water. At the end of the war, 618,000 people had died. The North won the Civil War.
39. The South was almost totally destroyed.
40. Many soldiers were killed. This is a family at a cemetary.
But, many men also came home after the war. *Song--When Johnny Comes Marching Home. (Contains the spirit of returning soldiers and information on the war.)
41. The slaves were very happy. They were free. They did not have to be slaves any more. They loved Abraham Lincoln and thanked him for their freedom.
42. The Lincoln's had four sons. When this picture was taken, two sons had died. This boy, named "Tad" would die when he was eighteen. Abraham and Mary loved their children. When their sons died it broke their hearts. But, Tad would not die before his father died.
43. One evening, on April 14, 1865, Abraham, Mary, and another couple went to see a play at Ford's Theater in Washington. This is a picture of that theater.
44. Abraham was sitting here and Mary was sitting next to him on his right. The other couple was sitting on this sofa. They were watching the play. Then a terrible thing happened. A man came from behind Lincoln and shot him. Mary screamed and the man jumped over the flag to the stage below. He ran and jumped on a horse and rode away. They carried Abraham across the street and he died there April 15, 1865.
45. His wife Mary was sad and very depressed. She missed Abraham terribly and wore black clothes because she was a widow.
46. This is the Lincoln Tomb in Oak Ridge Cemetary in Illinois. Abraham, Mary, and three of their sons are buried there.
47. This is the famous statue of Lincoln in the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C.
48. This is the outside of the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C.
Abraham Lincoln is probably the best loved President in the history of the U.S.

*activity conducted at this point of the lesson

List of Training Materials for Control Group

*Slides of Martin Luther King and his life-
Childhood--family, Martin on the right; MLK preaching under a cross; MLK and Coretta Scott wedding; MLK reading Gandhi Reader; MLK and flag behind him; March on Washington; MLK's wife and children grieving after he died.

Books Provided to Help Students with Crossword puzzle-

Adler, David A. 1989. A picture book of Martin Luther King,Jr.. New York: Holiday House.

Boone-Jones, Margaret. 1968. Martin Luther King, Jr.: A picture story. Chicago: Childrens Press.

Davidson, Margaret. 1986. I have a dream: The story of Martin Luther King. New York: Scholastic Inc.

Harris, Jacqueline L. 1983. Martin Luther King, Jr.. New York: Franklin Watts.

Haskins, James. 1977. The life and death of Martin Luther King, Jr.. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co.

Lowery, Linda. 1987. Martin Luther King Day. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Carolrhoda Books.

McKissack, Patricia. 1984. Martin Luther King, Jr.: A man to remember. Chicago: Childrens Press.

Smith, Kathie Billingslea. 1987. Martin Luther King, Jr.. The Great Americans Series. New York: Julian Messner.

Music Played- "We Shall Overcome" (my recording)

Video Played- "Blowin' in the Wind", "This Land is Your Land" -Peter, Paul, and Mary; 25th Anniversary Concert on PBS

Food Provided- cornbread muffins

*Slides were taken with a 35 millimeter camera from the books, listed above, and in the resource list of chapter four.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King, Jr. was born in Atlanta, Georgia. He was born on January 15, 1929. His father was a minister.

When Martin was young in the South, white people did not treat black people as equals. When he was a boy he played with all the children in the neighborhood. They were both black and white children. But when they began to go to school, the white children stopped coming to the King's house to play. The white children went to one school and the black children went to another school. This is called segregation.

As he grew older, he learned that there were some places where he and his family could not go. These things made Martin very sad.

Martin loved books and liked to read. He was a good student and when he grew up he became a minister, like his father. Then, he received a doctorate.

In 1953, he married Coretta Scott, and later they had four children. In Atlanta, where they lived, black people had to sit in the back of the bus. Later, he led a boycott of the buses. He told all the black people to stay off the buses. They did, for one year. Finally, the law was changed.

Martin believed that people should be non-violent. He admired a man from India, named Gandhi who was non-violent. Martin traveled all over the United States. He helped people who were working to have bad laws (called Jim Crow laws) changed to better ones. He helped the laws to be changed without violence.

He was always reminding people: "Be honest. Love each other. Work hard so that you can hold up your heads and be proud of yourselves!"

Martin became very famous in the 1960's. You could read about him every day in the newspaper. You could hear him on the radio and see him on the television.

In 1963, Martin Luther King, Jr. and other black leaders led a march in Washington, D.C. 250,000 black and white people were there! They were against segregation and wanted freedom for all Americans. Dr. King gave his famous "I Have a Dream" speech.

"I have a dream today!" His voice shook with feeling. "Some day," he said, "little black boys and black girls will join hands with little white boys and white girls and walk together as sisters and brothers. I have a dream today!" A cheer went up from the crowd. "Some day," King went on, *"all* God's children" would join hands. Together they would sing the old Negro song, "Free at last, free at last. Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!"

When he finished, many of the marchers were crying. They stood and cheered Martin Luther King, Jr. Then everyone joined hands, blacks and whites together, and sang, "We Shall Overcome."

In 1964, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. was awarded a big prize for doing so many things to bring peace and love to people. This prize is called the "Nobel Prize." He won a medal and a large amount of money. He used this money to help more people.

On April 3, 1968, Dr. King was in Memphis, Tennessee. He was speaking at a church. He knew many white people wanted to kill him. But he wasn't afraid. He called them "our sick white brothers." He said that he would like to live a long life, but it didn't matter now. "I've been to the mountaintop," he said. "And I've seen the Promised Land. I may not get there with you. But . . . we as a people will get to the Promised Land. So I'm happy tonight. I'm not fearing any man."

A night later, King stood on his motel porch. Suddenly a shot rang out. King fell to the floor. In an hour he was dead.

People all over the world were sad. Even though he is gone, people can live as he lived, love as he loved, and work as he worked. In this way, he will never be forgotten. In 1985, Congress voted to establish a holiday in Martin Luther King's honor.

Script for Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Slides

(1.) Martin Luther King, Jr. was born in Atlanta, Georgia. He was born on January 15, 1929. His father was a minister.

When Martin was young in the South, white people did not treat black people as equals. When he was a boy he played with all the children in the neighborhood. They were both black and white children. But when they began to go to school, the white children stopped coming to the King's house to play. The white children went to one school and the black children went to another school. This is called segregation.

As he grew older, he learned that there were some places where he and his family could not go. These things made Martin very sad.

(2.) Martin loved books and liked to read. He was a good student and when he grew up he became a minister, like his father. Then, he received a doctorate.

(3.) In 1953, he married Coretta Scott, and later they had four children. In Atlanta, where they lived, black people had to sit in the back of the bus. Later, he led a boycott of the buses. He told all the black people to stay off the buses. They did, for one year. Finally, the law was changed.

(4.) Martin believed that people should be non-violent. He admired a man from India, named Gandhi who was non-violent. Martin traveled all over the United States. He helped people who were working to have bad laws (called Jim Crow laws) changed to better ones. He helped the laws to be changed without violence.

(5.) He was always reminding people: "Be honest. Love each other. Work hard so that you can hold up your heads and be proud of yourselves!"

Martin became very famous in the 1960's. You could read about him every day in the newspaper. You could hear him on the radio and see him on the television.

(6.) In 1963, Martin Luther King, Jr. and other black leaders led a march in Washington, D.C. 250,000 black and white people were there! They were against segregation and wanted freedom for all Americans. Dr. King gave his famous "I Have a Dream" speech.

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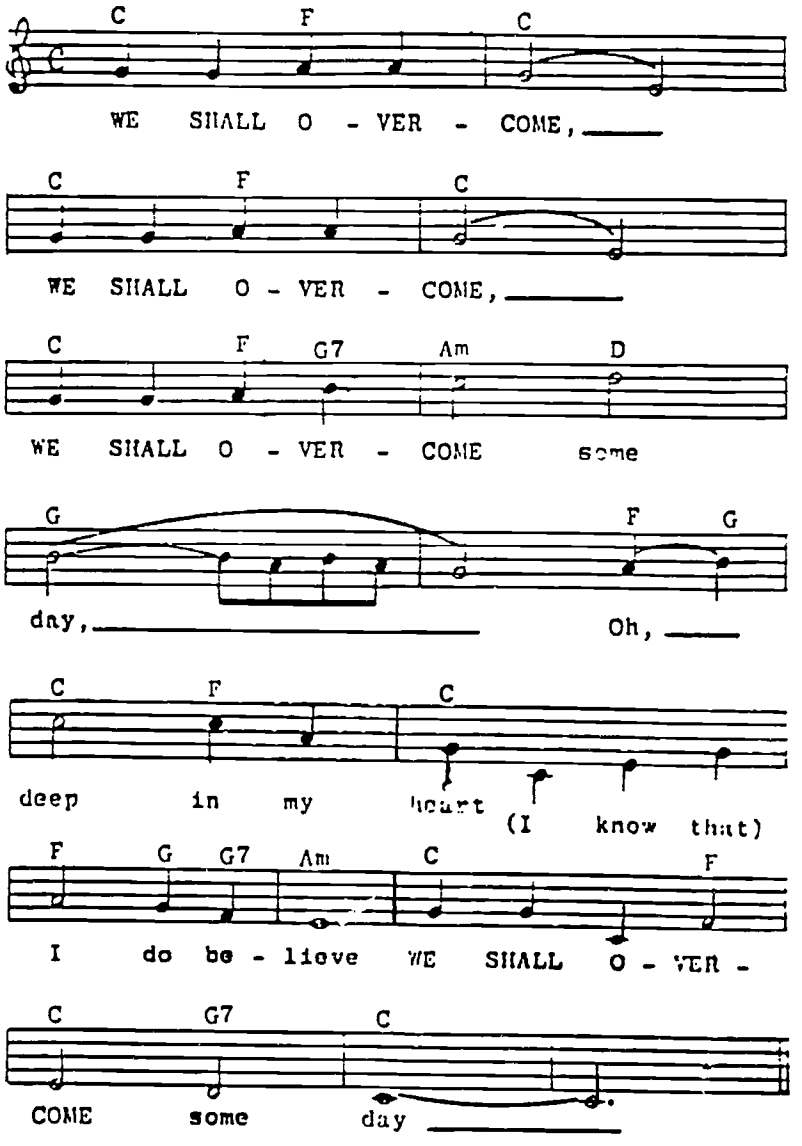
(7.) People all over the world were sad. Even though he is gone, people can live as he lived, love as he loved, and work as he worked. In this way, he will never be forgotten. In 1985, Congress voted to establish a holiday in Martin Luther King's honor.

Slides
(1.) boyhood--family, Martin on the right
(2.) MLK preaching under a cross
(3.) MLK and Coretta Scott wedding
(4.) MLK reading Gandhi Reader
(5.) MLK and flag behind him
(6.) March on Washington
(7.) MLK's wife and children grieving after he died

Source: Adapted from Margaret Boone-Jones, Martin Luther King, Jr.: A Picture Story, (Chicago: Childrens Press, 1968).

PACKET OF MATERIALS GIVEN TO SUBJECTS IN CONTROL GROUP

WE SHALL OVERCOME



We'll walk hand in hand,
We'll walk hand in hand,
We'll walk hand in hand someday,
Oh, deep in my heart
I do believe
WE SHALL OVERCOME someday.

We shall live in peace, etc.

We shall all be free, etc.

We shall end Jim Crow, etc.

We are not afraid, etc.

The Lord will see us through, etc.

We are not alone, etc.

The whole wide world around, etc.

The truth will make us free, etc.

We shall ban the bomb, etc.

Black and white together, etc.

WE SHALL OVERCOME, etc.

Source: Zilpha Horton, Frank Hamilton, Guy Carawan, and Pete Seeger, We Shall Overcome, (New York: Ludlow Music, 1960 and 1963).

Blowin' in the Wind

1. How many roads must a man walk down
Before they call him a man?
How many seas must a white dove sail
Before she sleeps in the sand?
And how many times must the cannon balls fly
Before they're forever banned?

Chorus:
The answer, my friend, is blowin' in the wind.
The answer is blowin' in the wind.

2. How many years must a mountain exist
Before it is washed to the sea?
How many years can some people exist
Before they're allowed to be free?
How many times can a man turn his head
And pretend that he just doesn't see?

Chorus:
The answer, my friend, is blowin' in the wind.
The answer is blowin' in the wind.

3. How many times must a man look up
Before he can see the sky?
How many years must one man have
Before he can hear people cry?
How many deaths will it take 'til he knows
That too many people have died?

Chorus:
The answer, my friend, is blowin' in the wind.
The answer is blowin' in the wind.

Chorus:
The answer, my friend, is blowin' in the wind.
The answer is blowin' in the wind.

Chorus:
The answer, my friend, is blowin' in the wind.
The answer is blowin' in the wind.

(The answer is love and compassion and peace and all of us working for it together. God bless you!)

Source: Words taken from video recording of Peter, Paul, and Mary, 25th Anniversary Celebration. (PBS, 1989).

This Land is Your Land

1. and 2.
I roamed and I rambled
And followed my footsteps
From the sparkling sands of her diamond deserts
And all around me I heard a voice calling
This land was made for you and me!

Chorus:
This land is your land
This land is my land
From California to the New York Island
From the redwood forests to the Gulf Stream waters
This land was made for you and me!

3. Well, I went walking and the sun was shining
The wheat fields waving
The dust clouds rolling; the fog was lifting
I heard a voice singing (It might've been Woody!)*
This land was made for you and me!

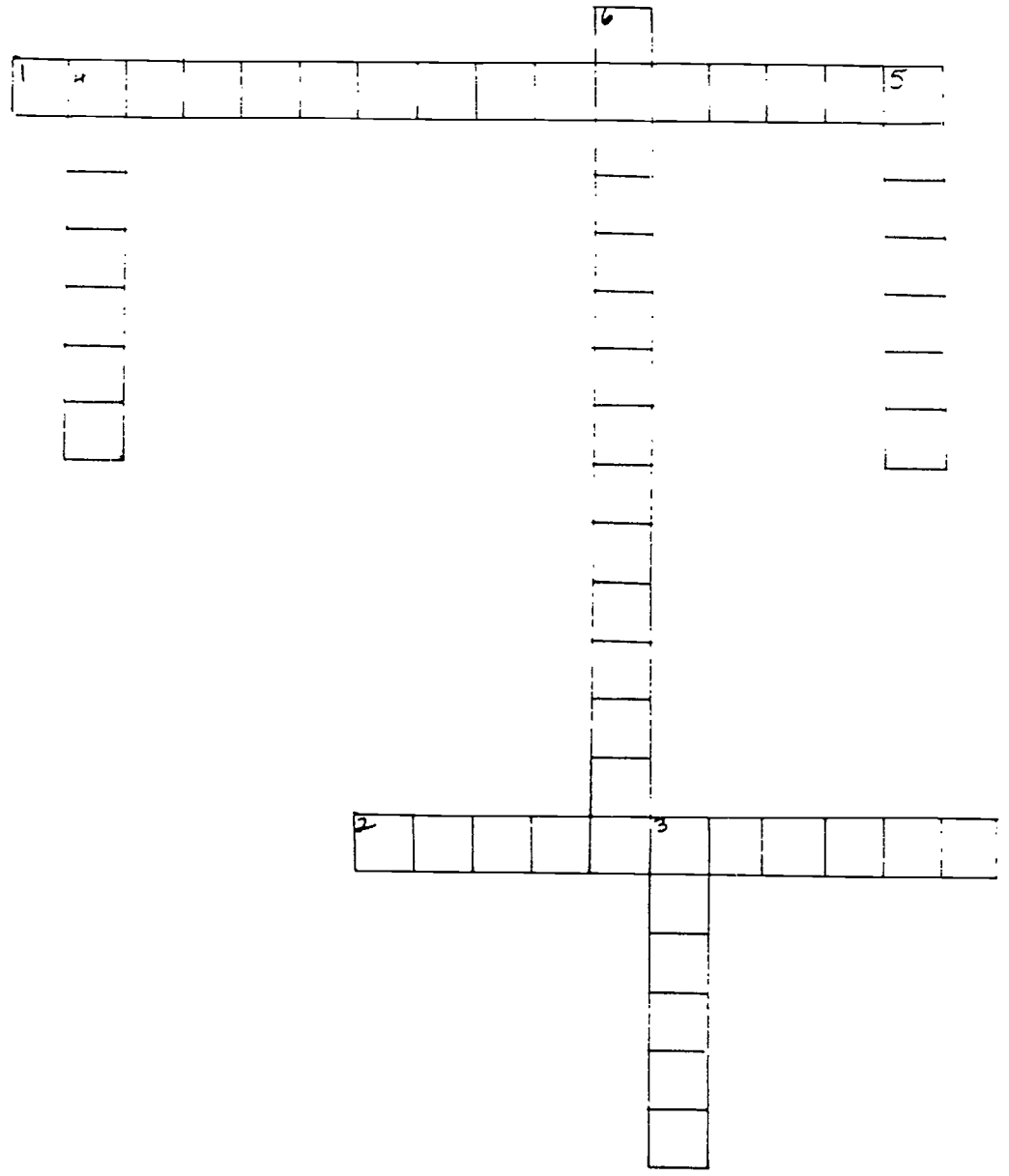
Chorus:
This land is your land
This land is my land
From California to the New York Island
From the redwood forests to the Gulf Stream waters
This land was made for you and me!

4. As I went walking
By a ribbon of highway
I saw above me an endless skyway
I saw below me the golden valley
This land was made for you and me!

Chorus:
This land is your land
This land is my land
From California to the New York Island
From the redwood forests to the Gulf Stream waters
This land was made for you and me!

* Woody Guthrie sang this song. He died many years ago.

Source: Words taken from video recording of Peter, Paul, and Mary, 25th Anniversary Celebration, (PBS, 1989).



ACROSS

1. A famous black man in the 1960's was _____ _____ _____.
2. When white children go to one school and black children go to another school, it is called_____.

DOWN

3. Martin Luther King admired a man from India named_____.
4. Martin was born in the city of_____.
5. Martin was born in the state of _____.
6. At the march in Washington, D.C., the marchers joined hands and sang _____ _____ _____.

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