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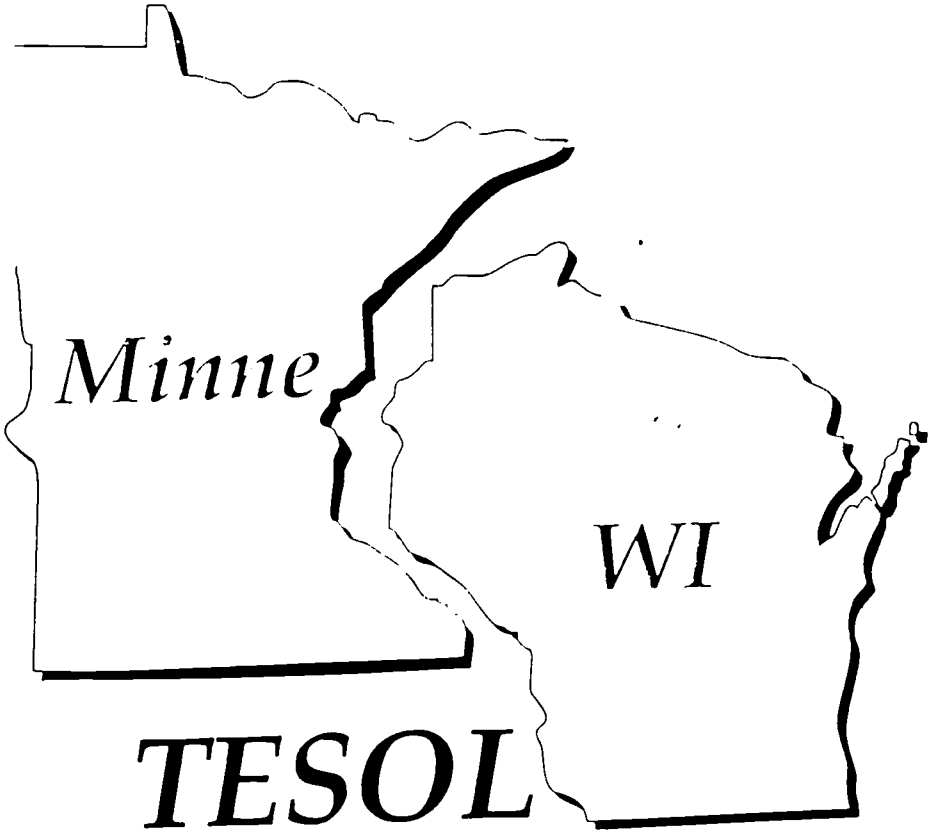
ABSTRACT

The two volumes of the journal, jointly produced by the Minnesota and Wisconsin English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) teachers' associations, include these articles: "'Iwareru and Meiwaku': A Comparative Analysis of Japanese and American Communicative Styles" (Masako Saito, James H. Robinson); ""Reading in the Elementary Classroom" (Alice Weickelt); "An Overview of Hmong for ESL Teachers" (Lisa Dettinger, Thom A. Upton); "Reading Lab: From Pleasure Reading to Proficiency?" (Evangeline L. French); "The Paraphrasing Process of Native Speakers: Some Implications for the ESL Classroom" (Laurie Eckblad Anderson); "LEAP English Academy-- An Alternative High School for Newcomers to the United States" (Jeff DuFresne, Sandra Hall); "Defining the World: Content-Based Learning in an ESL Classroom" (Elizabeth A. Hoadley); The World Wide Web and Electronic Mail: Applications for ESL" (Joannah L. O'Hatnick); and "Reading Lab: A Comprehensive Starter Kit" (Tom Richards). Book reviews are also included in each volume. (MSE)

Minnesota and Wisconsin
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages



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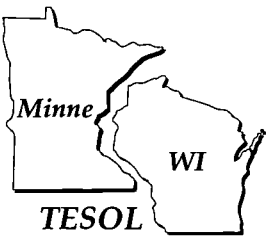

TESOL Journal

Volume 13, 1995-96

A Journal for Minnesota and Wisconsin Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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Information for contributors to the *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal*

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INTRODUCTION

It is with great pleasure that we present this Journal, a joint venture of WITESOL and MinneTESOL. While we have a new title, this journal is a continuation of what has been previously called the MinneTESOL Journal and, so, we have designated this as volume 13, the next volume in the sequence. As before, this journal continues to be a publication devoted to articles of professional significance to teachers of English as a Second Language or Dialect. Over two years ago, members of MinneTESOL and WITESOL began a discussion of a possible collaboration on this publication: the result is in your hands. Working together to produce this 1995-96 edition has been a confirmation of how much our two states have in common, both in the populations we serve and in the issues we grapple with in our teaching and research. We hope that you will find the articles thought-provoking and useful.

The first article, "Iwareru and Meiwaku" offers a glimpse into the cultural attitudes of Japanese students and shows how these attitudes manifest themselves in a language class. Co-written by Masako Saito and James Robinson, this article explores two important cultural concepts which affect classroom communication and offers suggestions for how educators can help Japanese students feel more successful and comfortable in the more communicative, Western-style language classroom.

In "Reading in the Upper-Elementary Classroom," Alice Weickelt brings a wealth of suggestions for dealing with the task of teaching beginning reading to older elementary students. This article presents a variety of engaging teaching techniques that lay the groundwork for reading instruction as well as offer some creative ideas for classroom management.

Evangeline French's article "Reading Lab: From Pleasure Reading to Proficiency?" examines the impact of including an extensive reading lab component in reading classes for college-level intensive ESL students and the overall effect this has on reading comprehension. Her challenge to not just focus on reading skills in our reading classes but to provide opportunities for our students to read as much as possible is quite persuasive. She concludes her paper with a useful discussion on ways to implement a reading lab within any program.

The article "An Overview of Hmong for ESL Teachers," written by Lisa Dettinger and Thomas A. Upton, has the simple but useful goal of outlining key characteristics of the Hmong language and culture and the implication these characteristics have on the teaching and learning of ESL. As the number of Hmong ESL students in our school systems continues to grow, this paper should serve as a valuable resource to teachers seeking to understand the errors and difficulties many Hmong students have when learning English.

The final article, "The Paraphrasing Process of Native Speakers: Some implications for the ESL classroom" by Laurie E. Anderson, discusses the complexities of paraphrasing in a second language. She found her own class of ESL freshmen having difficulty with paraphrase, and yet writing textbooks surveyed were superficial in their treatment of the subject. To better understand the process of paraphrasing, verbal reports were collected of two native-English speaking college students as they paraphrased passages from a sociology text. This study sheds light on the process of paraphrasing and offers strategies which can be used in the classroom.

In addition to these articles, this volume includes book reviews for an adult education text and two teacher education resources, as well as a poem.

With this volume, I, Adele Hansen, end my tenure as co-editor of this publication. During my four years, I feel fortunate to have worked with the many dedicated contributors and editorial board members.

Your guidance and input has been crucial to the success of the journal. We, Robin Murie, representing *MinneTESOL*, and Thom Upton, representing *WITESOL*, look forward to continuing this collaboration between our two affiliates. This has been an exciting adventure for us and we hope to strengthen the interstate and inter-affiliate ties that have been established. We encourage each of you to continue to support this Journal by submitting articles and volunteering to serve on the editorial board along with Robin Murie and Thomas Upton.

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Iwareru and Meiwaku: A Comparative Analysis of Japanese and American Communicative Styles

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Because of cultural differences, Japanese students who come to study in the United States have difficulties adjusting to the American classroom. This interview study focuses on how two major components of the Japanese value system, *iwareru* (spoken of by others) and *meiwaku* (inconvenience to others), can be used to explain how Japanese tendencies toward group orientation and toward dependency on teachers result in more reserved classroom behavior. Ten Japanese and ten American students were interviewed as part of this cross-cultural research project. The purpose of the study is to provide ESL teachers with a knowledge of how these concepts work so that ESL teachers can help facilitate cultural adjustments by Japanese students to the behavior patterns expected in U. S. classrooms.

INTRODUCTION

Samorar and Porter (1994) have noted that cultural differences are a major problem in intercultural communication. One major difference is between group-orientation in a society such as Japan and self-orientation in a culture such as the United States. These cultural values play a significant role in relations beginning with child-rearing and extending to all relationships in society. For example, in Japan, bonding not only between parents and children, but also between children and other people—including teachers—is encouraged. Unlike Japanese children, children in America are treated as individuals at an early stage.

Because of these differences in orientation, Japanese students who come to study in the United States have difficulties adjusting to the American classrooms. For example,while American students have an easy time giving their personal opinions to others, Japanese students tend to be reserved and keep their opinions to themselves. Consequently, it is very

important for both ESL teachers and Japanese students to understand these cultural differences and to try to learn about each others' cultural values. This intercultural learning should then facilitate teaching and learning both in second language classrooms and other classrooms where students and teachers from both cultures interact.

Within the group-oriented value system of Japan, Clark (1983) has indicated that two major components are *iwareru* (spoken of by others) and *meiwaku* (inconvenience to others). As a way of helping ESL teachers understand Japanese students, this paper will focus on these two important Japanese concepts in Japanese group-oriented society. First, we will define *iwareru* and *meiwaku* within Japanese contexts. Second, these two concepts will be related to the boundaries between public and private self. Third, the paper will discuss how these two concepts manifest themselves in a distinctly Japanese communication style both in the Japanese and the ESL classroom. Finally, this paper will provide some suggestions on how ESL teachers can help Japanese students and on how Japanese students can help themselves to adapt to the American classroom.

IWARERU AND MEIWAKU

Iwareru and *meiwaku* are products of a group-oriented society and have their roots in the cooperative practices required of intensive rice agriculture in traditional Japan. With an emphasis on group harmony and loyalty, people had to be sensitive to the thoughts of other people and the ways of self-expression. Nakane (1970) states, "One would prefer to be silent than utter bold negative expressions such as 'no' or 'I disagree'" (p. 35). Clark (1983) defines *iwareru* "as spoken of or by others" and *meiwaku* "as inconvenience to others" (p. 60).

As previously mentioned, these concepts have even influenced Japanese child-rearing. Throughout childhood and adolescence, if you do something undesirable you will be *iwareru* (spoken of by others). For example, a mother might say, "Work hard so that you can go to at least an average high school. Every child around here goes to a higher level high school. If you fail, we will be *iwareru* and lose face." In this *iwareru* situation, there is a concern about what will be said by others. Consequently, parents are likely to overlook their children's individuality and put an emphasis on being a group member. Because of parents' emphasis on this restraint, *iwareru*, Japan is sometimes classified as a *haji* (shame) society (Clark, 1983, p. 60) as opposed to a guilt culture such as the U. S. As a result, in addition to trying to keep themselves together with the group, Japanese come to defend their private selves unconsciously so that they will not feel shame.

Meiwaku, or inconvenience to others, is another major restraint on behavior. For example, when asked for permission to go to a friend's house on Sunday, one informant's mother would respond, "Don't be *meiwaku* to others. If you go to your friend's house she can not study, or the chances are that you will disturb their day off." In this situation, as one informant reported:

> ...whenever a friend and I went to her room, her mother brought some sweets and something to drink or asked me to have dinner with them. For me, having dinner with them meant inconvenience for that family. So I tried to balance this inconvenience by bringing something for the host. This custom of never visiting anywhere empty-handed is very common in Japan and is related to the fear of being *meiwaku*.

In short, Japanese parents teach their children to always consider others.

This concept of *meiwaku* also creates difficulty in making a request or a refusal. For the Japanese, simple speech acts are not that simple. The Japanese have to consider whether or not it will be *meiwaku* or inconvenient to the person. Therefore, Japanese will be indirect when making a request or giving a refusal. First, the speaker will give elaborate explanations. Second, the speaker will pay close attention to the person's cues to determine if the message has been received. If *meiwaku* feelings are perceived, the speaker may decide not to take any direct action and drop the subject. For example, one informant reported that:

> ...when she wanted to move into an apartment nearer the university, she first broached the subject indirectly by telling her parents about how her classes were getting harder and harder, talking about the importance of the relationship with her teammates on the basketball team, and by reporting about how a friend had a really hard time going to school by train in winter.

During this long indirect explanation, the informant paid great attention to her father's facial expressions and tone of voice. When she noticed his feelings of "inconvenience," she decided not to ask her parents about living in an apartment. She reported:

> I did not want to be *meiwaku* for my parents. While I did not move into an apartment, the harmony of our home was preserved through these *meiwaku*-influenced communications strategies.

In contrast to the above mentioned *meiwaku* strategies with Japanese parents, most university age children in the United States would simply ask their parents directly if they could move into an apartment.

PUBLIC SELF AND PRIVATE SELF

Iwareru and *meiwaku* are closely related to the Japanese concept of self. Dean C. Barnlund (1975), in his contrastive study of communica-

tive styles in Japan and America, examined both the public self and the private self using a "Role Description Checklist." He found that American respondents see Japanese people as "Reserved," "Formal," "Cautious," "Evasive," Silent," "Serious," and "Dependent" (p. 55). On the other hand, Japanese respondents see Americans as "Self-Assertive," "Frank," "Spontaneous," "Informal," "Talkative," "Humorous," "Independent," "Close," and "Relaxed" (p. 54).

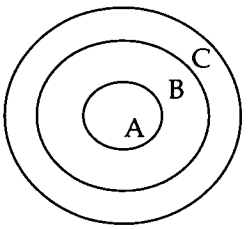

Figure 1
Japanese Public
and Private Self

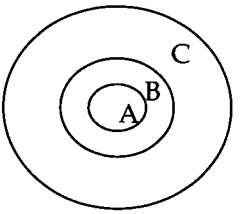

Figure 2
American Public Self
andPrivate Self

A = Unknown self
B = Private Self
C = Public Self

Using the diagrams in Figure 1 and 2, Barnlund points out that the Japanese public self is relatively small, and the private area is larger, compared to the American model (pp. 34, 37). In the figures, the smallest circle (A), which lies at the center, is the unknown part of a person that nobody can understand. The next area (B) identifies the private self, which is communicable but not often shared with others (p. 32). The biggest area (C) is the public self, which is easily shared with others (p. 33).

From a Japanese point of view, the boundary between public and private can be described as the difference between *tatemae*, or the polite meaning, and *honne*, or the inner true meaning. *Honne* is shared less often until people establish an intimate relationship. Across all topics, Barnlund emphasizes, "it is expected there will be less disclosure of private opinion and personal feeling," *honne*, in Japan than in the U.S. (p. 35). Further, the information provided would be phrased as polite speech. For example, one Japanese informant reported:

When I am asked, "What do you want to eat for lunch and then

> for dinner?" or "Where do you want to go next?" in a Japanese group, I always have difficulty in making decisions. If I am asked when I am in a larger group, it would be harder for me to express my choices. I do not want to speak first.

Again, *iwareru* and *meiwaku* are constraints in these situations, and these constraints are manifested in expressions of *honne* and *tatemae*. In order to avoid *iwareru* or *meiwaku* situations, a Japanese will express a thought that hides *honne* through an expression of *tatemae*. The informant continued:

> If I tell my opinions too honestly, such as "I don't want to eat Chinese food now; I want to go to a Japanese restaurant," and if my decision becomes the group's decision, chances are that it becomes an inconvenience to the others who love Chinese food. If my decision became the final word very frequently, other people might say, "She is selfish."

With no desire to be called selfish, this informant was in a potential *iwareru* (spoken of by others) situation. This informant could not express *honne*, an inner true feeling. Instead, she would express *tatemae* in a polite statement by saying, "Either one is OK with me." The problem is that everyone may say the same thing and the lunch will take a long time.

As the figures indicate, the American public self is larger than the Japanese public self: Americans prefer to share their opinions with others. Barnlund states, "What an American knows about himself—his opinion, attitudes, impulses, feelings—is more easily shared with others" (p. 36). The private self is relatively smaller in the model. One reason might be that Americans do not worry too much about the opinions of others in their self-oriented society. So it may be said among Americans, "Let's go and eat separately, there are two people who want to eat pizza, the rest want to eat hamburgers. Let's meet here an hour and a half later. See you then." Food courts provide a very American solution to this problem, as everyone can eat something different but still eat together.

But what happens when the group is composed of Japanese and Americans? If you take Figure 1 and 2 and move them toward each other, differences in the size of the circles for private and public self between Americans and Japanese could result in conflict.

The first problem may appear because the public self of the American begins to intrude on the private self of the Japanese long before the American is aware of any discomfort.In other words, the American may appear pushy or too inquisitive For example, direct questions which may require a "yes" or "no" answer operate within the public sphere for Americans but are more within the private sphere for Japanese, and so Japanese feel very uncomfortable with such questions. For example, one Japanese student reported:

"I often have a hard time saying simply "Yes" or "No" when I am asked to come to a party in front of others and can not go there because I have a paper or an exam."

The Japanese student in this situation worries that a direct negative response may spoil the atmosphere, and thus would not give a direct negative answer, as the ruined atmosphere would be inconvenient or *meiwaku* for the group. The Japanese student then also worries that the inconvenience may cause talk about him or her by others, a *iwareru* situation. So the student would say: "Maybe I can. Maybe not. I'll need to check my schedule," or something ambiguous. Relatively speaking, Americans are less concerned about what others may say and are less concerned about causing someone else inconvenience. As one Japanese student said:

> But I have noticed that saying, "No, I can't," is just fine in an American context. Other people will still have fun: It will not be *meiwaku* or *iwareru*.

Because of the formalities dictated by *tatemae* in conversation between Japanese and Americans, Americans might be confused by the seemingly ambiguous response of Japanese students to their direct requests. Japanese might unconsciously expect Americans to figure out what is *honne*, or inner true meaning, and what is *tatemae*, or polite meaning, by observing eye contact or by being sensitive to the tone of voice in order to get the inner feelings of Japanese people. But relatively speaking, Americans pay less attention to such non-verbals or give them less importance than Japanese would in the same situation. As Americans are fairly free to express their own opinions, they may find it hard to understand that Japanese may be afraid of *meiwaku* or *iwareru* situations and so be very reluctant to express personal feelings or opinions.

A second problem may arise when these two different concepts of private self begin to overlap. The Japanese might tend to protect his or her private self from the invasion of the American. This protectionism may partially explain the silence or passiveness of Japanese who have chosen to save face and to protect themselves against shame. One strategy to achieve these goals is to avoid expressing an opinion which may be judged and which they believe may end in an *iwareru* situation — feeling embarrassed. In an American-style conversation, Japanese may feel embarrassed by the Americans' intrusiveness (Barnland, p. 41). Japanese believe that people still can understand each other without entering each others' protective areas. But for Americans, it is very important to talk about their thoughts or feelings openly because "it fulfills an individual's need to express himself or herself" (Derlego & Grzelak, 1979) or because it leads to self-understanding (Journard, 1964). Japanese *iwareru* and *meiwaku* hinder these activities: These values encourage Japa-

nese to keep their feelings unknown, especially, their negative ones. As one Japanese informant reported:

> While people are talking about the party, I may just listen to others and be silent. If I give my ideas and the other people don't like them, I may feel embarrassed thinking that they are denying my personality. It took me some time to realize that I do not have to worry about the *meiwaku* and *iwareru* situations in the U.S.

Americans may interpret the silence or passiveness that accompanies these protectionist measures as suspicious or worse, as dishonest.

CONVERSATION STYLE: TENNIS AND BOWLING

The different characteristics in communicative manners discussed above influence styles of conversation, which creates an interesting situation when Japanese talk with Americans. Sakamoto (1982) states that the problem is not only language but also conversation style. She writes, "A western-style conversation between two people is like a game of tennis" (p. 81). If somebody introduces a topic, the ball in this game of tennis, the other person hits it back adding something, such as reasons for agreement or disagreement. Then the ideas are hit back again. "And so", she describes, "the ball goes back and forth with each of us doing our best to give it a new twist, an original spin or a powerful smash" (p. 81). Within this context, a group discussion would be played as a volleyball game. This American conversation style is based on the American principles of freedom of speech, which welcome personal opinions in public, and stress the belief that everyone has a right to express those opinions. Therefore, Americans can more easily disclose private opinions in public without the need for polite phrases.

A Japanese polite conversational style, however, may be compared to bowling. Japanese wait to be called on to take a turn. The ball is not shared: each person plays with his or her own ball. Sakamoto (1982) argues that the turn depends on such things as age differences, status, respect, and whether the person is a close friend or a stranger. When somebody takes his turn everybody politely watches. "There is always a suitable pause between turns" (p. 83). In other words, Japanese have to be careful not to disturb the group peace, not to be *meiwaku* to others. Consequently, they are reluctant to express personal feelings or opinions until it is their turn. As one Japanese informant reported:

> Although it was interesting and exciting for me to listen to many conversations, at the same time, it was hard to join the conversation or deal with it, especially in a group. Even when I could

> understand the English, I failed to say what I thought or my feelings because I was trying to take a Japanese style conversation, waiting for my turn. Now I think it was pretty funny: I was always nodding and looking at the conversational ball going back and forth and I did not know when my turn would be: When I said just, "Good-bye" or "See you" after all those head movements, I had a pain in my neck from trying to keep up with the conversation. When I missed some important parts of the conversation because my listening ability was insufficient, I could not even say a simple phrase, such as "Excuse me," because it was not my turn. This interruption seems minor, but from a Japanese point of view, it is a meaningful behavior.

In this situation, *meiwaku* caused her to worry too much about others: she did not want the conversational excitement to come to a halt. So, she was silent and passive. In addition, *iwareru* made her fear being considered difficult in some way. If she said, "Excuse me," everybody might think, "Can't you understand this simple conversation?"

Finally, and most importantly, saying "Excuse Me," would be too direct a revelation of *honne*, the private area. In other words, the exposure of ignorance or inability in English would be an exposure of the private self and would result in feelings of shame and a loss of face. So, she would instead hide *honne* and not say, "Excuse me," pretending to understand the conversation in order to save face. In short, because she wanted to defend herself from an *iwareru* situation, she would only share information at the surface level.

The informant said that after 4 months,

> I felt much better at saying, "Excuse me," because I noticed that I did not have to worry too much about *meiwaku*. When my American friends responded, "No problem," I realized my *meiwaku* fears were not required. One of my American friends also said to me, "I really want you to understand what I say. So you don't have to hesitate to ask any questions or ask me to slow down." Another simple phrase spoken by my friends, "You'll do fine," helped break the boundary guard of the private-self caused by *iwareru* situations. It seems that I was the only one who believed I was in an *iwareru* situation.

The simple support from American friends in this situation released this student from the restraints of *iwareru*. The experiences in these conversations shows how different ideas of the public self and the private self create different communicative styles and can create problems in intercultural communication.

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

Japanese students often experience severe academic culture shock in U.S. classrooms because of the conversational differences discussed above. In addition to the conversational games of daily life, similar games occur in the U.S. classroom. As soon as the teacher mentions a topic, whoever is quickest hits it back, and an exciting discussion starts. Even if people in the class are close friends, it is easy to disagree with another person's opinion. After a big, exciting argument, the friends seem to forget about it entirely. In the American classroom, questions do not necessarily have pre-determined answers. Personal comments are always welcomed. The verbal exchanges are not just Question-Answer communication, as it is possible for students to stress their own thoughts and for others to respect their individual opinions. This style of classroom communication can cause a great amount of culture shock for the Japanese student.

For Japanese, the worries of both *iwareru* and *meiwaku* situations are heavier in school because school is so very important in determining one's future economically, politically, and socially. Therefore, Japanese usually have a harder time adapting to the American school situation than to the American social situation. As one Japanese informant reported:

> For myself, I was always wondering whether my questions were worth asking. While my instructor was explaining a topic or an important concept, I felt really sorry to stop the lecture to ask just the meaning of the verbs or nouns, which everybody else knew already.

The student was sure such an interruption would cause a *meiwaku* and *iwareru* situation. Because of these constraints, she felt uncomfortable not only during the lecture but also during classroom discussions. For example, this informant reported:

> When called on once, I was in a panic, thinking that these interjections might be *iwareru* and *meiwaku* situations. It was really hard for me to refer to what the previous person said because I had not gotten accustomed to giving personal opinions to the other person's ideas without knowing when my turn was. So I made an excuse, "This is a kind of surprise." It was my choice in order to get away from those situations. I did not have enough space in my mind for my personal opinions, and I did have a lot of room for memorized answers to certain questions.

In short, the student could not join the conversational game and the class discussion well because of the constraints of *iwareru* and *meiwaku*.

In the Japanese Classroom

In Japan, classroom styles are very different from those of the American classroom. First and foremost, in Japan teachers have authority and explain important points. During that time, students are supposed to listen carefully. In order to check whether students understand the points or not, teachers then ask some questions. As noted earlier, this Japanese classroom style is like a bowling game. There are few chances to have a discussion. Basically, teachers are supposed to call on somebody to answer a question. While the student who is called on answers the question, other students quietly and carefully evaluate whether he or she has done well or has got the right answer. Then the next person is called on and another question is asked.

In this circumstance, students are so sensitive to the others that they tend to hide *honne* (inner true feelings). They can not be active. The Japanese concepts *iwareru* (spoken of by others) and *meiwaku* (inconvenience to others) restrain them. When a student is called on, the common response to the question would be, "Could you repeat that again?" This response does not necessarily mean that the student did not pay attention but rather is an expression of *tatemae*, or politeness. Even though a student does not know the answer, the student can not say, "I don't know," which would be an expression of *honne* or true feelings, because the student has a strong need to protect those inner feelings and to save face in class. If he says, "I don't know," or gets a wrong answer, the teacher might think, "I thought you seemed to understand and could answer the question." In the same way, other students might say, "He could not answer such an easy question." The student is spoken of by the other students. So, the improper expression of *honne* publicly creates an *iwareru* situation, spoken of by the teacher, as the private self is revealed in public. As a result, the student will feel shame and lose face. In this situation, "Could you repeat that again?" means he gets a second try to guess the answer. Also, in order not to get in an *iwareru* situation, students may not ask questions such as, "Why is that so?" during the lecture, which sometimes is considered as trying to show off or trying to distract the class from the teacher's point.

Another way in which Japanese students' behavior reflects the *iwareru* concept is making excuses in response to the question. Some might say, "I'm sorry, I didn't listen to your explanation." In this case, the student has tried to save face in part, although that behavior runs the risk of incurring a scolding from the teacher and losing face—an *iwareru* situation. But the student can still retain some honor. If they do not know the answer and say, "I don't know," they would lose face. By using an ambiguous expression, they want not only the teacher but also other

students to think, "He could answer the question if only he had heard the explanation." While there is no doubt that it is very impolite to the teacher, it is still better than losing face. Consequently, this concept of *iwareru* makes Japanese students very reluctant to ask for clarification in class.

The other concept, *meiwaku*, is also important in a Japanese classroom. Specifically, if a student says, "Could you explain in more detail?" chances are that the teacher has to explain from the beginning. As a result, the teacher might not finish his lesson plan for the day. For the student, this will be *meiwaku*, inconvenience for the teacher. To the other students who have already understood the explanation, it would be boring and time-consuming. Again, for this student, it means *meiwaku* as it results in inconvenience for the other students. For example, as one Japanese informant reported:

> When I look back on my junior and senior high school days, the class which provided me relief was the bowling style one where the teachers called on students regularly, based on a student number or on an attendance list. It reduced the chances of getting into an *iwareru* situation and a *meiwaku* situation. I could guess what questions I would have to answer. If I could do that, I had enough time to prepare my answer, and got a right answer, which was convenient to the teacher. I also kept face. Although I missed many points, which I should have listened to during my preparation, still I thought it would be better to do that.

Honne and *tatemae* are important variables in *iwareru* and *meiwaku*. Since Japanese students can not tell *honne*, how they truly feel or think, they tend to remain silent, an expression of *tatemae* and of politeness. Japanese believe the saying, *Kuchi wa wasawai no moto*, or out of mouth comes all evil. With these constraints, then how do teachers communicate with students?

In this complicated environment, students tend to communicate with the teacher nonverbally without being noticed by the other students. Teachers can guess what their students think by these nonverbal messages. Japanese students do a lot of nonverbal communicating with teachers in the classroom. For example, as one informant describes, when the teacher asked a question and the student did not know the answer:

> ...I lowered my head, which meant, "I'm not ready to answer." I really needed to turn my eyes away from the teacher because I knew that the moment when my eyes met his, I had the highest risk of being called on. Sometimes, when I lifted my chin up to observe the situation, my eyes met his eyes. That was my least favorite moment. Then I inclined my head, which meant "I don't know." If he still gave me eye contact and seemed to want me to answer the question, then I shook my head intensely, which meant, "Please don't call on me!"

These three nonverbal communication acts were *tatemae*-based, as they

hid the inner feelings—*honne*—of the communicator. Avoiding any eye contact at all hid ignorance from public display. Looking away after eye contact hid a lack of readiness. Shaking the head intensely hid the fear of being called on. The teacher's role is to read these *tatemae* and *honne* cues so that the teacher will call on the right student to answer to the question. If the teacher reads the clues correctly, no one will be shamed and no one will lose face.

Similar strategies are also required when the student wants to communicate that he or she knows the answer.

> When I knew the answer, I turned my eyes on my teacher as a signal. Since I did not want the other students to think that I was trying to show off, I could not raise my hand. I was afraid of an *iwareru* situation. All I did was to wait until the teacher called on me.

In other words, the student hides his or her bid to answer a question by not signaling overtly for a chance to answer, which would be *honne*, but rather by signaling covertly through eye contact, which would be an expression of *tatemae*. The teacher needs to read the eye contact of students to determine who is ready to answer a question.

Unfortunately, the demands of these cultural values sometimes create a double bind:

> I sometimes had to face the dilemma of whether I should answer a question which other students could not get. If I did not, it would be *meiwaku* to the teacher because he could not continue his lesson plan. In this situation, the teacher would be inconvenienced if no one could answer the question, and the teacher may even lose face in front of the class. So, a student who knows the answer is pressured to answer in order to avoid causing this inconvenience to the teacher, but this positive result for the teacher can also be a problem: But if I did, it would be *meiwaku* to the other students who could not answer the question. I did not want them to feel shame.

Answering a question that no one knows is an inconvenience to other students, as the answerer breaks ranks with the cohort and then stands out in front of them and so shames them by this public display of their ignorance. The above example above shows how *iwareru* and *meiwaku* penetrate and influence the Japanese classroom.

While *iwareru* and *meiwaku* can cause constraints on classroom interaction, they can also be used to promote interaction in the classroom. Because Japanese students are sensitive to others, chances are that they will try their best to achieve the goals that their ESL teachers have set for them. Specifically, if teachers can establish a relationship with the students and the students like the teacher, they will try to work hard so that they will not be *meiwaku* for the teacher. For example:

> When I was a junior high school student, I did better in the class-

> room. One day, we had a class open to teachers from different schools. The situation was that all the students seemed to be nervous, and when our teacher asked a question, nobody answered. He seemed to want us to answer it voluntarily, even though it was an unusual request. There was a long silence. Since I liked my teacher very much I felt bad for him. I did not want him to lose face: I decided to pluck up my courage and raise my hand although I was a little shy. When I got a right answer and the explanation kept going smoothly, I was so happy because I felt I could return in some part the indebtedness that I as a Japanese have to my teacher.

Working hard in a class simply because students like the teacher happens quite frequently in Japanese classes. In the same way, in order not to be *meiwaku*, students might be able to work hard at group work. The same thing would be true about the other concept, *iwareru*. Teachers can have students feel good by praising or giving positive reactions such as, "That's a good guess!" in front of the other students, which gives students confidence and encouragement instead of having them feel shame.

In the ESL Classroom

In the Japanese classroom where Japanese students are group-oriented and tend to depend on teachers, it is crucial for American ESL teachers to know that Japanese passive classroom-participation is based on such concepts as *iwareru* and *meiwaku*. ESL teachers must be aware that the Japanese student is anxious about relationships with other students (*iwareru*) and about the relationship with the teacher (*iwareru* and *meiwaku*). The teachers need to provide security, encouragement, care and support until Japanese students have confidence in themselves. In this complicated environment, it is crucial for ESL teachers to strike a balance not only between teacher and students but also between a student who is trying to give an answer and the other students. The resulting balancing act on the part of all of these participants results in classroom harmony which will foster classroom participation.

In the American classroom where Japanese students are supposed to study independently, it is important for Japanese students to become aware of their communication problems which are based on their culture. Learning English means not only learning the language itself but also learning the culture. Instead of continuing to depend on the teacher, Japanese students need to notice the importance of self-reliance, which is one of the basic values in America. Also it is helpful to know that what they have as constant worries in their culture, *iwareru* and *meiwaku*, are not as important in America. Not all Americans necessarily view Japanese behaviors as *meiwaku* and not all of them necessarily put Japanese

students in an *iwareru* situation. Students can have more confidence in themselves and express themselves more verbally if they realize "I don't know" is just fine as a response to a question. In addition, Japanese students should realize that nonverbal communication is not always the best way to communicate with the American teacher. They also need to reconcile the gap between *honne* (inner true feelings) and *tatemae* (outer polite expressions).

These realizations would be major premises for Japanese students to establish classroom behavioral patterns that would be more similar to what is expected in the U.S. Moreover, ESL teachers can help Japanese students by providing encouragement until they have confidence in themselves. It becomes important for ESL teachers to be patient with their students' behavior because these attitudes are deeply rooted and won't change soon.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ESL TEACHERS

The following six suggestions should help American ESL teachers when working with Japanese students.

(1) Create a good relationship with students and the students will work hard to meet your classroom goals. Associate with students even out of the classroom and try to understand them. Do not make light of break time. That time is the only time Japanese students may feel at ease about expressing themselves.

(2) Let students who can not ask questions in the classroom or right after the class know that they do not have to worry too much about the teacher's *meiwaku*: Tell them they can feel free to ask any questions at any break time, any lunch time, after school, or even when you are walking outside alone. They will feel much better because they realize that the teacher does not have *meiwaku* feelings about being asked questions. Besides, in such situations, they do not have to be nervous about an *iwareru* situation. At this point, it is very important not to disappoint their expectations, however busy the teacher is or however tiny the questions are. When Japanese students start to ask questions in class, any negative reaction whatsoever can be very detrimental to further verbal activity in class. ESL teachers need a poker face at this time. If students notice a gap between what the teacher says about asking questions and the teacher's reaction to questions, they will feel that they can not depend on the teacher. It will surely hurt their feelings badly. The result will be that the students can not ask questions any more. It will make the situation worse.

(3) Be careful to make a comment so that students do not have to worry about an *iwareru* situation. Try not to cause students to lose face:

even if they get a wrong answer, still try to make a positive comment. Show understanding to the students. Keep in mind that losing face would be reason for disliking the teacher, which would have bad effects on the class.

(4) Call on students by name so that students who can not raise their hands because of an *iwareru* situation can have a chance to answer questions. Do not forget to provide a confidence building comment, which would protect against an *iwareru* situation.

(5) Have students do some group work, which is one of the effective ways to use the *meiwaku* concept positively. Chances are that they will try to work hard so that they will not be *meiwaku* to the other students in the same group. It will also help to ease the students' self-defense mechanisms used to save face or to avoid shame. Students who do not give their ideas to the teacher in the class might give them to the other members of the group. Moreover, they will feel relaxed because of the more informal group arrangement. During group work, teachers can go around the group and then the students should feel less restrained to share their opinions as these opinions have become group opinions. If teachers give students a positive reaction about group opinions, it might give them confidence and, as a result, make sharing opinions easier in the whole classroom.

(6) Notice the nonverbal communication of students and try to figure out the difference between manifestations of *honne* and *tatemae.* Misunderstanding nonverbal communication from a Japanese student may result in a worse situation in which students stop communicating with teachers. With practice, ESL teachers should be able to guess who is ready to answer a question and who is not, or to guess if it is time to explain in more detail or not.

CONCLUSION

In general, it is important for both ESL teachers and ESL students to understand these important concepts of *iwareru* and *meiwaku* and to be aware of the cultural differences of communication styles. Both teachers and students need to accept differences, although a different emphasis may be required depending on the situation: whether American teachers go to Japan and teach English or Japanese students go to the U.S. and study English.

More could also be done in Japan to prepare Japanese students for their education in the United States by having cultural orientations that compare concepts such as "individualism" and "collectivism" in order to help students gain an awareness of the cultural differences discussed in this paper and develop communicative competence in their

second language English.

*NOTE:

This article is the third in a series to be published in the MinneTESOL Journal from the best research papers submitted in the ESL and Culture class that is part of the ESL licensure and TESL MA at St. Cloud State University. As with the previous papers (Robinson & Fisher, 1992; Dunham & Robinson, 1993), both authors developed and expanded the original research paper into the article published here.

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Reading in the Elementary Classroom

ALICE WEICKELT
Longfellow Elementary School, Eau Claire

Learning to read is a very complex task. This paper will address how ESL teachers can teach reading to upper elementary students as they are beginning to speak the second language. These students need to be taught the building blocks (words) of the second language and how to string these words together in phrases to convey meaning. Older elementary students can learn to read and write these phrases as they learn to speak them. This paper will also show how to make independent readers who will love to read and will continue to read for pleasure and information.

INTRODUCTION

Learning to read can be compared with learning to ride a bike. Both processes require plenty of praise and enthusiastic support before the learner becomes independent. Both require ample solitary practice time. Suggestions for solving problems in learning how to do it (ride a bike or read a book) are given by well-meaning peers, siblings or adults (teacher and/or parents). The learner practices these directions (strategies) countless times until it becomes automatic. The ultimate goal is to be independent and to be able to travel to places one has only heard of and dreamed of going (either by bike or by books).

ESL students who begin their American school experience as third, fourth, or fifth graders need to learn to read well independently as soon as possible. They need to understand what the joy of reading can mean to their future. Getting the students reading early in their ESL career gives them a sense of real pride and accomplishment. This paper will overview a procedure I use in my elementary ESL class, incorporating aspects of Marie Clay's Reading Recovery program (Clay, 1991), to help jump-start the reading process in older ESL students.

When we first learned to ride a bike we fell down a great deal. Through encouragement from peers, parents, and siblings we got back on, listened to their suggestions and tried again. Similarly, when children are learning to read they confront many problems, which Stephen B. Kucer (1995) calls "blocks" or impediments to learning to read. Read-

ing blocks occur when students experience difficulty in understanding what is written, such as not knowing vocabulary. With encouragement and suggestions from the teacher, most students will "pick themselves up" and try again. Too often, however, teachers will correct students or give them answers but not teach them strategies to help them gain independence as readers. If this happens often, new readers will give up; instead, they will look to the teacher whenever they encounter trouble and will become dependent readers.

Kids are quick to see who is learning to ride (read) and who isn't. There is a stigma attached to a kid who can't ride a bike. His friends won't ask him to ride with them — they may just leave the poor rider (reader) in their dust. But, if the motivation is strong enough, he'll practice, seek advice, and practice some more until he can keep up with his friends. We as teachers need to provide this motivation.

READING READINESS ACTIVITIES

Before even beginning to attempt reading, second language learners need to learn vocabulary words for things, animals, and people (nouns); actions (verbs); position (prepositions); and description (adjectives). They also need to learn how to string words together into sentences. If words are like beads on a necklace, I want to lavish my students in strands of jewels before they even attempt to read. I spend several weeks, depending upon the students, teaching basic vocabulary and sentence structure in phrases; e.g., *in a boat, under the bed, behind the door, the little white dog, a great big tree, Mai Tong's book, my new car, his math book, a bag of apples, two big horses, is sleeping, was washing, will go, up in a tree, early one morning, late at night, once upon a time,* etc.. These activities are done with a bilingual paraprofessional available to translate the words, concepts and phrases. I have seen that if they are taught words within phrases from the beginning of ESL instruction, the students will read more fluently because the phrases will roll automatically off their tongues.

All of the above vocabulary building is done with student-illustrated phrase cards, using bilingual assistance. I have students check through magazines to see if they can find pictures that illustrate the phrase card with a picture. They then write the phrase under the magazine clipping.

These phrase cards are then put into sentences. The first step is to teach students how to manipulate groups of words. Students are shown how the phrases can be combined into sentences; e.g., *The little white dog/ is sleeping/under the bed.* Other phrases are put together to make lots of different and sometimes silly sentences, such as *My new car/is sleeping/up in a tree.* At the same time, students also learn the sounds of commonly used English words. In my class, this learning is done through a non-

threatening game mode . It does not really matter if they can not read the phrase cards at first; I am there to assist them. What is important is encouraging students to mimic phrases or groups of words. Spending some time on developing these basics of word and phrase recognition early in their ESL career will affect their future success in reading and writing.

However, it is not enough for ESL students to just learn words, phrases, and sentences. They need to hear them in stories. Students need to have books read to them and translated immediately. One successful technique is to have a bilingual paraprofessional translate each paragraph or sentence as the story is read in English. In my class ESL students are introduced early on to many children's literature classics. Books such as *The Three Billy Goats Gruff, The Little Red Hen, The Three Bears, The Gingerbread Man, and Rosie's Walk* (see Appendix for a complete list of titles) are read to students and their characters' voices are emphasized. These books provide a lot of repetition which allows students to more successfully predict what will happen next. More importantly, these books show the structure of typical American stories which have a beginning, a problem, and a resolution to the problem at the end (Spangenberg-Urbschat, 1994). By first reading in English and then immediately translating to the first language after each page or even each paragraph, it is possible to ensure that children understand both the story line and structure.

How does one know when students are ready to read? Students are ready to read when they enjoy hearing books read aloud, interact with books, ask to be read to, are able to retell stories, and are able to relate a book or story with something in their background (Hall, 1987). Often students spontaneously begin comparing books or characters that they are familiar with. Sometimes they begin telling folktales from their own culture if a story reminds them of one.

One way to encourage children to play with catchy lines from books is to stick phrase cards around the room, such as: *Run, run, as fast as you can, Who's been sitting in MY chair?, Trip, trap. Trip, trap. Who's that trip-trapping over my bridge?* and *Then I'll do it myself!* Students read these refrains that they see around them and soon are retelling or parroting parts of a book.

If students are playing with words and sounds, rolling tongue-twisters off their tongues, enjoying silly rhymes, memorizing nursery rhymes, learning songs, poems and chants, they are ready to read these same verses. Illustrated posters of rhymes, chants, poems, etc., should be available for students to read anytime they choose. Keeping and rotating reading posters near the door provides additional opportunities for students to read independently as they come in or out of the classroom.

If teachers value the process of reading, time must be scheduled for

students to read everyday (Crafton, 1991). This should be a time when they may choose what they read, where they read, and how they read. A book corner is a valuable place in an ESL classroom. A rug or carpet samples taped together in a space large enough to allow a child to lie down, a beanbag or rocking chair, as well as a desk and chair should all be available. While one student may enjoy reading at a desk, another may find lying on his stomach more comfortable. Students may choose to read in pairs and squish together on the beanbag. Another may wrap up in a small quilt. Reading should be enjoyable; providing a comfortable environment is the first step toward this goal.

What is stocked in the reading corner is also important. Magazines, basals, easy picture books, ESL picture dictionaries, *I Spy* books, seed catalogues, big books, recipe books, and telephone directories are all important types of reading material to include. But reading material should not be the only thing kept in the reading corner. Stuffed animals, dolls, and puppets are also useful as they often are held, cuddled, and read to! A small quilt or blanket and pillow are often used with dolls or stuffed animals.

Sneaking up and snapping photos of students reading and then displaying these reading behaviors on posters so everyone can see is an excellent way to show that reading is not only done around the table with a teacher present. Readers need an audience at times, and ESL students quickly learn that they can make their own non-critical audience of dolls and stuffed animals. In my classroom, I have heard my own voice being mimicked by a student talking to a doll! I have heard students "race-reading" to see who can read aloud the fastest. This was their invention, but what an excellent way to get the words and sounds coming fast and furious. Learning English takes practice, and who says the teacher must dictate all of the drill time? I've witnessed several students reading a play. They, not the teacher, decided who would read which part. Providing students with ample opportunities to read is what inspires reading.

STRESSING THE IMPORTANCE OF READING

"THE MORE YOU READ, THE BETTER YOU GET; THE BETTER YOU GET, THE MORE YOU WILL READ; THE MORE YOU READ, THE MORE YOU WILL LEARN." This saying is all over my ESL room; my aim is to make students aware of the importance of learning to read, reading to learn, and continuing to practice reading. I insist that all students take a book home everyday to share with siblings or parents, and students are required to discuss the book at home with someone, whether it be in their first or second language. In the words of Hall, "Children must see reading as a means to enrich their lives...language and reading have

power to create and explore worlds within their logic" (1987, p. 74). Reading should be viewed as a form of entertainment by children. This is difficult when many homes have little, if any, print material available for students to read. Consequently, family literacy often also needs to be addressed (Au, 1993). Sending home a book daily, in a zip-lock bag to keep it clean, provides one opportunity for students to read outside of school. Giving students magazines to take home and keep also helps. Providing at least these two sources of print materials in the home increases opportunities for families to interact together with the second language.

MAKING THE ESL CLASSROOM CHILD-CENTERED

Kenneth Goodman states "Uninteresting, irrelevant exercises are particularly tough on minority children who are constantly reminded of the distance between their world and their school world. It's hard to motivate kids when the stuff they are asked to read and write, hear and say, has no relation to who they are, what they think, and what they do" (1986, p. 9). ESL classrooms should be filled with "the stuff" that real language deals with. In particular, our students need maximum exposure to the conventions of written language. Upper elementary ESL students have so much to learn in such a short time that as we teach oral language we also need to teach phonemic awareness to prepare our students for reading. Vocabulary should always be introduced with the written word attached to a picture, or better yet, the real thing. Students need to see that anything we can say we can also write. Teachers need to model writing notes, songs, lists, as well as the students' own stories; "...we need to let them get inside our heads as we are constructing meaning" (Crafton, 1991, p. 14). As they are learning English, ESL students need to learn that words carry meaning and that a specific combination of letters says the same thing every time it is read.

MONITORING THE ESL READER'S PROGRESS

"Kid-watching" is a term coined by Goodman and it is one that every ESL teacher needs to become familiar with. In his words, "one can learn much more about pupils by carefully watching them than by formal testing" (Goodman, 1986, p. 41). Watching how a student uses free time in the book corner gives you a good idea of how close students are to being ready to begin the reading process. Observing and charting when students begin to converse with peers in English can give you an idea of their comfort level with English. A clipboard with student names could be kept near the book center to record such things as:

> Who starts the conversation? Who is asking the questions? Does the teacher, bilingual paraprofessional or student initiate the conversation? What errors are made in English by students using spontaneous English? How are the children interacting? Are they discussing, joking, sharing, making deals and rules, or arguing? How much English are they using? (Hall, 1987, pp. 14 - 15).

If you have bilingual assistants, ask them to observe and record observations about new English speakers. Gear your ESL instruction to what the students are doing. Teach them the words they need to argue, to share, to joke, etc. Inform students what you are doing and explain why you are doing it. It will accelerate their English learning.

While you are teaching, it is also helpful to jot down observations of students. I place a manila file folder on the table in front of each student so I can jot things down as they happen. Entries may read, "appears tired today," "really full of good ideas," "keeps copying Pao's paper...didn't yesterday...I need to re-teach that." Ideally the observations of students will dictate what direction your teaching will go (Crafton, 1991). So much happens every day in the ESL class that I cannot remember everything. However, as Hall points out, "Reflective observation is critical. Children do not always learn what the teacher thinks is being taught" (1987, p.80). I also share my observations with the students as they are not a secret. If they know what you are doing and why you are doing it, they will soon ignore your recordings. They may even begin asking what you're writing. When parent-teacher conference time rolls around, these notes provide a wealth of information to share with parents rather than the old stand-by, "He's doing fine and learning a lot." Classroom notes allow a teacher to itemize concrete progress made in social situations, reading, spelling, and writing.

FIRST READING ACTIVITIES

Once students are ready to read, what should he/she read first? I've selected some short, easy books to get upper elementary students started (see Appendix for a complete book list). Each book is selected for a specific purpose. I use *Tommy's Tummy Ache* (Butler, 1989c) first. It shows and labels all kinds of foods that should be eaten in moderation such as cake, cookies, and ice cream. Many ESL students new to America tend to over-do these foods. With bilingual assistance, students learn many different groups of foods and their names, and we talk about the food pyramid. As foods are something that students deal with on a daily basis, they have strong background knowledge which helps them to quickly make the connection between the words they already know orally and their printed forms.

We read *Monster Meals* (Butler, 1989b) next and talk about the silly things the monsters are making soup from, such as wheels, desks, and pencils. We discuss real soups that students' families make, and we write recipes for them. Our discussion includes the measurement of ingredients: a cup, a pinch, a handful, a tablespoon, a teaspoon. I then read *Stone Soup* (McGovern, 1968) to them. We discuss how we could make soup, too. Students volunteer to bring in a vegetable and I bring in a soup bone and a stone that has gone through my dishwasher. We make a list of who is bringing what and a small note to tuck into their pockets so they won't forget. We actually make soup and write invitations to invite some special people to join us. We even use a tablecloth and cloth napkins. Through this activity, students discuss how to set the table and use good manners. As we read these three books we also read and discuss the school lunch menu; then we create a bulletin board of pictures of these foods that students have cut from magazines and labeled. Through all these activities I am trying to show the close relationship between written and spoken English as well as how reading relates to the stuff of everyday life, key steps in helping students to see the importance of learning to read.

Students may be memorizing these first books, but in so doing they are learning to read many of the high frequency words that they must know. Most of these books have rhyming word patterns imbedded in the story text that help students see how families of words can be built (Gentry & Gillett, 1993). In my class, we make a small wall chart of each rhyming family (e.g., sand, stand, and; in, pin, thin, skin, win; at, cat, bat, that) to be posted for future reference to assist students with writing or other reading activities.

Reading to students at least once a day allows teachers to model good reading behaviors and point out what good readers do when confronted with a difficult word (Kucer, 1995). We read a new book every three days. While our reading class is only 30 minutes per day, much of the ESL day revolves around the books we are reading. The instruction is fast paced, so we can cover a lot of books and subjects. As mentioned earlier, students are encouraged to take these books home to read and re-read to their families so they will practice their reading and learn the stories well.

Once students are familiar with the story in a book, I follow a procedure, created by Marie Clay (1991), to further assist students in learning to write short summaries of what they have read. With the assistance of the bilingual paraprofessional, the students orally summarize each book. Students discuss what happens both in the beginning and the end of the book so they can continue to build story sense. This summary sentence is not the teacher's words. It is the combined efforts of all the students. The teacher is simply helping students put their thoughts into sentence

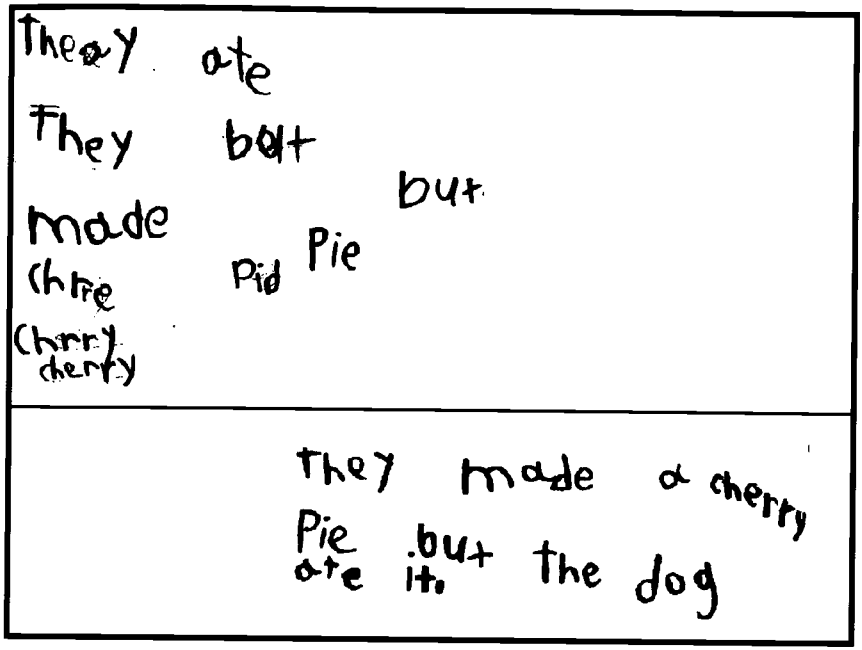
form. As the year progresses, the teacher guides students through the formation of increasingly complex summary statements.

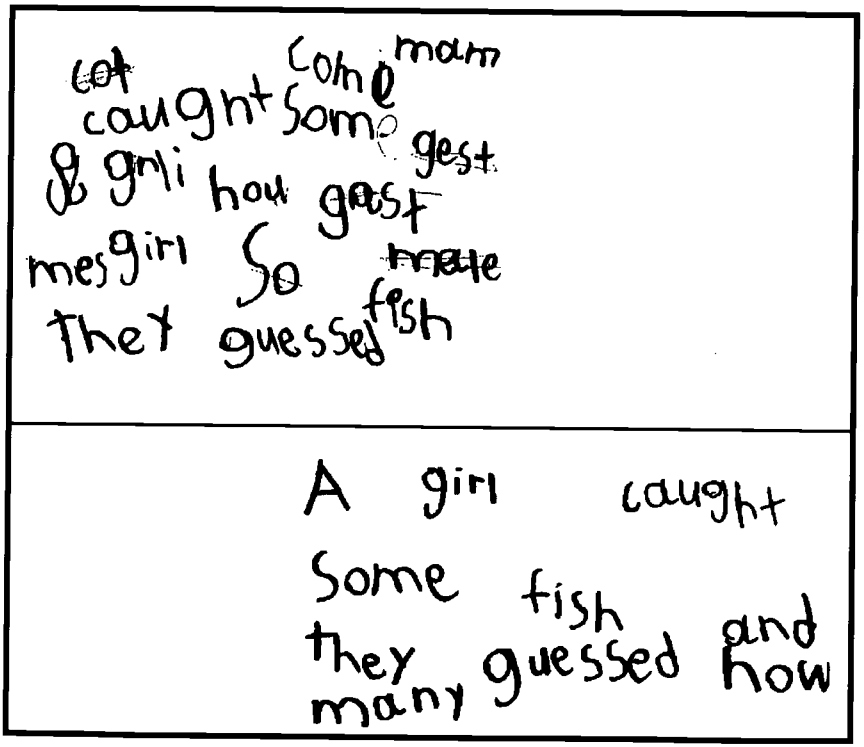
Each student records the summary statement created by the class in a booklet made from sheets of unlined drawing paper stapled together and opened flat on the table with the binding horizontal to the student. Students first attempt to spell a word on the upper portion of the booklet. This is where they practice their spelling. I use the following technique in helping them to transfer their oral summaries into writing. Pronounce each word in the summary sentence distinctly and then stretch it out so each sound is heard. Encourage students to make the sounds of each letter in the word as they write the letters. They should not say the name of the letter but the sound it makes. Allow them to skip any letters that cannot be heard, but let them write any letters that they remember are in the word but can't hear. Immediately ask how they know that letter belongs there, even though we can't hear it. This use of metacognition is an exciting portion of instruction, and it is wonderful to see how students have learned words. Maybe they remember it from when they were in the refugee camp, or maybe their cousin taught it to them, or maybe they even saw it on a sign in PE class. Sometimes students will say they remembered how to spell it from seeing it in a book or somewhere in the ESL classroom.

Teachers need to help with any letters of a word under construction that cannot be heard while at the same time begin to teach some of the rules of English spelling and phonics. One of the first rules will probably be how the silent "e" at the end of a word changes the sound of the preceding vowel. When the first word of the summary sentence is properly spelled, students then transfer it to the bottom section of the booklet. The teacher waits for or prompts the students to say the next word of the summary sentence. The process is then continued in the same way, orally drawing it out, attempting to write it on the top portion of the booklet, and then transferring the correctly spelled word to the bottom portion (see figure on opposite page).

Have the students read the summary sentence as they construct it. For example, "Tommy ate lots __ _____." By having them do this for every word added, they can predict what the next word in the sentence will be. This subtly builds their knowledge of sentence structure and orally prepares them for cloze activities. This is important when, as they are gradually exited from ESL, they are confronted with worksheets or tests within the mainstream classroom for Science, Social Studies, Spelling or Reading. They are learning where nouns, verbs and adjectives go even if they don't know the terminology.

When the summary sentence is complete and correct on the lower portion of the booklet, I write the sentence on long strips of tag board;





Reading Booklet

one sentence strip for each student. These strips are cut into phrases and we practice putting them together into the summary sentence. When students perfect putting the phrases together, I cut the sentence into individual words. The students put these phrases and/or words into an envelope and take it home, along with the book, so they can practice putting the words together into a sentence. Later in the year, I then separate compound words and even break words apart by syllables.

This technique of building summary sentences as a class, writing those sentences in booklets, and reconstructing them after cutting the sentences apart, is all part of Marie Clay's Reading Recovery program (Clay, 1991). With amazing speed students learn to spell all the high frequency words we cover in class.

To further enforce the basics of written English, I use a list of the 500 most frequently used words in English (Kress, 1993) and assess students' progress in recognizing and using them. Students work on this activity individually and then correct their own papers immediately. These quizzes are dated and filed for future reference so students can see their own progress. These papers are also one more item that can be shared with parents during conferences, with mainstream teachers, with next year's teachers, and with students at the end of a school year so that all can see the progress made.

STEPPING INTO MORE DIFFICULT BOOKS

Once students are comfortable with reading entry-level books — which encourage reading success while teaching high frequency and content-specific words — and have a solid base of basic vocabulary, more difficult books are introduced. Good examples of these types of books are published by Wright Group and include *Rapunzel, The Tortoise and the Hare, Rumpelstilskin* and *The Shoemaker and the Elves* (see Appendix for a complete list). In my class, students are already familiar with all these stories as I have read them out loud sometime in the past. These books are easy to read but are longer: approximately 12-16 pages with about 12 lines of print per page. One technique I use for introducing these harder to read but familiar books to older ESL students is to give them the book with only a little discussion about the cover and what they remember about the story line. Everyone is then asked to read the story aloud to themselves, all at once. I listen carefully during this "chaos reading" when everyone is reading aloud at the same time at their own speed. As I "tune into" and listen to each student read, I jot notes about their performance. For example, I might write: "reads with good expression," "stuck on the word 'everyone'...work on easier compound words," "doing well, skipped an unknown word," "good sounding on the word 'drip',"

"glanced at the picture and then figured out the word."

When everyone is finished reading, I ask a few comprehension questions about the main characters, the conflict in the story, details, and conflict resolution. Invariably, when I ask if there were any words that they do not know, they all scream, "Yes!" I try to show them that knowing EVERY word is not essential. We can still read a book and enjoy it while skipping a few words. Good readers do that, too. I share what I've written about each student on the manila folders and the strategies I saw them use to figure out a word. I then add any new strategies to our poster of "What To Do When You Are Stuck on a Word." This is a poster, displayed prominently in the room, for students to refer to when they are in the book corner doing independent reading or doing guided reading with the teacher.

Discussing and practicing reading strategies is essential for beginning readers. As Kucer writes in his article *Guiding Bilingual Students Through the Literacy Process*, "we must supply students with a box full of tools (strategies) to use when they encounter blocks in their reading and writing...strategy wall charts enable students to work through their blocks and become more independent readers" (1995, p. 20). A strategy wall chart could include the following:

1. Skip it; read on.
2. Look at the picture for clues.
3. Go back and read the entire sentence again .
4. Make your mouth ready for the first letter of the unknown word.
5. What word would make sense in the sentence?
6. Cover up the -ing, -est, -ed, -en, -es on the end of a word.
7. Do you know a word family that looks like this? (e.g., and, stand)
8. Can you divide the word into two little words? (compound)

Another important part of the early ESL reading program is keeping reading records to determine how well the students are reading and what kinds of errors they make while reading. For my class, I encourage students to choose books to read from ones we have already read together. I then sit beside/behind the student so I can see the text. On a sheet of paper I make a check for each correct word the child reads aloud. If the student gets stuck, I write the word and the child's attempt. I also jot down what strategies the student is using effectively to get rid of any blocks. I try to be a silent observer and recorder, but sometimes I may need to encourage the reader to "skip it" and go on if he/she is taking more than 30 seconds to think about a word. When the student has finished reading the book, I enlist my bilingual assistant's help to explain what my observations are. First I count all the correctly read words. The

student often wants to help do this. I then praise him/her to the sky! The next step is to find all the words he/she was stuck on but figured out (self-corrected) and review the strategies used. I praise again. I then point out one word that didn't get figured out and help the student find a strategy that was overlooked. This whole technique provides me with another observation/notation system of student behavior that in turn drives my teaching.

When using a record system like the one I describe above, remember to share what strategies students are using effectively with the entire group. Refer to the strategy chart and add to it if necessary. Remember that you have a community of learners, and they will all learn from each other. As Crafton puts it, "There are very many smart people in our classroom... not just the teacher" (Crafton, 1991, p. 43). Stress individual students' strengths and how each student can help others learn. The elementary ESL classroom should be a non-competitive environment where all students are actively working at learning to read to learn.

CONCLUSION

Remember when we learned to ride a bike? The instructions were shouted to us by the person supporting the bike, running along beside us. They'd give us a shove and we'd be fine on our own for awhile. But often we'd fall down. If we repeated the directions to ourselves and practiced enough, we'd soon be on our own again, riding effortlessly, sailing along into lands unknown. That is how learning to read should also be: sailing into lands of our imaginations, thoughts and dreams. It should be as satisfying as learning to ride a bike.

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APPENDIX: Selected Children's Reading Books

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Butler, A. (1989b). *Monster Meals*. Crystal Lake, IL: Rigby Educational Books.

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Hutchins, P. (1968). *Rosie's Walk*. New York, NY: Macmillian Publishing Co.

McGovern, A. (1968). *Stone Soup* New York, NY: Scholastic, Inc.

Moon, C. (1986). *Rumpelstiltskin*. Bothell, WA: The Wright Group.

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An Overview of Hmong for ESL Teachers

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ESL teachers working with Hmong students need to become more aware of how the Hmong language differs from English in order to more effectively address the language acquistion problems their students face. This paper attempts to identify the basic structures of the Hmong language through a contrastive analysis of Hmong and English in order to provide a platform from which an ESL teacher can benefit. Phonetic, phonemic, morphemic, syntactic, and cultural and sociolinguistic differences which may affect language acquisition are discussed. The paper concludes by outlining some approaches to help ESL learners overcome these differences.

Since 1975, the United States has been culturally enriched by a group of people whose homeland in the plateaus of northern Laos has been shaken by war. These people proudly refer to themselves as the Hmong. The Hmong language is spoken by several million people in China, Vietnam, Laos, Thailand, and Burma. Since the end of the Vietnam War many Hmong have also resettled in such countries as Australia, France, French New Guinea, and the United States. It is of surprise to many that Wisconsin and Minnesota are ranked second and third, after California, in the number of Hmong residents within their borders, with each in 1990 having more than 17,000 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1992) with a growth rate of about 2,000 Hmong each year (Fass, 1991). Naturally, students in our public schools continue to increase every year as more and more Hmong move to our communities.

It is difficult to get comparable figures on the number of Hmong students in Wisconsin and Minnesota public schools as both have different ways of reporting their numbers. The Minnesota Department of Education reports that in the school year ending in 1994, there were more than

15,000 Hmong students in the public schools, grades 1-12 (Biagini, 1995). This number includes students in both ESL and mainstream classes. Wisconsin does not track the total number of Hmong children in its schools, but as Minnesota and Wisconsin have comparable Hmong populations, it is reasonable to assume that the number of children in Wisconsin public schools is similar. During fall 1995, according to the Wisconsin Department of Instruction, there were 8,025 Hmong students in kindergarten through grade 12 classified as Limited English Proficient and receiving some form of ESL assistance (Hunt, 1995)[1]. Many of these students come from homes where only Hmong is spoken and thus are placed into ESL classes where teachers, unfamiliar with Hmong, must try to help them learn English so that they can be integrated into the mainstream classroom. Again, it is reasonable to assume there are a comparable number of Hmong students in the Minnesota school system receiving ESL assistance.

As with all Asian languages, the Hmong language is very different from English in many respects. ESL teachers working with Hmong students need to become more aware of how the Hmong language differs from English in order to more effectively address the language acquisition problems their students face. This paper attempts to identify the basic structures of the Hmong language through a contrastive analysis of Hmong and English in order to provide a platform from which an ESL teacher can benefit. There are other resources that address the structures of the Hmong language more thoroughly (e.g., Bliatout, Downing, Lewis, & Yang, 1988; Clark, 1989; Fuller, 1985; Hendricks, Downing, & Deinard, 1986; Smalley, 1976; Smalley, Vang, & Yang, 1990); however, the goal of this paper is to serve as an introduction to teachers who are challenged by the language acquisition difficulties of Hmong students in their classrooms.

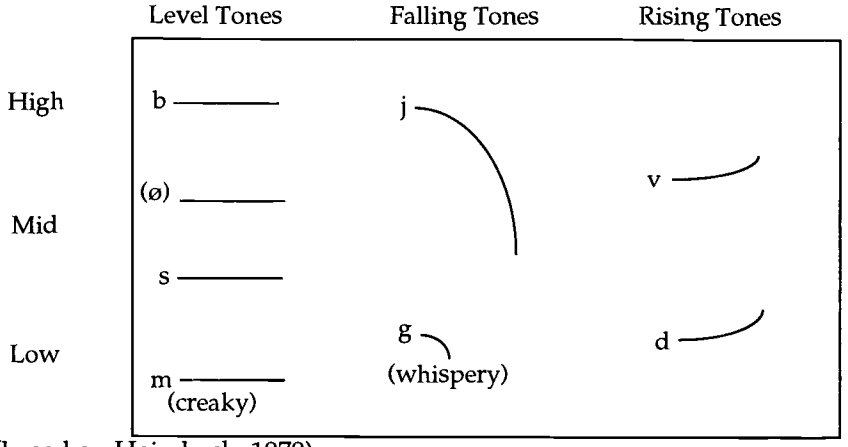
There are two principal dialects of Hmong (White Hmong and Blue/Green Hmong), but this paper will focus on the more common White Hmong dialect. Although the White and Blue/Green Hmong dialects do vary, they are usually mutually understandable, as is the case with dialects of American English. More specifically, this paper will focus on four aspects of the Hmong language as it contrasts with English: 1) basic differences at the phonetic and phonologic level, 2) basic differences at the morphemic level, 3) basic differences at the syntactic level, and 4) basic differences at the cultural and socio-linguistic level which may affect language acquisition. Lastly, we will look at approaches that might be taken to help ESL learners overcome the stated differences.

DIFFERENCES AT THE PHONETIC AND PHONEMIC LEVELS

Sound/Symbol Differences: One potential source of problems that Hmong learners of English face can be traced back to the extensive phonetic differences between English and Hmong. This is an issue particularly for older Hmong children and adults who are literate in their own language. Unlike English, Hmong spelling is phonemic (Smalley, *et. al.*, 1990). Each letter or combination of letters represents one sound and this sound is consistent from one context to the next. For example, in English the letter "c" may be pronounced /s/ in one context (as in "cigar") or /k/ in another context (as in "cake"). However, in Hmong "c" is always pronounced as an unaspirated palatal stop /c/ (a sound we generally don't use in English).

As illustrated with the example above, a further distinction between the letters in the English and Hmong alphabets is that many of the Hmong letters have values that are very different from their English values. In Hmong, the letter "o", for example, is always pronounced [ɔ] (as in "on") — unlike the English "o" which can be pronounced /ɔ/, /ow/ (as in "no"), /uw/ (as in "do"), and even /a/ (as in "not"). An even bigger difference occurs when the vowel is doubled. Doubling a vowel in Hmong indicates that the vowel sound is followed by the nasal /ŋ/ (as in "song") (Smalley, et al., 1990). Thus, while the English pronunciation for the double "o" vowel can be pronounced either as /u/ (as in "book") or as /uw/ (as in "moon"), in Hmong the vowel sound stays the same except for the addition of the velar nasal /ŋ/.

Tones: Another way in which some Hmong letters have very different values than English is with word final consonants. Generally, and to the great confusion of English speakers, the consonants at the end of a Hmong syllable represent tones, not consonant phonemes (Smalley, *et. al.*, 1990). This can be exemplified by the word "Hmong," which is written in Hmong as "Hmoob". The double "o" indicates the nasalized vowel /ɔŋ/ (or "ong") while the letter "b" at the end of the word actually represents a high level tone, not the consonant sound /b/, as it does in English. The tonal values marked by the consonants at the end of each syllable directly affect word meaning, which is why Hmong is considered a tonal language. Although English uses intonation to enhance communication (such as using a rising pitch at the end of many questions), it is not considered a tonal language because these pitch changes do not result in changes in word meaning. The White Hmong language includes eight basic tones, which are diagrammed below:



(based on Heimbach, 1979)

Thus, the word "koj" in Hmong (pronounced "kaw") means "you" because it is pronounced with a pitch that begins high and falls, as indicated by the last letter in the word, "j". Note that the /j/ sound is not pronounced, as the letter is a tone marker, not a consonant.

The following list of words further demonstrates how a change in tone changes word meaning. Each word below is pronounced exactly the same way, /ka/; the only difference is in the tone, which to the untrained ear of an English speaker can be frustratingly indiscernible[2].

WORD	TONE	MEANING
kab	high, level	insect
kam	low, level creaky	willing
kad	low, rising	same as "kam" but sweeter
kav	mid, rising	control; 'coining' a sick person
kas	mid-low, level	worms
kaj	high, falling	clear (in terms of light, etc.)

What can be even more confusing is that several of the consonants used to represent tones at the ends of syllables are also used in other parts of the word to represent pronounced consonants. This is not confusing to the Hmong as most words have only one or two syllables with each syllable containing a single initial consonant (if there is one) and a final vowel; so the actual pronounced consonant always occurs at the beginning of each word. Obviously, speakers of non-tonal languages find tonal languages such as Hmong very difficult to master; on the other hand, as Walker points out, "the lack of tonal significance in English (ex-

cept for intonation) may present problems to an individual who has a developed ear for different tones" (Walker, 1985, p. 59). Teachers need to watch for confusion which may arise due to the lack of tonality in English, with many of the problems occuring in inappropriate intonation and stress.

Consonants: The biggest difference between Hmong and English consonants is the sheer number of consonant sounds that can be used at the beginning of words in Hmong. In all, there are 57 different stop, affricate, fricative, nasal, liquid, and glide sounds in the Hmong language, which are represented in the RPA (Romanized Practical Alphabet) System (Smalley, et al., 1990) as:

> c, ch, d, dh, f, g, h, hl, hm, hml, hn, hny, k, kh, l, m, ml, n, nc, nch, hk, nkh, np, nph, npl, nplh, nq, nqh, nr, nrh, nt, nth, nts, ntsh, ntx, ntxh, ny, p, ph, pl, plh, q, qh, r, rh, s, t, th, ts, tsh, tx, txh, v, x, y, xy, y, z[3].

However, even though Hmong has many more consonant sounds than are used in English, there are a few consonants used in English which are not found in Hmong and can frequently be a challenge for the Hmong to learn. These include the consonants /θ/ (as in "thin"), /∂/ (as in "the"), /z/ (as in "zoo"), /w/ (as in "walk"), /b/ and /g/ (as in "ball" and "go" — it is the voicing they have trouble with), /dz/ (as in "judge"), and the unusual English /r/ (as in "red").

A Hmong word is made up of three distinct parts: an optional initial consonant, a vowel, and a tone. Other than nasalized vowels, mentioned above, consonant sounds are never used in the word-final position. As discussed above, for Hmong who are literate, consonant letters occurring at the end of a word in Hmong indicate the tone that is used and are never pronounced as a consonant sound. This lack of word-final consonants raises no end of problems for Hmong learners of English who must learn to pronounce consonant sounds in places they are not accustomed to. While Hmong students will have no trouble saying the word "bee", for example, it can be extremely difficult for them to produce the plural "bees" because the word final consonant "s" is unknown in Hmong.

Vowels: As with consonants, Hmong has a few vowels that English does not and English has a few vowels that Hmong does not. Hmong has six basic vowels: 'a' (as in "not"), 'e' (as in "pay"), 'i' (as in "see"), 'o' (as in "all"), 'u' (as in "do"), and 'w' (which is pronounced like the unstressed vowel in "prizes"). As mentioned previously, there are also three nasalized vowels, represented by doubling the vowel letter: 'ee', 'oo' and 'uu.' Hmong also has five diphthongs: 'ai' and 'au' which are like the vowel sounds in "high" and "how", and 'ia', 'ua', and 'aw', which have no comparable vowel sounds in English (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978b).

More importantly for ESL teachers, there are four vowel sounds in English which do not occur in Hmong and which may need to be given special attention in the ESL classroom:

/ow/ as in "no"
/ə/ as in "up"
/æ/ as in "cat"
/oy/ as in "boy" (a diphthong) (Bliatout, et al., 1988)

Obviously, the biggest frustration for Hmong students of English — particulary those who are literate in Hmong — is that, unlike Hmong, the letters representing the vowel sounds in an English word take on different values depending on the context. In Hmong, for example, the letter "a" is always pronounced the same regardless of the consonant it follows. However, in English, the letter "a" varies greatly, depending on its context in the word, as illustrated below:

/æ/ as in "cat"
/ey/ as in "pay"
/ɔ/ as in "all"

Attention must be given to pronunciation of both English vowels and consonants, in particular to word ending consonant sound. Intonation, word and sentence stress also need to be addressed by ESL teachers as the role of stress and intonation in English serve very different functions from the tones used in Hmong and they are not automatically acquired when learning the language.

DIFFERENCES AT THE MORPHEMIC LEVEL

Syllables: Like many other Asian languages such as Chinese, Hmong is monosyllabic; that is, most Hmong words are only one syllable long (Heimbach, 1979). While there are some words which are more than one syllable in length, they are almost always made up of syllables which can stand alone as independent words. Obviously, polysyllabic words can prove to be quite a challenge to Hmong students, especially when they have to learn that there can be primary, secondary, and even tertiary levels of stress on different syllables. For example, in the word "biological", the first syllable is lightly stressed, the second, fourth and fifth syllables are unstressed, and the third is heavily stressed. This can be all the more confusing as stress also plays a role in both vowel and consonant pronunciation, as can be noted by the letter "a" which is pronounced /æ/ in the stressed syllable of "Candy" but as /ə/ in the un-

stressed syllable of "Mexican" even though it is preceded by the letter "c" and followed by the letter "n" in both contexts. Words whose meanings change depending on the syllable stressed are also a problem, such as:

Progress:	first syllable stressed /prog´-res/ = a noun (movement toward a goal) second syllable stressed /prə-gres´/ = a verb (to advance)
Digest:	first syllable stressed /di´-jest/ = a noun (a synoposis of written material) second syllable stressed /di-jest´/ = a verb (to change food into a form that is easily absorbed into the body)

(All examples taken from *The American Heritage Dictionary*, 1983.)

Affixes and Inflection: Being a monosyllabic language, Hmong words do not have prefixes and suffixes (Heimbach, 1979); consequently, the idea that an affix carries meaning independently (such as "re" in "reheat" indicating "again, or "ly" in "quickly" indicating an adverb) can be initially challenging to grasp. Furthermore, in English, words are generally inflected for tense, number, possession, etc. by the addition of a suffix. Not only is this not the case in Hmong, but there is a complete lack of inflection of any type. In English we inflect to indicate number (spider, spiders), possession (Mary, Mary's), person (I bake, He bakes), tense (wait, waited), as well as comparatives and superlatives (faster, fastest). In Hmong, there is only one form for each word. Inflections that are normally performed on English words are indicated in Hmong by the order of words and the context (Clark, 1989), or by auxiliary particles (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a).

When an English speaker says "I made supper," the listener knows the action occurred in the past because of the verb's inflected past tense form ("made"). When Hmong speakers express the same idea, they will generally provide context so the listener understands the action occurred in the past. The following Hmong sentence illustrates this point:

Nag-hmo kuv mus.
(Yesterday I go.)

In this sentence, it is obvious the action occurred in the past because of the word "yesterday" and, from the Hmong perspective, there is no reason to have an inflection on the verb to indicate this. Likewise, where

English includes plurals and possessive endings on words, Hmong provides context words which conveys the same meaning. For example, the English statement "We should bring our children" would be represented in Hmong as (Strecker & Vang, 1986):

Peb coj menyuam mus.
(We bring group child go).

From this statement, the possessive "our" is understood and the plural "children" is indicated by "group."

Auxiliary Particles: Auxiliary particles are frequently used to express the grammatical functions that English verbal inflections perform, but, as indicated above, are not always required when the context is clear. These particles, usually occuring before the verb and after the subject (with a couple occuring after the verb), can be "stacked up" in a sentence in a specified order (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a). The Indochinese Refugee Education Guide gives the following example for how particles are used to perform the inflection functions of English verbs (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a, p. 12):

Koj yoav mus. "You will go."
you will go

Koj yuav tsum mus. "You should go."
you will must go

Koj yuav tsum tau mus. "You should have gone."
you will must 'past' go

Bliatout, *et.al.*, illustrate well the above discussion when they note that "with respect to the size of words and lack of inflection a Hmong sentence is more like *We all like to see play when we go New York* than like *Everybody enjoys attending theater performances in Chicago*" (Bliatout, et al., 1988, p. 52).

Discussion: ESL teachers working with Hmong students need to help the students recognize and understand the functions and pronunciation of the various syllables in words, especially in those words which differ in meaning and pronunciation depending on sentence context. Furthermore, Hmong students will not necessarily know, for example, that "walked" is the past tense of "walk". Students need to be taught that they indicate the same action but at different times. Similarly, students will also have great difficulty with various word forms; for example, recognizing that "quick" is an adjective that modifies nouns, "quicker" is an adjective which relates one noun to another, and "quickly" is an adverb

that modifies verbs. The use of appropriately inflected forms of verbs and nouns is often difficult for ESL students in general and particularly for students whose native languages, like Hmong, do not use inflection.

DIFFERENCES AT THE SYNTACTIC LEVEL

Sentence Structure: Syntactically, the Hmong sentence at its basic level is similar to English as it 1) uses a subject + verb + object structure, 2) has prepositions, and 3) uses compound and complex sentences that can look very similar to English sentences (Clark, 1989). However, as discussed above, the biggest differences probably occur with the Hmong reliance on the use of surrounding contextual words to impart detailed meaning rather than relying on inflectional or derivational transformations, as English usually does. That is, the Hmong use only a single word form in various settings as noun, verb, and adjective. This is somewhat comparable to the English word "talk" in the following sentences: He wants to talk to you (verb); He wants to give a talk (noun); He was on the talk show yesterday (adjective) (Bliatout, *et. al.*, 1988).

Besides the lack of transformations in Hmong words, there are some word order differences between Hmong and English. Adjectives, for example, usually follow the noun they are modifying (Clark, 1989). For example, the English sentence "I am drinking some cold water" would be represented in Hmong as

"Kuv tabtom haus dej txias"
(literally "I drink some water cold").

The exception to this is if the adjective is directly connected to the noun, as in the two syllable word for "child:" Menyuam ("littlechild"), where "little" and "child" are connected words (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a). This type of combination of two words into one is not unusual in Hmong and is similar to English compound words like "mockingbird" and "blacktop," where either word can also stand alone.

Negatives, Questions, and Auxiliary Verbs: Another syntactic difference between Hmong and English involves the formation of negatives and questions. In English, negative transformations are produced by incorporating the proper negative form into a verb or between a verb and object as in "I do not want any part in it" or "I want no part in it." Hmong, on the other hand, uses only one form of a negation, "tsis," (or "txhob" for plural subjects such as "we"), and has no auxiliary verb such as "do" (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a). This negation is usually found right before the verb, so the construction of "I do not know" would be *"Kuv tsis paub"* (I not know).

Likewise, Hmong questions do not use an auxiliary verb, nor do they

invert word order as English does (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a). In analyzing an English transformation of a question such as "What are you doing?" one can see that the root sentence is "You are doing what?" ("What" being the direct object). The Hmong language uses this type of root sentence in its questions. So, "What do you do?" would be translated in Hmong as:

Koj ua da tsi?
(You do what?)

And, "where are you going" would be:

Koj mus qhov twg?
(You go where?)

Yes/no questions in Hmong are constructed by simply placing the word "puas" before the verb. So the English question "Do you want to eat?" would be translated as:

Koj puas xav noj?
(You [question particle] want eat?)

As is seen by the formulations of negatives and questions, the Hmong language does not use auxiliary forms with their verbs. Likewise, infinitives are nonexistent in their language. The English sentences "I would like to go home" and "Do you want to play a game?" include the infinitive forms of "to go" and "to play." In Hmong, the sentences would be literally heard as "I want go home" and "You [question particle] want play game?" Needless to say, infinitives can be a source of frustration for the Hmong student learning English.

Pronouns: Another major difference in syntax between Hmong and English involves the use of personal pronouns. Although they are similar in that both Hmong and English use possessive pronouns before nouns and use pronouns in both subject and object positions, the pronouns differ in meaning. For example, in English, the pronouns "I," "you," "he," "she," and "they" are used in the subject position while the pronouns "me," "you," "him," "her," and "them" are used in the object position. Possessive pronouns in English also differ according to whether they are in the subject or object position. In Hmong, however, pronouns such as "I," "you," "he," "she," and "they" remain the same in either the subject or object positions. Further, the Hmong make no pronoun distinction between "he," "she" or "it" - they simply use a neutral third person pronoun for all. However, there is a distinction in the Hmong lan-

guage between "they" or "them" when referring to people, versus "they" or "them" when referring to objects. Thus, the pronouns in the Hmong language include the following (National Indochinese Clearinghouse, 1978a):

kuv - I, me, my, mine
koj - you, your, yours
nws - he, him, his, she, her, hers, it, its
lawv - they, them, their, theirs (people)
cauv - they, them, their, theirs (objects)
wb - we, us, our, ours

Determiners and Classifiers: Another consideration regarding the syntactic structure of Hmong concerns the use of determiners with nouns. Although the Hmong and English languages are similar in that they both use a type of determiner, they differ in the way that the determiners are used. These determiners are considered as "classifiers" by Hmong scholars, and occur before nouns in the following five circumstances (Clark, 1989):

1) after a number
2) when a demonstrative is used
3) when definite reference is being made (analogous to the English definite article)
4) after a possessive pronoun
5) when a quantity word is used

An important point to understand regarding Hmong classifiers is that they are semantically categorized. In other words, unlike English which has no true classification system, the Hmong classifiers actually "classify" the nouns they precede. For example, words like "rope" are preceded by the classifier "txoj" which indicates that the following noun is "long and thin." Some of the semantic categories indicated by classifiers include the following (Clark, 1989):

tus - cylindrical (e.g., "*tus ntiv*" = finger)
daim - flat things (e.g., "*daim pam*" = blanket)
lub - round object (e.g., "*lub taub hau*" = head)
txoj - long and thin (e.g., "*txoj hlua*" = rope)
phau - volume, collection of things put together
tsab - communication, oral or written

An example of how these classifiers work can be seen with the words

"phau ntawv" (book) and *"tsab ntawv"* (letter, as in mail). The classifier preceding the noun determines whether *"ntawv"* is a collection of papers, as in a book, or whether it is a sheet of paper used for interpersonal communication, as in a letter. (The use of classifiers is also complicated by the fact that they designate definiteness or specificity, and can often be deleted when referring to nonspecific items (Clark, 1989).)

CULTURAL AND SOCIO-LINGUISTIC DIFFERENCES WHICH MAY AFFECT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

So far, this paper has presented several important aspects regarding the contrast between the Hmong and English languages. These contrasts, however, extend far beyond linguistics as both languages are rooted in very different cultures as well. As pointed out by Walker, "regardless of the contrasts between the L1 and English that present linguistic difficulties, it is learning the cultural dimensions of the language and developing sociolinguistic proficiency that are often the greater tasks"(Walker, 1985, p. 60). The following section deals with the more general but equally important aspects of cultural and socio-linguistic differences between Hmong and English which may affect language acquisition.[4]

Literacy: To begin with, one of the biggest socio-linguistic differences between Hmong and English is that the Hmong did not have a widely accepted written language of their own prior to the end of World War II (Bliatout, *et. al.*, 1988). Even now, the majority of Hmong are not literate in their own language and there is not much published in Hmong. This is emphasized by the recent opening of a Hmong bookstore in St. Paul that was noted as one of the only bookstores in the United States of its kind. Although Hmong has been a distinct oral language for at least 4,000 years, this oral tradition is in stark contrast to the literary heritage of the English language, which extends back hundreds of years.

Although Western missionaries developed a written version of the Hmong in the early 1950's based on the Roman alphabet, which is now the more widely accepted script, there is also a second semi-alphabetic writing system used. This system, called "Pahawh Hmong" (and looking a little like Hebrew to the untrained eye) consists of 60 consonant symbols and 104 vowel and tone symbols, not including some minor ambiguities due to pronunciation differences between the White and Blue/Green Hmong dialects. This written language has been revised and simplified many times, and consequently, is known only to a few Hmong and is not widely used, even by those who are literate in Hmong (Bliatout, *et. al.*, 1988).

Education: The Hmong's experience with formal education is also

very different from that in the United States. Formal education for the Hmong of Laos only became generally accessible in the mid-twentieth century (Knop, 1982). Even when the opportunity was available, education was a privilege generally reserved for boys, and even then they could usually only attend a few years as they were needed by their families to assist in farming. It was only in the 1970's, as the Hmong took refuge from the war, that more importance was placed on formal education as they had increasing contact with western languages and cultures in Thai refugee camps (Bliatout, *et. al.*, 1988; Knop, 1982, Walker, 1985).

A very basic implication in this difference in educational exposure is that many older Hmong children and adults do not have a complete understanding of Western or academic concepts. Consequently, even if something can be translated from English to Hmong, that does not necessarily mean that comprehension will occur. Things that we take for granted, such as banks which pay interest, can be confusing to the Hmong farmer who used to bury his silver treasures in his field. Along the same vein, the value of formal education in American culture may not be fully understood — although the need for learning to speak English is recognized — since traditionally formal education was not an essential element of their society (Knop, 1982).

Furthermore, the concrete, analytical, and scientific approach that Americans often take to describe and understand the world around them is quite different from many of the Hmong who see spirits and the spirit world as directly responsible for everything that happens. For the Hmong holding these traditional views, getting sick, for example, is not due to bacteria or infections, but to the departure of one of their spirits (Quincy, 1988). In education, the idea of learning disabilities may also be a difficult concept to explain. Just as with many native English speaking parents, learning problems may be viewed as reflecting a lack of effort on the part of the child. Obviously, it would take a pretty thorough understanding of the Hmong culture and educational traditions to fully understand how great a conceptual gap there can be between the Hmong learner and the American teacher. A good teacher will expect and look for these differences.

Although the Hmong and English cultures contrast in many ways, they are similar in that the Hmong culture today places a very high value on obtaining literacy and education for their children. There are, however, three difficulties that Hmong parents have in supporting their children as they go through the U.S. education system. One problem is that since many Hmong parents have not themselves received formal education, they may not understand the behaviors required for their children to be successful students (Knop, 1982). Consequently, Hmong children may not receive the academic and emotional support that ESL children

from families with higher levels of education receive. However, efforts are being made in many schools to address this concern (e.g., Morrow, 1989; Phommasouvanh, Diaz, Pecoraro, & Biagini, 1988).

Another problem which more drastically affects the language acquisition of Hmong students is that English is often used only during school hours while Hmong is used at home and for social gatherings. This makes it more difficult for Hmong children to learn both social and academic English at the same rate as their peers with more exposure to English. Also, since many older Hmong parents are illiterate in both Hmong and English, they are not able to help their children with homework as many English speaking parents do, nor are they able to model literate behaviors such as reading the newspaper. Fortunately, as the Hmong strive to become more self-sufficient and productive members of this culture, many are also striving to become better educated at all ages. Family literacy programs have assisted in meeting this need.

Cultural Values: Another important cultural consideration that may affect language acquisition for Hmong students concerns the role of women in Hmong society. In the United States, the role of women has been transformed so that women are often able to set and achieve the same goals as men. In traditional Hmong society, the roles of men and women are often very different. As previously mentioned, education in Laos was usually reserved for boys. A daughter was rarely selected to go to school because when she married, she would become an integral part of her husband's family. Thus, investing in her education (and therefore, earning potential) would benefit her in-laws, not her birth parents (Bliatout, *et. al.*, 1988; Guskin & Goldstein, 1983; Knop, 1982). This tradition may affect Hmong girls' education today as well. If her parents do not consider her educational development to be as valuable as her brothers', a Hmong girl may not become motivated enough to achieve success in her second language acquisition and may not even realize the need to complete high school.

There are other, more subtle socio-linguistic differences between English and Hmong which may affect the Hmong student's acquisition of English. For example, in some situations, the Hmong value submissiveness and unassertiveness. This means that some Hmong children in a mainstream classroom may be more passive learners and refrain from asking questions about something they don't understand (Knop, 1982; Walker, 1985). The Hmong culture does not allow for a display of negative emotion (dissatisfaction, anger, frustration) in front of elders and/or higher status people. This means that in a classroom, a Hmong child may not understand something but would not feel comfortable admitting it or displaying any kind of emotion which would cue the teacher to a problem the student might have. If asked by a teacher or elder if the

child understands, he/she may respond with a "yes" or a smile simply to "keep the peace." This is quite different from many native English speakers, who often become competitive at an early age and learn the value of asserting themselves in the classroom and elsewhere.

APPROACHES TO HELP ESL LEARNERS OVERCOME DIFFERENCES

It is one thing to become familiar with the differences between Hmong and English in terms of language and culture, but it is quite another to use that knowledge to the benefit of Hmong students. There are several approaches that can be taken in both areas to help ESL learners overcome these differences and become successful students and citizens. The first step in helping a Hmong ESL learner is to appreciate the language differences between English and Hmong and to teach to the specific language aspects which will be the most different, and frequently the most difficult, for Hmong students to learn. For example, because all Hmong syllables and words end in a vowel sound, it is often difficult for the Hmong to remember to pronounce consonant sounds at the ends of words. The ESL teacher should place special emphasis on these ending articulations, using exercises and games to promote consistency in that area. Also, since the Hmong language does not include inflectional or derivational endings, more time should be spent on developing the students' understanding of what an "s" means, or how the use of "er" or "or" at the end of many nouns means "one who does," to list a couple of examples.

Since the concepts of time that are given in verb conjugations are new to Hmong students, the teacher should try to use real-life situations to help them comprehend the differences.

Also, pronoun usage in subject and object positions and the personal pronoun differences of "he" and "she," which the Hmong language does not use, should be reinforced in day-to-day activities, using concrete examples of who "he" (him) and "she" (her) are.

It is evident by the way the Hmong use classifiers that they categorize the world differently than English speakers do as well. The ESL teacher would help his/her students by using concept-mapping and word webs, and by describing the relationships within various types of "systems" such as animal kingdoms, seasons, food groups, etc.

Pronunciation along with intonation and stress will need some attention, especially since the rules for each are so irregular and quite different from Hmong. However, there are general and predictable patterns of pronunciation, stress, and intonation which students need to learn. This area of language acquisition should not be ignored as it is often a

major source of miscomprehension when Hmong students are attempting to communicate with native speakers of English.

Culturally and socio-linguistically, Hmong students first need to know that they are valued for who they are as well as for their rich heritage. Since Hmong children have descended from a people with a strong oral tradition, their learning styles will most likely require a "see and do" method of teaching. The ESL teacher should focus on teaching specific strategies that will allow the students to become independent and reflective readers and writers, and should take advantage of their oral tradition by encouraging Hmong students to read orally to their peers and family, and to work cooperatively on classroom tasks.

Perhaps one of the most important ways the ESL teacher can help his/her students is by involving the parents as much as possible in the education process of their children. This will allow them to understand that they are an essential contributor to their children's education and will also motivate them to encourage and support their children in their education. Also, keeping parents informed about the academic and related successes of both boys and girls will help them to realize, if they don't already, that both sexes can become equally valuable members of society regardless of the strict roles that have been placed on them in the past.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

As the Hmong people become more prominent members of our culturally diverse country, they will need to be appropriately equipped. This "equipment" primarily stems from an education that is provided by teachers whose knowledge and abilities meet the specific needs of the Hmong students. It has been the intent of this paper to better clarify those needs through briefly discussing the differences between Hmong and English on several levels. Having accomplished this task, it is important to point out in conclusion that there is little doubt that, in the words of Walker, "success in English is affected more by economic, social, and circumstantial factors than by ESL programs, teachers, materials, and curricula. While educators may prefer to think that their efforts at langauge teaching make the largest contribution to proficiency, learner characteristics and outside experiences and circumstances have a far greater impact on the ultimate development of L2 proficiency" (Walker, 1985, p. 61). It is hoped that the contents of this paper will help provide insight on, and therefore a new respect for, the Hmong people, their language and their culture which will in turn allow us to provide a more supportive context in which language learning can successfully occur.

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NOTES

[1] This number compares to 7,089 students in pre-kindergarten through grade 12 classified as Hispanic and LEP (Hunt, 1995).

[2] We would like to thank Pang Cher Vue, Arts and Sciences Outreach Specialist at the University of Wisconsin - Eau Claire, for checking the accuracy of all Hmong examples given in this article which were not drawn from published sources. However, any errors in the examples are solely the responsibility of the authors.

[3] In the RPA system, each consonant sound is represented by a series of one to four letters which indicate the features of the sound. For example, the RPA symbol "nplh" indicates that the sound is a nasalized (n), labial stop (p), with an affricated, lateral release (l), and is aspirated (h).

[4] For an extensive bibliography of material written on the Hmong, contact the Southeast Asian Refugees Studies Project, Institute of International Studies and Programs, University of Minnesota.

Reading Lab: From Pleasure Reading to Proficiency?

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The value of extensive reading in English as a second or foreign language through the use of a "reading laboratory" is explored in this paper, which describes a study carried out with ESL students at the intermediate level in the Minnesota English Center at the University of Minnesota. Evidence for Krashen's Reading Hypothesis—the Input Hypothesis as it applies to reading—is presented in a review of studies of "book floods" and reading labs which mainly have been set up for children. This article also touches on the history of readability formulas and the arguments for and against the use of adapted, as opposed to authentic, texts. The study described sought to determine what effect(s) offering a reading lab two hours a week during regular class time would have on post-secondary ESL students' overall proficiency and attitudes toward reading in English. Several series of graded readers and simple novels at six increasing stages of difficulty were provided for students to read over the ten-week term. Mean gains in TOEFL Reading Test scores were measured and found to be significant among students who participated in the reading lab. Significant correlations were also found among students' self-rating of their ability in English academic reading with their enjoyment of English academic reading, their ability in English non-academic reading, and the number of books they read in the reading lab.

There is probably not a teacher in the world who would intentionally discourage students from reading. Nevertheless, how often are students in second-language (L2) or foreign language (FL) programs given opportunities and materials that allow them to read vast amounts in the target language? Few would argue with the belief that reading is important for language acquisition in both a person's first and second language. Whereas it was once thought that language should be taught in discrete points in order to give second language learners the skills they needed to read, it has become evident that reading is linked to overall proficiency

— being able to read leads to greater acquisition of the language (Devine, 1987).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Value of Extensive Reading

Extensive reading, as defined by Grellet, is "reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure...a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding" (1981). Reading in the target language, not only in class, but extensively "for pleasure and interest," is increasingly being stressed by English as a Second Language researchers and teachers (Carrell, 1987; Swaffar, Arens & Burns, 1991). This is in line with the Input Hypothesis put forth by Krashen (1982) that states that large amounts of "comprehensible input" are necessary for people to "acquire" (rather than consciously learn) language naturally in the same manner that children acquire their mother tongue. Krashen propounds "free voluntary reading" for both its benefits to the attitudes of learners as well as its benefits to language acquisition itself (1993). In other words, the more students read because they want to, the more they will read, and thus the more language they will acquire.

According to the Reading Hypothesis (the Input Hypothesis as it applies to reading), language learners will acquire syntax and vocabulary better when they are "flooded" with books, rather than given explicit classroom instruction (Krashen, 1989; Elley, 1991).

A study of a comprehension-based program among French-speaking third-graders (age eight) in Canada yielded some rather remarkable results. In this program, the children had thirty minutes of English as a Second Language (ESL) each day, but they did not receive formal instruction at all, nor did they even interact with the teacher or each other during the class. Instead, they spent their time just listening to stories and reading. Their progress equalled and, in some cases, exceeded that of children in "regular" ESL classes, even in the area of speaking (Lightbown, 1992). The researcher points out, however, that the children in this program were beginning learners of English, and that the results of such a program may not prove as successful with more advanced learners. Also, what proportion of the success is due to reading as opposed to listening is not evident; nevertheless, the benefit of the comprehension-based program for the children involved is notable.

Perhaps the best known study on the effects of extensive reading which supports the Reading Hypothesis is Elley and Mangubhai's experiment in the Fiji Islands with children learning ESL (1983). In this study, school children, ages 9-11 (Classes 4 and 5), in twelve schools were randomly assigned to one of three groups: Shared Book Experience, Sus-

tained Silent Reading, or Tate Syllabus (control group). The 350 children in the first two groups experienced a "book flood," with students in the first group reading extensivily using the highly interactive Shared Book Experience approach while those in the second group also read extensivley but with the more individualized Sustained Silent Reading approach. The Tate Syllabus, the standard audio-lingual program in Fiji, involved little reading except for the structured readers in the curriculum. Standardized pre- and post-tests for reading comprehension were given to all of the children and the results were compared across groups. Both experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group in reading comprehension and language structures. In fact, "book flood" children in Class 4 improved at more than two times the normal rate. A follow-up study a year later showed even more clearly that "book-based" programs resulted in significant gains, supporting the hypothesis that language acquisition occurs naturally and rapidly through reading for interest and pleasure (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983).

Based on the Elley and Mangubhai study, other studies have been carried out with children using "reading laboratories" as sources for extensive reading. One study has been done in the United Kingdom with Pakistani immigrant children, mainly native speakers of Punjabi, ages 10-11. During the experiment, the children met after school for one hour five days a week for twelve weeks and read books of their choice from among a collection of graded ESL readers. The scores of the experimental group's pre-tests and post-tests were compared to those of children in two parallel control groups. The results indicated greater gains and higher scores, not only in reading but in writing as well, among the children who read extensively for pleasure. According to the researchers, subjects also became a very enthusiastic and highly cohesive group, a factor which may have affected the outcomes of the experiment (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989).

Another longitudinal study is being carried out in Germany with secondary students, ages 12-14, to determine whether or not "voluntary leisure-time reading" helps young adolescent EFL learners acquire the target language (Brusch, 1991). In this project both graded EFL readers and authentic texts, those written for native readers of English, are available for the students. The final results of the project have yet to be reported.

Defining "Readability"

The studies mentioned above assume the importance of extensive reading in the target language and they used graded or adapted texts. Some might argue that the use of texts written for ESL/EFL learners does not allow for adequate input to take place because elements of authentic

language are missing. A number of studies have been done on the effects of adapting texts and the types of adaptations that are most comprehensible, or "readable," for non-native speakers of English (Swaffar, et. al., 1991; Carrell, 1987; Strother & Ulijn, 1987; Blau, 1982; Johnson, 1981; Marshall & Glock, 1978-79).

Adapted texts are authentic texts modified to make them more readable. Readability may be defined simply as the "ease of understanding or comprehension because of style of writing," or, more specifically, as "an objective estimate or prediction of reading comprehension of material usually in terms of reading grade level, based upon selected and quantified variables in text, especially some index of vocabulary difficulty and of sentence difficulty" (Harris & Hodges, 1981). The latter definition is of interest to our discussion of using simplified or adapted texts for second language learners. The "objective methods" used to make such a determination are known as "readability formulas" (Harris & Hodges, 1981).

Readability formulas were developed for first language texts in the early part of the twentieth century in the United States in order to objectivize and standardize the measures by which texts were deemed "difficult" for readers of different ability levels. As the need for accessible technological information grew during World War II, these formulas were used to develop "readable" materials for a greater audience. The formulas relied primarily on word length and sentence length, and worked relatively well with native English speaking readers (Carrell, 1987).

Criticisms of Readability Formulas

Readability formulas, however, have come under considerable investigation and criticism, especially in regard to readers for English as a second language students (Blau, 1982; Beck, McKeown, Omanson & Pople, 1984; Davison & Kantor, 1982; Marshall & Glock, 1978-1979; Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Strother & Ulijn, 1987; Strother & Ulijn, 1991; Swaffar, 1991; Widdowson, 1978). There are two major criticisms. First, when such formulas are used, even though the intention is to make the text "simpler" and therefore more comprehensible, what the formulas actually tend to produce are disjointed and distorted texts (Blau, 1982; Swaffar, 1991; Widdowson, 1978). For example, if we want to avoid the "difficult" structure of an unmarked relative clause, we might simplify the following sentence:

That is the house I want to buy.

=>(a) That is a house. I want to buy it.
=>(b) I want to buy that house.

Neither of these two simplifications is satisfactory; something of the

speaker's intent is lost in both cases. Sentence (a) is chopy and unsophisticated and does not convey the longing to own the house as implied in the original sentence. Sentence (b) is slightly better, but the focus of the sentence has shifted from the object, "house," to the action, "buy." Some language complexity is, in fact, necessary for coherence (Swaffar, 1991). There is also evidence that the "relationship between syntax and readability is not so strong as may have been expected" (Blau, 1982; also supported by Strother & Ulijn, 1987).

The second criticism of readability formulas is based on what studies have shown about the importance of background knowledge. They indicate that background knowledge, or schema, outweighs text complexity as a factor for comprehension of a text (Davison & Kantor, 1982; Johnson, 1981). Cultural background, in particular, is important for understanding a text (Carrell, 1987; Johnson, 1981). For instance, international ESL students who have participated in Halloween celebrations in the United States are more likely to understand a reading about the holiday's history and customs than those students who are unacquainted with jack-o-lanterns, costumes, black cats, witches and trick-or-treating (Johnson, 1982).

Reader interest is another consideration within the realm of background knowledge and an important factor in reading comprehension (Blau, 1982; Marshall & Glock, 1978-1979; Swaffar, 1991). Few of us read things in which we have little or no interest, yet ESL students may be expected to comprehend a reading passage for which they have little background because the topic is not relevant to their interests or experience. There is more push now, and rightly so, on pre-reading activities which activate schemata and on the use of authentic texts.

Most researchers would agree that the biggest obstacle of all for second language readers is vocabulary (Blau, 1982; Laufer, 1992; Strother & Ulijn, 1987). Consideration of the reader's vocabulary, then, should be a key factor in determining the readability of a text.

Adapted Texts

In spite of these difficulties with text adaptation, some form of adaptation seems advisable as the combination of advanced vocabulary, complex structures and cultural decontextualization of many authentic materials often deters even a relatively brave language learner from taking the reading plunge. Nevertheless, as modification of speech in the form of "foreigner talk" is claimed to aid the listening comprehension of second language learners (Chaudron, 1983; Kelch, 1985; Long, 1985), so adaptation of written texts should be entered into with the reader in mind. Although the writer is distanced from the reader in a way two speakers

are not, writing is still a form of communication which needs to consider its audience. What readability formulas fail to take into consideration is the reader: writing that communicates will adjust to the reader's needs, particularly in regard to vocabulary (Beck, *et. al.*, 1984; Strother & Ulijn, 1987; Strother & Ulijn, 1991; Widdowson, 1978). Widdowson also presents the difference between "simplified versions" and "simple accounts," the former being likely to distort a text, the latter being a re-telling of the information in a way that is more comprehensible for its reader (1978). Widdowson also encourages the use of visuals (such as graphs, diagrams and illustrations) to complement the "simple" text (1978).

Swaffar, *et al.*, argue that ESL learners should be introduced to authentic texts early in their instruction, guided through reading such texts for gist even from the beginning, and encouraged to read authentic texts on their own (1991). However, the limitations of beginning ESL readers' second language proficiency—especially in the area of vocabulary—might prohibit them from doing vast amounts of second language reading independently. If "success breeds success," as the adage goes, certainly the converse is also true: defeat breeds defeat. Language learners who feel discouraged or intimidated by second-language texts may read nothing or very little in the target language beyond what is required, and, as a result, fail to receive more than a minimal amount of input.

Therefore, it seems justifiable to use graded ESL readers or other simple texts to encourage learners of ESL to do more extensive reading, especially if the readers are graded according to vocabulary and illustrated to enhance the context. What measurable effect(s) such extensive reading for pleasure might have on older ESL learners' acquisition of English has yet to be determined.

In order to provide more opportunities for ESL students to read extensively and independently, a "reading lab" was set up at the Minnesota English Center at the University of Minnesota, modeled after the one utilized at Minnesota State University-Akita (Japan). Numerous series of illustrated, graded readers are provided for the students to choose from, according to their level and interest. These readers are graded primarily according to vocabulary levels. The goals of the reading lab include encouraging ESL students to read extensively in English and promoting their reading fluency (Richards, 1993).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Although the reading lab at the Minnesota English Center has been in place since Fall 1992, work yet remains to be done to document the success of the lab. This study will attempt to determine whether providing simple and adapted texts for ESL students to read has any effect on

their overall reading proficiency. If students are allowed to read large amounts of simple texts independently, will their ESL reading proficiency be enhanced? Will their attitudes toward reading in English be affected? The research questions to be answered by this study are as follows:

1) How does time spent doing extensive reading in a reading lab affect the overall reading proficiency of ESL students?

2) How does time spent doing extensive reading in a reading lab affect the students' attitudes toward reading in English?

RESEARCH DESIGN

Subjects

The subjects for this study were twenty-one students enrolled in the English Program for International Students (EPIS) at the Minnesota English Center, a pre-academic ESL program at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. The subjects were volunteers drawn from two classes at Level 220, the third (high-intermediate) level of the EPIS program, during Spring Quarter 1993. The ages of the subjects were 19-32, with an average age of 23. All students at this level of the program were required to participate in the reading lab, regardless of whether or not they were in the study.

The records of 18 of the students at the same level in EPIS during Spring 1992, who had had no reading lab, were consulted for comparison as a control group.

Instrumentation

The Reading Lab: The reading lab materials consisted of several series[1] of illustrated, graded readers that range from a core vocabulary of 300-600 base words to a core of more than 2000 base words. Note that core vocabulary does not indicate the length of the texts, but rather the number of different words used throughout the text. The difficulty of each book or series of books is determined by the respective publishers according to sentence structure and information control as well as the core vocabulary. Publishers vary in their systems for defining and labeling levels of difficulty so the books purchased for the reading lab were unified under one color-coded system, determined by the lab director using core vocabulary as the primary determiner of level[2].

The reading lab was set up such that the students were assigned to two "stages" (or reading levels) according to their performance on cloze

passages drawn from three passages from three books of increasing stages of difficulty. Every fifth word of the passage after the first sentence was deleted, and the tests were scored using an exact word count. The students took a practice cloze in order to become familiar with this type of test. The rationale for assigning the students to two stages was to allow them the option of adjusting themselves to the more challenging or comfortable level, depending on their own confidence and preference, once they started reading the books.

Students participated in the reading lab as part of their reading/composition course during regular class time, two times a week for an hour each time. Students accounted for each book read by completing a book report which provided basic bibliographic information, their opinion of the book, and a brief explanation of their opinion. The form was similar to the form for "outside reading" proposed by Stroller in her recommendations for setting up a reading lab as a course (1986). Information from these book reports was summarized on a list by the Reading Lab Coordinator. Students read at least three books at each stage before moving on to the next stage. At the end of the quarter, the teacher of the reading/composition course gave each student a grade for reading lab, based primarily on attendance/participation and effort (i.e., the number of books read)

Proficiency Evaluation: The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL[3]) is given as an institutional test at the end of each quarter in the Minnesota English Center and is used in level placement for the students. Since TOEFL scores are commonly accepted as a standard of language proficiency, the scores of TOEFL Section 3, Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension—which, for the sake of simplicity, will be refered to as the TOEFL Reading Test[4]—were used to determine the reading proficiency of the students.

The TOEFL has been designed by the Educational Testing Service to test the English language proficiency of international students who are nonnative speakers of English wanting to study at colleges and universities in the United States. The TOEFL is widely used as a standard by institutions of higher education in the United States and other countries (ETS, 1995). The Reading Test, in particular, "measures ability to understand nontechnical reading matter" (ETS, 1995 p. 4; Peirce, 1992). This section takes 45 minutes and comprises 30 vocabulary items as well as 30 multiple-choice reading comprehension questions based on a series of authentic reading passages (Peirce, 1992).[5]

Given the wide acceptance of TOEFL scores and the stated intention of the Reading Test, "proficiency" for the purposes of this study was defined as it is measured by the TOEFL. Scores on the Reading Test at the end of Winter Quarter 1992 were considered "entrance" scores (T1) for

the students of Spring Quarter 1992; likewise, scores on the Reading Test at the end of Winter Quarter 1993, were considered "entrance" scores for the students of Spring 1993. "Exit" scores (T2) were the Reading Test scores at the end of Spring Quarter 1992 and Spring Quarter 1993, respectively.

Questionnaire: A questionnaire was designed to determine the students' attitudes toward reading. The questions were asked with the intention of getting background information (age, sex, native language, years of English study) which might factor into their attitudes, as well as discovering students' confidence, pleasure, and motivation for reading. Students were asked to rate their ability in and their enjoyment of non-academic and academic reading in their native language and in English, as well as to estimate the amount of time they spent doing reading homework and pleasure reading in English. Questions about both academic and non-academic reading were included so that the students would not be influenced to simply answer positively about the non-academic reading done in reading lab. Finally, students were asked if they thought they did more non-academic reading outside of class because of reading lab (see Appendix A).

Data Collection Procedures

At the beginning of the Spring Quarter 1993, the students were given a practice cloze test and then a longer cloze test of three short reading passages in order to determine at which stage they should begin reading in the reading lab. Throughout the quarter, as each student completed a book, s/he turned in a book report to the reading/composition teacher. A list of the number of books read by each student was compiled by the Reading Lab Coordinator.

At the end of the quarter, the students who had volunteered to be subjects in the study were given the questionnaire by their teachers, and the subjects' answers were given numeric values and entered on a data sheet.

The Institutional TOEFL scores were also recorded for comparison.[6]

Data Analysis Procedures

T-tests for paired samples (repeated measures designs): Comparing test scores within groups: The t-test for paired samples is a statistical procedure used to determine changes in performance by the same subjects at two different periods of time, often after some type of treatment. Using the SPSS t-test program, this test was used to compare the TOEFL Reading Test entrance (T1) and exit (T2) scores of subjects in both the

control and treatment groups. The Spring 1992 class served as the control group in that this class received only class instruction. The Spring 1993 class, the treatment group, received both classroom instruction and intensive reading lab work.

Pearson Correlations: Using a Pearson correlation program, intercorrelations among grades, test scores and background variables were calculated for the treatment group, Spring 1993, relating them to the attitudinal variables set out by the questionnaire as well as the number of books read by each subject in the group.

RESULTS

T-tests for paired samples (repeated measures designs): Comparing test scores within groups: Using a repeated-measures design to compare the scores of T1 and T2 within the treatment group (Spring 1993), a significant difference in the means of T1 and T2 was found, indicating significant gains in reading proficiency between tests. In other words, the students of Spring 1993 scored significantly higher on the exit TOEFL Reading Test (T2) than they had on the entrance TOEFL Reading Test (T1). As Table 1 shows, the mean difference of T1 and T2 was -5.67 ($p<.01$), which indicates a statistically significant gain in test scores. The mean score of the exit test (T2) was nearly 6 points higher than the entrance test (T1), comparared to the statistically insignificant gain of only 2.46 points ($p<.12$) for the students during Spring 1992.

TABLE 1: Entrance (T1) and Exit (T2) Scores
TOEFL Section 3: Vocabulary & Reading Comprehension

(t-tests for paired samples and paired differences)

	n	Test	m	SD	t-value	df	2-tail Sig	
Sp 92	11	T1	42.45	5.36				
		T2	44.91	5.50	-1.69	10	1.22	(n.s.)
Difference in Mean Scores = -2.46								
Sp 93	15	T1	37.00	6.64				
		T2	42.67	5.72	-3.03	14	.009	*p<.01
Difference in Mean Scores = -5.67								

As the occurance of an increase in mean gain scores is statistically unlikely to occur without the influence of some outside factor, these results land in favor of the hypothesis that time spent reading in a reading lab positively affects the overall reading proficiency of ESL students.

Pearson Correlations: Students' attitudes, as measured by the questionnaire, were also positively affected by the reading lab. In an attempt to see whether there were any correlations between proficiency and atti-

tude or background, intercorrelations were calculated relating students' test scores to their answers to the questionnaire and by relating their responses to different questions on the questionnaire to each other (see Appendix B for detailed results). Nineteen subjects completed the questionnaire, but TOEFL entrance scores were not available for five of them so a complete and valid analysis was carried out on only 14 of the original 21 subjects.

The most statistically significant positive correlation was between the students' self-rating of their ability in English academic reading — which I view as an indicator of reading confidence — and their enjoyment of English academic reading — which I view as an indicator of reading pleasure ($r = .83$, $p < .001$). Their self-rating of their ability in English academic reading also had a significant positive correlation with their rating of their ability in English non-academic reading ($r = .77$, $p < .01$) as well as to the number of books they read during the quarter — which I view as an indicator of motivation ($r = .68$, $p < .01$).

Other significant correlations were found in comparing the Spring 1993 students' rating of their enjoyment of both academic and non-academic reading in English with their native language ($r = .70$, $p < .01$ and $r = .73$, $p < .01$, respectively). As a variable, the native language was labeled as Asian (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indonesian) or Non-Asian (Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic) because of the low number of subjects.

Upon closer look at the correlations, it can be seen that, of the Asians, not one rated his/her enjoyment as "a lot" for either academic or non-academic reading in English, and that, in fact, most of them rated their enjoyment of academic English reading as "not much." On the other hand, of the non-Asians, most rated their enjoyment of non-academic English reading as "a lot," and none of them rated their enjoyment of academic English as "not much" (see Table 2).

TABLE 2: Comparison of Students' Native Language with Enjoyment of Reading in English

		Non-Academic			Academic		
	n	a lot	some	not much	a lot	some	not much
Asian	11	0	9	(1) 1	0	3	8
Non-Asian	8	5	3	0	2 (1)	5	0

In answer to the question, "Do you do more non-academic reading outside of class because of reading lab?" 63 percent answered "yes" and 37 percent answered "no."

DISCUSSION
Study Results

This study was based on the hypothesis that extensive reading for pleasure and interest would have positive effects on ESL students' overall reading proficiency and on their attitudes toward reading in English.

According to this study, university ESL students who participated in a reading lab two hours a week in lieu of instruction showed significant gains in reading proficiency based on the difference in mean gain scores on the TOEFL Reading Test at the beginning and end of a ten-week academic term.

Also in support of the hypothesis was the finding of a highly significant positive correlation between the subjects' rating of their confidence and their pleasure in reading academic English ($r = .83$, $p < .001$). This may mean that ESL students who are more proficient—or who at least feel proficient—enjoy reading in English more than those with less confidence in their ability. The subjects' confidence in English academic reading, measured in terms of their self-rating of their ability, also had significant correlations with their confidence in English non-academic reading and their motivation to read, measured in terms of the number of books read in reading lab ($p < .01$). Interestingly, the reading/composition course in which the subjects were enrolled was based on academic objectives, but the materials in the reading lab were non-academic in nature, primarily comprising fiction. There was also a significant correlation between the subjects' enjoyment of reading in English, both academic and non-academic, with their enjoyment of reading in their native language.

It might be seen as a disadvantage that the population studied was not only small, but also diverse. It is difficult to generalize the results to other populations because of that. However, the students of any one term at the Minnesota English Center will be from a variety of language backgrounds, so the practicality of studying a diverse group allows adjustments to be made for and by such a population as may be found in this and other ESL programs in the United States.

Some discussion should be given to other factors besides the reading lab which might have influenced the results of the study. Although the instructors' course materials and course assignments were basically the same, or at least similar in nature, for both Spring 1992 and Spring 1993, these factors were not controlled by the experimenter. Furthermore, subjects were drawn from multiple sections of reading/composition courses. However, the learning objectives for these courses remained constant across terms and across sections. The comparison of students in parallel (i.e., Spring 1992 and Spring 1993) rather than consequtive terms was an attempt to account for other factors that may influence language devel-

opment, such as seasonal changes and cultural adjustment stages which are affected by the length of time students have been in the country and the program. Students in the experimental group (Spring 1993) may have also been influenced by the generally positive feedback given by those who had participated in the reading lab as part of their courses in the Fall 1992 and Winter 1993 terms.

In a future study, perhaps subjects could be allowed to participate and be observed and evaluated over a longer period of time. Certainly an attitudinal questionnaire or survey should be given at the beginning as well as the end of the duration of the study in order to assess any changes the students have in their attitudes toward reading in English. The TOEFL is a convenient and widely used standard of English proficiency, but a different reading test that is non-academic in nature and is a more global measure of reading comprehension could be used. Such a test could be given before and after the students' participation in the reading lab in order to assess gains more accurately. A true control group (or groups) should be set up so that the design of the study would be more experimental in nature.

Because this study was not a "true experiment" in which all but one independent variable are controlled and subjects are randomly assigned to control or experimental groups (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), the differences between the two groups cannot all be accounted for. The TOEFL Reading Test, however, is a standardized test, and although a comparison could not be made between the gain scores of the two groups in this study, the significant gain in the mean score of the group which had reading lab is in the direction which would be expected in support of the Reading/Input Hypothesis.

The correlation between the subjects' TOEFL Reading Test scores and their answers to the questionnaire was not significant, but the significant gains in proficiency as measured by the TOEFL, and the correlations among the attitudinal factors of the questionnaire are noteworthy in themselves.

Significant correlations that were observed among the confidence factor (subjects' self-assessment of their ability), the pleasure (enjoyment) factor, the motivation factor (number of books read) and native language in this study can only be used to describe the patterns observed among these subjects and not to determine causal relationships. However, it does seem logical that students would enjoy reading in English if they felt confident in their ability. But whether they are confident because of their native language background or from the ability they gained by being "enabled" to read in the reading lab, is difficult to ascertain. We could say the same about the number of books read. Did certain individuals read more books because they discovered that they enjoyed reading in

English, or did they enjoy reading in English because they were able to read more books? It is not so surprising that confidence and enjoyment apparently go hand in hand, but which causes the other or how either are caused was not determined by this study. That a number of students seemed to have positive attitudes about reading is, however, encouraging. Certainly language learners, especially those with academic goals, could be made aware of such high correlations among the subjects' self-ratings of ability in English academic reading with (a) their ability in English non-academic reading, (b) their enjoyment of English academic reading, and (c) the number of books they read for pleasure in the reading lab.

Something for teachers and researchers to consider is how one's native language background might affect one's confidence and enjoyment of reading in English. For that matter, the reading lab situation may be one that is culturally difficult to accept for some students. It might be encouraging for students to see that their ability and confidence in reading non-academic English materials (of which the reading lab is comprised) might somehow be connected to their success, or at least confidence in academic reading. Perhaps if some students are skeptical about the effectiveness of using time for pleasure reading they will reconsider their opinion when they see that there may be some relationship between pleasure reading and proficiency.

Much more needs to be studied on the use of reading labs as a supplemental or integral part of ESL (or EFL) programs for university students and adults in order to determine exactly what effect the reading lab has on attitudes and language acquisition, and causal relationships among the various factors. In any case, reading more has not been of any harm to the subjects of this study and others. Language learners should continue to be encouraged to read and be exposed to opportunities and materials to read.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

Given the results of this study with university students and the studies which have been done with children, we can safely say that extensive reading is of great benefit to language learners. Teachers and admistrators of ESL programs ought to consider implementing some sort of extensive reading system, whether it takes the form of a reading lab per se or of some other scheme to encourage pleasure reading in English as a target language. With the wide availability of materials from numerous publishers, there seems little reason not to. Certainly the initial cost of setting up a reading lab (buying books and supplies) and the hours involved in collecting, labeling and cataloging books seem considerable, but a reading lab library can be built up and maintained over time. Once the sys-

tem is in operation, it can be expanded and improved in increments.

Program administrators may need some convincing that the expense and effort required to establish and sustain a reading lab within a program is worthwhile. Although public libraries are available for use to learners in an English-speaking country, the task of finding high-interest books at the appropriate level remains daunting for the language learner. A reading lab provides a large number of books suitable to the language proficiency level as well as the maturity of older students. Learners in EFL contexts have even more need for reading labs, as their exposure to the target language is limited. The practical considerations of limited budgets, lack of resources, communication difficulties, and costs of shipping may be obstacles to setting up a reading lab overseas, particulary in developing countries. However, in some cases a portion of a resource budget or grant monies may be obtainable for such a purpose.

When setting up a reading lab, attention should be given to choosing books which are of high interest to those who will read them. Ideally, learners would be surveyed for their preferences prior to the selection of books. When that is not possible, it may be wise to provide books that offer a wide range of style and interest, from romance to folk tales to mysteries, for example. Later, by keeping record of the books read most often (one purpose of the simple book reports mentioned in the Instrumentation section) and with input from the learners, new books can be added which cater to the general preferences of the learners.

Teachers who love to read are themselves the best promoters of reading for pleasure. A teacher's enthusiasm for reading and a keen interest in what students are reading can encourage ESL learners to read in English. Of course, many students will already be lovers of reading in their own language. A teacher can encourage them to talk about their favorite books and authors in their own language and help them find the books in English translation, if possible. Students may also enjoy having time to discuss what they are reading with their classmates.

A designated time for "free reading" during class or in a reading lab affords students an opportunity to read that they might not give themselves on their own. This is not the time for a teacher to grade quizzes or plan the next day's lesson. Beyond the minimal amount of time it takes to run the reading lab (helping students find, check out or return materials, collecting book reports, etc.), the teacher, also, should be reading. This can be one's own book or books from the reading lab. Being familiar with the contents and levels of difficulty of the reading lab books will help a teacher make recommendations to students.

The main thing to keep in mind is that the reading lab is for pleasure—a low-stress, highly motivating activity. Hopefully, students will carry the "reading habit" out of the lab and into their daily lives, becom-

ing proficient and confident in English as their second language and unlocking the wealth of ideas to be found in books that otherwise would not be available to them.

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Appendix A

Reading Questionnaire
Your answers as an individual will be kept confidential.

Class & Section: _____ Date: _____
Name: _____
Age: _____ Sex: ___F ___M
Native Language: _____

Please check the answer that best applies to you.

How long did you study English in your own country?
__less than 1 year __1-2 years __2-4 years
__4-6 years __more than 6 years

How long have you studied English in an English-speaking country?
__0-3 months __4-6 months __6-9 months
__10 months-1 year __1-2 years __more than 2 years

Have you ever taken an English reading class before? If so, where and for how long? _____

What are your reasons for learning to read English? Please rank the reasons below, as they apply to you. (1 = most important; 7 = least important)

__to study in a college or university in the U.S. (or other English-speaking country)
__to translate technical material
__to communicate with Americans (and other English speakers) here in the U.S.
__to conduct business with English speakers overseas (in my own country)
__to learn about American culture
__to grow as a person
__Other (please explain):
_____

How well do you think you read? Please rate your reading ability:

How much do you enjoy reading? Please indicate below:

On average, how much time do you spend doing English reading assignments each night?

__less than 15 minutes __15-30 minutes __30 minutes-1 hour
__1-2 hours __more than 2 hours

On average, how much time do you spend pleasure reading in English each day (not including reading lab)?

__less than 15 minutes __15-30 minutes __30 minutes-1 hour
__1-2 hours __more than 2 hours

Do you do more non-academic reading outside of class because of reading lab?

___yes ___no

How well do you think you read? Please rate your reading ability:

	Non-Academic Reading (popular magazines, novels, etc.)				Academic Reading (textbooks, scientific journals, etc.)			
	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Native Language:	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
English:	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

	Non-Academic Reading (popular magazines, novels, etc.)			Academic Reading (textbooks, scientific journals, etc.)		
	a lot	some	not much	a lot	some	not much
Native Language:	___	___	___	___	___	___
English:	___	___	___	___	___	___

Appendix B

Appendix: Table of Intercorrelations between TOEFL scores, background information, and attitudinal variables.

	Ability to Read: L2 - Non-acad	Ability to Read: L2 - Academic	Enjoy Reading: L1 - Non-acad	Enjoy Reading: L1 - Academic	Enjoy Reading: L2 - Non-acad	Enjoy Reading: L2 - Academic
L1	.5324	.5706	.2282	.5745	**.7303***	**.6988***
Sex	-.2218	-.2634	-.2282	.0287	-.0913	-.1165
Age	.1713	.1304	-.2034	.0853	.1559	.1384
# of books read during quarter	.5099	**.6776***	.1706	.2346	.5814	.4032
Entrance TOEFL Reading Test	.1581	.2161	-.3125	.3425	-.0316	.3494
Exit TOEFL Reading Test	.4087	.5704	-.1423	.2513	.3915	.4540
Ability to Read: L1 - Non-acad	.3993	.3512	.0913	.0287	.2282	.3494
Ability to Read: L1 - Academic	.3155	.6536	-.1928	.1517	-.0771	.4674
Ability to Read: L2 - Non-acad	1.0000	**.7673***	.0648	.1274	.3888	**.7235***
Ability to Read: L2 - Academic	**.7673***	1.0000	-.1923	.3102	.3606	**.8282****
Enjoy Reading: L1 - Non-acad	.0648	-.1923	1.0000	-.1259	.4000	-.2552
Enjoy Reading: L1 - Academic	.1274	.3102	-.1259	1.0000	.1259	.6022
Enjoy Reading: L2 - Non-acad	.3888	.3606	.4000	.1259	1.0000	.2552
Enjoy Reading: L2 - Academic	**.7235***	**.8282****	-.2552	.6022	.2552	1.0000
Daily Time on Reading Hmwk	.5184	.3126	.3000	-.1259	.4000	.2552
Daily Time on Pleasure Reading	.5257	.6537	-.3801	-.1196	.1754	.4849

*p<.01; **p<.001

NOTES

[1]The following is a list of publishers whose books—including ESL graded readers (indicated by an asterisk, *) and non-ESL books—have been used in the Minnesota English Center Reading Lab (as of June 1995): Alemany Press*, Bantam Skylark Changing World Series, Collier-MacMillan English Readers*, Dell Yearling, Fearon's Amazing Adventures, Globe Fearon Fastbacks, HarperCollins Publishers, Heinemann Guided Readers*, Longman*, Longman American Structured Readers*, Longman Bridge Series*, Longman Classics*, Longman Fiction Series*, Literacy Volunteers of NYC Writer's Voices, Macmillan Advanced Reader Series*, Maxwell Macmillan International, Newport House, Newbury House Readers*, New Readers Press, Oxford Bookworms*, Oxford Progressive Readers*, Oxford Streamline Graded Readers*, Puffin Books, Pocket Books, Random House*, Regents Illustrated Classics*, Regents Readers*, Rosen Publishing Group, Scholastic Inc. (Courtesy of Patricia A. Eliason and Thomas C. Richards, MEC.)

[2]Six levels of difficulty based on core vocabulary: (1) yellow, 300-600 words; (2) orange, 500-750 words; (3) green, 900-1250 words; (4) white, 1300-1500 words; (5) red, 1600-1800 words; (6) blue, 2000 words or more. (Courtesy of Pat Eliason and Tom Richards, MEC.)

[3]TOEFL is a registered trade mark of the Educational Testing Service.

[4]This term is used by Peirce (1992), whose work for the ETS in test development included creating and analyzing a reading test in 1986. See References.

[5]Since the time of this study, the TOEFL Reading Test has been modified. Section 3, formerly Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension, is now, in tests given after July 1995, only Reading Comprehension, and is composed strictly of reading passages and questions about the information in those passages (ETS, 1995 p. 9, 12).

[6]Scores were obtained by permission.

The Paraphrasing Process of Native Speakers: Some Implications for the ESL Classroom

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To acquire academic writing skills, ESL students in American universities need to know both why and how to paraphrase. Writing texts typically deal only superficially with the issue of paraphrase. In an attempt to discover more about the actual process writers engage in as they paraphrase, native English speakers were asked to paraphrase sentences and to think aloud while doing so. Information gathered during these verbal report sessions was analyzed and organized into a taxonomy of strategies. This taxonomy offers a better understanding of the complexities of the process of paraphrasing. It can help writing teachers supplement their textbooks and can give ESL students a clearer sense of the tasks involved in this very complex skill.

INTRODUCTION

In the American university classroom, paraphrasing is a critical skill. Paraphrasing is necessary when writing a research paper, summarizing a reading, or writing an essay test. A second language writer must know why paraphrasing is necessary as well as how to paraphrase. The "why" of paraphrasing is a cultural matter. For example, if one's native country places less emphasis on individualism than does the United States, the necessity for putting an author's words into one's own English phrasing may not be apparent (Mlynarczyk and Haber, 1991). On the other hand, the "how" of paraphrasing is linguistic, involving accurate comprehension and facility in manipulating both grammar and vocabulary. This makes paraphrasing a difficult task for any second language writer.

Students enrolled in my freshman-level ESL college reading course were the impetus for this study. When asked to show their reading comprehension by making notes or writing a summary of a reading, it was apparent that students were doing little or no paraphrasing, even when it was requested. This led me to question whether the "why" and the "how" of paraphrasing were clear to them. Questioning the class revealed that all students did not understand why paraphrasing is necessary. My

students also said that knowing how to paraphrase was difficult. Therefore, the first step was to explain plagiarism to the students and clarify why paraphrasing was necessary. Once students understood the importance of avoiding plagiarism, a larger obstacle remained. This was the technical "how" of paraphrasing -- altering the grammar and vocabulary of the original without changing its meaning.

Paraphrasing is a multi-faceted skill, which requires time and effort to master, as well as teach. Unfortunately, paraphrasing is often only superficially dealt with in textbooks. This paper will briefly examine some writing textbooks, for both native and non-native speakers of English, that deal with plagiarism, paraphrasing, and instruction in paraphrasing. In an attempt to better understand the complexities of writing a paraphrase, this paper will report on a study of the paraphrasing process of two graduate-level native speakers, using a verbal report methodology. The ultimate goal is useful information on how to better teach this skill.

SUMMARY OF THE TEXTBOOK SURVEY

An examination of nine commonly used reading and writing textbooks (Appendix A) revealed some common patterns. First, not all of these books aimed at academic writers (and readers) overtly mentioned plagiarism. However, those that did generally agreed that plagiarism is a serious problem which is often unintentional but can have repercussions at a university. Some books went so far as to differentiate between different types of plagiarism, creating a continuum ranging from merely copying the original with no changes made and no quotation marks added (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984) to attempted paraphrasing with insufficient changes made (Strenski and Manfred, 1985). Plagiarism was also said to appear obvious in a second language student's paper (Shoemaker, 1985) and to be recognizable to a teacher due to familiarity with student work (Hamp-Lyons and Courter).

Some of the texts offered advice on avoiding plagiarism; teachers were said to not expect perfection in student writing (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984). Students were encouraged to use their own style and to paraphrase while taking notes (Lester, 1987). Reasons given for paraphrasing were to show understanding of a reading, to replace the heavy use of quotations in writing, and to show recognition of the original author's ownership of his/her words. Documentation, quotation, and a bibliography were mentioned as other ways of giving proper credit to the original author.

Regarding actual ways to paraphrase, students were told to write a paraphrase of approximately the same length as the original. Students were told not to omit ideas or change the meaning of the original. Changes

from the author's style to the student's style are expected, as are changes to vocabulary. Regarding vocabulary, it was also noted that certain specialized vocabulary need not or should not change (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984).

Suggested changes to grammar were more numerous and varied. Common, repeated suggestions included changing active sentences to passive and changing transitions. Less common suggestions were changing parts of speech (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984) and changing word order (Adams and Dwyer, 1982). Only five of the texts, however, suggested changing both grammar and vocabulary.

Beyond advice on what to change, some texts included a list of steps or tips for paraphrasing. A common first step was to read and understand. However, only Adams and Dwyer (1982) suggested a method for achieving understanding; they discussed analyzing a sentence for the relationship between ideas within it, such as cause and effect. Following understanding came: looking up words and choosing synonyms, looking away from the original, outlining or listing key points of the original, writing a paraphrase, checking the paraphrase against the original, and revising the paraphrase.

Finally, two texts conceded that paraphrasing is a difficult skill requiring practice. However, not all of the books included paraphrasing practice. Some included samples of good and bad paraphrases to be analyzed by students. Others included some exercises for practicing the methods explained in the text.

While none of these texts was ideal on its own, taken together one could compile some useful information. A teacher, however, does not have time during the term to survey numerous texts for every major skill that is being taught. A handout (Appendix B), designed to help students better understand plagiarism and how to avoid it by providing some tips on paraphrasing, was an early result of this survey. In class, I used this handout in conjunction with paraphrasing exercises from the course text (Latulippe, 1987), along with as much other paraphrasing practice as could be worked in to the quarter-long course. Yet difficulties with paraphrasing remained.

Tarone and Yule (1989) state that material in textbooks may not be giving students what they need, and that it is better to discover what fluent speakers of a language do in a target situation. Based on this, the research question became: what processes do native speakers use when they paraphrase?

RESEARCH ON THE PARAPHRASING PROCESS OF NATIVE SPEAKERS

Research on the paraphrasing process of native speakers is scarce. Odean (1986) analyzed and quantified the paraphrase products of native and non-native speakers. She had two main research questions. The first focused on a comparison of the number of vocabulary and grammar changes made to the original by native and non-native speakers. Odean found that the ESL paraphrasers made fewer grammatical changes than the native speakers. On the other hand, regarding changes to vocabulary, the ESL students made about the same number of changes as the native speakers. However, their vocabulary changes were made with the help of a dictionary while the native speakers' were not.

Odean's (1986) second research question focused on how well both groups of students preserved the meaning of the original in their paraphrases. Here, the native speakers were more accurate, even though they made more grammatical changes to the original than the non-native speakers did. In 1987, Odean stated that to teach a skill as complex as paraphrasing, the basic components of the task must be determined, categorized, and taught in a logical order. She also noted that textbook materials on teaching paraphrasing are not sufficient for the development of this skill.

Campbell (1987) also compared native and non-native speakers' writing products, focusing on their incorporation of background text material into a paper. When analyzing the use of source text information by these undergraduates, she noted if information was quoted, copied, or paraphrased. In general, results showed that native speakers performed better than non-native speakers in overall writing, and their addition of source material was done more smoothly. However, both groups exhibited problems in incorporating source material. Furthermore, Campbell admitted that her work was focused on product, not process, and suggested that further research focus on process. She also noted a problem with textbooks on this topic.

Kelly (1991) pointed out again that writing texts do not teach process to students, especially in the areas of citation, quotation, and paraphrasing. Arrington (as cited in Kelly, 1991) stated that texts merely warn students that they need to paraphrase, but do not tell them how to do it.

In summary, these findings further indicate the difficulty of paraphrasing and related skills. They also note that textbook information on this topic is insufficient, and that process studies are rare or non-existent. Finally, they suggest the possibility that native speakers might have something helpful to share with non-native speakers on this topic. Therefore,

insights into what native speakers do during this process may be of assistance to ESL students, as well as being a good supplement to the information that is currently available.

THE STUDY

Method

To examine the complexities of the process of paraphrasing, two native speakers were asked to paraphrase four sentences and, while doing so, they were instructed to think-aloud. This study was limited to two subjects due to the intensity of the verbal report method and the detail-oriented nature of the data being gathered.

Verbal report was chosen because it allows observation of the strategies employed during the process of using language. Cohen (1987) describes verbal report as a learner's description of the thinking processes of which (s)he is aware. However, Seliger (cited in Cohen, 1987) notes a potential problem with verbal report based on the premise that these mental processes may be largely unconscious and, therefore, unobservable via this technique. Another of the key criticisms of verbal report summarized by Cohen (1991, pp. 136-137) is its "potentially intrusive effect" and the chance that the data collected could be unnatural or inaccurate due to this intrusion on the learner's thought processes.

On the other hand, White (cited in Cohen, 1987) notes that the exercise of verbal report can help a learner to pay better attention to his/her mental processes. Verbal report can be a useful addition to other types of research if data are collected properly (by providing enough prior training, for example, on the terminology to be used while reporting, and by giving clear instructions which assist the subject's reporting without providing so much information as to sway the subject's performance), and the criticisms above are kept in mind (Cohen, 1991).

Verbal report may be accomplished in one or more of the following ways. In 'self-report', learners describe their actions or categorize their learning in general terms. In 'self-observation', learners describe their actions specifically. 'Self-observation' can take place introspectively (as the actions occur) or retrospectively (as soon as possible after the occurrence of an action). Finally, 'self-revelation' is neither general nor specific. It asks learners to 'think-aloud' while performing, describing their performance in a "stream-of-consciousness" manner (Cohen, 1987, p. 84).

In this study a combination of all three types of verbal report was used. The emphasis was on self-revelation, but elements of self-observation and even self-report were also present. In elicitation of information

during the task, "self-initiated" elicitation was preferred; that is, participants were primarily responsible for verbalizing whatever came into their minds. However, when there was a lull in the flow of information or a lack of clarity, the elicitation became "other-initiated" (Faerch and Kasper, 1987, p. 17-18); that is, the researcher would offer some direction (usually in the form of a question) in an effort to get the subject going again with his/her verbalization.

As they paraphrased, the subjects were expected to explain what processes and strategies they were using. Their statements were recorded for future transcription and analysis. Strategies observed within the transcripts would be organized into a taxonomy. Described by Bialystok (1990, p. 37), taxonomies are "systematic organizing structures for a range of events within a domain." Elements in a taxonomy are grouped on the basis of similarity. As much as possible, strategies discovered in this study would be placed in the sequence in which they occurred and like items would be grouped together where possible within these larger divisions (for example, all vocabulary strategies together).

Procedure

The sentences to be paraphrased were chosen from a sociology textbook used in a college course my ESL students were taking. The actual excerpt (Appendix D) was chosen, because my students had had problems paraphrasing sentences from it. Four sentences that dealt either with main ideas of the piece or with key supporting details were chosen from within the excerpt. Per White (cited in Cohen, 1987), attention was paid to the difficulty of the sentences; sentences with idioms and other complexities were avoided as not to confound the basic process. Sentences were chosen over paragraphs because of their finite nature and the concise, yet meaningful, ideas contained within.

Instructions and accessory materials for the study were then prepared. First, participants were given a worksheet containing basic instructions and the four sentences to be paraphrased, along with work space (Appendix C). Second, they were told to skim or read the prepared textbook survey handout (Appendix B) on the whys and hows of paraphrasing. Next, they read the entire selection from which the sentences to be paraphrased had come (Appendix D), followed by some sample paraphrases that had been written for another sentence from this text (Appendix E). Finally, the researcher prepared a list of possible questions to ask the subjects in order to support the verbal report activity (Appendix F). There were primarily open-ended questions to ask during the actual paraphrasing session, as well as more focused questions to ask immediately after the paraphrasing had been done.

Subjects

The informants were two native English speakers, both of whom had undergraduate degrees, as well as graduate school experience. Graduate students were chosen due to their prolonged exposure to academic writing; it was hoped that they would possess a certain expertise and familiarity with writing that would yield more useful strategies for beginning college writers. While no attempt was made to analyze the accuracy or skill of their paraphrasing products, both readily agreed to the task, and said they enjoyed reading and writing. One, "Bob", had completed a Master's degree in Library Science. The other, "Anne", was an elementary school teacher taking courses towards a Master's degree in education.

Analysis

As mentioned earlier, after each verbal report the tape was transcribed, taking care to clearly reproduce what the subjects were reading, writing, and, as much as possible, thinking. Parentheses were used to note pauses, reading time, writing time, extraneous material which was omitted, agreement by the researcher, and interruptions/distractions. Brackets were used to fill in background/extra information deemed necessary to the reader's understanding of a subject's or the researcher's meaning. Underlined words signalled those emphasized in the speech of the subjects. Finally, quotation marks were used to mark the words of the original sentences, mark the words of the subjects' paraphrases (when preceded or followed by the parenthetical notation that they were writing), mark unorthodox or coined words/phrases used by the subjects, and to highlight words under consideration for change by the subjects.

Transcriptions are not included here. However, excerpts from the transcripts are included in the following section. Utterances marked with an "A" are Anne's and those marked with a "B" are Bob's; those marked "L" are the researcher's.

RESULTS

Here are the original sentences (Samenow, 1978) plus the final paraphrases of both subjects.

Sentence 1: "We have identified a total of fifty-two thinking patterns that are present in all the criminals in our study."

Anne: Criminals demonstrated 52 types of decision-making skills in one experiment.

Bob: We were able to identify 52 thought patterns among the criminals in our study.

Sentence 2: "Both the white-collar criminal and the street criminal conduct their lives in the same way, even though their styles in crime suggest that they are different types of people."

Anne: Although their criminal patterns indicate separate personality styles, criminals behave identically.

Bob: Although they may appear to be different from each other, white-collar and street criminals, while displaying different criminal activities, actually lead similar lives.

Sentence 3: " Changing the environment does not change the inner man."

Anne: The personality remains constant even when external conditions are rearranged.

Bob: A man's nature is not altered by changes in the environment.

Sentence 4: "Slums are cleared, job opportunities are offered, schooling is provided, but crime remains."

Anne: Steps can be taken to improve the neighborhood, education, and employment of criminals, but criminal activity still exists.

Bob: Education, employment, and slum removal will not reduce crime.

Taxonomy of strategies

What follows is the taxonomy, derived from the transcripts, of the strategies used by one or both subjects during their paraphrasing.

I. Understanding/Pre-paraphrasing
   A. Get the big picture of the sentence
   B. Look for key words/phrases in the original
   C. Analyze sentence parts
   D. Look for relationships between sentences

E. Locate and read original in context of larger reading

II. Making Changes to the Original Text
- A. Grammar changes
  - 1. Reverse/rearrange the order of sentence parts
    - a. Change the subject
    - b. Change order of contrasting clauses
    - c. Reverse cause and effect
    - d. Change order of prior options and conclusion
    - e. Change order of items in a list
  - 2. Return parts to original order
- B. Vocabulary changes
  - 1. Use synonyms from memory
  - 2. Determine which original terms need not change
  - 3. Try a (new) word with the option to change it later
  - 4. Leave a blank and fill in word later
  - 5. Write two possible words that come to mind - choose the best one later
  - 6. Repeat word/phrase out loud - stream-of-consciousness
  - 7. Dictionary
- C. "Lumping" two or more details into one general phrase
- D. "Piecemeal" approach - change one phrase at a time

III. Getting past Roadblocks
- A. Reread the original
  - 1. Alone
  - 2. In context of larger reading
  - 3. Out loud
  - 4. Silently
- B. Stop trying/Go back to sentence later
- C. Read incomplete paraphrase aloud or silently
- D. Go through other ways of saying something mentally

IV. Polishing/Revising the Paraphrase
- A. Compare paraphrase to original
  - 1. Check to see if anything is missing
  - 2. Check to see if anything has been added
  - 3. Check to see if paraphrase is too similar to original
- B. Try to condense/edit paraphrase
- C. Start over completely
- D. Attention to minor grammatical alternatives

V. General Strategies
- A. Just write/go with first impulse
- B. Get warmed up
- C. Take sentences out of order (easiest to hardest)
- D. Keep working - don't lose train of thought
- E. Use dictionary to focus train of thought
- F. Insight
- G. Use schema

VI. Idiosyncratic

Discussion of taxonomy

In the following section, taxonomy items are elaborated upon. Examples of strategies from the transcripts, or a brief explanation of each, have been included.

I. Understanding/Pre-paraphrasing

A. Get the big picture of the sentence

This strategy, named by Bob, involved reading and trying generally to understand the sentence before beginning to write the paraphrase.

L: Do whatever you think is o.k. and is not plagiarism. (Pause) I assume right now you're reading?

B2: Yeah, getting the big picture of it. (Pause) I feel like for some reason I just want to reverse it a little bit and start up with something like: "Our studies show that there are 52"... Start like that. (writes)...

The strategies for understanding what follow are similar and related, but different enough to warrant separate descriptions.

B. Look for key words/phrases in the original

A1: The first thing I would do is look through for key words. So "We have identified 52 thinking patterns in all the criminals in our study. And that makes me think that the researchers have studied the criminals - they've found all the criminals have 52 different thinking patterns...

Anne read original sentence #1 stressing that "fifty-two" and "all" were key words which were crucial to her understanding of the sentence. She later focused on "thinking patterns" as a main idea which had to be carefully represented in her paraphrase of this sentence in order "to retain the essential element."

C. Analyze sentence parts

B21: Once again, the first approach I'd take would be to reverse the two parts dealing with "the inner man" first. The fact that he won't change because the environment is changed. So, I'll work with the second part of the original sentence first. I'm just rereading the whole sentence again to see how the two parts fit together.

This was a common strategy for both subjects and one which was especially evident in sentences 3 and 4. In #3, Bob noted the two parts - one dealing with "changing the environment" and another dealing with "the inner man." Before paraphrasing sentence 4, both subjects noted that it consists of one conclusion ("crime remains"), preceded by three areas of change ("slums", "job opportunities", and "schooling").

Other considerations when analyzing a sentence included determining the number of thoughts in a sentence, looking at general versus specific information, determining the number of phrases in a sentence, and considering the length of a sentence.

D. Look for relationships between sentences

When beginning sentence 4, Anne noticed a connection between it and sentence 3. She then went to the context and discovered that these two sentences occur right next to each other in the larger reading. This strategy was never mentioned by Bob.

E. Locate and read original in context of larger reading

A31: I just want to see where that is [in the context]. Instead of going right before [the sentence], way before. (Reads through most of beginning, up to sentence.)

Before starting her paraphrase of sentence 2, Anne decided to find it in its original context and read it there. (Using the context was common at other points in the paraphrasing process for both participants and will come up again later.)

II. Making Changes to the Original Text

A. Grammar changes

The sequence of grammar changes and vocabulary changes is interchangeable. That is, the choice whether to describe grammar changes or vocabulary changes first is purely arbitrary. Each subject made both types of changes. Which came first in a paraphrasing effort seemed dependent on the original sentence, as well as the preference of the subject.

1. Reverse/rearrange the order of sentence parts

a. Change the subject (sentence 1)

A1: ...So "We have identified 52 thinking patterns in all the criminals in our study."And that makes me think that the researchers have studied the criminals - they've found all the criminals have 52 different thinking patterns. Studies, I would change the order to say that (writes) "Studies have shown 52 thinking patterns that criminals"...

In sentence 1, Anne first changes the subject from "We" to "Studies"/ "The study". She later tries using "52 thinking patterns" as the subject, but settles on "Criminals" in her final draft. Also in #1, Bob first begins with "Our study" as a new subject, which he later drops. In the end, he returned to the original subject "We".

b. Change order of contrasting clauses (sentence 2)

Both subjects paraphrased sentence 2 in basically the same manner. They began with the second part of the original sentence (apparent differences between criminal types) and ended with the first (actual similarities between criminal types). Bob, however, did not settle on this arrangement until his second attempt at paraphrasing this sentence.

c. Reverse cause and effect (sentence 3)

A11: ...even though that is a very simple statement and it makes sense inner man, yeah, I can say personality, environment, external conditions, and just switch the order and all I had to do was flip it, backwards to forwards, so starting with the inner man - and substituted the words and it worked.

Similarly, in the cause and effect arrangement of sentence 3, both subjects determined that it was acceptable to place the effect (inner man stays the same) before the cause (change in the environment) in their paraphrases.

d. Change order of prior options and conclusion (sentence 4)

B27: (reads original) I'd say there's [sic] *two parts, first these three options about slums, jobs, and schools - these conditions may exist, part one - "crime remains", part two. For some reason, I might first switch around the two parts like I did in the previous example just.*

L: You are, or you aren't?

B28: First I thought I'd try it, maybe not. I'll stick with the environment or conditions first, just ignore that last part for now...

Both subjects considered starting their paraphrases with the information that came at the end of the original sentence #4, and consequently putting the original list of three changes at the end of their paraphrases. In other words, the conclusion that "crime remains" would come before the list of items ("slums", "job opportunities", and "schooling") changed (presumably in the effort to alleviate crime). In the end, however, neither of them actually made this switch in the order of sentence parts.

e. Change order of items in a list (sentence 4)

Bob, when paraphrasing sentence 4, determined that one small alteration he could make would be to change the order of the of the three items in the list at the start of the original. His new order was determined by which synonym came to him first. Whereas the original listed "slums" first, followed by "job opportunities" and "schooling", Bob ended up with "education" first, followed by "employment" and "slum removal".

Anne also changed the order of the last two items in the list (using "education" before "employment"), but did not overtly state her plan to do this.

2. Return parts to original order

After originally changing the subject of sentence 1, Bob returned to the original subject in the end. In sentence 4, both subjects considered reordering the two major sentence parts, but ultimately remained with the original placement.

B. Vocabulary changes

1. Use synonyms from memory

L: O.K. now, you did that one much more quickly. Why do you think you just spit that one out so quickly when the other one - can you explain briefly why?

A11: I think because I have more resources available to me as far as synonyms for change, change was used twice. Synonyms for "the environment" - so "external conditions", somehow that just clicked into my head, because the inner versus the outer or "inner man", I just thought "personality"...

In sentence 3, both subjects came up with a synonym for "inner man" quite quickly and easily. In many instances synonyms were used by both subjects.

2. Determine which original terms need not change

B 25: I use the word "environment". I suppose I could say something like "by the surroundings" or that, but I don't think that using the word "environment" here is illegal.

L: That's part of what I want to see. Where is your boundary?

B26: Sometimes, otherwise, if I put in the word "surroundings" it's just like putting in another word just for the sake of putting in a different word in it. It just may not sound right.

Bob thought that changing the word "environment" in sentence 3, to "surroundings" for example, was unnecessary. According to him, a word should not be changed just for the sake of change. He determined that not all vocabulary needs to be altered and that sometimes the original word is the best and left it as is. Bob had the tendency to leave in more original vocabulary than Anne.

3. Try a (new) word with the option to change it later

In sentence 1, Anne first substituted "display" for the verb in the original. She consciously stated that it may be only a temporary choice. She ended up with the verb "demonstrated" in her final draft. In sentence 2, she tried "'behave' for right now" in place of "conduct". She ended up keeping it in her paraphrase after checking the dictionary.

In our discussion after the paraphrasing, Bob said that when paraphrasing, he might initially use some words from the original, which he could change later.

4. Leave a blank and fill in word later

A27:...education and employment of whom? That's my stumbling block. Criminals... (writes)

L: You left a blank. What, until you can think of...

A28: Until I can decide, well, it's not... this particular sentence and the sentence above it does not specifically refer to criminals, it refers to crime so I don't want to use a word for that, for criminals, because it's not talking about that, it's talking about a person and so then I'm thinking, well, we don't know much about who this person is, except the studies were people who had done four kinds of crime.

L: Does the context help you?

A29: Yes, it is criminals...

For sentence 4, Anne could not immediately think of vocabulary to fill certain spots, so she left a blank and filled them in later. She later went back and filled words. Bob also used this strategy in sentence 4. He was stuck on a replacement for "slums are cleared" so he left it and came back to fill it in later.

5. Write two possible words that come to mind - choose the best one later

B22: Yeah, and for some reason, I want to put the second part first. It's how to paraphrase this first idea about the inner man not changing. I'll start out (writes): "A man's/person's..."

When Bob was toying with changing the word "man" in sentence 3 to the

more politically correct "person", he first wrote down both terms. ("A man's/person's...") He later decided that it was acceptable to stick with "man" in this instance. There were no instances of this strategy in Anne's work.

6. Repeat word/phrase out loud - stream-of-consciousness

A4: Thinking patterns, 52, thinking patterns, thinking patterns, mind-sets, thinking ways of thinking, ways of thinking, processing...

In her attempt to find a synonymous phrase for "thinking patterns", Anne went through this process out loud. She eventually went to the dictionary on this one.

7. Consult a Dictionary

A8: Judgment? As I looked up thinking, just the word thinking, and it says opinion and judgment - "thought that is characteristic...of a period, a group, a person" - so I saw the word group and I thought 52 - and the two made sense to me. So the type, like the styles meant styles of the judgment process or the process of forming a judgment or a decision, decision-making! "Decision-making skills" (writes)...

Anne used the dictionary to check on such words as: "thinking", "slum", "clear", "conduct", "white-collar", and "remain". The dictionary helped her come up with synonyms when she had none: "Thinking [patterns]" became "decision-making skills" and "slum" became "neighborhood". She also used it to check if "behave" was a good substitute for "conduct [their lives]". In her opinion, it must have been, because she kept it in her final paraphrase.

Bob looked up "conduct" and "slum". "Conduct" was checked to see if the word he had come up with, "lead", was a good match. He also stated that reading the definition might give him "the whole meaning of the word" and enable him to think of another synonym himself. It was also important for him to not add his interpretation to a word, so he used the dictionary to find the "foundation" of a word, which he hoped to share with the author of the original. When trying to find a synonym for "slum" he found nothing that satisfied him so he kept "slum" in his paraphrase.

C. "Lumping" two or more details into one general phrase

A27: Well, I'd like to lump these three things together. That's what I would like to do, instead of being so specific...That way, I don't have to be so specific. I don't have to come up with what the author's intent was,...

In a couple of sentences, subjects were tempted to "lump together" certain related items. In sentence 2, each considered combining white-collar and street criminals, but only Anne did in her final paraphrase. In sen-

tence 4, Anne considered combining "slums", "job opportunities", and "schooling", but never actually did in her final paraphrase, because she felt that something would be lost.

D. "Piecemeal" approach - change one phrase at a time

Anne coined the name for and used this method with sentence 2. She first broke it into grammatical pieces/phrases. She rearranged the order of these and then altered the vocabulary within them. Bob treated this sentence in a similar manner.

III. Getting past Roadblocks

A. Reread the original

1. Alone

This was a common strategy for both subjects.

2. In context of larger reading

Bob was not clear about sentence 1 and located it in the larger reading to help clarify it. He wanted to know if each criminal had all 52 patterns or only some of them. (Bob ended up leaving this sentence and going back to it later.) He also went to the context for help on sentence 4, but said it didn't help him. Anne used context to try to clarify sentence 4 and the strategy worked for her.

3. Out loud

Perhaps this was only a result of the think-aloud process, although people often say something out loud when trying to puzzle it out.

4. Silently

Subjects stated when they were doing this.

B. Stop trying/Go back to sentence later

This strategy was used by Bob when he got stuck on the first two sentences. He left them, completed the 3rd and 4th sentences, and then returned to finish the ones he had begun earlier. When he went back to them, he ended up totally rewriting sentence 1 and merely checking and leaving sentence 2 as it was. (Anne also left sentence 4 when she couldn't think of a synonym for "remains" and returned to it after she had done another sentence.)

C. Read incomplete paraphrase aloud or silently

This strategy seemed to be used as a way to jog one's mind into go-

ing further or completing a paraphrase.

D. Go through other ways of saying something mentally

B5: (Pause) Sometimes I keep thinking of the same phrases they use in here, so I'm thinking of other ways of saying these...

L: You're going through other ways mentally?

B6: Yeah...

Apparently, drafts of a word or a phrase are not always jotted down. Some are tested and discarded mentally. Bob did this when he found himself paraphrasing with material straight from the original.

IV. Polishing/Revising the Paraphrase

A. Compare paraphrase to original

This was a strategy common to both subjects, though Anne generally seemed more concerned with what might be missing and Bob was more concerned with what might have been added.

1. Check to see if anything is missing

A27: ...Now I just looked back and forth from the original to mine to see if I'm missing something or if I've changed something beyond what it should be...

2. Check to see if anything has been added

B33: Yes, in this case, I don't want to say something the author isn't, so I guess I would err on the side of not adding my own words or ideas to it.

3. Check to see if paraphrase is too similar to original

B33: ...I wrote that without looking back at the original, so now I'm gonna compare it to the original to see if it's too similar...

B. Try to condense/edit paraphrase

B10:...So, I'll just reread my sentence one more time and see how it compares (reads) It's a little wordy, but it still gets the point across. Do I have to get into the editing?

L: Well, what do you think you can do? Do you think it's too wordy to leave it?

B11: Let's see - I might just try to reread my own to see it I can shorten *it up, yet not end up with what the original sentence was...*

On a longer sentence, like #2, Bob felt that his paraphrase got "wordy" and he considered ways of trying to shorten it.

C. Start over completely

B11: ...See, I'm doing that already now - I forgot what the original was, but when I paraphrase or think of other ways to say my own I find that it's, I'm reverting back to the original. (Pause) Maybe I'll just try something completely different.

After initially paraphrasing sentence 2, Bob felt it needed editing. When he was unable to come up with ways to do this, he decided to just start over. He used his first effort as his new beginning point. He also did an entirely new paraphrase of sentence 1 when he wasn't content with it.

D. Attend to minor grammatical alternatives

B17: Yeah, just that one word. I'm pretty content with the structure of the sentence (rereads). I mean there are little grammar things like should it be "activity" or "activities"...

Bob mentioned twice that he wondered about which grammatical alternatives he should choose.

V. General Strategies

A. Just write/go with first impulse

B14: I'm just gonna go ahead with what first comes to mind and then look at it again later.

Bob repeatedly said that he liked to get something down on paper to begin with and go back and change it later. He wrote what first came into his mind and polished it afterwards, a strategy he says he commonly uses when he writes. When starting her paraphrase of sentence 2, Anne mentions going with her "first reaction".

B. Get warmed up

Anne attributed part of the ease of paraphrasing her second sentence to having a process from already doing her first. And in the interview following the paraphrasing, she mentioned that it took her some time to get used to the think-aloud process.

C. Take sentences out of order (easiest to hardest)

A9: Alright, good, I will -- instead of going in order, I might skip around and do the easier ones first and the harder ones later. Or maybe I'll do the harder ones first and get those out of the way.

After struggling with sentence 1, Anne decided to read through all the

remaining sentences before deciding which to take next. After doing so, she settled on #3, because it seemed easier to her. In the interview afterwards, she verified that this is a common strategy for her when taking tests for example. She was surprised at herself for doing #1 first without surveying all the other possibilities. On the other hand, Bob took all the sentences in order the first time through. He says that this is typical of him in any kind of assignment.

D. Keep working - don't lose train of thought

Anne found it important to push herself. If not, she felt that she drifted away from the task and let irrelevant information cloud her work. This was noticeable when she went to the dictionary. If she spent too much time there, she felt she had to go back and get reacquainted with the sentence.

E. Use dictionary to focus train of thought

A70: Right. Then at the one point though I said I let the dictionary make my decision as far as whether or not I would go with an idea. Well, that was when I had no real train of thought - I didn't really know, so I looked to the dictionary, maybe to focus something, because I didn't really have a focus myself.

When she felt her mind wandering, Anne went to the dictionary. She found that searching for synonyms helped her stay on task. When she was unfocused she felt that the dictionary could decide for her.

F. Insight

A49: That was the gut level, just intuitive, knowing it. It made sense to me, I understood it. That was my second - and that wasn't even a strategy, but it was just insightful.

L: It was just there?

A50: The "a-ha" moment.

L: You just wrote it and...

A51: The light bulb went off and...

Anne had one sentence where her response was automatic. In our discussion afterwards she described her ability to immediately paraphrase sentence 3 as "the a-ha moment". She also mentioned that words "leapt out" at her from the dictionary.

Bob likewise had one occasion where he quickly produced a phrase and commented, "This last part I just wrote down without thinking about it too much..." Another time, he mentioned that "sometimes things just pop in" when you are blocked.

G. Use schema

Anne felt that sentence 3 was easy, because she had read about the topic and worked with the idea over the past few years. She paraphrased this sentence almost automatically and attributed this to "background, prior knowledge".

VI. Idiosyncratic

This category included concerns for the subtle connotation of words. One of Bob's first considerations in sentence 3 was whether or not the use of "man" was politically correct. He considered changing it to "person", but ultimately did not. He admitted that this is just "a personal viewpoint".

In sentence 4, Anne considered "ghetto" as a synonym for "slum", but hesitated to use it, because of its pejorative connotation. She said she felt a prejudice about this sentence. In her final paraphrase, she uses "neighborhood" in its place. She felt that this being a sociological reading, the vocabulary should be objective.

Final Interviews

As stated earlier, most of the data described above were collected during the actual paraphrasing and were the result of 'self-revelation' (subjects describing what they did as they did it) with some 'self-observation' prompted by the researcher (example: explaining specifically why they were going to the dictionary when asked). Right after the paraphrasing was completed, critical points (stops, starts, and so forth) in the paraphrasing exercise were reviewed with each subject. Information given here was in the form of either 'self-observation' or 'self-report' (general statements) which are summarized as follows.

In the discussion after the paraphrasing, Anne said that she felt that she had three major methods for paraphrasing: reversing the order of the pieces of the sentence (grammar), intuitively knowing how to paraphrase a sentence (with vocabulary as a starting point), and doing it piecemeal (a combination of grammar and vocabulary changes). She felt that content had a slight edge over grammar when determining how to begin a paraphrase, and generally tried to change vocabulary before grammar. Fear of losing something that the original had was said to be stronger than fear of adding something not in the original. (However, the subject was willing to change a vocabulary item in an attempt to make it more objective.) This subject also paraphrased the sentences out of order.

In his summary, Bob said that he felt that he generally tries to rear-

range or reverse sentence parts as a first step if possible. After any grammar changes come vocabulary changes. He was more worried about adding something that wasn't there than about omitting something that was. This subject originally worked through the sentences in an orderly manner (1-4) and then went back to segments he had not finished.

DISCUSSION

Clearly paraphrasing is not a simple skill for native speaking graduate students. They struggled with understanding the vocabulary and grammar of the original, and whether or not, or how, to make changes to both of these areas. Paraphrasing for these native speakers was a complex process, involving many stops and starts, as well as mental blanks, revisions, and rearrangements. While native speakers have such advantages as greater schema with which to work, in only some instances could these native speakers rely totally on their instincts.

What follows is a general summary of the key activities of these native speakers and how their actions compare to what is in the textbooks.

Understanding

Immediately understanding the original sentence was not a certainty for the subjects in this study. While they had little trouble understanding the basics of the sentence, they sometimes had trouble determining exactly what the author meant. In other words, where non-native speakers might struggle to determine the basic meaning of the original sentence, native speakers seemed to struggle with its interpretations.

Both subjects seemed to take the step of understanding very seriously and used many strategies to accomplish it: rereading the original, locating the sentence in the larger reading, searching for relationships between ideas, and analyzing the form of a sentence. Yet most of the ESL textbooks surveyed glossed over the step of understanding the material to be paraphrased. They merely said to be sure to understand before paraphrasing.

Furthermore, schema is important in the understanding stage. The more familiar a subject was with the concepts and vocabulary of the original sentence, the more readily they could begin and finish their paraphrase. This idea was not seen in the textbooks surveyed here, yet is clearly central to the task of paraphrasing.

Changes

Some books, perhaps in an effort to simplify the skill, listed only a few ways to change the grammar of the original. Such oversimplification is a disservice to students. Clearly, there is more to paraphrasing than changing an active sentence to the passive.

In many cases, both subjects made similar grammatical changes to particular sentences. This suggests that the structure of the original exerts some control over grammatical changes made while paraphrasing. For example, in sentence 1, both subjects considered and one made a change in the subject of the sentence. In sentence 2, changes in contrasting sentence parts were considered and made, and both subjects substituted the transition "although" for "even though". In sentence 3, both reversed cause and effect sections of the original sentence in their paraphrases. And in sentence 4, both considered moving the conclusion at the end of the original sentence to the beginning of their paraphrases, but didn't. (Both subjects did, however, substitute "education" for "schooling" and "employment" for "job opportunities" in sentence 4, as well as struggling with a synonym for "slum".)

Perhaps these similar thought patterns are coincidence, but it is equally likely that they are somehow driven by the grammatical structure and vocabulary of the original. For example, in 1977, Hoar determined that children used different strategies when paraphrasing different types of sentences. The number (one, two, or three) of core nouns in the original sentence determined whether children made changes to vocabulary, syntax, or a combination of both.

Furthermore, both subjects also found certain sentences easier to paraphrase. For example, both quickly and effortlessly paraphrased sentence 3, whereas other sentences gave them much more trouble. The textbooks mentioned earlier did not address analyzing and using the characteristics of original sentences as paraphrasing aids.

The books that gave explicit tips on language changes seemed to go into more detail than these informants did when they verbalized. For example, whereas the informants in this study merely said they "reversed the sentence parts", the texts tended to give a more specific grammatical name for this sort of change. This is probably helpful for second language students, but requires a familiarity with grammatical terminology that they may or may not have.

Regarding vocabulary, most of the texts surveyed oversimplified the act of looking up a word and choosing synonyms. If students know that aside from changing grammar, vocabulary must be changed, how do they decide which words can be changed? Or which words need not or should not be changed? Or if changing a word, which synonym correctly fills

the place of the original? Or how to properly use a dictionary or thesaurus to make this choice? These are all questions asked by the native speaker subjects in this study, as well as by ESL students in the classroom.

The process of paraphrasing

The texts surveyed did convey the idea that paraphrasing is not done in an instant. However, this study shows that paraphrasing is often quite an extended process, even for native speakers. It involves stopping, starting over, revising, and getting warmed up. Each individual, while performing similar steps to another, may go through this process in his/her own way. Unfortunately, the books assume a proficiency in paraphrasing that seems unrealistic even for native speakers and give little or no specific information on how to do it. They focus more on end products than on the process of achieving them.

The texts that did give any information on how to paraphrase did agree on the general strategy of setting the original aside while writing and returning to it to check afterwards. In this study, both subjects actually did this. Conversely, two strategies mentioned in the books were not performed by these subjects: outlining before paraphrasing and posing a question and paraphrasing to get the answer. (These strategies could be more useful when paraphrasing paragraphs rather than sentences.)

Furthermore, some strategies not mentioned in the books were used by the native speaker subjects in this study. One was experimenting with order; that is, when paraphrasing more than one sentence, one can either take them in order or out of order. Anne mentioned this as also being a test-taking strategy of hers, but it was not mentioned in any text on paraphrasing surveyed here. (Again, this might be more useful when working on sentences rather than paragraphs.)

These native speakers also seemed willing to write down anything just to get started, knowing that they could always go back later to amend it. In some cases, they disregarded their original effort and started over from scratch. As one subject said, maybe paraphrasing requires getting warmed up. In other words, practice helps; this is an idea present in only some of the texts surveyed. On a similar note, the subjects of this study seemed to find concentration important. They tried very hard to focus their train of thought as much as possible on the sentence or word on which they were working.

TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

First it should be verified that students understand why paraphrasing needs to be done, and that they know that paraphrasing is much more than just a replacement for quotations in a paper. Then comes the real task: offering adequate instruction in the skill.

Understanding

Helping students to understand the original passsage before they begin to paraphrase is critical. Grammatically, transitions and cohesive markers which show such relationships as contrast or cause/effect in a sentence are useful to highlight. Once it is determined that a sentence contains a cause/effect relationship, for example, a discussion can occur on whether or not these two sentence parts can be interchanged to give a new grammatical form to their paraphrase. Students should be encouraged to look at parts of the sentence as well as the whole. Sentences with and without transitions should be examined and broken into their major pieces. The context can also be helpful in understanding a sentence. As much as possible the instructor should give the class some schema for a particular sentence in order to aid their understanding. Students also need to spend some time working with the vocabulary of the original. Guidance should be provided on which types of words need not or should not change. Time also should be spent on practice using the context, a dictionary, and a thesaurus to choose proper synonyms. Some possible exercises to help students understand the language before paraphrasing are presented in Odean (1987, p. 18). These include "extracting sentence kernels" ('decombining' sentences or breaking down the information within into major sections) and "identifying word groups" (recognizing where one phrase ends and another begins in a sentence). The ESL teacher should make understanding the grammar and vocabulary of the original sentence a primary focus of any paraphrasing lesson.

Changing the original wording

In the study native speakers found some sentences easier to paraphrase than others. It might be possible to use these reactions towards sentences and rank them in order from easy to difficult. That way, students could start with sentences such as number 3, which would give them a greater chance for early success.

It should be stressed to students that paraphrasing involves changes to both grammar and vocabulary. While dealing with changes to one of

these areas at a time may make paraphrasing more manageable, students should not be left with the idea that changes to only one area are enough to constitute a final paraphrase. Numerous changes to every original should be modelled for them.

The process of paraphrasing

ESL writers should be taught that a first draft of a paraphrase need not be perfect. They should trust their instincts and at the same time realize that writings based on those instincts may later be discarded. ESL students might benefit from the knowledge that native speakers also do this while struggling with the process of paraphrasing. Finally, because native speakers had to truly concentrate while paraphrasing, ESL students should be reminded that this skill will require the same focused and long-term attention from them as well.

TOPICS FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION

In a general ESL college reading or writing class, paraphrasing normally does not get the attention it deserves, because there are many other important skills and strategies that must be covered. Paraphrasing seems to often come up as a remedial skill, taught only when a plagiarism problem prompts it. The findings of this study suggest that paraphrasing is a complex skill which benefits from extensive modeling and practice. ESL programs should investigate the possibility of including such a focused course for their students. The results of this study could be used as a basis for preparing a set of materials or a new textbook to better teach this skill to ESL students (and native speakers).

Regarding this particular investigation, there is still much to discover. It is interesting that many of the strategies of these native speakers overlapped, but it is obviously a very small sample. More research could determine if patterns discovered here hold up or if others can be discerned. Furthermore, the verbal report data could be analyzed in many different ways — in terms of both process and product. Aside from looking at which sentences seem easier for native speakers to paraphrase, the kinds of changes they made could be quantified. For example, when vocabulary is changed, what type of word (noun, verb, and so on) is changed most often? If a pattern arises (e.g., nouns being changed twice as often as verbs), that is something that students might be told. Another

possibility would be to perform the same study with non-native speakers thinking-aloud (either in English or in their native language) as they paraphrased.

CONCLUSION

Student writers must understand why and how to paraphrase. For ESL writers, the "why " is a cultural consideration and the "how" is primarily linguistic. No single textbook seems to have a complete description of the "how" of paraphrasing. A closer examination of two native speakers thinking-aloud while paraphrasing provides some insights as to the complex nature of this process. Looking at what native speakers do may help ESL students learn this process, as well as provide teachers with some information not found in textbooks.

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APPENDIX A: TEXTS SURVEYED FOR PARAPHRASING INFORMATION

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APPENDIX B:
PLAGIARISM AND PARAPHRASING HANDOUTS

as summarized from surveyed texts, with some additions by researcher

Handout #1

I. PARAPHRASING - WHY TO DO IT

A. To avoid being guilty of plagiarism

U.S. culture values individualism, creativity, and uniqueness. This is why the published work of writers is copyrighted. When somebody writes in a particular style, they essentially own that style (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984). Everybody who writes, in English or another language, develops a style that is unique to them. This includes you. You can learn from another's style, but don't steal it. Instead, work on developing your own style and doing your own work.

B. To fit into the culture of the U.S. university

Paraphrasing is a skill you must learn in order to succeed academically (Latulippe, 1987). It will probably require time and devotion to learn it well (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984). Good paraphrasing can show your instructor that you understood what you read, as well as showing him/her your writing style.

C. To learn

Working on this skill can help improve your reading, writing, and thinking in English (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984).

II. WHY PARAPHRASING MAY BE HARD FOR YOU

A. Because English isn't your native language, you may have trouble understanding and changing the words and grammar of an author.

B. You may not be very familiar with this skill and need more practice doing it.

C. You need to understand all forms of plagiarism (see next page) to avoid doing it - please ask questions whenever you are not sure.

Note: Even though paraphrasing is difficut, it is important to write in your own words.

III. WHAT INSTRUCTORS THINK

A. Plagiarism is never acceptable.

B. Your style is familiar to us - any change will be noticeable . It is easy to spot plagiarizing.

C. Honest work with some language problems is always preferable to perfect, but plagiarized, material (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984).

IV. WHAT A GOOD PARAPHRASE SHOULD BE LIKE

A. About the same length as the original.

B. The meaning of the original is maintained.

C. The reader/writer changes applicable vocabulary and grammar from the author's style to one's own style (Adams and Dwyer, 1982).

V. TYPES OF INCOMPLETE OR IMPROPER PARAPHRASING = PLAGIARISM (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984)

A. Copying the author's exact words with no quotation marks or citations given.

B. Small changes made to the author's grammar and wording, but style of original remains.

C. Rearranging exact pieces of the original - with no other changes made.

D. Using, but not quoting, a well-written or well-chosen word or phrase of the author's.

Handout #2

PARAPHRASING - HOW TO DO IT

SUGGESTED PROCESS:

- Read the original
- Make sure you understand the original well
  - -- Read the original two or more times (as necessary)
  - -- Check key vocabulary
  - -- Look at the grammatical form
  - -- Ask questions of your teacher, tutor, and so on
- Put the original away
- Write a rough paraphrase, using what you remember

•. Check the original - did you miss any key points?
(Put it away again after you've checked.)
• Revise your paraphrase until the ideas of the author are ex pressed in your style

TECHNIQUES AND EXAMPLES

1. Changing Vocabulary (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984, p. 4)
--Specialized vocabulary should remain the same
a. Terms with no synonyms
ex. calcium, neuron
b. Proper names
ex. Europe, World Health Organization
--Some of the vocabulary that is not specialized should be changed to a more basic form = synonym
ex. "Researchers suggest..." = *SCIENTISTS EXPLAIN...
(Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984, p. 133)

***IMPORTANT:** The examples only show one change. This alone is not enough to be a complete paraphrase. A writer will need to change the original wording in several ways before it is a good paraphrase.*

2. Changing Grammar

-- Change transitions (Latulippe, 1987, p. 102)

ex."Since electric car batteries must be recharged every day, we will have to build more electric power plants." = ELECTRIC CAR BATTERIES MUST BE RECHARGED EVERY DAY; THEREFORE, WE WILL HAVE TO BUILD MORE ELECTRIC POWER PLANTS.

Sometimes the punctuation changes with the transition. In a more complex paraphrase, the word order and sentence structure may change as well.

ex. "While hunger, thirst, and sleepiness cause a person to seek food, drink, or sleep, pain leads to escape or avoidance rather than to seeking."
(Arnaudet, Barrett, 1984, p. 42) = WHEREAS PAIN LEADS TO ESCAPE

OR AVOIDANCE (RATHER THAN TO SEEKING), HUNGER, THIRST, AND SLEEPINESS CAUSE A PERSON TO SEEK FOOD, DRINK, OR SLEEP.

-- Change the sentence from active to passive (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984, 73-74)

ex. "Social motives play a very important role." = A VERY IMPORTANT ROLE IS PLAYED BY SOCIAL MOTIVES.

-- Change the part of speech (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984, p. 93)

ex. "Reagan succeeded [verb] Carter as President of the United States." = REAGAN WAS CARTER'S SUCCESSOR (noun).

-- Change the structure via clauses or phrases (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984, p. 140)

ex. "Although neurons come in many different shapes and sizes, they are all specialized to receive and transmit information." (adverb clause) =

DESPITE THEIR DIFFERENT SHAPES AND SIZES, NEURONS ARE ALL SPECIALIZED TO RECEIVE AND TRANSMIT INFORMATION (adv. phrase)

or

THE DIFFERENT SHAPED AND SIZED NEURONS ARE ALL SPECIALIZED TO RECEIVE AND TRANSMIT INFORMATION. (noun phrase)

-- Combine 2 sentences into one using a relative clause (Latulippe, 1987, pp. 102-104)

ex. "Matter occupies space and has mass. All things are made up of matter." = EVERYTHING IS MADE UP

OF MATTER, WHICH HAS
MASS AND TAKES UP SPACE.

-- Use indirect quotations (Oshima &Hogue, 1983)

ex. "Jones stated, 'Abortion is murder.'"
(Oshima and Hogue, p. 55)= JONES STATED THAT ABOR
TION IS MURDER.

(Note: The examples given above show possible ways to change something form the original. Remember, however, that these are not examples of a parapharse, because not enough of the original has been changed.)

USING DIRECT QUOTATION

Quotes should be used with restraint. Quote the exact words of the original only when

a) you want to use the complex words of an expert, or

b) the words are especially expressive or concise.

Note: If you must quote something, do so only if you're sure you understand it well (Hamp-Lyons and Courter, 1984). Remember, you're better off paraphrasing in most cases, and doing so will help ensure that you understand the material.

TIPS FOR SUCCESS

- Use a good dictionary and/or thesaurus, with example sentences, to understand and make changes to vocabulary (Arnaudet and Barrett, 1984.)

- Use a variety of the techniques above in each paraphrase — one small change does not make a paraphrase. If you don't change enough, you are plagiarizing.

- Ask questions at any point in the process — get help from your instructor, a tutor, and so on.

- Practice this skill — it will take some time and energy.

APPENDIX C:
THINK-ALOUD INSTRUCTIONS AND WORKSHEET

PARAPHRASING

A. Read through the information on paraphrasing.

B. Read the piece by Samenow. When finished, I will show you some model paraphrases.

C. Paraphrase the sentences below - enough so that you would not be accused of plagiarism. (Put them in your own words and grammar while retaining the meaning of the original.) Refer back to the original text if necessary. Use a dictionary and/or Thesaurus if needed.

D. While paraphrasing, try to think out loud about the process - it will be taped. I may interrupt occasionally to ask what you're doing.

E. Interview/Debrief

All sentences taken from Samenow, 1978.

1. "We have identified a total of fifty-two thinking patterns that are present in all the criminals in our study."

2."Both the white-collar criminal and the street criminal conduct their lives in the same way, even though their styles in crime suggest that they are different types of people."

3. "Changing the environment does not change the inner man."

4. "Slums are cleared, job opportunities are offered, schooling is provided, but crime remains."

APPENDIX D:
READING FROM WHICH SENTENCES WERE TAKEN

"We have identified a total of fifty-two thinking patterns that are present in all the criminals in our study. At the outset, we surmised that we would discover different profiles for criminals who had committed different kinds of crimes - property, sex, and assault. This turned out not to be the case. Criminals do differ in the types of crimes they commit and in their *modi operandi*. The man who uses stealth and cunning may avoid fights for fear of physical injury, but, more significantly, he looks down on the criminal who uses force, seeing him as crude. The criminal who uses "muscle" regards the conman as "weak" or "sissy." However, if one examines how criminals live their lives, how they regard themselves and the outside world, the similarities far outweigh the differences. Furthermore, we found that the criminal charged with a sexual offense has committed other types of crimes. The same is true of the others, although their police records do not reveal this. Both the white-collar criminal and the street criminal conduct their lives in the same way, even though their styles in crime suggest that they are different types of people. All criminals are habitual liars. They fail to put themselves in the place of others (unless it is to scheme a crime). They do not know what responsible decision making is, because they have prejudged most situations and find no need to ascertain facts and consider alternative courses of action. They believe that the world is their oyster and that people are pawns, while they have no obligation to anyone. In short, they share all fifty-two thinking patterns that we describe in our writings. Criminality goes far beyond mere arrestability. It pertains to the way in which a person thinks and lives his life....

Changing the environment does not change the inner man. Slums are cleared, job opportunities are offered, schooling is provided, but crime remains. More of our criminals had jobs than were unemployed. But providing a criminal with job skills and then a job results in a criminal with a job rather than a criminal without a job. He remains a criminal. He may utilize his job for his own gain, commit crimes on the job, or use his job as a mantle of respectability, which leaves him free to live a secret life of crime outside his work."

Samenow, Stanton E. (1978, Sept/Oct). The criminal personality: New concepts and new procedures for change. *The Humanist*. Rpt. in Eitzen, D. Stanley and Zinn, Maxine Baca. (1992). *Social problems*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

APPENDIX E:
MODEL PARAPHRASES FOR SUBJECTS

Original sentence

"At the outset, we surmised that we would discover different profiles for criminals who had committed different kinds of crimes - property, sex, and assault." (Samenow, 1978)

Possible paraphrases

1) Originally, it was guessed that people performing different criminal acts would be found to have different mind-sets.

2) In the beginning, it was thought that unique criminal profiles for perpetrators of each type of crime (such as assault) would be uncovered.

3) At the start, findings were expected to show that those perpetrating each different offense would possess a different personality type.

4) Early expectations were that each group of offenders would have a specific set of thought patterns, depending on the sort of crime they committed

APPENDIX F:
POTENTIAL QUESTIONS FOR THINK-ALOUD

During: Open-ended
1. Do you have a question (about the procedure)?

2. Why did you stop?

3. You look confused - why?

4. What are you looking up in the dictionary/thesaurus?

After: focused questions with options
1. Were the instructions/expectations clear? Why or why not?

2. Why did you start your paraphrase by _____?

3. Why did you change _____ ?
   Cross-outs
   Blanks

4. Why did you leave _____ the same as the author's?

5. Are you satisfied with the final vocabulary and grammar of your paraphrases? Why or why not?

6. Do you have a system that you used (basically the same for every sentence)? If so, explain it.
   OR
7. Did you approach each sentence differently (depending on vocabulary and/or grammar)?

8. What was the hardest thing about this exercise? Why?
   What was the easiest thing about this exercise? Why?

9. Do you have any final questions for me?

10. Do you have any suggestions on how to improve this exercise?

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I would like to thank Elain Tarone, whose ideas and guidance helped to make this article possible.

Reviews

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to TESOL professions. In addition to textbooks and reference materials, these include computer and video software, testing instruments, and other forms of nonprint materials.

Academic Listening, Research Perspectives, John Flowerdew, ed. Cambridge Applied Linguistic Series: Cambridge University Press, 1994.

This book contains thirteen chapters in five major sections: an overview of lecture comprehension research leading up to the current volume, the cognitive processes involved in academic listening, discourse analysis of lectures and how it relates to pedagogy, a wider ethnographic approach to lecture comprehension, and pedagogic applications of research findings in L2 lecture listening. The volume addresses areas of interest to L2 researchers, teachers of English for Academic Purposes, and lecturers in content areas who lecture to nonnative speakers.

Chapter one is an excellent introductory summary, by the editor, of previous research into general comprehension, listening comprehension, and lecture comprehension. This chapter is especially useful to EAP teachers or teachers in training, for it examines lecture comprehension from the perspective of the researcher (the micro-skills identified by comprehension theory), the lecturer (the most important lecturer-identified skills), and the student (using interviews, questionnaires, and diary studies). The chapter also contains a discussion of lecture discourse, as well as a look at some of the variables involved which affect comprehension: the use of rhetorical signaling devices, speech rate, and the speaker's accent. Rounding out this very useful introduction to the topic is an extensive bibliography.

Focusing on the cognitive side of lecture comprehension, Part II opens with a chapter by Tauroza and Allison which looks at how schema theory applies to lectures and focuses on how an unfamiliar discourse pattern affects comprehension. It was found that when a more familiar discourse pattern, such as PROB - SOL is expanded to PROB - SOL - EVAL, students have difficulty following the argument and dealing with the unexpected aspect of evaluation. Such findings remind us as teachers to present various types of lecture discourse, and to include critical thinking skills such as understanding evaluation when we teach listening in general.

In chapter 3, Dunkel and Davies look at native and nonnative lecture recall protocols and lecture notes in terms of how useful the lecturer's rhetorical signaling cues are and find, surprisingly, that the presence or absence of these cues does not have a significant influence on the amount of information recorded by either group. I would hasten to add that simply because of this finding we should not stop teaching students to use these words to help them understand lecture structure. Instead, I would question the emphasis on quantity of notes as opposed to quality of notes, and I would want to use a more academic lecture (the authors used a lecture which compared the sinking of the Titanic and the Andrea Doria) to test the hypothesis.

Chaudron, Loschky and Cook, in chapter four, attempt to show how note-taking influences comprehension, as measured by multiple-choice and cloze tests. What they find, however, is that the short amount of time between hearing the lecture and taking the test, i.e., the influence of memory, overshadows the value of the students' notes, no matter how complete they might be. Another lesson for listening teachers is to schedule tests over lecture notes with enough delay to actually test the quality of the notes, not the students' short-term memory.

Part III presents three studies on lecture discourse which may help ESL teachers to create, evaluate or adapt existing materials which focus on the structure of lectures, both at the macro and micro levels. Hansen combines sentential topic and topic framework analysis to break down a lecture into a hierarchy of major and minor points as a way to measure the quality of student notes. Dudley-Evans addresses the issue of how different disciplines often use varying lecture discourse patterns and makes a case for team-teaching between ESL and academic teachers to reinforce basic lecture listening strategies with more subject-specific skills. Such a plan makes sense pedagogically, but would be difficult to put into practice in many institutions due to the wide diversity of student academic backgrounds. We may have to settle for greater teacher awareness of the differences and more practice with a number of discourse patterns.

Young presents a fascinating description of lectures as being composed of discontinuously occurring strands or phases. Three of these phases are metadiscoursal, indicating direction, conclusion and evaluation. Three others are interaction, content, and examples. All six weave together to form the typical lecture. This represents a truer picture of lecture discourse than a more linear description of beginning, middle and end, which should help students distinguish between formal writing and lecture listening, a confusion that may exist when similar terms are used in both skills ("introduction," "body," "conclusion," "examples"). Seeing a lecture as a series of interwoven strands should help teachers to teach the two differently.

Section IV, "Ethnography of Second Language Lectures," places the university lecture in a wider "culture of learning." Benson describes nine features of lectures from this macro-perspective (e.g., A lecture is a "performance," one usually given special status by attendance being "compulsory") and argues that for students to fully understand their learning situation and what is expected of them, they should be exposed to "English through content" through the use of authentic mini-lectures. The author also points out that it is important to discuss different learning styles and their relation to specific strategies and content areas.

Veteran materials writer Abelle Mason describes strategies needed and those actually used by the typical foreign graduate student. Not surprisingly, perhaps, she finds, along with the growing importance of oral communication skills, that our students often lack these skills, both in discussion participation and in asking questions. Further, although high TOEFL scores do not assure comprehension of complex lectures, students with high scores generally are able to improve or compensate for weaknesses in lecture comprehension, for example, by spending more time on reading assignments. This chapter should remind us that we as ESL teachers need to prepare students for the realities of a very difficult academic challenge, not just by providing opportunities for successful language learning, but by discussing how to cope with problems that may arise. Having a recent ESL "grad" who is currently taking academic courses, or perhaps someone who has been an academic student for some time come and talk to an ESL class to describe their experiences, answer questions and give advice would be one way of making sure students have an idea of what to expect when they finally "pass" the TOEFL.

In chapter eleven, King offers a way to measure the quality of student note-taking by looking at visual and verbal messages as they are recorded in notes. He finds that the two modes complement each other, that while students usually record some of the verbal message, they record most of the visuals, and that better students tend to write more of the verbal message. This emphasizes to ESL teachers that, while it is important to urge students to copy what is on the board, they must go beyond the visual (key words or phrases, for example,) and regard the visual as a stimulus to noting what was said *about* them. King also notes the importance of the role of evaluation in lectures (see also chapter two) and its usual presence in the verbal message, rather than the visual.

Pedagogic applications can be drawn from all the previous chapters, but the final section of the book focuses on how research has already been put into practice. Chapter twelve is particularly relevant to EAP teachers and administrators. In this chapter, Hansen and Jensen describe the development of a listening test which uses actual lecture excerpts from introductory level university classes to place students in English

coursework. Also valuable is a review of the theoretical considerations of general listening comprehension and lecture discourse. Of particular interest to listening teachers at all levels is the discussion of top-down vs. bottom-up processing of information and, related to it, global vs. local comprehension. Global vs. local is an important distinction for teachers to make, both in helping students understand what they are hearing and in creating their own teaching and testing materials. Global comprehension questions focus on synthesizing information across clauses and include, for example, identifying topic and topic development, purpose and scope of the lecture, and major points, and identifying and inferring relationships between sections. Local comprehension requires listeners to comprehend information within clauses and include, for example, recognizing key vocabulary related to the topic, guessing meaning of words from context, and identifying supporting ideas and examples. The authors also address the question of whether to use a technical or a non-technical lecture, as well as the possible problem of some students having prior knowledge of the content. But probably of greatest importance to the most people is their emphasis on using authentic materials and natural speech, and not using scripted and read lectures, as some published materials do.

The final chapter, by Tony Lynch, deals with the need to train lecturers to be more comprehensible to international students. Two ideas mentioned, using discourse cues to show lecture structure and increased redundancy, are not new, but Lynch goes a step further by reminding us of the need to address sociocultural differences students face when entering a foreign university. He then focuses on how lecturers can make explanations more accessible to L2 learners and how to use student questions to facilitate comprehension so that student input can also be a factor in making lectures comprehensible.

The volume ends with a conclusion by the editor which summarizes the research findings from the previous chapters and their pedagogical implications. Finally, seven areas which need additional study are presented. All in all, the volume is an important contribution to research in L2 lecture comprehension in a number of areas, and it offers teachers, materials writers and administrators valuable insights into how to structure the listening curriculum to best serve our students' needs.

THE REVIEWER

Xochitl Dennis has an MA in ESL from the University of Minnesota, where she taught since 1984.

Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms, Karen E. Johnson. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1995, 187 pp.

A Chinese student who attends class regularly, listens attentively, and takes notes conscientiously is surprised to learn that these activities do not match her American teachers' expectations of "classroom participation."

An ESL teacher is frustrated because in classroom discussions, the Spanish speakers dominate while the Japanese students look on quietly.

Both of the examples above demonstrate a gap in classroom communication. What kind of communication takes place in the second language classroom and what role does this communication play in language learning?

In her book, *Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms*, Karen Johnson argues that just as communicative competence is necessary for a student to successfully use a second language outside of the classroom, classroom communicative competence is essential for students to get the most out of their classroom experience.

The language used in the second language classroom has two functions. It conveys the content of the lesson, providing students with knowledge about the language. It also provides opportunities for students to acquire the language by using it. Thus, communication is a vital part of language learning and can "limit" or "enhance" what takes place in the classroom.

Johnson reminds us that what a teacher intends to communicate in a lesson may differ from what a student perceives. In order for a student to attain classroom communicative competence, the student must be knowledgeable and competent "in the structural, functional, social, and interactional norms that govern classroom communication" (p. 168). Johnson argues that classroom communicative competence will enable a student to participate actively in class, which should lead to increased communicative competence and ultimately to the acquisition of a second language.

Understanding Communication In Second Language Classrooms is organized into three parts. In the first part, Johnson examines the nature of communication in second language classrooms. She describes the background knowledge that teachers and students bring to a classroom and how their perceptions of classroom procedures may differ. The second part looks at the ways that communication is shaped in the classroom through teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, and school-community issues. In the final part of the book, she discusses how classroom communication can be promoted and expanded.

According to Johnson, the teacher is the dominant force in a classroom. The way the teacher uses language in the classroom and arranges student activities is based on his/her background and experience. This includes the teacher's own second language learning experience, language teaching experience, theoretical principles and interpretation of the students' performance. An effective teacher must establish a pattern of communication within the classroom "that will foster, to the greatest extent, both classroom learning and second language acquisition" (p. 90).

In establishing this communication pattern, the students' backgrounds play an equally vital role. The students' differing cultural and educational backgrounds influence their perception of classroom events and the role they should play. Many ESL students come from cultures with differing expectations for student participation, and it may be difficult for them to infer new classroom norms which are usually implicit rather than explicitly stated. The students must be made aware of these norms. "Making norms explicit and predictable" is an important part of classroom communicative competence.

In addition to making the norms explicit, Johnson suggests that a teacher should make the most of the communication patterns that the students bring with them to the classroom. A teacher should be willing to adjust classroom activities to exploit the students' already acquired patterns. "This means allowing for more spontaneous, adaptive patterns of communication in which the structure and content of the interaction can be constructed and controlled as much by the students as the teacher" (p. 167).

Most ESL teachers have been frustrated at some point by the lopsided nature of classroom discussions. "Since [students] have acquired different ways of talking and communicating, some [are] more likely to participate ... than others" (p. 63). Johnson not only gives the reasons why the Spanish students take over in classroom discussions while the Japanese students sit quietly listening, but she suggests practical ways in which a teacher can achieve a more balanced participation by building "verbal and instructional scaffolds" of support. For example, if the teacher can make classroom events more predictable, students are more likely to participate in them. She prepares her students for large group discussions by first having them respond to a required reading by writing their ideas in a journal. This allows them to "formulate and rehearse their ideas" privately. This makes students more comfortable and more likely to participate publicly in the classroom discussion that follows.

Johnson urges teachers to create opportunities for students to use the language. She is a strong supporter of group work since it promotes student-student interaction and cooperative learning. Most teachers who

use group work at times wonder how effective the communication in the group is. Johnson summarizes the work of Barnes ("From communication to curriculum." 1976), giving suggestions to make group work more effective. Johnson believes that "student-student interaction generally creates opportunities for students to participate in meaning-focused communication, to perform a range of language functions, to participate in the negotiation of meaning, to engage in both planned and unplanned discourse, to attend to both language forms and functions, to assume differing roles in that interaction, and, finally, to initiate, control the topic of discussion, and self-select to participate" (p. 128). This interaction is an important part of classroom learning and language acquisition.

Understanding Communication In Second Language Classrooms provides detailed examples and practical suggestions for teachers who want to make their classrooms effective places for learning a second language. The book is well-organized and easy to read. Each section ends with a conclusion which summarizes the main points. As a teacher who uses a variety of methods, I appreciated Johnson's balanced view of classroom techniques. She views classroom activities on a continuum, rather than favoring any one method. As a strong believer in student-student interaction, I also appreciated Johnson's endorsement of and suggestions for group work. Finally, I share Johnson's view that classroom procedures should be explicitly laid out for students. Johnson's text should be useful for both teachers in training who want to become effective second language teachers and experienced teachers who want to improve communication in their classrooms.

THE REVIEWER

Gail Ibele teaches ESL in Madison, Wisconsin.

Apple Pie: Delta's Beginning ESL Program, revised edition,

Sadae Iwataki, Ed. McHenry IL: Delta Systems Co. Inc., 1995. 222 pages.

In reviewing a textbook, it is important to understand the context in which the book will likely be used. An academic ESL setting may be quite different from ESL in an adult education setting. The textbook series *Apple Pie* was created by Sadae Iwataki, a teacher and administrator of Adult ESL in the Los Angeles Unified School District for many years. Iwataki describes the typical adult ESL class as having a large number of students of varying ages who are studying English voluntarily at night, and who come from a wide variety of language and experiential back-

grounds. These large classes of up to fifty or more students present a challenge to the teacher, but they also create an active social atmosphere that can be taken advantage of as long as the teacher keeps in mind that the students' primary purpose is to learn English. Adult students have been described as very focused, hardworking learners who are well aware of their own needs in learning English, and who require a certain amount of self-direction and participation in their learning process (Hilles, 91).

Apple Pie responds to this situation in a number of ways. It provides a visuals packet containing full-page enlargements of the illustrations in the text for the teacher to use to keep the entire class on track, knowing where they are in the text and what sort of material is being presented verbally. It takes advantage of the social atmosphere of the class in that it gives students frequent opportunities to interact with each other, and provides them with the language needed to do so. As the students have limited time to study but are active in the classroom, the text is very task-oriented, providing a large number of short exercises for use in class. Thus, it would seem to lend itself to a fast-paced class, heavy on vocabulary and skills-building, for which students are expected to do a minimum of homework. The importance of matching an adult education course to the students' cultural expectations and perceived needs are reflected by the text's use of an interactive but still teacher-directed method and emphasis on concrete survival English.

Recognition of the need for self-direction and participation in the learning process can be found in the listing of clear, practical objectives at the beginning of each chapter, and in the extensive use of the students' own experiences as source material for the class. Lesson 13, "Where Are You From?" begins with a statement of the following objectives: "In this lesson you will learn to ask and answer questions about your native country, and talk about cities, states, and countries" (p.128). The lesson contains activities which involve locating the students' native countries on a map, discussing their native country and city with a partner, and locating their city and state of residence in the U.S. on a map. Following a short reading passage, a discussion activity asks "1. Where are you from?" and "2. People come to the United States for many reasons. Why are you here? To study English? To be with your family? To get a better job?" (p.128-132).

Another aspect of adult education (Hilles, 1991) is that the typical ESL teacher in this setting generally has a bachelor's degree and some teacher training, but does not have an advanced degree, and teaches only part-time. Such a teacher may require more support and guidance than a professional teaching ESL full-time at a university, where there are more resources and time to prepare classes. *Apple Pie* provides this support for the instructor, both in the text and in the Teacher's Guide, with its step-

by-step instructions on how to use the text and its corresponding materials, as well as suggestions on how to present the information given in each lesson most effectively. It also suggests what to do if students are having trouble with a given task.

Apple Pie is a highly interactive and visual text covering real-life survival English topics. Book 1A, reviewed here, is the first in a series of textbooks for beginning and low intermediate students. The series replaces *Delta's ESL for the 21st Century*. Each book in the series is accompanied by a teacher's manual, a cassette tape, and a visuals packet. The series is designed for adult students with no previous English study, and the text reflects a population of mainly Asian and Hispanic students who are recent immigrants studying English in order to adapt to life in the U.S. *Apple Pie* covers all four skills, with emphasis on listening and speaking at this level, as the reading and writing tasks are short and simple. The topics covered in the first book deal with a variety of basic survival needs. They include: greetings and introductions, classroom vocabulary, giving and requesting information, the alphabet, names and numbers, courtesy expressions, apologizing and leave-taking, occupations, money and numbers, ordering food, making purchases, days and dates, names of cities, states, and countries, foods, places in the community, everyday personal and household items, the family, and using the telephone.

Each lesson begins with a listening comprehension section accompanied by visual aids which introduce the target vocabulary and structures of the lesson. This is followed by a short dialogue which students learn through repetition and practice in pairs. Next are interactive practice activities such as mini-dialogues, role-plays, group activities and mixers which expand on the material given previously and move from more to less-controlled exercises. Lesson 7, for example, which covers professions, begins with a review of time expressions from chapters 5 and 6, then the names of professions and the use of subject pronouns are introduced. A short dialogue is presented for students to practice, followed by a section in which students practice identifying the professions of people shown in drawings. A group discussion activity then asks students to tell each other about their own professions and report the information they learn to the rest of the class.

A reading passage continues with the topic in each lesson and presents discussion questions which check the students' comprehension and ask them to relate the material to their own experiences. Then a writing section reviews the material and gives students practice with spelling and punctuation. (According to the Teacher's Manual for Book 1A, Books 2A and 2B include additional writing sections for practicing sentences

and short paragraphs in controlled and free writing tasks.) Finally, each lesson includes review and activity pages to be used in subsequent classes in order to reinforce the material and provide practice with tasks that integrate various skills. At the end of each unit of three lessons is an evaluation which includes listening, reading and writing sections. It is intended that students will do this individually, then turn the evaluation in for correction so that both teacher and student can keep track of individual progress.

In summary, *Apple Pie* has been carefully prepared to meet the needs of the adult ESL classroom. It seems well suited to the students' needs and interests. It provides basic language instruction while recognizing the students' maturity and life experience, and it reflects the ethnic makeup of both the students and their environment. The text is very teacher-friendly, as it gives a great deal of assistance to busy instructors, and its approach allows for a large, active classroom while focusing on language practice. It covers the four skills as appropriate to each level, and includes integrated practice activities for review. The cost ($7.95 for student books, $10.95 for cassette, and $24.95 for visuals packet) make it a reasonable package. *Apple Pie* looks to be a useful and enjoyable program for both students and teachers.

THE REVIEWER

Lesley Andrews is a graduate student and a teacher in ESL at the University of Minnesota. She has also taught Spanish as a foreign language at the same institution.

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Poem

Notes on listening, speaking, and poetry from a teacher of English, student of Hmong.

Poetry for me begins with listening to the voices both around and within us. The poem you see here grew out of things I have learned listening to the voices of Hmong people.

We English speakers who have taken up teaching our native tongue to speakers of other languages open an important door when we take time to drop our teaching roles and simply listen. If we can not do this we miss out on a lot of what is really going on in the world.

If we approach people of different cultures neither as objects of study nor as keepers of some spiritual wisdom that we have failed to find in our own contemporary culture, we have a chance to make friends. If we see our students as people like ourselves with at least as much to teach us as we have to teach them we may learn a great deal.

Adaptation to changing conditions has for generations been a strength of the Hmong people. They have kept their culture alive through centuries of migration, war, the loss of a written language, and the development of new forms of oral and written expression.

Miles and years removed from the geography and ways of life where it developed, a language, like the people who speak it, must change. The poetry to describe the seasons of rice cultivation and harvest is crowded out by terms of modern technology and sound bites of the mass consumer media. Unless the younger ones listen and record, each elder who passes on takes with them irreplaceable knowlege, along with the language to express it.

Just as the young stand to lose if they fail to draw out and listen to the old, the old make a big mistake if they fail to trust and encourage the inherent goodness and intelligence of the young. Young people are longing for deep and open connections with their elders even as they search between two cultures for their own way, which no one can map out for them.

I would like to thank my teaching colleague Neng Heur for his corrections and expansions of the Hmong lines in the poem. Any inaccuracies of expression or interpretation are entirely mine.

Sharon Hilberer
December 1995

Hmong elders, far from their original home in Laos,
speak of and to the spirits on the occasion of a funeral.

(Teb chaws no, tsis yog peb lub teb chaws.
Teb chaws no, peb tsis muaj dab tsi.
This country is not our country.
In this country, we have nothing.)

Tsis muaj.
Tsis muaj dab tsi.
Don't have.
Don't have anything.
Don't have a centerpost.
No centerpost in a city apartment
to house a household guardian.
No dwelling place for a centering spirit.
How can we call a spirit home
so far from home?
Don't have anything.

Ancestor spirits are lost. So far away.
Mountains they know.
Forests and jungle they know.
How wide and flat the oceans.
How wide and flat the North American plains.
Trackless. Can not follow. Can not find.
Follow tsis tau.
Find tsis tau.

Useless now the precise and well-fitted words
for depth and distance
time and elevation
the uphill side, the downslope.
Useless now the rhythmic and elegant terms
to locate and remember
mountain passes. Paths around and through
bamboo forests
territory of tiger and elephant.
The ancestors have no words
for highway 94.

Tuaj txog teb chaws no peb poob tas lawm.
Cannot follow.
Cannot find.
The funeral drum hangs in its frame.
The beating, the singing continue
three nights, three days.
Spirit guides search the way back.
Thov taw kev rau koj rov qab.
Spirits of every resting place along our path of flight,
we honor you.
Allow this uncle, allow this old soldier
return passage along spirit traces
to the place where he first drew breath,
the place where the grandmothers
buried the placenta.
Kom rov qab mus. Kom rov qab los.
Go back. Come back.

Along the way:
Bankok,
Chieng Kham,
Nong Khai,
Nakong,
Long Chieng,
Phu Bia,
Xieng Khouang...
Kom taug qub ke rov qab.
Rest with the ancestors.
Stay. Make no more journeys.
Rest with the ancestors.
We are the last generation
to honor them.

Cov me nyuam tsis paub peb Hmoob txuj ci lawm.
Cov me nyuam tsis paub dab tsi.
The children know nothing.
The children go forward in this trackless place without you.
The children go forward in this trackless place alone.

Sharon Hilberer
1995

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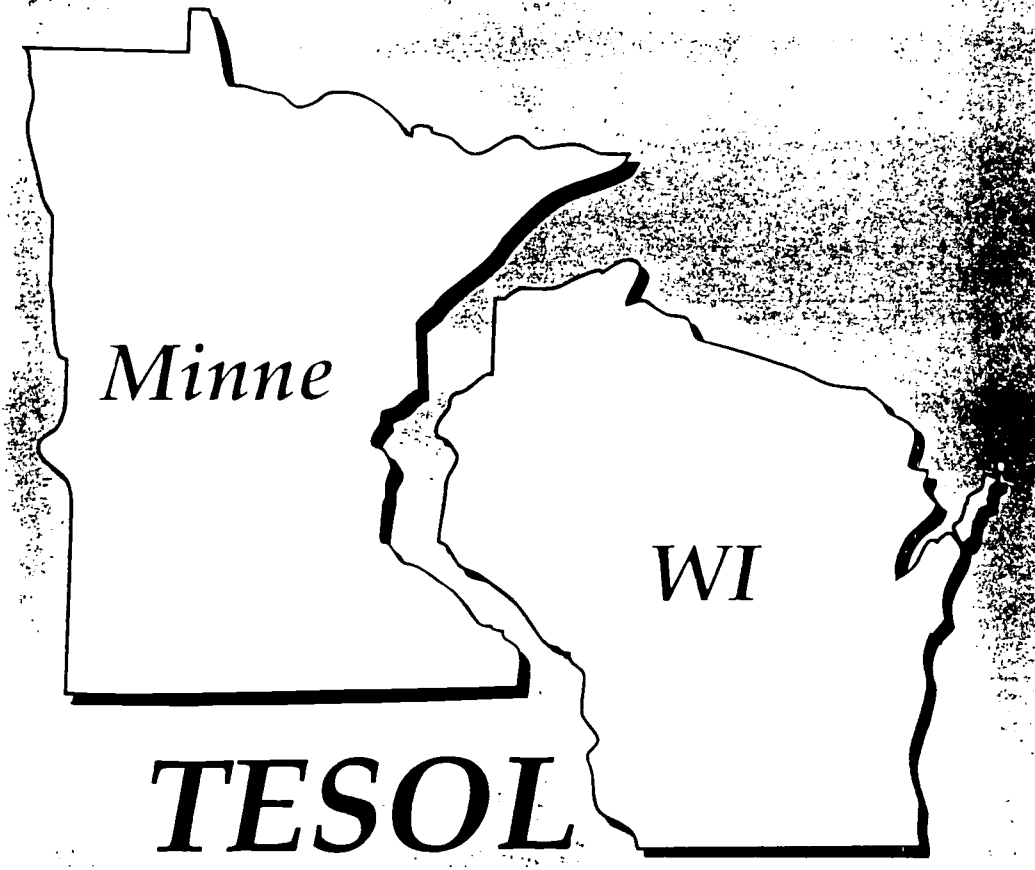
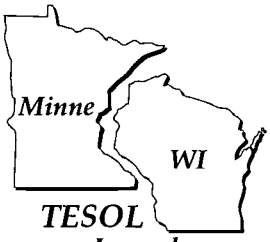


TESOL Journal

Volume 14 1997



Volume 14, 1997

A Journal for Minnesota and Wisconsin Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Grateful thanks is given to Rachel Sullivan for her technical support and to the Department of Foreign Languages, University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire.

Membership in MinneTESOL
Contact the Membership Secretary, MinneTESOL, P.O. Box 14694, Minneapolis, MN 55414.

Membership in WITESOL
Contact the Membership Chair, WITESOL, 3320 W. Kilbourn Ave., Milwaukee, WI 53208.

Information for contributors to the *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal*

- **Editorial policy**
  The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* seeks to publish articles of importance to the profession of English as a Second Language in the States of Minnesota and Wisconsin. Articles in the following areas are considered for publication: instructional methods, techniques, and materials; research with implications for ESL; and issues in curriculum and program design. Book reviews and review articles are also welcome, as are short descriptions of work in progress on any aspect of theory or practice in our profession. Reports of work in the areas of curriculum and materials development, methodology, teaching, testing, teacher preparation and administration are encouraged, as are reports of research projects that focus on topics of special interest. Descriptions should summarize key concepts and results in a manner to make the information accessible to our readership. We also invite commentary on current trends and practices in the TESOL profession, and we encourage responses or rebuttals to any articles or remarks published in the *Journal*.

- **Manuscripts**
  Manuscripts should conform to the style book followed by TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. They should include a brief (e.g., 100-word) abstract.

  Submit three paper copies of the manuscript and abstract. Upon acceptance of your article for inclusion in the journal, you will be asked to send us a computer diskette of your article.

  Contributions to Volume 15 should be submitted to:

  Suellen Rundquist
  English Dept., 106 Riverview
  St. Cloud State University
  St. Cloud, MN 56301-4498

  or

  Thom Upton
  Dept. of Foreign Languages
  University of Wisconsin, Eau Claire
  Eau Claire, WI 54701.

- **Advertising**
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Contents

ARTICLES

REVIEWS

INTRODUCTION

This is the second volume of the *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* as well as volume 14 of the *MinneTESOL Journal*, so it is both new and continuing in the tradition of publishing articles of interest to ESL professionals in our two states. We feel this collaboration between the MinneTESOL and WITESOL affiliates has strengthened our ability to provide both affiliate memberships opportunities for professional growth and development. We welcome your contributions in the way of articles, book reviews, student art, poetry, and discussions of on-going issues in the field. Your contributions are what make the journal happen.

This volume begins with two articles that offer curricular approaches to the pressing need for helping students gain content knowledge at the same time that they are working on English skills. This is particularly critical for recent arrivals and for refugee/immigrant students who have faced disrupted education.

Jeff DuFresne and Sandra Hall describe an alternative high school for newcomers in St. Paul, Minnesota – the LEAP Academy, which they direct. This school was established in response to research which was showing that ESL newcomers benefit from an academic environment that is more tailored to meet their specific needs, an environment that regular mainstream high schools are less able to provide.

Elizabeth Hoadley takes this issue of content-based instruction to the junior high school in her description of an ESL social studies course she developed that both followed the social studies curriculum and offered coherent, sequenced language instruction to her ESL students. The evolution of this approach raises important questions about the various models of ESL instruction in the public schools.

The third article, by Joannah L. O'Hatnick at the University of Minnesota, provides an accessible overview of two technologies at the forefront today: e-mail and the World Wide Web. Her survey of web sites and comments about the use of the web and e-mail in ESL classrooms is both current and practical.

The final article in this volume is a hands-on "Starter Kit" to develop a reading lab based on a model used at Minnesota State University - Akita and at the Minnesota English Center (U. of MN, Minneapolis). Last year's Journal included a study showing the benefits of this extensive reading program, so we felt it particularly fitting to include a practical description of the reading lab in this volume. Readers are encouraged to use the

handouts and ideas in this article to set up their own reading lab sites.

There are four book reviews in this volume. The first is a 1996 collection of "Voices from the Language Classroom," edited by Kathleen M. Bailey and David Nunamn. This is a compilation of articles by language teachers and researchers, all of which explore issues in language teaching and learning from a wide variety of perspectives and which use data from language classrooms as their common starting point.

The three other books reviewed take a more personal approach to examining issues faced by students in the refugee communities of our states. "My Trouble Is My English" offers an ethnographic view of four Laotian children in a U.S. secondary school, providing important perspectives on language learning, literacy, and acculturation. Two books by JoAn Criddle: "To Kill You Is No Loss" and "Bamboo and Butterflies" are both about a Cambodian family, first in Cambodia during the Pol Pot regime, and then in the U.S. as the family adjusts to life in a new country. While not directly related to language teaching, perhaps, these books offer important insights into the lives and voices of people who may be in our classrooms.

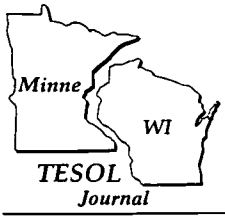
With this volume, Suellen Rundquist, who is a faculty member at St. Cloud State University and has been involved with ESL for many years, comes on board as the new Minnesota editor, and Robin Murie steps down after a rewarding three years. Thom Upton will continue as a co-editor, providing important continuity to the Journal.

We hope that you read this volume with pleasure and interest. We encourage your contributions to the Journal and look forward to continued "inter-affiliate" communication through this publication.

Robin Murie
U. of Minnesota
Minneapolis

Thom Upton
U. of Wisconsin
Eau Claire

Suellen Rundquist
St. Cloud State
St. Cloud, MN



CALL FOR PAPERS

MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal
Volume XV

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* is seeking contributions for vol. XV (Spring 1998). Contributions of the following type will be considered:

- **Manuscripts** about
  --instructional methods, techniques, and materials
  --research with implications for ESL
  --issues in ESL curriculum and program design
  --testing, assessment, and evaluation in ESL
  --professional preparation
  --sociopolitical issues in ESL
- **Book reviews**
- **Samples of ESL students' work** (poetry, essays, artwork)
- **Work in progress***
- **Responses to Volume XIV** of the *MinnTESOL/WITESOL Journal* for "The Forum" section*

*"Work in Progress" is a section of the *Journal* for short reports or updates on work that you are doing in any area of interest to our readership.
"The Forum" section includes responses or rebuttals to any articles or remarks published in the previous year's volume.

Manuscripts should follow the same style guidelines as *TESOL Quarterly* (the style of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Assoc., 4th ed).

Each manuscript must be accompanied by a short bio statement and an abstract of not more than 200 words. Submit two paper copies and disk to:

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Department of Foreign Languages
378 Hibbard Hall
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Deadline for submitting manuscripts for this volume:

August 1, 1997

LEAP English Academy: An Alternative High School for Newcomers to the United States

JEFF DUFRESNE AND SANDRA E. HALL
Saint Paul Public Schools
St. Paul, MN

The Limited English Achievement Program (LEAP), a.k.a. "LEAP English Academy," was started in the Fall of 1994 as a school completely dedicated to LEP newcomers aged 16 to 26, students whose needs often do not match the offerings provided in traditional high schools. LEAP provides ESL and adaptive content classes while offering a high school diploma, supported transition to the workplace and post-secondary training. LEAP incorporates tutoring and structured interaction with American high school students and other volunteers. This article provides the background of, rationale for, and description of St. Paul, Minnesota's LEAP English Academy and explores the possibilities offered by this model.

INTRODUCTION

In the fall of 1994, Saint Paul (MN) Schools initiated the Limited English Achievement Program, better known as "LEAP" or "LEAP English Academy." LEAP represents an attempt to improve the delivery of educational services for LEP students ages 16 and above.

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

The LEAP English Academy grew out of an initiative by the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) based on concerns expressed by mainstream and ESL teachers. Though these concerns were rather wide-ranging, the central issues involved: 1) the extent to which St. Paul was meeting the needs of the very large number of children of refugees and immigrants who comprise 26% of St. Paul's student population, as well as 2) how present services, or lack of services, appeared to be affecting mainstream programming district-wide.

The "Southeast Asian Study Committee" was formed in March of 1994 as a joint effort of St. Paul Public Schools and the AFT. Its charge, as determined by PIC, a joint labor-management committee, was to:

Examine and assess educational issues in areas of early learning, TESOL, mainstreaming, parental-involvement, adult education, and hiring of South east Asian staff. . . and to submit recommendations for ways to address specific issues by June 10, 1994.

The study committee was co-chaired by an AFT- local vice-president and a deputy superintendent of St. Paul Schools. Several ESL/bilingual teachers and school principals were invited to an initial meeting to outline concerns the task force might want to address and to consider who else ought to be a part of the task force. Two weeks later, an expanded group including teachers, administrators, and community members met to study the educational concerns and seek solutions.

One of the major concerns identified was that of LEP students who enter the district after the age of 15. Experience has shown that a high percentage of these students fail to fulfill graduation requirements before age forces them out of school. St. Paul students must pass four minimum competency exams to be eligible for graduation. S.E. Asian LEP students fail these tests at a disproportionately higher rate than any other group in St. Paul. Many drop out.

Research indicates that these students require more time and attention than is available to them if they arrive in America after age 15. A study by Collier (1987) demonstrated that immigrant children in this age group took 6-8 years to become academically competitive with American peers. This finding was reinforced by a study in the St. Paul Schools which showed that Hmong students who entered after age 14 remained below the 5th percentile in SRA reading scores (Dufresne, 1993). Clearly these students are in great danger of neither graduating from high school nor gaining necessary skills that might allow them to pursue further academic training or seek worthwhile employment.

Committee members also pointed out that except for available ESL classes the standard curriculum in most high schools is simply not designed for the needs of LEP students, many of whom have not had much prior education in their home countries and therefore have little of the background necessary to understand high school level material regardless of the language it might be taught in. Many students are caught in the dilemma of being unable to enroll in academically challenging classes because of their limited English level or, if enrolled, being unable to glean much from the experience. Before their English improves enough to understand and compete in higher-level academic classes, they become too old to remain in a traditional high school or become discouraged by failure and resigned to the idea that graduation or further education is be-

yond their abilities.

Committee members felt that the hoped for benefits of inclusion of LEP students in "mainstream" classes in a "regular" high school setting, which ideally would facilitate cultural and social assimilation as well the forced use of English, were generally precluded by the enormous language gap between LEP students and native speakers, the lack of structured interaction, and the general unwillingness of adolescents to mix with others outside their "group." LEP students typically sat quietly in mainstream classes, understanding little but asking few questions. The teacher, having neither the background nor time to explain the material adequately for this "separate" group, did the best he/she could by creating easier worksheets and basing grades on homework rather than tests, which LEP students largely failed when graded on mainstream standards. Commonly, LEP students reported that they did not understand the material but got help on homework from family and friends. Most reported that they had no real American friends and generally socialized with others who spoke their native language. It was the view of experienced teachers and knowledgeable community members that unless interaction between Americans and LEP students was structured it seldom took place, whether the students happened to be in the same room or not, leaving the LEP students feeling isolated and inadequate.

Related concerns included: 1) The lack of a comprehensive approach to teaching cultural awareness to new arrivals as well as a lack of content classes adjusted to the needs of LEP students; 2) The difficulties involved in enrolling and programming LEP students who arrive mid-semester; and 3) The need to be able to retain students past the age of 21.

In addition to the issues outlined above, it was pointed out by members of the affected ethnic communities that, due to their age and culture, many of the students had strong family responsibilities. This suggested that many of these students needed to be receiving vocational training in addition to regular high school classes so they could become employable.

These concerns culminated in a basic idea for a solution: **Design an *entire* academic program or, perhaps, a separate school specifically to meet the needs of these LEP high school students.** The rationale for such a program was based directly on the concerns outlined above. Experience indicated that the needs of many older LEP students were not being adequately met. Attempts to alter existing curriculum and programming in the regular schools had simply not been successful; it appeared that the needs of LEP students would invariably be superseded by the overall needs and structure of the school. The idea then was to create a separate environment to allow total focus on LEP needs. A concentration of a larger number of students with these needs would also

mean a larger ESL/bilingual staff, increasing the school's ability to offer a greater variety of classes designed for LEP students.

ESL/bilingual teachers from the task force met with administrators from St. Paul's Area Learning Center (ALC) and Adult Diploma Program (ADP). ALC specializes in alternative programming for non-traditional students, and it was felt that this connection would provide needed flexibility and free the program from having to "fit in" with the program and schedule demands of an ordinary high school. The connection to ADP would facilitate retention of students who needed to remain in school beyond age 21 to complete their diploma. This committee wrote a program proposal including a line-item budget based on a projected enrollment of 110. In early June, 1994, the proposal was submitted to the task force, which recommended it to district administration. Eight weeks later, ALC was given permission to start-up the program and, in September, 1994, the "Limited English Achievement Program" (LEAP) opened for business.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

LEAP English Academy, as it has come to be called, operates as an independent, self-contained high school designed specifically for students learning English. LEAP's 16 classrooms and offices occupy the fourth floor of a former shoe factory, owned and refurbished by the city, located in downtown St. Paul. This building is also the home of the Center for Employment and Training (CET) as well as "Gateway," another ALC program for chemically dependent youth. It was envisioned that both of these programs would complement LEAP. This has proven to be correct, both in helping students find jobs and in setting up specific situations for structured interaction through a tutoring program. Funding for LEAP is provided by the St. Paul School District, based largely on per-pupil state aid. Funds are administered by the Area Learning Center (ALC) with additional funds provided by the Adult Diploma Program (ADP) to cover the costs of the "over-21" students at LEAP.

LEAP's program seeks to 1) improve students' English language proficiency, 2) provide a more suitable route to a high school diploma, and 3) provide assisted transition to vocational training, college, or the workplace.

LEAP's schedule is flexible. While LEAP generally follows the school district calendar, classes may vary in length and duration. Though most classes meet one hour per day for several months, some classes require intensive study several hours per day and last only a few weeks. This is done to make better use of scheduled staff time, facilitate the coordination of curriculum between classes, and accommodate students who reg-

ister for school after the start of the semester.

To elaborate, because LEAP is much smaller than a typical high school, it is often difficult to schedule a wide variety of classes concurrently. This is particularly true because it is often necessary to offer a particular subject at more than one language proficiency level or with appropriate bilingual assistance. However, needed classes can be offered consecutively. For example, it is not necessary to offer "health" for an entire semester if the necessary contact hours can be arranged over a fewer number of weeks. A six-week health class might be followed by an eight-week physical science class, each of which meets two or more hours per day. A social studies class might alternate days with a career exploration class. Currently, a literature class and a biology class share the same time slot, each meeting for two hours on an alternating schedule. Two teachers share this part-time position.

An additional benefit of this arrangement is the coordination of curriculum. For example, during the weeks that most LEAP students have "health," it is relatively easy for ESL classes to focus activities on health-related topics – perhaps writing stories or doing a role-play based on going to the doctor. Reading and vocabulary units can reinforce and complement what occurs in the health class.

When new arrivals enter a "regular" high school in the middle of a semester, counselors typically have difficulty placing them in appropriate classes and, not uncommonly, it is impossible for the students to earn credit. LEAP, however, accommodates these students by offering classes over a shorter period of time. In this way students are able to earn some credits even if they have been in school only the last few weeks of a semester.

Flexibility has proven necessary at LEAP in other ways also. Many LEAP students are parents themselves or have jobs. Some of these students simply cannot attend a regular high school because of the demands of child care or work. Some LEAP students elect to carry fewer credits, leaving school early or arriving late. LEAP staff members work with individual students to arrange independent study projects for credit as well. LEAP students can take advantage of ALC's policy of awarding credit through validation. Students complete study packets individually and work with a validator. When they have successfully completed the work, the validator awards credit. For example, one LEAP student worked on a validation packet in Consumer Skills.

Mature, highly-motivated students are able to earn more credits over a shorter period of time than they could in an ordinary high school due to independent study options, extended scheduling, and cooperative arrangements with the Adult Program at Hubbs Center for Lifelong Learning, the St. Paul Technical College, and nearby community colleges. Ar-

rangements of this sort generally apply only to very well-educated students anxious to "validate" (earn credit for completing units of study) previous learning while at the same time expanding their English proficiency. These students are generally older and often college-bound. LEAP attempts to facilitate transition to higher education for these students as quickly as is appropriate.

More typically, students require about the same length of time to acquire a diploma at LEAP as might be needed in one of the other city high schools. However, LEAP attempts to make the high school experience more meaningful and appropriate for these students.

Averaged over the length of a semester, most LEAP students receive six hours of instruction per day featuring ESL, individualized and small-group tutoring, content classes, computer-assisted instruction, and career exploration.

ESL

In general, students receive three hours of direct English instruction per day depending on their levels and needs, though the amount of time given to ESL varies with the proficiency of the student. A few will have only one ESL class; others may require four hours of English a day. Those with greater English proficiency have more flexibility and choice among other course offerings. Students are tested and placed in ESL classes according to level. Students under 21 are initially evaluated with the Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey. Students 21 and above are given the BEST test. The use of two different tests is in keeping with the differences between the adult and K-12 programs already in place in St. Paul Schools. The decision to use both tests was made for administrative rather than qualitative reasons. In fact, either test provides more information than is necessary for placement purposes. After the students are initially enrolled, teacher recommendation is paramount in making changes in ESL level. Teachers meet and discuss appropriate placement, which is done by consensus with students' preferences taken into consideration. Students are occasionally allowed to try classes that the teachers think may be beyond them.

Generally, LEAP embraces "whole-language" as an instructional approach with teachers teaming to create thematic units to foster meaningful language experiences. Nevertheless, certain ESL classes stress particular skill areas. In general, students each have a class which focuses on oral language. For beginning-level students this class is likely to be highly organized and teacher-directed. Small-group work is facilitated by the use of native speaker volunteers as well as bilingual educational assistants. The beginning oral skills class seeks to teach students to ask

and respond to yes/no and simple information questions using reasonably correct structure.

More advanced students are placed in tutor classes to work on oral skills. In tutor classes, ESL students interact with volunteers, student teachers, and American peers. Volunteers have included retired teachers, students fulfilling tutoring requirements for local colleges or community service requirements for high school credit, people from nearby businesses, and friends of the staff. For example, students from the Gateway Program, an ALC program for students recovering from chemical dependency located in LEAP's building, earn credit as tutors in a daily tutoring class. Most tutors are native speakers, but some are bilingual. Currently, several of the college and high school tutors are bilingual in English and Hmong.

The objective of this structured interaction is to build cultural awareness and understanding while providing practice in English conversation skills. Students and tutors share and compare aspects of their respective cultures, with the tutors often gaining at least as much from the experience as the tutees. This two-way learning is a central objective of the class. The curriculum, known as *Conversations Across Cultures*, was designed by a LEAP teacher. In these classes, the teacher structures the interaction using pictures, videos, activities, and written material as stimuli. In addition to providing topics and materials, the teacher trains and prepares the tutors and circulates during class periods to direct and facilitate the activities.

LEAP students generally also carry an ESL class which focuses particularly on written language structure and composition. For beginning level students, this is usually provided by a bilingual teacher so the complicated aspects of English grammar can be discussed. LEAP staff members feel that a bilingual approach to teaching language structure to beginners often offers advantages over an English-only approach, which must rely heavily on imitation, repetition, and students' intuition. The focus of instruction for higher level students is the improvement of written communication skills with the goal of passing St. Paul's competency tests, which is a graduation requirement. The realities of the competency test requirement make proficiency in written English very important for students seeking a diploma. Proposed state-level graduation requirements are likely to make this component even more crucial. In addition to teaching basic writing skills, LEAP has added a word-processing component to its writing classes for students at intermediate and advanced levels. Using thirty Macintosh computers, students are taught to word-process their papers. Writing classes are in two-hour blocks to facilitate this component. Students use the lab on a daily basis or on a rotating six-day cycle, depending upon level. Writing teachers have discovered that

students are eager to learn word processing skills, producing more writing and doing more self-editing than in the past. Often students are waiting at the computer lab door in the morning in order to get in a few minutes on the computer before school starts. The lab is staffed by a full-time educational assistant with both technical and writing skills. Writing teachers also accompany their students to the lab.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION

Most LEAP students also have an instructional component focusing on reading and vocabulary. This was included in the curriculum because most academic work hinges on students' ability to read. In addition to classroom reading instruction and tutoring, computers are available for students to practice reading. Along with the word processing lab mentioned above, LEAP uses a fifteen computer Mac-lab running Computer Curriculum Corp. (CCC) software, which keeps track of student progress and places them in their program when they enter their password. In general, students are scheduled into the computer lab for 25 minutes daily or for an hour twice a week. The lab is staffed by either a bilingual educational assistant or teacher, who assists the students, monitors their progress, and places appropriate courses on the students' computer menu. Some students arrive at school early or stay late in order to do extra lessons on the computers.

The "CCC" computer lab allows for individualized instruction in several content areas. All students are expected to acquire basic keyboarding skills in their first semester. In addition to programmed typing and a variety of reading programs, students may work on math skills, including algebra and logic, social studies, science, career exploration, and GED prep courses. Some individuals put in many extra hours on the computer and are able to earn independent study credit based on hours and evaluation by the teacher. In general, however, the computer lab is intended to augment regular class instruction rather than replace it.

ADAPTED CONTENT CLASSES

LEAP students also register for content courses required for graduation as well as ESL and electives. However, unlike a regular high school, these courses are designed and adapted to the language-learning needs of the students. More than one section of a content class is available so students with similar needs can be placed together. Teachers do not "dummy-down" material, but may spend larger amounts of time explaining vocabulary and providing background information. Commonly, bi-

lingual educational assistants work with students to explain vocabulary and concepts and to help students with reading. The proficiency level of the student will affect the complexity of reading material selected by the teacher. In the 1994-95 and 1995-96 school years, LEAP students had the following content classes available to them: several levels of math including algebra, world geography, American history, American government, citizenship skills, biology, physical science, health, typing, and art. LEAP plans to offer additional classes in the future, though in any given semester offerings will remain limited by the availability of staff.

CAREER EXPLORATION AND TRAINING

In addition to these required content classes, students also are offered classes in career exploration. Much of this is done through the "St. Paul Connections" program, whose office is also in the same building. Students participating in "Connections" go to the St. Paul Technical College for sampler classes or to worksites where they observe and receive instruction. A number of these students take sampler classes focusing on health careers at nearby Ramsey Hospital. About 40% of LEAP students participated in "Connections" during the first two years of the school's operation. Several students used this technical college experience to "transition" into full-time vocational training at the technical college. Some students whose English is proficient enough attend both the technical college and LEAP through the Post Secondary Enrollment Option (PSEO). Others go to technical college upon graduation from LEAP.

"Connections" classes have proven to be most valuable for LEAP students whose language proficiencies are at the intermediate level or above. These students have taken the classes quite seriously, recognizing that they are being given the opportunity to see the actual type of training they would experience if they pursued a particular trade or profession and that they are being taught by people who really work in that field. Perhaps LEAP students feel a sense of urgency about career choices because of their ages and family responsibilities. "Connections" classes have not proven to be appropriate for beginning level students because their language ability precludes comprehension. However, LEAP staff feel that "Connections" and similar experiential or apprenticeship programs offer tremendous possibilities. LEAP will attempt to expand the number of its students participating in this program in the future by creating special sections of "Connections" classes and assigning bilingual educational assistants to accompany groups of students to the training sites.

EMPLOYMENT AND WORK EXPERIENCE

As just mentioned, employment is a high priority for many LEAP students. Job coordinators from various agencies have assisted LEAP students in locating employment or job-experience situations. These agencies have included the Center for Employment and Training and HIRED. Students who wish to work are able to alter their school studies to fit their work schedule to a certain extent; that is, students have the option of leaving school early every day for work or starting later in the day. This generally means carrying fewer credits unless students do independent study or take classes at an ADP evening site. It is hoped that in the future LEAP will be able to offer classes during early morning or evening hours to provide more options to working students. LEAP supports students' decisions to work, particularly if their jobs involve interaction which encourages (or even forces) them to use English and/or builds technical skills in a vocational area. Education and employment may be considered concurrent rather than consecutive activities.

TRANSITION COMPONENT

One of LEAP's goals has been to ease the transition of qualified students from high school into college or vocational training. The process of placing students, however, has proven to require a great deal of time and energy. Some form of concurrent registration is required, but this has proven difficult, particularly with the testing requirements most colleges place on second language learners. Several colleges have expressed interest in facilitating the process; however, the mechanisms necessary for smooth transition have yet to be worked out. Presently, only three realistic options appear to exist – concurrent classes, independent registration with payment of tuition, or PSEO. During 1994-95, LEAP staff worked with nearby Metro State University to place four students in advanced math and science classes. All four of these students have since graduated from LEAP and are continuing their education at Metro State or other colleges. Others have entered St. Paul Technical college or have gained Technical College experience through the "Connections" program previously mentioned. It is hoped that in the future LEAP staff will have more time to work with colleges and technical schools. During its first two years, LEAP had no guidance counselor to assist with these tasks and regular teachers clearly had difficulty finding the time to carry this role. In the fall of 1996, however, LEAP acquired four hours per week of part time counseling help through the Adult Diploma Program, an improvement but hardly enough help to give guidance about post-secondary edu-

cation options to more than 200 students. Transition to college and vocational training programs remains a high-priority goal at LEAP.

STUDENTS AND STAFF

At the end of the 1994-95 school year, LEAP was serving approximately 175 students, about half of whom were under 21 years of age. Most of the others were 21 or 22 years old. This number increased to about 200 for 1995-96. With the addition of a staff member in the fall of 1996, total enrollment climbed to about 240. Total enrollment has been capped at that figure due to lack of physical space in the building as well as a shortage of staff. Presently, new students older than 21 are encouraged to seek classes at the Hubbs Center for Lifelong Learning, though some are still admitted to LEAP as space allows, with a maximum of 100 students in the over-21 category. LEAP staff feels the mix of younger and older learners has been very beneficial to the overall learning atmosphere of the school. However, few students over 24 are enrolled at LEAP because of the concern that students under 21 may view the program as a "senior citizens" program rather than a real high school. The realities are that LEAP has had to restrict enrollment of those over 21 because there simply is not the room, staff or money to include all who apply. There is a long waiting list of students over 21. A few are accepted on a "first-come-first-serve" basis, though preference is given to a spouse or sibling of a present LEAP student or to a student recently forced out of a regular high school due to age. LEAP's 1995 summer program served 200 students, 70% of whom were under 21.

The ethnic breakdown of LEAP students has on average been approximately 55% Hmong, 25% Vietnamese, 10% Hispanic, and 10% "other," which includes students from Bangladesh, Sudan, Somalia, Liberia, Russia, Ukraine, Romania, Haiti, China, Taiwan, and Ethiopia. Generally the numbers of males and females has been equal, though the percentage of males has occasionally been as high as 55%. Approximately half of the students are married.

LEAP presently has five full-time teachers and two part-time teachers as well as five full-time and three part-time educational assistants. Staffed bilingual services are available in Hmong, Lao, Cambodian, Vietnamese, Spanish, French, Hindi, and Russian. In addition, the volunteers mentioned above have provided countless hours of time, assisting in classrooms and with small-groups, doing office work, and even supervising the lunchroom. This pairing of American students and other volunteers with LEAP students has been quite successful. LEAP made use of more than 70 tutors and other volunteers in 1994-95 and over 80 in 1995-96. Administrative duties are shared among the instructional team with the

assistance of a part-time secretary. There is no on-site principal, assistant principal, or counselor. The principal, assistant principal, and counselor for the Area Learning Center (ALC) supervise nineteen programs and have little time for micro-management of each individual site. They have, however, been extremely supportive of LEAP and have been quick to give assistance when it has been requested. This assistance has resulted in additional staff, materials, and advice about such things as keeping attendance records, maintaining student cumulative folders, and evaluating student credits, including those from schools in their home countries. This policy of giving help when needed and asked for has meant that LEAP staff have had the freedom to find creative solutions to problems, solutions which fit our particular population. It has also meant, of course, a heavier burden of tasks for instructional staff than might be encountered in a regular high school.

RECRUITMENT

Most of LEAP's under-21 population are new to the school district and are referred to LEAP by St. Paul's assessment and placement center. The majority of these students are 18, 19, or 20 years old. Few of these students would be able to graduate if they went to one of St. Paul's regular high schools because of their ages. These referrals are made continuously throughout the year. Students younger than 18 tend to be siblings or spouses of older students or have arrived in country mid-semester when it is difficult to enroll for credit at a regular high school. Some students in the "under-21" category come directly to LEAP though "word of mouth" and are sent to the placement center for testing and medical evaluation before starting classes.

Only six students under the age of 21 have transferred to LEAP from other St. Paul high schools, excluding students who enrolled for the special summer program only. LEAP has not encouraged schools to transfer students unless it is clear that they are not succeeding where they are.

Of the "21 and above" population at LEAP, about 30% have been students forced to leave their former St. Paul high school because they had reached the age of 21. A number of these had dropped out of high school more than a year previously due to age, work, or child-care.

The majority of LEAP students over the age of 21 are quite new to the country and have learned of the school from friends and relatives. This "word-of-mouth" advertising has brought the majority of students to LEAP. Workers from Lao Family Community, United Cambodian Association, and STRIDE have also brought in some students. At any given time, there are likely to be dozens of students on the waiting list to get in (over 100 as of this writing). The LEAP program has not been adver-

tised, so it is interesting that there are so many trying to get in. Clearly, the demand indicates there are a very large number of young adults in the community who need access to English and basic high school education. Hopefully it also implies that the program offered at LEAP is considered to be valuable by those making the referrals.

Attrition was fairly light in the first two years of operation, perhaps five percent. Most students who dropped out during the year did so because of child care problems or work. Seven students indicated that the were moving to another state or returning to their home country.

About thirty students graduated from LEAP in its first two years of operation. These were students who had completed a good portion of high school before entering LEAP.

EVALUATION OF LEAP

There has been no formal evaluation of LEAP. Presently, statistics are being gathered to compare the progress of LEAP students with students from other St. Paul high schools who have been in the country a similar length of time. There appears to be some evidence that LEAP students are passing the minimum competency tests required for graduation sooner than students from other high schools relative to "time-in-country," though the picture is presently far from complete.

However, LEAP's program is in a continual state of evaluation as staff members, administrators, and interested community members meet to plan for the future, to consider what aspects of the program have gone as hoped, to determine what unplanned benefits have accrued, and to outline what concerns or problems require consideration. There has been general agreement that, as an alternative program, LEAP is on the right track; overall, the curriculum and program described above seems to be working as planned.

POSITIVES

LEAP is "user friendly." It is easy to enroll students and to alter their programs as needed. While classes meet at regular times, it is easy to alter a daily schedule to take groups to the public library, the science museum, or the state capitol, all a short walk away. Schedule flexibility has even allowed one teacher to take a class of students to Washington, DC, for a week without seriously disrupting either the students' or the school's schedules.

The school's small size has helped create an intimate, informal, perhaps "culturally appropriate," atmosphere. LEAP is simply a friendly

school. There is an *esprit de corps*. There have been virtually no instances of conflict between students, nor between staff and students. No disciplinary actions have been required in two years of operation.

While concerns are occasionally raised about increasing the interaction with Americans (discussed below), experienced teachers are quite appreciative of the absence of negative interaction with American students. Interactions and attitudes have been positive. In part, this may be due to the maturity of the students. The older students have contributed to the overall learning atmosphere.

The staff has worked as a team, sharing administrative responsibilities, making decisions and carrying the burdens as a group. There is a strong sense among the teachers that they themselves "call the shots" as they are responsible for creating schedules, assessing students, and determining the length of the school day. Very little has been imposed from above by the district administration. There has been very little "red tape." The staff is free to be creative. They feel creative!

Overall, the most positive factor has simply been that the school focuses completely on the concerns of LEP young adults. The instruction is appropriate to the needs of this group.

CONCERNS

LEAP often faces difficulties in providing classes in all the subjects needed or desired. For example, LEAP cannot hire a full-time science teacher or accounting teacher. Getting someone part-time during the appropriate hours remains a difficult hurdle to overcome.

In its first two years, LEAP encountered many problems related to a shortage of books, materials, and equipment. Some of these problems have been a function of the newness of the program and hopefully this will be less of an issue over time. LEAP's location, however, places constraints on certain types of programming. For example, no gym, art room, or library are easily available, making related activities difficult to schedule. Particularly in winter, students have been very unwilling to walk to locations where such activities might be provided. For a single special outing, this is no great issue; for consistent programming, however, it remains a genuine problem.

Staff members, though enjoying the opportunity to be completely in control of a program, have often found themselves overwhelmed with work. The regular instructional staff perform all the jobs a school might require, except that of janitor: the teachers assess and place students, arrange transportation, design curriculum, schedule students, hand out lunches, supervise lunchrooms, write job descriptions, create flyers, keep track of attendance, write curriculum, create report cards, advise students,

meet with college and technical school representatives, and work with job supervisors. They do this and teach full-time. Burn out is an issue that has been raised by all staff members. However, most staff feel that the first two years will probably prove to be the toughest and that many tasks will become routinized during ensuing years.

A major issue that had been discussed prior to the creation of the program was that of interaction with native English speakers. Not only has LEAP wanted to avoid the appearance of segregating non-native students from the mainstream American population, there is the greater issue of how to create or ensure interaction of LEAP students with native speakers, a necessary ingredient in quality language instruction. LEAP staff members feel that, in general, the volunteer and peer-tutoring components more than make up for the fact that LEAP students are not sharing halls and lunchrooms with American students, given that the realities in most high schools are that minimal positive interaction actually takes place. However, the issue remains an important one at LEAP. Teachers would like to see more interaction between students *in English* in non-structured situations. There might be advantages to housing a program such as LEAP in a high school or another setting where there would be more informal interaction with native speakers as well as increased availability of peer tutors. However, LEAP teachers remain concerned that inclusion of LEAP into a regular school could result in the loss of autonomy for the program, which in turn could mean the loss of focus on the special needs of LEAP students.

PLANS FOR THE FUTURE

In the coming semesters, LEAP staff hope to refine procedures for validating education the students have previously had as well as developing systems for students to gain credit while working independently. Students who have had high school level classes in key content areas such as math, science, and social studies but who lack transcripts ought to be able to get credits, perhaps through testing in the native language. LEAP has been able to grant credits for some students using bilingual staff to determine the extent of prior learning; however, doing so has remained a cumbersome process. A formal, "streamlined" system has yet to be developed.

Similarly, LEAP hopes to create more possibilities for students to increase the pace of their own learning and reward them for doing so by granting "validations," credits earned for completing units of study. Most LEAP students are mature and concerned about learning the language and completing a diploma as quickly as possible. Many of them have the time, skills, and ambition to work independently. This has been evidenced

by the discovery that a number of LEAP students attend evening or weekend classes at other sites after completing their daily 6 1/2 hours of instruction at LEAP. Clearly desire and interest of this sort should be encouraged and rewarded. LEAP hopes that a validation system will facilitate independent study.

LEAP hopes to strengthen its ties with the various colleges and universities in the region. Because of its unique focus on English language learners, its autonomy, and flexibility, LEAP offers unusual possibilities for research, for introducing new methods and materials, and for training teachers. A number of colleges and universities have already placed student teachers and interns at LEAP. At LEAP, they are able to observe and work with a number of experienced teachers in a wide variety of teaching situations – including both large and small group instruction, various skill areas and proficiency levels, and sheltered content classes. LEAP appears to be a unique instructional model and as such it invites research comparing it to other approaches.

CONCLUSIONS

LEAP English Academy represents a unique attempt to meet the needs of LEP students who enter the school systems after the age of 16. Though it is premature to draw conclusions based on its first two years of operation, LEAP offers a model to larger school districts for alternative high school programming for older immigrant students. It may also offer possibilities to the regular high schools about ways curriculum might be altered to meet the overall academic needs of students struggling to learn English, particularly in the area of content classes.

THE AUTHORS

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Defining the World: Content-Based Learning in an ESL Classroom

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This paper describes the development of a one-year ESL/Social Studies course for a secondary school, based on the curriculum for the mainstream class at the same grade level, to be taught in step with the mainstream class. The particular focus is on the construction of appropriate language-restricted coursework. This enables the students to learn and practice the language skills they need, while at the same time absorbing the Social Studies knowledge and concepts that they also need. The paper concludes by noting that the students achieved competency, not only in vocabulary and language structures, but also in Social Studies concepts appropriate to their grade level.

INTRODUCTION

Recently a substitute teacher from Mexico asked me, "How do you plan to move your students into the mainstream? Do they go into lower classes?" When I asked him what areas of learning he was referring to, he said, "How do you make up for their academic studies in social studies, math and science? If they spend all their time in ESL, they will have missed the other work along the way."

My colleague's question articulated the problem of all secondary-level ESL teachers. Their mandate is not just to teach ESL. In addition to teaching language skills, they have to ensure that students have a working knowledge of secondary school science, math and social studies. Their skills in these subjects have to be brought up to the level of native English-speaking students. Without this, no student can be expected to achieve their potential in a mainstream classroom.

My immediate response to this question was, "Of course, the need for a content-based curriculum is self-evident." Citing classroom practice I noted, "High school and middle school ESL teachers in Madison follow a content-based curriculum." He inquired, "How is this done? Do you

have to teach less English language if you teach more ESL Social Studies?" My response, contradictory as it seems, was "You teach more of both."

A valid ESL content-based curriculum must achieve this goal. It must teach language skills at the same time as it teaches content, *e.g.* Social Studies. Furthermore, language skills must be acquired by the students at the same level and speed as they would have been acquired in a "straight" ESL language course. Most teachers do not need convincing that a content-based curriculum is academically desirable, but course-descriptions are hard to find. This paper describes a year in which I constructed and taught a content-based curriculum, hoping to show that language ability improves faster in a content-based ESL class. At the end of the year, student gain in English language ability was measured by comparison of their test scores against scores from a class that had not studied in a content-based curriculum.

I begin with a brief description of the background in English for Specific Purposes which led to the development of this curriculum. I will then summarize the different attempts at assimilating ESL into mainstream secondary school studies. Finally, there is a description of the course which finally emerged as the best method to achieve this aim.

BACKGROUND

For the first seven years of my teaching career, my ESL experience consisted of developing and teaching courses in English for Specific Purposes. Each course was for college-level ESL, with each based on a different academic discipline. The work could not really be described as curriculum design, since no time was ever available for forward planning. It was teaching while glued to the drawing board in that lessons were mostly written the night before being taught in instant response to demands from content-area teachers. Classes depended on an all-out effort to teach the English most closely interwoven with the current coursework, *e.g.*, a university medical or engineering course. Each new course would mandate its specialized language. Since no two courses ever used the same specialized language, this type of teaching required much flexibility and rapid adaptation from the teacher. Writing the course while teaching it was always a lot of hard work, but it appeared to be the best way to achieve the desired result.

When I started high-school teaching, I faced a roomful of high-spirited students who wanted to enjoy life and thought I was the one to help them do it. I was not inclined to disagree, but I did need to be sure it was I who set the agenda, not the students at the back of the classroom. Language drills and comprehension exercises did not seem to be particularly

appropriate in this setting. I needed to find something to be more passionate about. I already had a sturdy background in English for Specific Purposes instruction, but I questioned whether a curriculum for a younger age group could be created using the same mold. Although the situation mandated content-based instruction, I was doubtful the techniques used in teaching English for Specific Purposes could be applied to create content-based instruction in the ESL secondary school classroom. This is an account of the different attempts I made to solve the problem.

Implementing content-based instruction implies, first of all, that the instruction be driven by the content that the students are required to know, as opposed to being driven by the language they must master to get at the content. The ESL teacher always faces a dilemma: should the content drive the language, or vice versa? Does language impose certain inflexible restraints? For example, can a student learn the past tense before the present tense, or learn the passive before learning the past tense? The conundrum for the teacher is therefore a paradox. You cannot muddle with content, it will only be distorted; however, if you do not target the language level, will any student grasp the content?

I did not immediately tackle the problem of content-based ESL studies. I spent the first semester in my secondary school ESL class teaching "straight" ESL. I happily created situational speech exercises, reading and discussion exercises, and comprehension and composition lessons. The class was sedate and learning took place. In my second semester, I moved into using more functional language skills. I planned to put far more emphasis on productive skills. One unit taught skills necessary for finding a job by means of searching the classified sections of newspapers, discussing what was found, and writing letters of application. Another unit taught composition and presentation skills based on research assigned to individual students. At the end, each student had produced two reports: one oral, using OHP, and one written, using maps and diagrams. This type of project was more of a challenge to the students and sometimes "scary," but it produced good work, and engaged their interest, especially when they were able to watch others presenting in front of the class.

Less satisfying were my sessions in a mainstream classroom, where I was trying to "enable" the students to keep up with the mainstream in their other academic studies. I found that the school timetable allowed me two choices. I could either join the mainstream class with my students and work at perpetually catching them up with the lessons, or I could pull students out and try to teach the same material to them separately.

Option one is the inclusion, or pull-in, model. I spent several semesters trying this method, which is currently favored by many educators.

The problem was that students with limited language ability needed one-to-one instruction. I would find myself repeatedly spending valuable class time just finding the place in the book for each student, one after another, then more class time explaining (always one-by-one) what the task of the moment was. I had to do it with one student after another because they were scattered about the classroom, and I could not call across the room without interrupting the classroom teacher. I could only provide a feasible one-to-one service for one student at a time, which meant that while I was explaining to one student, the others were inactive. Having found the place, having understood the task, they still did not know how to perform it. If they could not understand the classroom teacher, I could not constantly interrupt the lesson to explain. In the end, my time was spent translating the same vocabulary, word-by-word, to different students, explaining where to start, how many to do, what could be left out, what could be left in. It was a never-ending exercise in frustration because I could never teach anything. Instead, I existed to facilitate. The students likewise felt marginalized and set to one side. They were either on the periphery or completely outside of everything that went on in the classroom. No matter how hard they worked, they could rarely participate, never hope to catch up, never achieve a good grade. No matter what both teachers did to help, they were trailing a long way behind.

A year later, I turned to a second option, realizing the impossibility of teaching mainstream materials for social studies and science, or even math, because of the high language content of math books. I scheduled my class to take ESL Language, ESL Science, ESL Math and ESL Social Studies with me. I endeavored to construct parallel courses for ESL students, using a simplified content and preparing assignments at a much lower level. The students were a good deal happier. They immediately became far more vocal and started producing meaningful classwork and homework. However, subconsciously I knew that some features of the class were unsatisfactory. I worried about the gross oversimplification of the tasks required of the students. In addition, the level of academic achievement was too low. The students were happy, but my suspicion was confirmed when a special education student joined my class. He was just as happy as the others. He could do everything they could do. Obviously my classes were not challenging enough for the students who could have been high achievers. This perhaps also explains why I had difficulty in creating a discerning grade scheme for this class.

The conclusion was that neither of the above options was very satisfactory, either to me or to the students. I started making attempts to find another solution. I determined it was possible to modify the two options above. I first chose to work within the mainstream classroom by some-

times having the ESL students in a small group at one side of the room. Another strategy became available when one classroom teacher agreed to team with me, allowing me to step in and teach the whole class at structured intervals. Other arrangements allowed ESL students to be pulled out of the mainstream when they needed extra tuition in certain areas of study, feeding them back in later when appropriate. These moves were planned with the classroom teachers on a continuous basis to ensure that ESL students would be able to do at least part of their assignments. Extra class time was scheduled for students in the ESL classroom, which was used as study hall for particularly difficult assignments.

These strategies worked as well as piecemeal programs ever work. The students were disorganized. They never knew where they would be from one week to the next. Any coherent teaching plan to build gradually on the achievements of the year was impossible. The students perceived themselves to be "fill-ins." Using knowledge and skills based on earlier work during the year was not something they ever had a chance to do. Worst of all, none of my efforts prevented the worst problem: the arrival of a desperate student at lunch time, clutching an assignment for a report. "I not can do my ESL now, I must to finish my ancient civilization report for Ms. X." No matter that he or she cannot write a correct sentence. No matter that they do not understand the word "civilization." An assignment from their mainstream class teacher carries a grade. Who was I to say that they should not try to get it done?

The question remained: what is the most successful way to construct a content-based ESL curriculum, giving equal balance to second language learning and content-based learning? If the solutions above are unsatisfactory, how can a curriculum be designed to produce better results? I was considering these questions when I was transferred to a different school. My colleague at this school was in the process of implementing a self-contained ESL program. An important factor here was that we had the complete support of our principal, in implementing the timetable for the program. Classes, based on the combination of ESL with an academic subject, were to be taught within a two-period time-slot and would maintain the academic level as close to that of mainstream as possible. My part of the program was the ESL/Social Studies curriculum.

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROJECT ACHIEVE

The guidelines for this particular program were set up by Project Achieve.[1] This is a federally funded program which exists to give advice

[1] Project Achieve: Urbana School District, 1108 West Fairview Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801. 375-7764.

and support to the ESL teacher who teaches "content-based ESL" in any school in the United States. It defines "content-based ESL" as a custom-designed course, taught continuously for one year, in a self-contained setting, merging ESL with one other academic discipline AT THE LEVEL REQUIRED BY MAINSTREAM FOR THAT CLASS. My Project Achieve advisor had worked extensively with ESL science, but less extensively with ESL social studies. In my context I needed to focus on an ESL social studies combination. Fortunately, I had the benefit of having worked for several years with secondary school social studies content. I found my advisor's approach and examples of her coursework to be a great inspiration. I was asking, "Can I really get away with doing this?" Project Achieve was answering, "This is the right way to go."

The immediate problem with teaching content-based ESL is that the ESL can be swamped by the content-area material. There is so much to teach in a middle school social studies curriculum. One is faced with the need to teach an enormous amount of specialized vocabulary as well as an abundance of abstract concepts. For example, I could not assume that students would have the concepts of monarchy, republicanism, civil war, democracy, autocracy or universal ballot. Fortunately, ancient civilizations provide a context of real stories to explain these concepts of human development, and that was the curriculum for grade six. My task was to set these stories into accessible learning units for ESL students.

Over the summer I planned a social studies course that used the ESL structures I needed to teach to low level, intermediate ESL students. I immediately realized I was going to break the ESL rule of presenting graduated language items to the students. Of course I wanted a finite set of structures and a finite set of grammatical structures. Of course I had a list of grammatical items that I felt they could not do without. On the other hand, I knew that it was unrealistic to expect that students work only within a restricted grammar.

I decided it might be realistic to expect the students to read and listen to unrestricted language forms while placing particular emphasis on the items on my restricted list. As always in ESL, I had to guess at the language ability of the incoming sixth grade. Later I found them to be very much in the range between False Beginners and Low Intermediate students. I did not want students to arrive at a new school and be faced with an intimidating array of difficult language added to all the other difficulties they would face. They needed to taste achievement right from the start. There is a large gap between fifth grade and sixth grade schoolwork, the "hump" of abstract conceptualization. I did not want a course overloaded with challenges in the first weeks of the semester.

I started by writing some pre-course review units. The overall plan for the year, and these preliminary units, took up most of my summer

planning time. However, once the pattern was established, it was not too difficult to write the remaining coursework during the teaching year.

These first three (preliminary) units included "The Solar System," "The Ancient World" and "The Sumerians." I used a variety of materials: some from picture encyclopedias, some ESL, some from grade-levels one to six. I also included documentaries, movies and videos to expand the subject areas. All were tried-and-true materials from previous years. At this point I did not plan on teaching language so much as focusing the students' attention on the skills they needed: reading, writing, speaking and listening. Most importantly, they would learn that from the first day they had to study for a test on this (and all) material. With all this in mind, I constructed lessons that would steer a student toward acquiring sentences rather than isolated vocabulary. Naturally these sentences would have to be correct; at the same time, they would acquaint the student with the concepts necessary to the field of study, rather than just words. Once they were focused on the task, I had to make sure that the students acquired a thorough grasp of the verb system in English.

The question about language was, "Where should I start?" I had heard of courses where absolute beginners of ESL were taught the past tense before learning anything else in the language. In fact, this is how Arabic as a second language is taught in Arabic Universities. I was not quite ready to do that. I started by teaching the solar system and basic world geography. This mandated the use of the simple present tense. I hoped it would give me a lot of material to put into sentence grammar exercises before I had to move on to more complicated structures. I hoped to be able to control student responses within a very simple language range. I restricted vocabulary and grammar while teaching the constructions for sentences, questions and answers. I supplemented by using vocabulary-building exercises and/or question and answer games and dialogs. Then, as soon as the students started studying history (the Ancient World and the Sumerians), I started working on the simple past tense. I wrote out a continuum of structural acquisition and monitored correct forms as far as possible when requiring productive skills (speaking and writing). I found no context for teaching the progressive tenses, so did not teach them. Later we suddenly found ourselves using them all the time while planning and discussing field trips. Modals, on the other hand, made their appearance rather early in the course: "Would you rather be a nomad or a city dweller?" This demonstrates the different mental processes required of the students: concrete transformations for language ability vs. abstract concepts for social studies.

Appendix 1 matches the titles of the units with the grammatical skills I hoped to generate from the students. It started very basically with the present tense of the verb "to be." My main concern at the outset was that

I would not be able to provide enough repetitive practice for the students to internalize the language forms. As a fall-back, I planned a daily study hall to teach "straight ESL" if and when that turned out to be necessary. It did! Over the year, the students worked continuously in this study hall on back-up "straight ESL" exercises.

I knew from past experience that nothing would work without restricted grammar and vocabulary, but I also knew that nothing would succeed without free writing exercises and classroom activities. I knew exactly what to do for the former, but did not have many plans for the latter. As the course progressed, however, it became clear that the subject matter itself would help to dictate classroom activities; abstract concepts of social studies, writing skills and many different classroom games and activities emerged in the lessons of their own volition.

We spent more time than I had anticipated on the preliminary section of the curriculum, but this was truly a low-level ESL class. They needed the practice. I found I was able to pace the work easily, keeping it within the ability of all. The subject matter of the stars and their spheres really held their interest. I had a sense this was because they felt they were doing "real" studying. The concepts proved to be well within the capacity of a low intermediate group. The language skills, however, developed extremely slowly. I had trouble focusing their attention on the need for language accuracy. This problem was partially solved when I insisted on recognizing the difference between an answer that was correct but had incorrect English and an answer that was correct with correct English. At this point, the beauty of my new approach revealed itself. Always before I had been faced with the problem of thinking up relevant sentences to use as examples illustrating the need for a particular structure. Now suddenly I had a host of correct examples included in the subject matter they had to learn. Even better, the students were expected to use them in the context of a whole area of supporting text. Examples of some of the writing tasks can be found in Appendix 2.

I chose a series of short reading books to serve as textbooks.[2] They incorporated the concepts that have to be mastered in grade six social studies. They were not written for ESL students, but they did have a limited amount of reading text on each page. More than half of each page had colorful, graphic illustrations which proved essential for much of the new vocabulary. Each booklet had a generous number of suggestions for hands-on projects in each unit. In all I planned to use six of these booklets over the year. I wanted them to be just above the reading level of my class. Grammar-restricted books do not exist for this pur-

[2] "Journey to Civilization" Series by Robert Nicholson. Published by Chelsea House Publishers. Copyright by Two-Can Publishing Ltd.

pose. I wrote ESL language exercises to accompany the books, again devising them so as to keep control of the grammar in student responses. The first sections were written before I started the teaching year, but most were written as I taught. The students needed far more practice than I had anticipated, mostly with verbs: *e.g.* questions, negatives, different forms of the verb "to be," "there is" and "there was," and the simple present tense with "do" and "does." I included more coursework to give them more practice in the affirmative, negative and interrogative forms for each structure. There were exercises for classroom activities eliciting individual dynamics, paired dynamics, group dynamics and team dynamics. When classroom discipline became a little ragged, I established a change of activity approximately every twenty minutes. In addition, I made sure I had a hands-on, creative project to accompany each stage in learning, aiming to introduce these before any signs of boredom appeared in the classroom. This part was easy, as I was already familiar with what students in middle school enjoy doing and with the artistic ability of ESL students in particular. Classroom projects are listed in Appendix 3.

There were some unanticipated difficulties that arose as well as some gaps and inconsistencies that will need to be addressed before the course is taught a second time. But this is always the case. More satisfying were the unexpected bonuses, the "aha" moments: unanticipated events and student contributions that arose spontaneously, demonstrating not only how much the students had learned, but also how much they were thinking about the subject matter and relating it to the context of their own knowledge, even to knowledge acquired at an earlier stage in the course. For example, months after we had finished the Solar System Unit and been to the planetarium, a student told me he had been out to see the sky at night and "saw Vega." While doing a unit on space travel, a student asked, "Is this true or fake?" When we studied the Sumerians, a student asked, "How did they make people obey laws?" Each time this happened, I was able to make it the basis of an extension to that area of study. For example, when they studied China, we had the following conversation:

"Why did Emperor Pu Yi lose China?"
"Because there was a revolution."
"Who won?"
"There was Civil War after the revolution....."
"Oh, just like in Rome."

So I went home and wrote out a lesson on the life of Mao-Tse Tung!

TESTING

I gave the students a "before" and "after" test as a measure of lan-

guage achievement. I used the same test given to all secondary school students in the district. In previous years I had normed this test to our student population, administering it in a mainstream + ESL class of 90 students for three consecutive years.[3] My normed data had demonstrated that ESL students who achieved a raw score of over 90 points on the test would be able to function in their mainstream classroom. The same data had showed me that in a conventional ESL classroom, students generally increase their raw score by approximately 10 points per year. My data for the Project Achieve year show that the average class score at the beginning of the year for 17 students was 50 points. The average score at the end of the year was 74. The greatest gain was made by a student who started at 39 points and finished at 96. These test scores do not include the "borderline ability"students. These students had beginning scores of between 80 and 90 points. They were transferred from my class to mainstream classes early in the year because their language ability was higher. I was asked to exit them because the ESL class was "too large" and the mainstream class "too small." According to their test scores, these students too would have benefited from staying in the class for a year. I tested them after they had spent the year in a mainstream class and their average gain was 5 points.

REFLECTING ON THE YEAR

During this year, my students showed their conceptual capacity and development in a number of ways. They asked pertinent questions, unprompted, throughout the course: "What happened after the revolution?" "Why did they worship the Sun?" "Why did they steal wives?" "How did they live without money?" "How did they find their way by sea?" "Why did they hate the Spartans?" They brought in their own pictures of different civilizations--completely unsolicited. They also contributed oral and written stories and pictures of their own cultures. Some requested time to study specific civilizations I had not originally planned to include in the curriculum. We did add a unit on the Maya.

Inevitably, not everything was perfect. My profusion of different activities resulted in the class becoming rather noisy and excited some of the time. This unsettled attitude was prevalent until the end of the first quarter. In retrospect, just after this they started to share work voluntarily with each other. At the time, I decided they needed more conventional ESL practice, so I set up a remedial ESL language class outside their ESL/Social Studies time. It was then something of a shock to find

[3] Language Assessment Battery III, 1982. Copyright by Board of Education, City of New York, Department of Testing, Curriculum Division.)

out that while they were able to read and understand "nomads, pastoralists, agriculture, irrigation, government, and rulers," they did not have the same confidence when dealing with "basement, backyard, bedroom, bathroom, kitchen, and chicken." The ESL Social Studies class, by then, was on a roll. They continued to learn and to finish all work on time with zest. This maintenance of high student interest has been the most rewarding aspect of the content-based teaching. Equally gratifying has been the ease with which the curriculum has led students to assimilate social studies concepts and a sense of history.

During another session with my Project Achieve advisor later on in the year, she suggested I try to include some report-writing skills. As I had four weeks of the semester left, I had time to do this. I treated the seventh textbook, "The Maya," in a slightly different way. Instead of assigning comprehension questions and writing tasks, I asked the students to take notes from the book and also to take notes from a PBS movie. Then I asked them to write a report from their notes. Again the value of this content-area approach shows its usefulness. The students had already worked on six textbooks about different civilizations. They knew exactly what headings to put in their notebooks when researching for this information. They wrote their seventh report on the computer, so they now have the computer skills to do it again. An eighth assignment was to choose their own civilization, research the information themselves from resources they could find in the school media center and write it up themselves on the computer. It was not really within their capabilities, but they knew what information to look for and handed in some very credible written work.

CONCLUSION

This teaching approach, I have no doubt, is much the best way to succeed in secondary school ESL. I am sure there are still areas, both in content and language, that could have been covered. Some of the language practice exercises can be expanded and refined. More time could be given to report writing and oral presentation. Extra time might be gained at the outset by more ice-breaking activities, by more obvious structured expectations, and by pacing activities more carefully. With the main structure of the course in place, and satisfactory results, I hope to be able to teach it and refine it for next year. There is no doubt, however, that over the course of the first year, students developed a certain maturity in discussing social studies concepts. This is one of the chief aims of secondary school social studies. The most interesting part of a second year will be discovering what else can be included and how existing activities can be expanded to make the course even more effective.

THE AUTHOR

Elizabeth Hoadley started her professional life in broadcasting before moving to ESL. She has taught ESL to college students in England, Norway, France, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. More recently she started a "second career" in secondary education in Madison, Wisconsin.

APPENDIX 1:
GRAMMATICAL SKILLS TAUGHT BY UNIT

Grammatical Skills	Solar System	Cavemen	Sumerians	Tutankhamen	The Egyptians	The Greeks	The Romans	The Chinese	The Mongols	The Maya	The Aztecs	The Hmong
"to be"	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Prepositions	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Present Simple	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Singular/Plural Agreement	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
There is/There are	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Questions/Negatives	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sentences	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Some/Any		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Past Tense (regular)		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Past Tense (irregular)		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Infinitives			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
If					x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Modals/Necessity						x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Present Perfect							x	x	x	x	x	x
Passive								x	x	x	x	x
Conjunctions									x	x	x	x
Complex Sentences										x	x	x
Clauses											x	x

APPENDIX 2: SAMPLE WRITING TASKS

Writing Skills	Solar System	Cavemen	Sumerians	Tutankhamen	The Egyptians	The Greeks	The Romans	The Chinese	The Mongols	The Maya	The Aztecs	The Hmong
Sentence Punctuation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Spelling and Dictation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Verbs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Nouns	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Subject+Verb+Object		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Paragraph Indent		x	x	x	x	x						
Paragraph Spacing		x	x	x	x	x						
Paragraph Types:		x	x	x	x	x						
Nomad or farmer?		x			x							
Egyptian school?					x							
Favorite God(dess)					x							
Best of Greece						x						
Make up sentences							x	x	x	x	x	x
Make up a paragraph							x	x	x	x	x	x
Topic Sentence								x	x	x	x	x
Conclusion Sentence								x	x	x	x	x
Subject/Predicate Analysis								x	x	x	x	x
Pronouns								x	x	x	x	x
Adjectives										x	x	x
Adverbs											x	x
Note-taking										x	x	x
Report Writing:												
Take notes from video										x	x	x
Take notes from text										x	x	x
Research in IMC for notes												x

APPENDIX 3: CLASSROOM PROJECTS

Units	Classroom Projects
The Solar System	Group work: wall chart, glitter planets Individual projects: planet mobile
The Cavemen	Group work: interactive reading and listening Pairs: questioning
The Sumerians	Group work: time-line of ancient civilizations Group work: model of Sumerian temple
Tutankhamen	Individual projects: 2-dimensional decorated mummy case Individual projects: hieroglyph crossword
The Egyptians	Grade 6 project: Egyptian guest speaker, slide show Egyptian banquet
The Greeks	Individual projects: Greek masks Pairs: role-play prejudice (Greeks vs. Spartans) African-American and Indonesian guest speakers Class court: use pottery sherds to vote on criminal's guilt
The Romans	Individual projects: plan of Roman camp Pairs: role-play Emperor's Laws vs. Republican Laws
The Chinese	Group work: simulation of Marco Polo's travels Individual projects: Chinese lantern Individual projects: write 5 sentences in Chinese (with English translations) Visiting speaker: Chinese culture and artifacts
The Mongols	Individual projects: Mongol hat Individual projects: illustrate your own haiku
The Maya	Individual projects: weaving Cooking Mayan food
The Aztecs	Using a compass Finding points of the compass Making a map Finding your way

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The World Wide Web and Electronic Mail: Applications for ESL

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While the World Wide Web and electronic mail will probably never replace traditional textbooks in the classroom, their many resources enable ESL educators to bring new teaching methods and new sources of information into the classroom. Since the Web provides reading materials as varied as novels, resumes, government reports, and syllabi, students can read many different forms of written English and, even more importantly, find reading material of personal interest. In addition to reading, ESL students can also use the World Wide Web and e-mail to practice their writing skills as well as their grammar, listening, and research skills.

INTRODUCTION

With the rapid expansion of the World Wide Web over a few short years, it is no wonder that many ESL educators have begun to look to the Web for opportunities for enhancing ESL instruction. Hundreds of thousands of web pages, simply by virtue of being written in English, present a wealth of real-world material for students to read. The many ESL-specific web pages not only offer additional reading material, but also encourage student communication with native and non-native speakers of English, publish ESL students' writing, suggest web-based lesson plans for teachers, answer students' grammar questions, and exercise students' listening skills. And, unlike the authors of standard ESL print texts and computer software, web-site authors can constantly change, update, and rework their sites to adjust to their users' needs. The World Wide Web has thus become a new kind of ever-changing, all-encompassing textbook for English language learners of all levels.

Electronic mail, another aspect of the Internet which has blossomed over the past few years, is also expanding the English language classroom beyond its traditional boundaries. By letting subscribers send text-based communication through the computer to others with e-mail accounts, e-mail gives students with computers a low-cost way to send

questions to an instructor, correspond with a student from another region or country, gain information about a particular topic, and, most importantly, practice communicating in written English with an audience of peers. Instructors, too, find that e-mail widens their capabilities for communication both in and out of the classroom by allowing them to conduct out-of-class discussions with students, locate educational materials, communicate with colleagues, and arrange cross-cultural student writing exchanges. While e-mail does not provide the same opportunities for grammar practice and listening activities that the Web does, its ability to encourage students' written communication in English makes it an extremely valuable tool for the English-language classroom.

Described below are web sites and e-mail applications suitable for adult, pre-college, and/or college-level ESL students interested in improving their English language skills. Much of the information, gathered for an Annenberg/CPB-funded research project, "Curricular Transformation and Technology in Developmental Education," conducted at the General College of the University of Minnesota, was collected from Internet-based research, print-based research, and surveys sent to leaders in the field of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and instructors in community and technical college ESL programs. Rather than a compilation of "the best of the Internet" for ESL students, the discussion below of web sites and e-mail applications is designed as a starting point for exploring the Web and incorporating some of this technology into the ESL curriculum.

READING

The World Wide Web may prove most invaluable for ESL teaching in the area of reading since web users can easily access millions of English-language texts of all different styles with just a few clicks of the mouse. Web surfers can read materials as diverse as the *New York Times On the Web*,[1] movie reviews by a seventeen-year-old on the web page *Teen Movie Critic*, Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn*, a soap opera-like serial called *The Spot*, and the *Declaration of Independence*. Since such variety makes it difficult to present a comprehensive discussion of reading materials appropriate for ESL students, discussed here are but a few of the on-line reading sources which can address student and teacher interests. Those interested in finding more information about different reading materials

[1] Please note that the URLs (or addresses) of each web site mentioned are listed at the end of this paper. Although all URLs are current as of November 1996, the changing nature of the Web does not permit a guarantee of accuracy after that time.

need only use one of the many search engines on the Web to find the desired information. (See the Research section below for more discussion of search engines.)

For ESL teachers who would like to use readings from web sites designed for ESL students, the Comenius Group's *Virtual English Language Center* features short fables which incorporate reading comprehension, vocabulary building, and writing exercises for non-native English speakers. At a more advanced level, Leslie Opp-Beckman's *OPPtical Illusion... Theme-Based Pages* provides extensive lists of web pages (some created for ESL students, but many not) on topics as varied as immigration, the death penalty, and Pre-Columbian history. Some of the topics she lists are linked to just one web site, but many have links to several online texts and resources which provide students the opportunity to read different kinds of text. The theme of gender issues, for instance, can lead readers to a photo documentary on teenage pregnancy, a report on women's opportunities in the military, or a history of the Stonewall Rebellion.

To find literature-based and classic English-language texts, John Mark Ockerbloom's *The On-line Books Page* has links to more than two thousand texts, both fiction and nonfiction, which are accessible through the World Wide Web. Students and teachers can search for books by subject, author, or title, and link to the web site where the texts are published. For teachers looking for short works of fiction from a smaller web site, Richard Darsie's *Tales of Wonder: Folk and Fairy Tales from Around the World* introduces readers to international folk tales from such regions and countries as Siberia, China, India, the Middle East, and England. Usually much shorter and more simply written than the texts located through *The On-line Books Page*, these stories might hold particular interest for mid-level students involved in writing folk tales about their native countries.

If students do not have access to networked computers in the classroom, some texts from the Web may be printed and distributed as paper copies to a class. Teachers considering such use of Web texts must receive permission from the web site's author or webmaster (an e-mail address for the author is usually located on the main page of each web site) before any text is copied, in accordance with copyright laws.

COMMUNICATING THROUGH WRITING

In the field of ESL, the Web's use as a source of reading material is probably closely seconded, if not superseded, by its use as a provider of authentic audiences for students' writing. Many web sites incorporate or promote the use of e-mail to encourage students to communicate through writing. E-mail exchange projects, a popular use of the Web and e-mail in the field of computer-assisted ESL writing, ask students to con-

verse through e-mail messages with students in different regions of the world. The culminating event of these exchanges is frequently the completion of a joint project, often posted on a World Wide Web site for all involved classes and the public to see. Ruth Vilmi's *HUT Internet Writing Project* web site both describes one of the better-known exchange projects involving a college EFL class and provides information about joining HUT e-mail exchange projects. Another source of information on e-mail exchanges is Kenji and S. Kathleen Kitao's *Keypal Opportunities for Students*, with links to web pages which arrange keypal exchanges, give information on current exchanges, and publish student projects from past exchanges. In these keypal projects, students must often complete an assignment which requires them to correspond with a student in a class in another area of the country or in another part of the world. Students might discuss a "Question of the week" (Tillyer, 1993) with their partner, respond to an open-ended question related to the topics studied in all exchange classes (Davis & Chang, 1994/95), or create "Culture Pages" on the World Wide Web (Vilmi, 1996).

Although the several months of advance preparation needed for a successful exchange project may sound prohibitive to many teachers (Corio, 1996), many ESL and EFL instructors who have incorporated exchange projects into their classes report a number of successful student outcomes. In response to our survey about ESL teachers' use of technology in the classroom, several instructors noted that students involved in exchange projects write more, edit their writing more carefully, pay closer attention to their audience's response to the project, and use critical thinking skills more often than do students whose writings are only read by the teacher. Since the exchange projects ask students to write to audiences who, unlike teachers, do not get paid to read the students' writing, students find themselves writing in English not just for fulfillment of the teacher's assignments, but for its intended purpose — communication.

Even without a specific audience inherent in most e-mail exchange projects, publication of student writing on the World Wide Web motivates many students to improve their writing skills (Mills, 1996). While some instructors publish students' writing on a class home page, ESL instructors without a home page, and even without access to the World Wide Web, can help students publish their work through one of the World Wide Web's many electronic magazines or ESL sites. *EXCHANGE* and *The Email Project* are two well-known web sites that publish adult ESL and EFL students' writing. *EXCHANGE*, run by Volker Hegelheimer and others at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, publishes non-native English speakers' short essays, stories, and poetry. *The Email Project*, maintained by Susan Gaer, is a series of writing projects for adult ESL students in literacy programs and non-credit community college classes.

One activity, *The Cookbook Project*, asks students for favorite recipes and short written descriptions explaining the recipes' importance. Certain recipes and descriptions are selected each year for publication at the web site. Another project, *The Annotated Booklist*, invites adult learners to submit their own written descriptions of books read for pleasure or to children. Selected submissions for *The Annotated Booklist* are then published at the web site.

Promoting informal written English for both communication and information collection can be done through mailing lists, commonly known as listservs, which allow students to read and post messages via e-mail to large groups of people who share an interest in a particular subject. The *International Students Lists* are a group of mailing lists for ESL and EFL students to discuss shared topics of interest. Currently, the ten International Students Lists include one of general interest for mid-level ESL/EFL speakers, one of general interest for advanced speakers, and seven which focus on topics such as music, current events, and business. The web site *SL-Lists: International EFL/ESL E-mail Student Discussion Lists* has more information on joining these mailing lists. Students can, of course, also join mailing lists not specifically for non-native English speakers. To find a list which fits their own interests, students can consult the *Liszt Directory of E-Mail Discussion Groups*, which lets users search through thousands of mailing lists by subject, word, or phrase. Students and teachers can also request a list of listservs by sending an e-mail message addressed to listserv@cunyvm.cuny.edu and putting "list global" in the text of the message.

ESL teachers interested in joining colleagues across the world in discussion may be particularly interested in two mailing lists, NETEACH-L and TESL-L (The Electronic Forum for Teachers of English as a Second Language). Both NETEACH-L and TESLCA-L, a branch of TESL-L, are for teachers interested in Computer Assisted Language Learning, although NETEACH-L primarily focuses on the Internet while TESLCA-L covers all areas of CALL in its discussions. To join NETEACH-L, instructors need only send an e-mail message to listserv@thecity.sfsu.edu. In the body of the e-mail, type "subscribe NETEACH-L your-first-name your-last-name" should be typed, as in "subscribe Jane Doe." To join TESL-L, the e-mail message "SUB TESL-L your-first-name your-last-name" should be sent to listserv@cunyvm.cuny.edu. The welcome greeting from TESL-L gives directions for joining TESLCA-L and other branches. Besides giving teachers the chance to talk with colleagues, NETEACH-L and TESL-L have archives which contain information related to teaching ESL and EFL. The NETEACH-L archives are located at the NETEACH-L web site, and the vast and widely used TESL-L archives are accessible through e-mail after subscription to TESL-L has been confirmed.

As in the Reading section above, the Writing activities discussed here are but a few of students' many opportunities to practice writing through the World Wide Web and e-mail. In addition to the primarily ESL and EFL web sites and mailing lists discussed here are many web sites which publish native English speakers' writing and mailing lists focusing on issues unrelated to ESL teaching and learning. An ESL teacher or student need only explore the Web, talk to colleagues, or read some of the many printed texts on pedagogical uses of the Internet to discover even more ways to combine writing, the World Wide Web, and e-mail.

GRAMMAR

Teachers and students interested in writing mechanics may also be interested in the large number of web sites which include some kind of grammar component. A good starting point to grammar exploration on the Web is Karen M. Hartman's *English Grammar Links for ESL Students*, a web site which describes several grammar-related World Wide Web pages. One of the site's links leads to Dave Sperling's *Dave's ESL Quiz Center*, part of the large and popular *Dave's ESL Cafe on the Web*. At the home page of the *Quiz Center*, ESL students can select quizzes on grammar or other subjects, such as news, history, world culture, and science. The grammar quizzes focus on modals, prepositions, verb tenses, and other grammar issues typically taught to ESL students. The questions for each quiz appear on a web page which lets students select their answers by highlighting the circles next to their chosen answers. After students have finished, they simply click the mouse arrow on the "Submit for evaluation" button, wait a few moments, and see on the computer screen their original answers and the correct answers. Since the *Quiz Center* does not provide instruction in grammar, these quizzes are perhaps best suited for students who want extra practice on specific grammar points. Teachers interested in using this site on an on-going basis may be interested to know that they can submit their own quizzes to be posted to this web site. *Dave's ESL Help Center*, another web site within *Dave's ESL Cafe*, enables students to send grammar questions via electronic mail to an ESL or EFL instructor. The question, response, and any subsequent related e-mails are posted at the Help Center web site so students can read other questions and answers from the past month. Students may find this web site particularly useful when they would like another perspective or an additional explanation of a grammar rule or English idiom.

Students who would like further explanations of grammar points may also want to look at Purdue University's *On-line Writing Lab* (OWL). Purdue's OWL has many helpful resources for both native and non-native English-speaking college writers. Purdue's "handouts" for ESL stu-

dents review articles, count and non-count nouns, verb tenses, and other parts of grammar relevant to many non-native English speakers. Purdue's other web pages include "handouts" on sentence structure, punctuation, spelling, dangling modifiers, and other writing subjects of interest to both native and non-native students. Students pursuing global writing questions may want to search through Purdue's numerous links to on-line writing references, from dictionaries and thesauruses to tips on writing research papers.

One particularly innovative grammar web site is *Grammar Safari*, by Ann Salzmann and Doug Mills of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The *Grammar Safari* web site explains how students can search for particular grammar constructions, such as prepositions or verb tenses, on any publicly-available web page. By using search engines such as *Alta Vista* and *Web Crawler*, or by using the "Find" key in Netscape, students locate sentences in web pages which contain the searched-for word or phrase. Salzmann recommends incorporating a "safari" into classroom grammar instruction by having students make charts to compare different word usages, analyze the placement of words in sentences, or compete in a game by gaining points for finding different grammar constructions. Since students must deal with "real-life English" texts and grammar, advanced grammar students will probably benefit most from participating in these grammar exercises.

LISTENING

Compared to Web-based reading, writing, and grammar resources for ESL students, listening resources are still in their infancy. As more computers include sophisticated sound components, however, the selection of web-based listening exercises will no doubt increase. There are currently many web sites which include a listening component; *RealAudio: Sites and Sounds: NPR*, for instance, contains clips of current news broadcasts from National Public Radio's "Morning Edition," "All Things Considered," "Talk of the Nation," and "Science Friday." While this web site and others like it offer a great deal of potential for L2 learners, the sound quality of most computers may not be able to reproduce native English speakers' voices clearly and distinctly enough to meet many ESL students' needs.

Web sites designed for ESL students may offer the most useful possibilities for teachers interested in incorporating listening-based web resources into their curricula. One such site is *Learning Oral English Online*, edited by Rong-Chang Li of the University of Illinois. Intermediate-level students are introduced to new vocabulary and American English expressions through a series of typical conversations, such as those involv-

ing shopping, asking directions, and meeting new people. Students can listen to an entire conversation or to selected parts by clicking on specific sentences or groups of sentences. The highlighted sentences, heard slowly through SoundWave, an audio component for the World Wide Web, can be read and listened to as many times as necessary by the student. Follow-up activities provide ideas for checking students' comprehension and the use of new words and phrases, but many of these exercises may be best used in a classroom setting where students can ask questions and practice using new vocabulary with partners. Another listening-based web site, Jim Duber's *Cutting Edge CALL Resources*, has listening quizzes which prompt students to copy down a complex sentence as they hear it. Students answer several comprehension questions related to the sentence and receive feedback on their answers immediately after finishing the quiz. Due to the quick feedback on students' responses and the limited number of listening quizzes (three as of October 1996), this site may be most useful to students practicing their listening skills on an individual basis. Both Li's and Duber's web sites do, however, represent the growing number of web sites which incorporate listening with other English-language skills. As the sound capabilities of computers improve, we can expect to see an even greater number of web sites which use Internet technology for listening practice.

RESEARCH

Although ESL students and teachers can certainly benefit from the many reading, writing, grammar, and listening activities on the World Wide Web, "the most compelling [Web-based] activity for students is the one that leads them to personally relevant material" (Bowers, 1996). As students come to realize that the Web and e-mail can help them as much outside of class as in, using search engines to navigate the Web becomes a skill as important to learn for work and home as it is for class (Mills, 1996). This skill, perhaps more than any other, will keep them coming back to the World Wide Web even after the class has ended. Good research skills also mean that students will continue to use their English reading and writing skills since the World Wide Web's most common language is English.

Web-based research begins with knowledge of the many search engines which can find web pages on a particular person, sentence, title, phrase, or subject. While students can use all search engines to conduct web-based research, some engines are better designed for specific kinds of research than others. Two of the most popular and most different search engines are *Yahoo!* and *Alta Vista*. Organized by the content matter of web sites, *Yahoo!* easily leads readers to lists of related web pages on a

topic. *Alta Vista*, on the other hand, searches quickly through vast numbers of web pages and Usenet groups for a specific word or group of words.

Two examples of searches may best illustrate the differences in these search engines. Teachers interested in getting more information on ESL web sites can easily find a list of such sites through *Yahoo!*. On *Yahoo!*'s home page, readers click on the *Education* subheading to go to the *Education* page, which lists a series of subheadings related to education. A click on the subheading *Languages* leads to a page of the same name, where *English as a Second Language* is among the many language topics listed. The *English as a Second Language* page has a list of ESL- and EFL-related sites, as varied as *PIZZAZ!*, a web site of ESL teaching resources, and *Sounds English*, a review of Macintosh software for ESL learners. *Yahoo!* also allows searches on specific topics, such as "grammar" or "Japan," within the ESL area. A search for "ESL" on *Alta Vista* is not nearly as useful; it yields over 20,000 web pages. An *Alta Vista* search for "English as a Second Language" misses important web pages which only use the abbreviation "ESL."

While *Alta Vista* clearly is not as well suited to general searches as *Yahoo!*, it works well in searches for a specific name or topic. Research on Laotian refugees in the Mekong River delta, for instance, begins on *Alta Vista* by typing "+Mekong +refugee* +Lao*" in *Alta Vista*'s Simple Query mode. After a few moments, *Alta Vista* indicates that 134 web pages with the three words (or extensions of the latter two words, such as "refugees" or "Laotian") have been found. A brief look through the web pages reveals potentially useful documents, such as ones entitled *Refugees from Laos: Historical Background and Causes*, and *Laos Human Rights Practices, 1993*. Since the *Alta Vista* search of the three words also yields inappropriate web pages, such as one which lists Japanese-sponsored aid projects, students need to learn to differentiate "junk" web pages from reliable sources as they learn to use the different search engines effectively. Similar to using a walk-in library successfully, locating useful documents on the Web requires instructors' and students' time, attention, and skill. As the Web continues to expand rapidly, students may find that knowledge of several different search engines and well-developed research skills will not only help them with research for ESL classes, but also contribute to their ability to use the Web (and, most likely, their English skills) outside the ESL classroom.

CONCLUSION

While the World Wide Web cannot replace classroom learning, the Web's vast resources can certainly augment any ESL teacher's curricu-

lum. The sheer variety of reading material on the Web makes it vastly different — and much more personalized — than any printed textbook. And, since the language of so much of the Web is English, students find themselves reading and writing in English, not because of the teacher's direct instructions but because they must use English to make their way through this vast resource. Perhaps most importantly, the World Wide Web and e-mail often change the very nature of the classroom and the curriculum. When students have the freedom to read materials of personal relevance, to chat with a keypal across the room or in another country, or to look away from the teacher for answers or information, the classroom becomes "decentered." The focus shifts from the instructor to the students as the instructor spends less time lecturing and as the students spend more time actively engaged in using their English skills (Sutherland & Black, 1993).

The web site and e-mail applications discussed here are but a few of the many Internet-related activities for ESL students. For more information on World Wide Web sites, the *TESOL Matters* newsletter's column, "Wandering the Web," describes web sites recommended by ESL teachers (Meloni, 1996). For broader information on the integration of the World Wide Web, e-mail, and other Internet features into ESL instruction, the books *E-Mail for English Teaching* (Warschauer, 1995a) and *Virtual Connections* (Warschauer, 1995b) contain helpful, how-to information on using the Internet in the classroom. In *E-Mail for English Teaching*, Mark Warschauer provides basic, easy-to-read information about the Internet to ESL/EFL instructors. The book contains advice ranging from how to get an e-mail account to how to begin a keypal exchange. *Virtual Connections*, edited by Warschauer, contains 125 short chapters in which instructors explain how they have used the Internet to augment their teaching. In each chapter, the author includes detailed information on the set-up, application, and evaluation of the Internet activity. Teachers can easily replicate or modify these 125 activities to suit their own classroom needs. These many activities, however, are just the tip of the iceberg; with increasing world-wide computer and Internet access in schools, colleges, and universities over the next few years, the educational applications of the World Wide Web and e-mail will expand even more.

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APPENDIX: WORLD WIDE WEB SITES

Alta Vista	http://altavista.digital.com/
Alta Vista	http://altavista.digital.com/
Cutting Edge CALL Resources	http://www.chorus.cycor.ca/Duber/m004d.html
Dave's ESL Cafe on the Web	http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/eslcafe.html
Dave's ESL Help Center	http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/wwwboard2/wwwboard.html
Dave's ESL Quiz Center	http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/quiz
Declaration of Independence	http://www.legislate.com/d/dddecind.htm
English as a Second Language	http://www.yahoo.com/Education/Languages/English_as_a_Second_Language/
English Grammar Links for ESL Students	http://www.gl.umbc.edu/~kpokoy1/grammar1.htm
EXCHANGE	http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/exchange/
Grammar Safari	http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/web.pages/grammarsafari.html
Huckleberry Finn	http://etext.lib.virginia.edu/twain/huckfinn.html
HUT Internet Writing Project	http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/Project/
Keypal Opportunities for Students	http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/visitors/kenji/keypal.htm
Laos Human Rights Practices, 1993	http://www.monash.edu.au/ftp/pub/bane_lao/legal/human_rights_report
Learning Oral English Online	http://www.lang.uiuc.edu/r-li5/book/
Liszt Directory of E-Mail Discussion Groups	http://www.liszt.com/
NETEACH-L	http://thecity.sfsu.edu/~funweb/neteach.htm
OPPtical Illusion... Theme-Based Pages	http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/themes.html

PIZZAZ!	http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/pizzaz.html
Purdue University's Online Writing Lab	http://owl.english.purdue.edu
RealAudio: Sites and Sounds: NPR	http://www.realaudio.com/contentp/npr.text.html
Refugees from Laos: Historical Background and Causes	http://www.stolaf.edu/people/cdr/hmong/hmongau/refugee.htm
SL-Lists: International EFL/ESL E-mail Student Discussion Lists	http://www.latrobe.edu.au/www/education/sl/sl.html
Sounds English	http://dspace.dial.pipex.com/town/parade/aag10
Tales of Wonder: Folk and Fairy Tales from Around the World	http://www.ece.ucdavis.edu/~darsie/tales.html
Teen Movie Critic	http://www.dreamagic.com/roger/teencritic.html
The Email Project	http://www.otan.dni.us/webfarm/emailproject/email.htm
The New York Times on the Web	http://www.nytimes.com/
The On-line Books Page	http://128.2.209.79/Web/books.html
The Spot	http://ww1.thespot.com/
Virtual English Language Center	http://www.comenius.com
Web Crawler	http://webcrawler.com/
Yahoo!	http://www.yahoo.com/

Reading Lab: A Comprehensive Starter Kit

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One way to individualize EFL or ESL reading instruction and promote extensive reading at each student's own independent reading level is to offer reading lab (RL). Based on the experiences of establishing RLs in university International English Programs (IEPs) in both Japan and the U.S., this how-to paper presents a rationale and highly-detailed, step-by-step guidance for proposing, organizing, implementing, managing and evaluating an effective RL. This "starter kit" can save valuable time and resources, both in setting up a RL and in its daily operation. Essential handouts and forms are included, ready for duplication or adaptation.

Are your ESL or EFL students reading in English for pleasure? Are they reading at their "independent" reading levels? Are they developing a positive attitude toward reading in English? Are they developing the habit of reading for pleasure on a regular basis? If you answered no to any of these questions, you may want to consider incorporating a structured, extensive reading component into your ESL or EFL reading curriculum.

What is meant by "extensive reading?" *A Dictionary of Reading* defines it as "a program in which students read widely without restraints, with emphasis on broadening the scope of materials read" (Harris and Hodges, 1981, p. 112). Somewhat differently, Grellet defines extensive reading as "reading longer texts, usually *for one's own pleasure* [emphasis added]...a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding" (1981, p. 4). For the purposes of this paper, both definitions apply.

Numerous researchers and practitioners—among them, Nuttall (1982), Bamford (1984), Stoller (1986), Eskey and Grabe (1988), Hafiz and Tudor (1989), Fiedler Vierma (1991), Gradman and Hanania (1991), Nash and Yuan (1992), Krashen (1989, 1993a, 1993b), Constantino (1994) and Dupuy, Tse and Cook (1996)—have pointed out the value of extensive reading for L2 learners. Among the benefits often mentioned are improved reading skills and overall language acquisition as well as the development of reading confidence and a more positive attitude toward L2 reading.

In a recent study at the University of Minnesota, high-intermediate-level English-language students doing extensive reading in reading lab, described in the "starter kit" which follows, demonstrated significant mean gains in TOEFL Reading Test scores compared to those students who did not (French, 1995-96). This study also showed significant correlations among students' self-rating of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) reading ability, pleasure in EAP reading, general English-reading ability, and performance in reading lab. French encourages program administrators to consider establishing an extensive reading system such as reading lab to facilitate reading for enjoyment. Indeed, our own experiences in becoming proficient readers ought to suggest the numerous advantages associated with reading large quantities of material, especially for pleasure.

For various reasons, however, it is all too common in EFL or ESL programs to give extensive reading short shrift. One result of this is that far too many students do little – if any – reading for pleasure and, therefore, read very little, getting stuck in what Nuttall (1982) calls "the *vicious* circle of the weak reader." The reader doesn't read much and, therefore, doesn't understand much. This leads to slow reading, resulting in less enjoyment of reading, and the cycle, unfortunately, continues unbroken.

If Nutall's slogan "we learn to read by reading" is valid, then it seems that as language educators we ought to enable our students to engage in something other than the typically slow grind of intensive reading. That is, we should make it easier for students to travel along Nutall's "*virtuous* circle of the good reader" (1982). The reader reads more and, therefore, understands better. This leads to faster reading, resulting in more enjoyment of reading, and the cycle, desirably, comes full circle.

Overt efforts to make it possible for students to travel along the "virtuous circle" are well documented. Nash and Yuan (1992) describe one example of an effective extensive reading course developed for advanced-level EFL university students. This course is a response to the realization that their English department was concentrating on the improvement of "reading competence, but neglecting to help students develop a real interest in and enjoyment of reading in English" (1992, p. 27).

Essentially the same concern was addressed at a new branch campus of an American university in Japan (Minnesota State University-Akita), where most of the students were elementary and intermediate-level EFL students. Low EFL reading proficiencies and lackluster reading achievement caused instructors to question both what and how much students were actually reading. Following the discovery that most students responded positively to a few carefully chosen illustrated, graded readers read as a class in selected (intensive) reading courses and because such a high number of students seemed stuck in the "*vicious* circle of the weak

reader," a reading lab – serving more than 250 students and based largely on Nuttall's work (1982) – was proposed, organized and implemented. With an actual reading lab room designated for use as a reading lab only, the English program attempted to demonstrate its commitment to extensive reading. The MSU-Akita reading lab format was subsequently adapted and refined further by the English Program for International Students at the Minnesota English Center (University of Minnesota-Twin Cities Campus).

As evidenced by the student evaluations, most students in both the intensive EFL and intensive ESL programs responded positively to the extensive reading format described in this paper. While there were always a few students in every class who seemed not to value or benefit from this unfamiliar kind of L2 reading opportunity or experience, most indicated and/or demonstated that they did. Interestingly, most students indicated that they did not work "very hard" in reading lab. This is probably good news, however, in that *working hard* is not what extensive reading is all about. What is important is that most students read numerous books throughout the term, engaged in independent reading for pleasure that in most cases would not occur otherwise. Perhaps most heartening was the strong tendency among the ESL students to take books home with them to more quickly complete what they had started during reading lab class.

The reading lab described here can serve as a practical and effective format for individualizing reading instruction. Moreover, it provides a refreshing, "non-school-like" dimension to the (reading) curriculum, one very likely to improve most students' attitudes toward reading in English.

The message reading lab attempts to send to students is this: When it comes to improving reading and overall English-language skills, extensive reading is important, and probably even essential, for rapid progress. A well-designed reading lab format encourages L2 students to t*ake reading for pleasure seriously*.

In order to establish an effective reading lab, a considerable amount of preparatory work obviously needs to be done. The "starter kit" that follows provides virtually everything needed, with the exception of books and a few supplies, to have a reading lab (RL) up and running in under eight weeks: from gaining administrative approval, to getting instructors to buy into the concept and format; from selecting and organizing books, to managing a reading lab and evaluating student performance.

THE STARTER KIT

Steps in Setting Up a Reading Lab

The following tasks need to be completed before *students are introduced to RL.*

1. Gain approval to implement a RL. See **Appendix One** for a copy of "Reading Lab: An Overview for Administrators and Instructors." This can be copied or adapted for use in discussing the rationale and format of a RL.

2. Determine how RL will fit into the curriculum. This, of course, is closely linked to step 1. The RL described in this article is designed for elementary and intermediate-level EFL or ESL students, although this format could certainly work with advanced-level students (many of the books at the highest stage of the collection are, in fact, unadapted). I recommend that students attend RL twice each week and that all students be required to attend RL for two or three terms.

Important: While RL can stand on its own as an independent (free-standing) course, it is important for the "regular" reading class instructors to staff RL when their own students are scheduled to be there. This way instructors get to know more about their students' reading skills, problems, attitudes, and goals. Further, students take RL more seriously when their regular reading class instructor is closely monitoring their behavior and progress.

3. Select and order books—mainly illustrated, graded readers (the core RL materials). See **Appendix Two**, "Favorite Books," for some recommendations. As a rule, order *as many different titles as your budget will allow*. US $500 could buy roughly 100 books in 1996. Multiple copies (2-3) of *some* of the most popular books does make sense though, especially if cost is not a major constraint. Remember this, however: *Students always want MORE CHOICE*! Also keep in mind that easier books will probably be appropriate for most students, particularly during their first term in RL. While there are many publishers producing appropriate texts for a reading lab, perhaps the three best publishers of graded readers for EFL/ESL students are Heinemann, Oxford University, and Addison-Wesley/Longman. See **Appendix Three**.

4. **Appendix Four** describes one possible coding system. At the Minnesota English Center we use different colored dots affixed to the lower

right-hand corner on the back cover of every book. The important thing is to have a unified system which can override any confusion arising from the different color schemes used by the various publishers.

5. Prepare to keep track of the books. We found using old-fashioned book pockets with cards worked well for checking books out to take home. Sign-out sheets suffice with small numbers of students. If possible, try to secure the book collection under lock and key to minimize the number of AWOL books, which can be a minor problem. Students need to understand from the outset that the books are for *everyone's* reading pleasure and are not cheap or convenient to replace.

6. Decide on and organize RL space, which should be relatively comfortable and quiet. If possible, try to designate a room specifically for RL. Books should be displayed in an attractive way by stage (level)—with as many covers showing as possible.

7. Construct a placement test. Although not without its critics, cloze tests can quite satisfactorily be used as a technique for placing students into their *independent* reading level. See **Appendix Five** for a sample. Select an appropriate passage from each of the first three stages (levels) in your book collection so that students will test at *three different* levels of difficulty. The reason for doing this is to accommodate the range of reading-proficiency levels in any group of students. For the sake of simplicity, students completing a cloze test with better than 50% accuracy on a given passage (with *exact* word accuracy, *not* synonyms or other possible words), are reading at an independent level. Each student should be placed conservatively (low) and at *two* stages. For example, a weaker reader may be given a YELLOW/ORANGE placement, whereas a much stronger reader may place at GREEN/WHITE. You may find that your cloze test separates your students into just two distinct groups: the stronger readers and everybody else. Further, the 50% cut score may be too high or too low for your test, so you may have to adjust it accordingly. Stronger readers placed (too) low can always move up through the stages quickly and they will, but do avoid placing stronger readers too low. Keep in mind, however, that placing a student too high inhibits extensive reading and defeats the purpose of RL. Use good judgment and be flexible when placing students.

8. Orient instructors: distribute RL documents to be read and hold one or two informational meetings before the beginning of the term. Copy necessary materials for students: the placement tests (practice and actual), "An Introduction to Reading Lab" (**Appendix Six**), "Reading Lab

Rules" (**Appendix Seven**), and "Reading Lab Book Report" (**Appendix Eight**).

The following tasks need to be completed after the term begins (during the first weeks of the term):

9. Refer to "RL schedule for beginning of term." See Appendix One. Also, set up binders or folders for keeping record of completed book reports to document student performance. I don't recommend that you return completed book reports to students, primarily because this makes cheating (or game-playing) too easy. Also, on a bulletin board or wall, display information such as updated lists of "Favorite Books" and even lists of who has read which books (a very effective motivator).

The following tasks need to be completed at the end of the term:

10. Retrieve all books and determine what to do about missing books. Without book security and strict rules, it is possible to lose up to 15% of the books in one term. Make copies of and ask students to complete "Student Evaluation of Reading Lab." See **Appendix Nine**. Evaluate student performance. For workable guidelines, see "Student accountability/evaluation" in the RL overview in Appendix One.

The following tasks need to be completed during term break:

11. Assess RL: make adjustments as needed and consider bolstering the book collection, which probably should be done at least once each year.

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APPENDIX ONE: READING LAB: AN OVERVIEW FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND INSTRUCTORS

What is reading lab?

The reading lab (RL) described below can perhaps best be defined as a *setting* and a *course within a course* (usually reading or reading/composition), designed to both complement and supplement regular (intensive) reading courses.

In RL, students practice "extensive" reading, i.e., reading longer selections (compared to the relatively short passages in most ESL reading textbooks) and large quantities of reading materials mainly for pleasure. As Julian Bamford puts it:

"Extensive reading [is] an approach which aims to build students' ability to grasp overall, whole story meanings through reading as much and as rapidly as possible. Reading in quantity, at a level of difficulty easily within their ability, develops students' confidence, and, more importantly, their pleasure in reading" (1984, p. 220).

Whereas in "intensive" reading classes the emphasis is usually on exact understanding of short selections, extensive reading emphasizes quantity and fluency.

In RL, students read without teacher assistance, exercises or dictionaries—and at their own speed—according to individual interests and at their own *independent* reading level. *A Dictionary of Reading* summarizes three basic levels of reading difficulty as:

FRUSTRATION: Reader knows fewer than 92% of the words in a given passage, with less than 50% comprehension of the passage – slow and difficult reading, blocking reading progress.

INSTRUCTIONAL: Reader knows 92-97% of the words in a given passage with better than 75% comprehension – challenging, but not frustrating, stimulating reading progress.

INDEPENDENT: Reader knows more than 97% of the words in a given

passage, with better than 90% comprehension—relatively easy reading, facilitating extensive reading.

While most students are *presumably* reading at their *instructional* level in the regular reading courses, it is undoubtedly the case that many students are spending a considerable amount of time reading at their *frustration* level and rarely, if ever, reading at their *independent* level. This can make it difficult for students to feel a sense of accomplishment and to develop or maintain a positive attitude toward reading in English. The reason for this should be obvious: there are insufficient background knowledge and language skills which are necessary to read appreciable quantities of text comfortably (without counterproductive pain and suffering).

Purpose/goals of reading lab

To help students do the following:

1. To read extensively in English, perhaps for the first time!
2. To experience reading relatively long selections in English, with a high level of comprehension and absence of pain and frustration.
3. To develop a more positive attitude toward reading in English, through enjoyable reading experiences with relatively easy reading materials.
4. To experience success reading in English.
5. To build confidence and increase comfort level in reading in English w/o using a dictionary.
6. To benefit from individualized, independent learning opportunities or instruction.
7. To build reading skills, especially top-down skills.
8. To read for gist (a.k.a. skimming).
9. To acquire vocabulary (w/o direct study or learning).
10. To practice inferring word meaning from context.
11. To practice making other kinds of inferences from context.
12. To learn to tolerate vagueness (accepting not understanding every thing completely).
13. To increase reading speed and fluency.
14. To feel a sense of accomplishment as they read books of increasing levels of difficulty—an important factor in motivation.
15. To want to keep reading and voluntarily read more in English—crucial steps toward developing the all-important "reading habit".

Activities/responsibilities

Students engage in sustained silent reading (SSR) at their own *independent* reading level. Students come to RL, select a book from the collection, and read quietly on their own. (See also "Reading Lab Rules" – **Appendix Seven** – given to students.)

Instructors mainly:

1) take attendance – important for RL.
2) encourage students to select books, settle down, and begin and keep reading.
3) monitor students. On occasion it may be necessary to remind some students about the necessity to follow the RL rules. Keep in mind that not all students will understand or accept the purpose of RL (this is *not* unique to RL, of course). Importantly, though, all students should be expected to give RL an honest try and not distract or disturb their classmates in any way.
4) read books quietly, modeling SSR for pleasure (extensive reading).
5) distribute (one at a time) and collect completed "Book Report" forms (**Appendix Eight**) as students complete books.
6) monitor and check books in and out, using a card catalog.

Instructors also: help students select an appropriate book (if necessary); answer questions; forward completed "Book Report" forms to the RL coordinator, who will return them to instructors within a couple of days; assist in maintaining the collection of reading materials; encourage students to check out the book they're reading at the end of class; advise and encourage students, possibly holding conferences with students – during office hours? – about their reading progress; (attempt to) solve problems; assist with placing students (administering the initial placement tests); perhaps *occasionally* playing audio-tape recordings (e.g., white noise from an environments tape or New Age music played at *low* volume); and inform the RL coordinator of any unresolved issues or concerns.

In-class activities other than quiet reading that instructors could conduct might include: book talks, small-group discussions, oral presentations (reading aloud), and listening to books on tape. ***But most of the time, students and instructors read quietly. Importantly, RL should* not *increase the workload of RL instructors.***

The **Coordinator** is responsible for: the book/materials collection; ori-

enting instructors to RL; placing each student at his/her own "independent" reading level at the beginning of the term; maintaining records; solving problems; communicating with the instructors; reporting to administration; and generally overseeing RL.

Reading materials

RL materials are mostly "illustrated, graded readers (books)", both fiction and non-fiction, written or re-written and graded according to level of difficulty, especially in terms of vocabulary and sentence length or structure.* For practical purposes, RL books are organized *mainly* by word level. For example, 1st stage (level) books are presumably the easiest to read, written at a 300-500 basic word range and coded with a YELLOW dot in the lower right-hand corner of the back cover of each book. Accordingly, the 4th stage should be much more difficult, consisting mainly of books within a 1300-1500 word range and coded with a WHITE dot. Generally, higher word levels indicate longer and more complex sentences, as well as denser, more sophisticated or more abstract concepts/content.

Six stages (levels) of RL books:

300-600 word-level	YELLOW
500-750**	ORANGE
900-1250	GREEN
1300-1500	WHITE
1600-1800	RED
2000+	BLUE

"RL Book Collection" (Appendix Four) is a complete list of the RL books, which are kept on display. Caution: Some books will become lost, will be stolen or will not be returned for various reasons. Instructors should make an effort to see that book losses are minimized. Unfortunately, keeping the lab secure will, in itself, not solve this problem completely.

At the high-intermediate level or above, some students might be interested in spending RL class time, or even time at home, reading newspapers, magazines (Warning: Some students will just look at the pictures), books or other materials outside of the RL collection, or possibly even selections from textbooks. Students can certainly read materials other than those found in the RL collection during or for RL. Keep in mind, however, that the graded readers provide a solid core of reading materials and a very manageable format, especially for elementary- and inter-

als and a very manageable format, especially for elementary- and intermediate-level students.

Two additional RL rules for high-intermediate level or above students might be:

1. Read "other materials" in addition to, NOT instead of, the RL books
2. Continue to complete and hand in "Book Reports" for all materials read during or for RL

Initial placement into appropriate reading stages (levels)

This involves placing each student at his/her own *independent* reading level, at which materials can be read easily without support (teacher or dictionary). A special RL placement test, which consists of a series of graded cloze passages based on selections from the graded readers in the book collection, can be used to place students into two (2) stages of the graded readers (see Appendix Five for examples). The cloze test may not be as valid a measure of each student's independent reading level as would be desired. Therefore, placing each student into *two* stages, rather than just one, makes it possible for the student to self-adjust his/her "true" independent reading level. This also provides students with a greater selection of books from which to choose.

Student accountability/evaluation

For a satisfactory grade, students need to:

1. be in attendance at least 80% of the time
2. read in class (rather than chat or sleep)
3. not disturb others in class
4. read as much as they can throughout the quarter
5. complete and turn in—in a timely fashion—brief "Book Report" forms for all books (or other materials) read
6. generally follow "Reading Lab Rules."

See "An Introduction to Reading Lab" (Appendix Six) and "Reading Lab Rules" (Appendix Seven)—both given to students—for more specific guidelines for evaluating student performance. More explicit guidelines, such as "You must read X number of books for a 4 (on the 1-5 grading scale) and Y number of books for a 5", would be counterproductive because of the emphasis on reading for pleasure. Students do

not need to be pressured to perform well in RL (RL is LOW pressure), nor is it necessary to make a game out of RL – one which clever, but inert students can easily win. Instructors will see satisfactory performance in the majority of the students if students understand that reading extensively is essential to language and reading-skills development.

Some instructors might be interested in other possibilities for evaluation. These include self-evaluations (perhaps a part of journal writing), commentary cards (where students write their thoughts about books read on note cards, which are kept on file for classmates to consult before selecting a book), book talks (short oral book reports), or even book advertisements (which can be posted on RL walls). Instructors should use their own discretion regarding such "alternative" methods of evaluation, remembering that RL should be as pleasurable and "non-school like" as possible, so long as students make good use of RL time.

Reading lab schedule for beginning of term: Information given to instructors by RL coordinator at U of MN.

Class 1

- "Introduction to RL" (handout): read, discuss.
- Practice Placement Test: Introduce, do in whole group and /or in pairs, and discuss answers and strategies for taking a cloze test.
- "Tour" of RL (or Book Room)—time permitting.

Instructors: Please return Practice Placement Test materials to Coordinator.

Class 2

- Placement Test: introduce, complete.
- "RL Rules" (handout): introduce, students read outside of class.

Instructors: Please *return* Placement Test materials to Coordinator, who will score tests and provide teachers with results—including recommended independent reading stages for each student.

Class 3

- "RL Rules:" review, discuss.
- Initial placement; each student given small strip of paper indicating the stages (colors) in which they must begin reading first.
- Each student selects a book and begins reading.

Instructors: Encourage students to check out books (one per student).

Class 4

- "RL Book Report" (handout): introduce, discuss.
- Begin establishing RL routine.

Some suggested notes from the Coordinator to instructors for first two weeks of reading lab:

1. Materials for duplication for your class/students are forthcoming (in your mailboxes).

2. Do you want to learn about scoring the Placement Tests and placing students? Are you interested in helping with scoring and placement? The Coordinator is responsible for this, but let me know if you want to participate.

3. Also, please let me know if you have questions, concerns, comments or suggestions. Thanks!

Additional comments

Instructors need to encourage students to take seriously this opportunity to read extensively in English for pleasure. By doing so, students can improve their reading skills, enjoy reading more, and even get into the habit of reading for pleasure on a regular basis.

Despite all of the above, *RL is truly a simple concept* and is easy to conduct once it is set up. Essentially, RL is about matching individual students with the right books and turning them loose, requiring only that they make the most of the opportunity to read a lot for pleasure.

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*Most of the books in the collection are published specifically for ESL students. Others are meant for native-English speakers and usually don't have basic word counts, which makes integrating them into the six-stage RL sequence tricky. Good judgment and trial and error are required to accurately integrate non-ESL specific materials into the RL book collection. Remember that 'readability' (usually described in terms of school-grade level of native speakers) and 'comprehensibility' are not one in the same. For instance, a text written (or re-written) at a 1000 word-level may not be very comprehensible to an intermediate-level ESL student if, for example, the writing isn't especially clear, or if the topic isn't relevant to his/her experiences, interests or goals.

**The 500-750 word range of the second stage is correct. This is to adjust for apparent differences in difficulty at the initial stages of a number of different series of graded readers.

APPENDIX TWO: FAVORITE BOOKS

English Program for International Students
University of Minnesota, 1992-1995

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn (LC)
The Adventures of Tom Sawyer (LC)
Alice in Wonderland (LC)
American Customs and Traditions (L)
American Homes (L)
American Music (L)
Americans at School (L)
Anna and the Fighter (HGR)
California Style (RR)
The Case of the Lonely Lady (HGR)
Chemical Street (OXB)
City Lights (OXS)
Dear Jan ... Love, Ruth (HGR)
Don't Tell Me What to Do (HGR)
Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde (RIC)
The Elephant Man (OXB)
Elvis and Me (LVN)
The Escape and Other Stories (HGR)
Five Famous Fairy Tales (LC)
Heidi (LC)
Helen Keller Crusader (DY)
The House on the Hill (HGR)
Meet Jacqueline K. Onassis (RH)
The Promise (HGR)
The Return of Sherlock Holmes (LC)
Room 13 and Other Ghost Stories (HGR)
Round the World in Eighty Days (LC)
Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes (DY)
Stories from William Shakespeare (LC)
The Stranger (HGR)
Tales from Hans Christian Andersen (LC)
Tales of Goha (HGR)
A Taste of Murder (OXS)
This is New York (HGR)
Voodoo Island (OXB)
White Death (OXB)
The Woman in Black (HGR)
Women's Work, Man's Work (NRP)

APPENDIX THREE: PUBLISHERS/SERIES OF BOOKS SUITABLE FOR READING LAB

AP	*Alemany Press*
BS	*Bantam Skylark Changing World Series*
CME	*Collier-MacMillan English Readers*
DY	*Dell Yearling*
ER	*Easy Readers*
FAA	*Fearon's Amazing Adventures*
GFF	*Globe Fearon Fastbacks*
HCP	*HarperCollins Publishers*
HGR	*Heinemann Guided Readers*
L	*Longman*
LBS	*Longman Bridge Series*
LC	*Longman Classics*
LF	*Longman Fiction Series*
LASR	*Longman American Structured Readers*
LVN	*Literacy Volunteers of NYC Writer's Voices*
MAR	*Macmillan Advanced Reader Series*
MMI	*Maxwell Macmillan International*
NH	*Newport House*
NHR	*Newbury House Readers*
NRP	*New Readers Press*
OXB	*Oxford Bookworms*
OXP	*Oxford Progressive Readers*
OXS	*Oxford Streamline Graded Readers*
PB	*Puffin Books*
PKB	*Pocket Books*
RH	*Random House*
RIC	*Regents Illustrated Classics*
RR	*Regents Readers*

APPENDIX FOUR: SAMPLE LEVEL CODING

The books in the RL at U of MN have six reading stages (levels), color-coded as follows:

yellow:	*300-600 word-level**
orange:	*500-750*
green:	*900-1250*
white	*1300-1500*
red:	*1600-1800*
blue:	*2000+*

Note: Many of the non-ESL readers have unspecified word levels and, therefore, can be "slotted" into the six reading stages based on perceived level of difficulty. Probably numerous books could be moved up or down on the scale of reading stages.

SAMPLE PARTIAL BOOK COLLECTION

Qty.	Title and Publisher Code	Genre
Yellow (Stage 1)		
4	Anna and the Fighter (HGR)	humor/travel/ mystery **cassette**
2	The Coldest Place on Earth (OXB)	adventure/travel/ history
2	Dangerous Journey (HGR)	adventure
3	Dear Jan...Love, Ruth (HGR)	romance
4	The Elephant Man (OXB)	famous people/ biography human interest
2	The Garden (HGR)	romance/human interest
4	The House on the Hill (HGR)	romance **cassette**
1	Meet Thomas Jefferson (RH)	biography/American history

1	Money for a Motorbike (HGR)	crime/adventure/ human interest
3	Natural Wonders (RR)	science/technology
2	One-Way Ticket (OXB)	adventure/travel
2	Samuel Clemens & Mark Twain (RR)	biography/famous people
2	Sara Says No! (HGR)	human interest
2	A Song for Ben (OXS)	adventure/crime/ suspense
1	Stop That Woman! (NRP)	crime/human interest
2	Sugar and Candy (HGR)	human interest
1	Team Player (NRP)	human interest
2	This is New York (HGR)	American culture/ travel
2	This is San Francisco (HGR)	American culture/ travel
2	The Truth Machine (HGR)	fantasy/humor/ science fiction human interest
2	Under the Moon (OXB)	science fiction
2	The Watchers (OXS)	mystery
1	What Are Friends For? (NRP)	human interest
4	White Death (OXB)	mystery/detective

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Orange (Stage 2)

2	Adventures of Sindbad the Sailor (LC)	classic/adventure
1	Alice in Wonderland (LC)	classic/fairytales
4	American Customs and Traditions (L)	American culture/ society/background
2	American Homes (L)	American culture/ society/background
3	American Music (L)	American culture/ society/background popular music/ culture
2	Americans at School (L)	American culture/ society/background

2	Americans on the Move (L)	American culture/ society/background
1	As Long as the Rivers Shall Run (RR)	culture/civilization
2	California Style (RR)	American culture/ society/background
2	Dead Man's Island (OXB)	mystery
2	Dr. Jekyll & Mr. Hyde (RIC)	classic/mystery
2	Engineering Triumphs (RR)	science/technology
1	Everything Men Know about Women (NH)	human interest/ humor/mystery
1	The Extra (RR)	American culture
1	Fighting Back (NRP)	human interest **cassette**
2	Five Famous Fairy Tales (LC)	classic/fairy tales
1	Five Folk Tales (RR)	folk tales
1	Happy Hour (NRP)	human interest
3	Heidi (LC)	classic/folk stories
1	The Kite Flyer and Other Stories (NRP)	folk stories/short stories **cassette**
2	Legends (NRP)	legends/folk tales **cassette**
2	A Man Without a Country (RR)	classic/human interest/historical novel
1	Miss Doyle's Life Savings (MMI)	suspense/mystery/ human interest
2	New York! (NHR)	American culture/ society background/ travel
1	Robin Hood (LC)	classic/folk stories
2	Tales from Hans Chr. Anderson (LC)	classic/fairytales/ society/background
2	Voodoo Island (OXB)	horror

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APPENDIX FIVE:
SAMPLE READING LAB PLACEMENT TEST

Directions: The following reading passages have missing words. For each blank, write *one* word which makes sense according to the passage and the sentence. *Write the words in the blanks on your answer sheet*. DO NOT write on this paper, please. Figuring out the missing words is generally difficult, and nobody can get them all right. So just do your best.

California Style

California has more of everything than other states in the U.S. It has more money, people, sunshine, beaches, schools, natural beauty, fruits and vegetables, churches, movie stars, beautiful houses, parks, libraries, and things to do. In the city of __1__ Angeles, you can go __2__ at the supermarket at __3__ a.m. Next to you, __4__ may be a movie __5__ or famous rock singer. __6__ buys vegetables together. Everyone __7__ very casual. You can __8__ everything in Los Angeles. __9__ every hour of the __10__ or day, you can __11__ to a restaurant, buy __12__ car, send flowers to __13__ friend, or go to __14__ movie.

On Sunday mornings __15__ Garden Grove, you can __16__ to the Crystal Cathedral, __17__ answer to the great __18__ of Europe. People park __19__ cars outside the $18 __20__ church of mirrors, plastic, __21__ glass. They can hear __22__ services over loudspeakers. The __23__ Cathedral is bigger than __24__ Dame Cathedral in Paris. __25__ glass walls of the church open like the Red Sea opened before Moses in the Old Testament, and out comes the Reverend Robert Schuller. Mr. Schuller started his church, the Garden Grove Community Church, in a drive-in movie theater. There, he asked the people to pray and sing inside their cars. "Do you feel God?" asked Mr. Schuller. "Then turn on your windshield wipers."

In California, not only churches are strange; parties are too...

APPENDIX SIX:
AN INTRODUCTION TO READING LAB

Welcome to Reading Lab. What is it?

Reading Lab is a different kind of reading experience. In fact, it is *very* different from the other kinds of reading you usually do in most ESL reading courses. How is it different?

In Reading Lab, you will:

1. choose your own reading materials according to your interests and your own indepedendent reading level
2. read mostly short books from the Reading Lab book collection
3. read independently (by yourself)
4. read relatively easy materials, so you can relax and read faster
5. hopefully enjoy reading in English and, therefore, read more so that your vocabulary and reading skills improve more quickly

The purpose of Reading Lab (RL) is to help you get into the habit of *reading in English for pleasure, reading faster* and *reading more*. ESL students who do this usually understand what they are reading better and improve their reading skills faster.

RL will be held twice each week in (location). You are expected to attend at least 80% of the RL classes and spend class time reading quietly. During the first few weeks, your teacher(s) will tell you more about what is expected, including how much you should try to read. You will then know more about how to get a satisfactory grade for RL. *Important*: Please read "Reading Lab Rules" for more information about RL.

Before choosing your own reading materials and beginning to read, you will take a placement test. This test will help you choose materials that are not too difficult for you to understand and enjoy. This test, however, is not part of your grade for RL, so don't worry about how you do. Just try to do your best.

We hope you enjoy Reading Lab! If you have any questions, please ask.

APPENDIX SEVEN: READING LAB RULES

1. Come to class on time. If you are late, you will probably disturb other students and you may not get credit for attending class.

2. Read while you are in class. If you sleep, talk or just sit looking out the window, you may be asked to leave class and will not receive credit for attending.

3. Read only materials provided in Reading Lab: no textbooks, workbooks, worksheets or dictionaries (see Rule 9 below).

4. If you want to, bring a drink to class, but be sure to dispose of it properly when you leave, or take it with you. If students often spill or make a mess, your teacher will not allow drinks in class. Food is not allowed in the classroom.

5. Respect the other students in class. Try to be as quiet as possible so that you don't disturb your classmates. This means *no talking* in class *during reading time.*

6. Respect and take care of the books. Do not write in them or damage them so they can be enjoyed by other students.

7. If you want to – and we hope you will do this – you may *check out a book to take home with you at the end of class.* Inside the back cover of each book, you will find a card. On the card, sign your name and the date, and give this card to your teacher *before* you leave Reading Lab. When you finish the book, return it to your teacher so that s/he knows you have finished the book and you want to return it. Your teacher can then cross off your name and put the card back in the book. If you have any questions about checking out a book to take with you, just talk to your teacher.

8. Every time you finish reading a book, complete a "Reading Lab Book Report" and hand it in to your teacher. This short report will show the teachers how you are doing in Reading Lab. The Book Reports may also help other students choose books to read. *Complete all Book Reports OUTSIDE of class, not during RL.*

9. Do not use a dictionary in Reading Lab. You don't need a dictionary if you are reading at your correct independent-reading level.

10. Read at least three (3) books at your correct reading level before reading books at a higher level of difficulty. For example, if your starting reading level is "yellow/orange," you must read at least three (3) yellow or orange books before reading any "green" books, which are more difficult. This will make it easier for you to read quickly and enjoy reading more. If you feel you need a dictionary to understand a book you are reading, you should choose an easier book.

These rules will make it possible for everyone to enjoy reading and improve their reading skills. If you have any questions or problems, please let one of the teachers know. We hope you enjoy Reading Lab!!

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APPENDIX EIGHT:

READING LAB BOOK REPORT

Your name _____

Name of the book _____

Publisher or author of the book _____

Reading level (color) of the book _____

Date you finished reading this book _____

1. Please circle *one* only: A. I liked this book very much.

   B. I thought this book was OK.

   C. I didn't like this book.

2. Please explain *why* you circled A, B, or C above. Write at least 40 words.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Do you have any comments or questions?

APPENDIX NINE: STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TWO READING LABS

In the spring of 1991, at Minnesota State University-Akita, Japan, 216 elementary and intermediate-level **EFL** students were required to take RL *in addition to* their regular reading courses. During the initial four quarters of RL (1992-93) in the English Program for International Students (EPIS) at the Minnesota English Center at University of Minnesota, 139 **ESL** students (79 low-intermediate and 60 high-intermediate) were required to take RL *as part of* their regular reading courses.

Below are end-of-term RL evaluation questions and the percentages of respondents who chose each possible answer. Percentages for the EPIS **ESL** students are presented as follows: low-intermediate level students/ high-intermediate level students.

Note: Not all of the questions asked of both the EFL and ESL students are the same. Also, due to rounding, some percentages do not total exactly 100%. The last question is open ended with representative verbatim responses from the **ESL** students only.

1. How much do you enjoy reading extensively in English?

(EFL)	a lot	31%
	some	60%
	not very much	8%

2. How much do you enjoy reading in English?

(ESL)	a lot	53% / 52%
	some	38% / 43%
	not very much	9% / 3%
	NR	0% / 2%

3. Do you now enjoy reading extensively in English more *because of RL*?

(EFL)	yes	86%
	no	11%
	NR	3%

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4. Is reading in English now more enjoyable *because of RL*?

(ESL)	yes	68% / 65%
	no	9% / 7%
	I'm not sure	23% / 29%
	NR	1% / 0%

5. How much have your reading skills improved this quarter?

(ESL)	a lot	42% / 30%
	some	55% / 62%
	not very much	3% / 9%

6. Is it now easier for you to read in English *because of RL*?

(ESL)	yes	63% / 57%
	no	9% / 13%
	I'm not sure	28% / 28%

7. How much did your reading skills improve (get better) *because of RL*?

(EFL)	a lot	26%
	some	67%
	not very much	7%
(ESL)	a lot	33% / 27%
	some	55% / 65%
	not very much	12% / 7%
	NR	0% / 1%

8. How hard did you work in [RL]?

(EFL)	very hard	10%
	fairly hard	55%
	not very hard	34%
(ESL)	very hard	19% / 18%
	fairly hard	34% / 52%
	not very hard	47% / 30%

9. How much did you like RL?

(EFL)	a lot	29%
	some	60%
	not very much	11%
(ESL)	a lot	47% / 42%
	some	33% / 50%
	not very much	21% / 6%
	NR	0% / 2%

10. Do you have any comments about RL? Please tell us what you liked and/or didn't like about it.

— *I like my RL because I can choose better books that is fitting my English level from many kinds of books. (Japanese)*

— *I fairly like RL, but sometimes it was very sleepy [after lunch]. (Korean)*

— *Should have more different books. I think now have many books but not many different kind of book. (Thai)*

— *I like it very much. I can read English book in my free time. I don't just borrow one book every time because I read very fast. (Chinese)*

— *I liked RL, but sometimes it was too bored and I didn't concetrated because it was too noisy. (Indonesian)*

— *Well, first of all, the RL is a good idea, but I think that it's preferable to read laught [aloud?], I mean not in silence, because we need hear the pronunciation of all the words. I think that the students can read in her/him house, not spend time in the school reading in silence. If you can change the objectives of RL, I think that will be better, try that the RL will to read laught. (Spanish)*

— *I liked it because is good practice to improve the reading skill. (Spanish)*

— *Please put on more interesting books. (Japanese)*

— *If I could. I'd like to bring to the class which is my favorite want to read. (Japanese)*

— *Perfect. (Japanese)*

— *I was so afraid when I read my first book but after that I felt great because I understood it. The RL helps me very mush to improve my reading and I enjoyed it a lot. (Spanish)*

— *I liked it a lot because we were free to read what we want. (French)*

— *I liked the degraded levels of reading, that you can improve your reading after you read 3 books in every level. (Arabic)*

— *I think I cannot find these books at another place. (Turkish)*

— *I don't need to reading lab. (Japanese)*

— *It was pretty good, but sometimes, I felt very bored. (Korean)*

— *(From the unsolicited report "The Effect of Reading Lab.") I think the RL has some effects; 1. Everyone can understand very much, because those books are easy to read. 2. After reading everyone will get satisfaction from it had understand many things. 3. Everyone will get some confidence by satisfaction. 4. It is easy to read in a sense by the satisfaction and the confidence. I hope to continue the RL next [quarter]. I had a very good tiome in RL. (Japanese)*

Reading Lab Books Read

Av. number of books read per RL student per quarter:

ESL program	5.3/5.3	(2 hrs. of RL/wk.)
EFL program	7.4	(3 hrs. of RL/wk.)

Fewest books read by any one student: 1

Most books read by any one student: 19

Student Evaluation of Reading Lab

Directions: Please answer the following questions to let us know what you think about Reading Lab (RL) and to help us make it better. Circle your answers.

1. How much do you enjoy reading in English?

a lot some not very much

2. Is reading in English now more enjoyable *because of RL*?

yes no I'm not sure

3. Is it now easier for you to read in English *because of RL*?

yes no I'm not sure

4. How much have your reading skills improved this quarter?

a lot some not very much

5. How much did your reading skills improve *because of RL*?

a lot some not very much

6. How hard did you work in RL?

very hard fairly hard not very hard

7. How much did you like RL?

a lot some not very much

8. Do you have any comments about RL? Please tell us what you *liked* and/or *didn't* like about it.

Thank you.

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APPENDIX TEN:

READING SURVEY

Part I *Please complete the following.*

1. Reading course number/level: _____

2. Native language: _____

3. Gender (circle one): Male Female

4. Age group (circle one): a. <21 b. 21-25 c. >25

Part II *Please give your opinion about each type of book, story or reading material listed below. Circle <u>one</u> number for each.*

5 = like very much
4 = like
3 = don't know/no opinion
2 = don't like
1 = hate

Adventure/Thriller/Spy	5 4 3 2 1
American Culture/Society	5 4 3 2 1
Biography/Famous People	5 4 3 2 1
Books (generally)	5 4 3 2 1
Comic Books	5 4 3 2 1
Classics (Great/Famous Literature)	5 4 3 2 1
Crime/Detective	5 4 3 2 1
Folk Tales	5 4 3 2 1
History	5 4 3 2 1
Horror/Ghost	5 4 3 2 1
Human Interest	5 4 3 2 1
Humor (Funny Stories)	5 4 3 2 1
Magazines	5 4 3 2 1
Mystery	5 4 3 2 1
Nature/Wildlife	5 4 3 2 1
Newspapers	5 4 3 2 1
Non-Fiction	5 4 3 2 1
Novels	5 4 3 2 1

Plays/Drama	5 4 3 2 1
Poetry	5 4 3 2 1
Popular Music/Culture	5 4 3 2 1
Romance (Love Stories)	5 4 3 2 1
Self-Improvement	5 4 3 2 1
Science Fiction/Fantasy	5 4 3 2 1
Science/Technology	5 4 3 2 1
Short Stories	5 4 3 2 1
Sports	5 4 3 2 1
Strange/Weird Stories	5 4 3 2 1
Textbooks (Academic Books)	5 4 3 2 1
Travel/Background	5 4 3 2 1
Westerns (Cowboys & Indians)	5 4 3 2 1
World Problems/Issues	5 4 3 2 1

Part III *Please answer the following questions.*

How much do you enjoy reading *in English*? 5 4 3 2 1

How much do enjoy reading *in your native language*? 5 4 3 2 1

How well do you read *in your native language*?
a. very well
b. OK
c. not very well

What is the *main* reason you are now studying English? (circle *one* only)
a. Just for pleasure or personal interest.
b. So I can spend time in the U.S. and learn about American culture.
c. To improve my English for my job or career.
d. So I can take academic courses at an American college/university.
e. Other ( )

Are you planning on taking regular academic courses at an American college or university? (circle one) Yes No Maybe

Thank you *for taking this survey. Your answers will help us choose more interesting/relevant reading materials.*

Results of Reading Survey conducted at the English Program for International Students, Minnesota English Center, University of Minnesota, Fall Quarter 1992

Number of respondents: 107

Number of respondents by reading-course level: high beginning: 21

low-intermediate: 21 high-intermediate: 42
low-advanced: 23

Age groups: <21 yrs. = 38% 21-25 yrs. = 33% >25 yrs. = 29%
Gender: Male 52% Female 48%

Native languages:		
	Japanese	31%
	Arabic	14
	Spanish	14
	Chinese	7
	Thai	5
	Other	17

Average score and percent of respondents (5 -pt. scale) **choosing "like very much" or "like"**

	Avg.	%
1. Humor (Funny Stories)	4.19	76%
2. Mystery	3.98	62
3. Short Stories	3.98	62
4. Comic Books	3.80	58
5. Romance (Love Stories)	3.79	58
6. Adventure/Thriller/Spy	3.75	56
7. Novels	3.73	59
8. Human Interest	3.66	55
9. Self-Improvement	3.64	48
10. Non-Fiction	3.63	51
11. Strange/Weird Stories	3.63	56
12. Travel/Background	3.63	54
13. Crime/Detective	3.59	50
14. Newspapers/Magazines	3.59	56
15. Science Fiction/Fantasy	3.59	53

16. Plays/Drama	3.58	53
17. Books (generally)	3.56	48
18. Popular Music/Culture	3.56	51
19. Classic (Great/Famous Literature)	3.54	48
20. American Culture/Society	3.53	54
21. Horror/Ghost	3.53	48
22. Nature/Wildlife	3.49	45
23. Biography/Famous People	3.41	46
24. Science/Technology	3.40	45
25. Sports	3.40	45
26. History	3.36	45
27. Textbooks (Academic Books)	3.26	30
28. Poetry	3.00	28
29. Westerns (Cowboys & Indians)	2.97	30

How much do you enjoy reading in English? 3.75 (5-point scale)

How much do enjoy reading in your native language? 4.42

How well do you read in your native language?

a. very well	69%
b. OK	29%
c. not very well	2%

What is the main *reason you are now studying English? Circle* one *only.*

a. Just for pleasure or personal interest.	3%
b. So I can spend time in the U.S. and learn about American culture.	9%
c. To improve my English for my job or career.	27%
d. So I can take academic courses at an American college/ university.	60%
e. Other ("For my big dream")	1%

Are you planning on taking regular academic courses at an American college or university? Circle one.

Yes	69%
No	13%
Maybe	18%

Do you have any comments or suggestions regarding the reading materials or reading courses in EPIS?

high-beginning level

—more practical for reading (Chinese)
—It needs more skillful practices for TOEFL Test. and needs more listening for homework. (Chinese)
—We need more skillful practices for TOEFL Test. (Chinese)
—I think that EPIS must give a list of resources that there are in U.MN. such as Library Walter. I don't know others. (Spanish)
—I don't have comments. (Spanish)
—No (3)
—No comments (Indonesian)
—No, Thank you. (Arabic)
—I want various courses. (Korean)
—I need more. [Don't we all!] (Korean)

low-intermediate level

—No (2)
—We need books in the same level with our ages!! (Arabic)
—I feel good...You bet! (Korean)
—I want more academic books. I want to read physics book in English. (Japanese)
—Reading Lab need more discussions between students. (Spanish)
—Not thing. (Chinese)
—N/A (Japanese)
—N/C (Arabic)
—to play games (bord games) (monopori etc.) (Japanese)

high-intermediate level

—I should read more academic books in order to follow the lecture at American UN. Sometimes, I get confused with long pages, and difficult vocab in English. (Japanese)
—I want to use "Readers Choice" at next quarter. (Japanese)
—Yes. How to read fast and understand. (Thai)
—I prefer to read stories from different books. I don't like a lot of the testbooks. (Spanish)
—I don't have comments. (Italian)
—give us a lot of short story. (Chinese)
—Nothing. (Korean)
—Read more other books, not just textbook. (Japanese)
—give more outside reading (Chinese)

—Maybe can divide students to different section by their purpose of studying English. (Chinese)
—No (3)
—The textbook's articl is so boring, so I couldn't feel plesure readind. (Japanese)
—More TOEFL reading; more intensive reading at the class (Russian)
—It's not bad. (Thai)

low-advanced level

—Some are very busy, some are not. I recommend that ESL courses have a system that provides different amount of works depends on students. (Japanese)
—O-O-O (unknown)
—Sometimes, the material is boring (Spanish)
—Bring new material will not be baoring. (Arabic)
—It would be nice if you have lots of books about cultural difference. (Japanese)

Reviews

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to TESOL professions. In addition to textbooks and reference materials, these include computer and video software, testing instruments, and other forms of nonprint materials.

Voices From the Language Classroom, Kathleen M. Bailey and David Nunan, eds. Cambridge University Press, 1996.

Voices from the Language Classroom, edited by Kathleen M. Bailey and David Nunan, provides ample evidence of the value of classroom research. A collection of nineteen original papers written by teachers and language researchers, the text is based on the premise that discussions about language teaching and learning should include at least two perspectives. The authors thus include a variety of source material taken from the language classroom: teacher and student journals, observer's field-notes, lesson plans, recall protocols and oral interviews. These "voices" give readers a chance to explore some important issues of interest to second language educators.

It is the editors' intent that the text "serve as a 'sampler' for people interested in learning more about qualitative research in the naturalistic inquiry tradition" (p.1). Yet this is a text which should be "sampled" by a wide audience; indeed, anyone connected with the language teaching field can find much of value within its pages. The titles of some of the chapters indicate the breadth of information found in the text: "Teaching style: a way to understand instruction in language classrooms;" "Reticence and anxiety in second language learning;" "I want to talk with them, but I don't want them to hear;" and "U.S. minority students: voices from the junior high classroom" are just a few examples. It seems clear that the different voices in the text convey stimulating information for us all.

The text is divided into five thematic parts, and each major section is followed by a set of Questions and Tasks which can be used in a teacher in-service, a teacher training situation, or simply as a means for introspection.

In the first section of the text, "Teaching as doing, thinking and interpreting," I was especially interested to read teachers' voices discussing why and how they departed from lesson plans to create learning opportunities in their classrooms. Another chapter in this section compares

observation notes with teacher recall to illuminate the instructional process. Throughout this section, the various authors offer evidence of the importance of listening to all participants' voices as a key to learning more about language pedagogy.

The second section of the text, "Classroom Dynamics and interaction," introduces a series of voices from EFL situations. It was fascinating to learn that the physical location of students in a classroom had an influence on the quality of the learner's experiences. I read with interest some suggestions for alleviating the anxiety of more reticent learners. A third article informed me of the efforts students make to make sense out of classroom instruction. Thus the suggestion to make classroom activities "seem [as] sensible or coherent" (p. 192) as possible seems particularly level-headed. It is clear that these voices from other lands can bring us important information which can help us as we plan and reflect on our own lessons.

The third section, "The Classroom and Beyond," explores issues related to the greater environment in which learning takes place. A chapter which caught my eye focused on one teacher's experiences with multiple repeaters in a community college ESL composition class. The author uses student writing samples and her own rich voice to tell the story of the pressures inherent in an urban adult education setting. Other chapters include excerpts from student diaries offering reminders of the frustrations and anxieties connected to the language learning process. These compelling voices speak to the affective side of language learning and make clear the importance of considering forces both outside the classroom and within the learners when thinking about language education.

"Curricular issues," the fourth section, brings voices which speak to the effects of administrative and curricular changes on language learning. Educational administrators, teachers and students in Oman reflect on the value of new educational materials which were introduced to encourage more communicative classroom activities. Mexican American junior high students comment on curriculum changes made at their schools and rate learner-centered activities highly. Japanese students comment about registration and placement procedures at their private school. Their remarks illustrate the importance of establishing strong interpersonal relationships during these procedures. The voices we hear provide insights which can help us as we make school or program-wide decisions.

The final section, "Sociopolitical perspectives," resounds with the voices of a diverse population of language learners, both here and abroad. The challenges of teaching in a bilingual project in Peru, a South African boarding school, in dual language school classrooms in Hungary, and in the California public school system are recorded. The chapter ends on a

positive note, with author (and past TESOL President) Denise E. Murray's advice to capitalize on the diversity of our classrooms, empowering students and teachers to learn from each other.

Such advice goes to the heart of this text. By reading and reflecting on these "Voices" from the language classroom, we are better able to interpret our own practices. Bailey and Nunan's book should be an important addition to the library of any teacher, teacher educator or teacher in training.

THE REVIEWER

Adele G. Hansen is an Associate Education Specialist teaching in the Minnesota English Center at the University of Minnesota.

To Destroy You is No Loss: The Odyssey of a Cambodian Family, JoAn D. Criddle. East/West BRIDGE Publishing House. Dixon, California, 1987,1996.

To Destroy You is No Loss: The Odyssey of a Cambodian Family by JoAn D. Criddle is the story of one family's efforts to live through the intense brutality of the Pol Pot Regime in Cambodia. JoAn Criddle chooses to write in first person narrative, as if through the voice of Teeda Butt Mam, a friend of the author: "With Teeda's permission, I've taken the liberty to speak in her voice because it allows the story to be told with greater force and in fewer words." This has the occasional effect of leaving a skeptical reader wondering whether some of the insights and commentary are American, not Cambodian. It also creates a certain distance from the underlying emotions, since the writer did not live through this herself, but is telling the story as if she had. These are minor observations of style, however, which should not overshadow the importance of the story itself.

This is a story of survival under a regime which told its people repeatedly that "To keep you is no benefit, to destroy you is no loss." From the initial forced exodus from Phnom Penh to the near-starvation in work camps and ultimately the two escapes into Thailand, the family tells a story of desperation and survival. Early on, the father is taken off and, while proof is never offered, it is clear that he is destroyed for the crime of having been educated. To hide their identities as educated city-dwellers, the family improvises a number of survival strategies: never do anything first; never complain; hide gold and diamonds (cash quickly becomes worthless); avoid relocation moves. Through a combination of

strategy and luck, the family manages to avoid fatal starvation, the killing fields, and to salvage some sense of life through the devastation of this regime. It is not easy.

The toll on human endurance is a heavy one. As Teeda Butt Mam describes, "I tried to will my mind to shut down, so that I could go about my work like a dim ox." Crimes which elicited public confessions or even death included such evils as hoarding rice and thinking about the past. Worse was the uncertainty, never knowing if a truckload of fellow-villagers was being relocated or being sent to a deserted mine or plantation in the jungle to be killed. "Fear for my life was so constant that I had to force myself to block it from my mind. More and more I felt I would welcome death."

The book ends with the question: "Does the rest of the world even care?" This story goes a long way toward ensuring that its readers will care and understand. It reads quickly and vividly. This is a story that needs to be told. To those who have lived through the Pol Pot regime, or who have been fortunate enough to hear from the survivors, this version will sound hauntingly familiar. To those of us who teach students whose families have lived through this, *To Kill You Is No Loss* will offer a more complete picture of the stories we have perhaps heard. To anyone who "cares," this book is a must.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Janet Benson, an ESL teacher and mentor to refugee students at Edison High School in Minneapolis, for her insightful comments about this book.

THE REVIEWER

Robin Murie directs the Commanding English program in the University of Minnesota General College. She has taught freshman writing to non-native speakers of English for over 17 years.

Bamboo & Butterflies: From Refugee To Citizen, JoAn D. Criddle East/West BRIDGE Publishing House. Dixon, CA, 1992.

Bamboo & Butterflies: From Refugee To Citizen by JoAn D. Criddle describes the refugee experience of a Cambodian-American family over an eleven year period between 1979-1990. The book picks up the story of three Cambodian sisters (Teeda, Ramsei, and Mearadey) and their ex-

tended family where Criddle's first book, *To Destroy You Is No Loss: The Odyssey of a Cambodian Family*, finishes. Unlike the first book, which tells of the family's endurance under and escape from the Khmer Rouge, this book focuses on the family's assimilation to the U.S.A. Criddle divides the book into four parts: First Family Members Arrive, Other Family Members Arrive, Bicultural Adjustment, and Citizens Look Back On A Decade. In each part, various members of the family and their acquaintances discuss the challenges of rebuilding their lives as they adjust to a new country. The book offers insights into our students' private struggles with language, culture, and life.

Criddle uses a mosaic of voices in telling the story, sometimes writing as herself, sometimes in first person voice of one of the family members, and sometimes through the actual unedited writing of one of the family members. She also includes narration from teachers, social workers, and friends who know the family. Although this form provides several cultural perspectives on each event in the family's assimilation to American culture, at times it is hard to distinguish the voices. The problem is not in the use of several voices to tell the story but in how these voices are put together. In places Criddle's voice adds valuable information to the story of the family, but the flow of the story is affected by the frequent interruptions. For instance, because this story is truly intriguing, I wanted to read it like a novel, but it was hard to make the switch from the viewpoint of a Cambodian-American refugee to the viewpoint of a lifelong U.S. citizen, and when there was a switch between the author and the Cambodian-American family, I found myself reading several paragraphs before realizing that I was reading a different author. This constant switching of voices makes the story nonlinear, repetitious, and harder to follow.

There are, however, some positive aspects to the repetition: reading about the same event several times provides cultural insights. For instance, when a former teacher describes Vitou Man's motivation to learn English, we assume Vitou's diligence comes solely from his need to assimilate into the U.S. culture. When Vitou tells his own story, we learn that he is younger, less educated, and from a lower class than the two other son-in-laws. Because Vitou feels like the least accepted of the son-in-laws, he faces additional problems within his native culture, which motivate him to work harder. Vitou writes, "There was little privacy, and decisions were made by the group, especially by the older members of the family. I often felt odd man out" (p.129). We learn about Vitou's performance in the classroom and the true motivation for his intense study habits by hearing his story told from two viewpoints.

As language teachers, we might find some of Criddle's observations about learning English somewhat obvious. For instance, Criddle writes, "We (Americans) must learn to mentally edit what we say if we hope to

communicate with people from other backgrounds, even other native born Americans" (p. 176). Her comments do give insight into the feelings of the refugees and the refugees' observations about learning English, however, and as such are valuable and interesting. Teeda says that "after the first few level of ESL, straight ESL didn't do much good. We'd found the classes boring and not relevant...we needed language oriented to interesting subject matter that challenged us" (p. 151).

Although the style and form of *Bamboo & Butterflies: From Refugee To Citizen* is hard to follow, the observations in the book offer valuable insights. The mosaic juxtaposition of stories from the extended family ties together if you are patient and pay attention to the switching of voices. Perhaps Criddle should have allowed the family to tell more of its own story without interrupting the natural flow of the story's tone, perspective, and voice. If Criddle had positioned herself more as the editor than the author, allowing the family members to tell the stories and keeping her and the other authors' commentary to the end of each chapter, reading the story would have been easier, less confusing, and more enjoyable. Nevertheless, the content of these stories is potent and insightful. After reading this book, I looked at the faces in my ESL classes differently; I knew each of my students could tell a similar story.

THE REVIEWER

Jeff Hoover teaches ESL and Developmental Reading at Minneapolis Community and Technical College. He got his MA from the University of Minnesota in 1993.

Copies of Criddle's books can be ordered from East/West BRIDGE Publishing House. 1375 Estates Dr. Ste 96, Dixon, CA 95620-3236.

"My trouble is my English": Asian students and the American dream, Danling Fu. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 1995.

In the book *My Trouble Is My English*, Danling Fu has joined her own personal experience along with an intriguing year long research project, to draw conclusions that relate to the teaching of reading and writing in high schools. In essence an anthropological case study, Fu's project was to observe four Laotian adolescents, siblings in the Savang family, as they adjust to a new culture and a new language in the United States. Fu's particular focus is on their reading and writing instruction, both in limited English proficiency (LEP) and mainstream classes. Filled with vi-

gnettes of her own experiences and those of the young people, Fu peppers her book with quotes from the students and their teachers and tutors. As the author puts it,

> "The children's own stories and words tell us not only their dreams and wishes, their memories and past experiences, their worries and frustrations, but also their values, their personalities, and their sense of self in the new culture. Their stories are seldom heard by others. People know them only as quiet and shy refugee children who speak broken English. They have few chances to express themselves at school" (p. 30 - 31).

Fu begins each chapter with a clear layout of its purpose, and draws conclusions at the end of each chapter, as well as at the end of the book. The result of this structure, along with the vignettes and quotes and Fu's direct, clear writing style, is a work that is highly readable. I picked up *My Trouble Is My English* early one afternoon, and was so captivated that I was unable to put it down until I finished it several hours later. While it is a fast read, it leaves the reader both inspired and equipped for thoughtful consideration of reading and writing classroom instruction.

My Trouble Is My English begins with an introductory chapter in which the author relates to us something of her own personal experiences with learning English. Chapters one and two then give us the broad view of the Savang family history and relationships, while the next four chapters zoom in for a close up look, one at a time, at the four adolescent siblings and their lives. The final chapter of the book is a conclusion, in which the author reiterates the problems and successes she observed in the instruction of the four, and draws a wide stroke for general application of her insights.

In the fascinating introduction to the text, Danling Fu shares with us something of her own experience, and thus, her reasons for writing the book. The author describes herself as a "democratic educator," but states that this was born out of her journey and was not always true. After teaching English in China for seven years, Fu began an MA program in the United States in English Literature. The program turned out to be very constrictive in terms of what writing styles and what opinions about texts were rewarded (or even tolerated), stripping the graduate student of personal thought and voice. While the author did not enjoy her experience, she did endure it, and continued on to a Ph.D. program in Education, focusing on Reading and Writing Instruction. In contrast to the MA program, the Ph.D. program allowed Fu space and encouragement to develop her own thoughts and style. Fu seems to have felt freed and empowered by her experience in the Ph.D. program, and one result is that she has become a strong advocate for reading/writing programs that

give the learner voice.

In the main chapters of the text, the researcher summarizes the Savang family's history, beginning with their situation in Laos, through the refugee camps, and into their situation as new arrivals in the United States. Each child is then described in detail, along with in-depth observation oftheir experience with a variety of reading/writing instruction methods and techniques. The author paints the picture of frenetically busy classrooms, with teachers who have too much to do, and students with endless fill-in-the-blank handouts to complete. Mechanical drills are common, vocabulary words are memorized without context, work is done with tremendous pressure for good grades, rather than to learn, the readings required are without any relevance to real life and without any schema having been built up, and "ESL tutors" are put in the position of having to simply help the students in their pressured rush to get their homework (decontextualized exercises) done. The students, very busy, but rarely using English for real purposes such as learning about themselves as adolescents, or those around them as members of the new culture, end up being isolated and depressed.

In the midst of this sobering scenario, the author also observes and relates more positive examples of classroom instruction in the siblings' academic year. Sometimes pulling together serendipitously, sometimes by design, these projects and assignments allow the young people to be engaged as learners, to use creative thinking, and to express themselves and their histories. Such things as free writing, journal writing, or drawing and writing descriptions of the pictures, give the students their own voice, and the results are beneficial to students, teachers and tutors alike.

In her conclusion, Danling Fu reviews what she observed, draws on research about the importance of "talk," and urges for teaching techniques that reach out to a variety of learning styles and cultural backgrounds. She has specific recommendations for teachers, including methods to give students more individual freedom in trying out different ways to learn and express themselves. Moreover, the author reminds us that this type of English language teaching is significant, not only for new arrival refugee and immigrant students, but for minority students in general. Fu reminds us that, "Demographers estimate that by the year 2000 one of every three children in the United States will be from minority groups" (p. 211), and then emphasizes that her book has global repercussions with her ideas being of critical importance to the teaching of academic literacy in any multicultural setting. In *My Trouble Is My English*, Fu has left us with a valuable series of observations, a perspective on what seems to work well in teaching reading and writing and what does not, and a prophet's call to put our knowledge into action.

THE REVIEWER

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