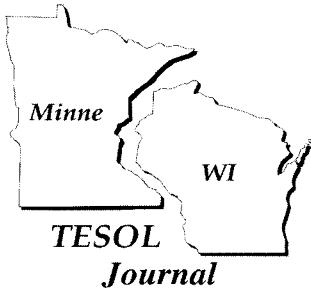
Minnesota and Wisconsin
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

TESOL Journal

Volume 21 2004



Volume 21, 2004

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

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CALL FOR PAPERS

MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal, Volume 22

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* is seeking contributions for volume 22 (Summer 2005). Contributions of the following type will be considered:

- Articles (15-20 pages) or reports (7-10 pages) about:
    - Instructional methods, techniques, and materials
    - Work or research in progress with implications for ESL
    - Issues in ESL curriculum and program design
    - Testing, assessment, and evaluation in ESL
    - Professional preparation
    - Sociopolitical issues in ESL
    - Learner perspectives about language learning

- Reviews (500-1,500 words) on recently published ESL materials
    - Journal articles; print or online
    - Texts for professional development
    - Instructional materials for learners
    - Educational ESL websites or software

Manuscripts should follow the same style guidelines as *TESOL Quarterly* (the style of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association). Complete details on submission guidelines and categories can be downloaded from the MinneTESOL website at http://www.minnetesol.org. Click on "Journal".

All submissions must be accompanied by a short bio statement (50 words). Articles and reports should include an abstract of not more than 200 words. Submissions must be emailed to Nima Salehi or Kristi Kline Liu as a Word or text file. Submissions and questions can be addressed to:

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DEADLINE FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS FOR THIS VOLUME: December 30, 2004

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INTRODUCTION

This year brought some changes to the MinneWITESOL editorial staff. Don Hones went on a well deserved sabbatical and we welcome Susan Huss-Lederman from the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, in his place. Nima Salehi and Kristi Liu continue as editors representing Minnesota ESL teachers.

The first section of the journal represents longer articles that discuss aspects of teaching English language learners of various ages.

We begin with an article from Tina Edstam which discusses the challenges and issues which concern K-12 ESL teachers in achieving current professional standards. Ms. Edstam gives us a historical review of professionalism as it relates to teaching in the K-12 environment and then provides us with five narratives of teachers who analyze their teaching methods and seek improvement as professionals, each in their own way.

Next is an article by Martha Bigelow and Susan Ranney relating to state English language proficiency standards and how K-12 teachers could use them in conjunction with a curriculum-based instruction (CBI) model of teaching to support both the language learning and academic needs of English language learners. Bigelow and Ranney help teachers to see how the standards can actually provide opportunity for more creativity, rather than lessening teacher creativity as is sometimes supposed. They give an example of how a typical classroom unit on science content might be used in conjunction with state English language proficiency standards.

The section finishes with an article from Noriko Ishihara that discusses the teaching of adult learners of English in Intensive English Programs. Her topic relates to the teaching of how to give and receive compliments in American English. The article provides some background on research that documents the conversational functions of compliments in English as well as the frequency of typical native English speaker compliments in every day speech that fit each type. Ishihara describes a unit she taught her adult students and how much of the learning the students remembered a year later. Such information is helpful to any teacher planning a curriculum for an adult education or intensive English programs.

In the second section of the journal we present a number of shorter papers that represent a diverse array of topics. Feng-Ling Margaret Johnson addresses the topic of African-oriented children's literature that can be used in the K-12 classroom. She provides a list of resources for teachers to use if they want to incor-

porate more of this type of literature in their own classrooms. Patsy Vinogradov discusses the use of authentic materials with adult learners of English who are at low English proficiency levels. She provides a list of principles to use in choosing authentic materials along with some sample activities. Marn Frank addresses the topic of assessing adult learners of English for learning disabilities. She describes a pilot process used by the Learning Disabilities Association of Minnesota with students in adult basic education courses. Marilyn Durham describes the design of a teacher preparation course for general education English composition teachers. She has successfully incorporated readings and activities which require teacher education candidates to think about the intersection of culture, language and learning as well as how to promote literacy for English language learners who are in a general education composition class.

The final section of the journal includes reviews of works in print. Astrid Liden reviews a new training handbook for adult ESL educators which includes language acquisition theory as it relates to adult instruction, with activities involving learner analysis, and lesson planning. Rebecca Uran Markham examines a series of college-level integrated reading and writing textbooks that incorporate authentic multicultural materials. Kit Hansen reviews an article from a 2003 issue of TESOL Quarterly that describes the plusses and minuses of a general education inclusion model for English language learners as well as the impact on K-12 English as a second language teaching.

We wish to thank all of those who were involved in the process of creating this volume of the journal; particularly the authors, the reviewers and the talented Guy Haglund, our pagemaker specialist, who gets everything ready for print.

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Professionalism in Practice: ESL Voices

Dr. Tina Edstam
University of Minnesota

This article addresses the issue of K-12 ESL teacher professionalism. The inclusion of professionalism by National TESOL as one of the five key domains for ESL Standards for P-12 Teacher Education Programs serves to underscore its growing importance for ESL teachers. A brief historical literature review of teacher professionalism is presented in order to frame the discussion. This is followed by the narratives of five K-12 ESL teachers whose stories of professionalism in practice answer two important questions:

1) What actions reflect a professional ESL teacher?
2) What have other ESL K-12 teachers done to create a sense of professionalism about themselves?

The issue of professionalism for K-12 ESL teachers has always been of great interest to me. It has emerged over the years from my own experiences teaching ESL in the public schools, supervising ESL student teachers, and currently teaching future ESL licensure candidates. ESL professionalism in the public schools is not an area, however, that has been explored in great depth. Despite what I see as its profound impact on ESL teachers themselves and their second language learners (Edstam, 1998, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c), the literature on this topic has been scant. One of the most encouraging signs, however, reflecting the growing importance of professionalism for ESL teachers, is its inclusion as one of the five domains designated by National TESOL that make up the ESL Standards for P-12 Teacher Education Programs. Soon making its debut, these standards will actually operationalize the notion of professionalism on the pre-service level, requiring teacher edu-

cators to address the topic in their programs through well-defined tasks, assignments, and specific experiences. Thus, new teaching candidates will be guided step by step, moving incrementally towards full professionalism.

From my own personal inquiries, I have found that most K-12 ESL teachers do not share the researchers' need to abstractly define professionalism but the practitioners' need to know what it means to put it into practice in their own teaching settings. ESL teachers are less interested in quibbling over where teaching as a profession stands hierarchically in relation to other professions but rather where they stand professionally within their own schools and districts. They are interested in learning about the historical context from which teacher professionalism emerges, but not willing to be bound to outdated notions of the ESL teacher role foisted upon them by those unfamiliar with the public school ESL context. With this in mind, I begin this article with a brief review of the literature on teacher professionalism to offer readers some historical perspective to frame the discussion. I then contextualize ESL teacher professionalism by highlighting the voices of five K-12 ESL teachers who have put professionalism into practice in their own schools and communities.

Historical Perspective

There already exists an abundance of literature on teacher professionalism in general. Some of the oldest question whether teaching is indeed a profession at all (Caplow, 1954; Etzioni, 1969; Geer, 1966; Goode, 1969; Simpson, R. & Simpson, S., 1969). Later literature, which spurred much heated discussion, conceptualizes professionalism in terms of the professionalization of teaching (Carnegie Commission, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 1985; Holmes Group, 1986). Key elements of this latter approach included raising the professional training of teachers from the undergraduate to the graduate level, creating differentiated stratified structures of teaching allowing for master teachers, and establishing standards to be controlled by the profession.

Herbst (1989), an educational historian, drew a distinction between teacher professionalism and professionalization based on over a century's review of school teaching in America by describing the former

as "the recognition and practice of a teacher's right and obligation to determine his or her own professional tasks in the classroom" (p.6) and the latter as the path out the classroom door and away from actual teaching. Thus the process of professionalization was indeed taking place by creating a distinction among school personnel: those who left the classroom and advanced professionally as administrators or specialists and those who stayed behind to teach. The strong desire for professionalism by the predominantly female teachers who remained in the classrooms was continually overshadowed by the race for professionalization benefiting mostly male teachers.

Herbst poked fun at the well publicized reforms known as the Holmes and Carnegie reports for not having had a single active classroom teacher as a signer, (the Holmes Group was made up mostly of education deans from the major research universities in the U.S. and the Carnegie Commission was composed of business executives, political leaders, academics, university administrators, and two national teacher union heads), but he also took serious aim at those proposals which seemed to further the professionalization of public education rather than the professionalism of classroom teachers. Calls for increased credentialism, more administrative layers, and a sharply defined career ladder might professionalize the structure of teaching, but it didn't offer the classroom teachers a sense of professionalism within their own schools and classrooms.

There were other dissenting voices criticizing the Holmes and Carnegie reports. Labaree (1992) feared that these proposals would undermine classroom teachers' authority by increasing the influence that university teacher educators had over primary and secondary schooling. Others felt that the heavy emphasis on the knowledge of theory weakened and undervalued that other knowledge recognized by so many experienced teachers, the knowledge of practice (Murray, 1992; Schon, 1983). Challenges also came from those who wondered why the moral foundations of education did not seem to be included in the science of teaching (Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Sockett, 1993).

Apple and Jungck's (1992) contention was that the rhetoric of professionalism, which should empower teachers to use their knowledge base and professional expertise by creating curriculum content and

goals and making other key decisions, did not reflect the reality of teaching. According to these researchers, the bureaucracy of schooling had "de-skilled" teachers by imposing methods, texts, and tests as well as outside political and administrative control so that any professional authority they might hold was always compromised.

Larson's (1977) Marxist critique of the professions was among the first to point to a shifting emphasis on power and privilege rather than on commitment to service and altruistic ideals. This political view led several critics of the Holmes and Carnegie reforms to call for an end to the push for a professionalism based on models of medicine and law (Burbules & Densmore (1991).

The view of professionalization as an occupational strategy and as an ideological weapon of sorts also allowed the reform efforts to be seen as the capstone on many years' worth of a strictly masculine, patriarchal view of professions. The response to this view marked the emergence of a feminist critique on the reforms as well as an outpouring of commentary on and argument for a feminist professionalism (Biklen, 1987; Glazer, 1991; Laird, 1988, Noddings, 1990; Tabakin & Densmore, 1986). It was noted by Noddings (1992) that "a main complaint against both the professionalization movement and many of its critics is that they both ignore the experience of women" (p. 203). The concept of caregiving that, feminists maintain, has always been central to teaching, especially elementary school teaching, finds no mention either in the lists of professional attributes or in reform recommendations. What is excluded from the Holmes and Carnegie reforms according to Jane Martin, are the "three C's of care, concern, and connection" (Laird, 1988, p. 459).

Biklen (1987) felt that "the standard male model of professionalism is reflected both in the competition and hierarchy built into the structure of reward, and in the elaborated credentialing systems" (p. 18). She saw the rejection of the male model as giving way to a model of feminist professionalism which views professional success in terms of personal achievement and satisfaction and includes the recognition and valuing of the nurturing role that teaching offers, especially on the elementary school level. Although there is a diversity of thought among feminist theorists (i.e. liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, radical femi-

nism, and socialist feminism) on the rationales for a reconceptualization of professionalism, the one point of mutual agreement is that all past theories of professionalism neglected to address the question of gender thereby reinforcing a very androcentric bias in the debate (Tabakin & Densmore, 1986).

More recently, Coulter and Orme (2000) have described teacher professionalism as a paradox, with the term itself being used as a "verbal weapon to exert power over others"(p. 5). They explore the notion that the "wrong conversation" is being held when teacher professionalism is the topic, noting that comparisons with other fields such as medicine or law do not add the crucial nuances that characterize teaching professionals.

Bob Chase (1998) president of the National Education Association noted "we have been too passive for too long about our professionalism" (p. 18). Criticizing "the in-service workshop tacked on to the end of a long teaching day," he laments the lack of mentoring, peer assistance, and especially professional development needed to cultivate teacher professionalism for both newcomers to the field and veteran teachers.

By using the framework of the history of teacher professionalism as a point of departure, a greater understanding of the concept of professionalism can begin to emerge. From this point, a fuller picture of ESL teacher professionalism can be drawn from the narratives of ESL K-12 practitioners.

Teachers' Voices

What actions reflect a professional ESL teacher? What have other ESL K-12 teachers done to create a sense of professionalism about themselves? These are the questions that need to be addressed, not on an abstract level, but on an experiential one. Understanding some of the literature on teacher professionalism and its historical connection to one's own teaching situation is a good initial step towards contextualizing the topic for oneself. The next more difficult step is conceptualizing professionalism in terms of one's own attitude and behavior as an ESL teacher.

The popular refrain, "actions speak louder than words," comes to mind when ESL teachers wonder about the ways in which they can engage in the practice of professionalism in their schools and in their communities. The following five K-12 ESL teachers are excellent examples of professionalism in practice. Each of them has "operationalized" the concept of professionalism by the actions they have taken. They have implemented one or several of the steps to professionalism, which I outline below and have written about in greater detail (Edstam, 2001).

1) Become an articulate ESL spokesperson.
2) Collaborate with a mainstream teacher or a content-area teacher on your staff.
3) Be a learner as well as a teacher in your school.
4) Take a pro-active stance regarding ESL issues.
5) Become an active member of your state ESL organization.
6) Make professional development an ongoing process.
7) Hone your interpersonal skills.

Having received their permission to so clearly identify them, I would like to share these five teachers' experiences since they are such fine examples of what can really be accomplished on both the elementary and secondary levels. The quotations reflect their own words, and as such, are truly ESL voices. They are introduced in alphabetical order.

1) Sharon Cormany, an ESL teacher at Patrick Henry High School, has both an ESL license and a Master's degree from the University of Minnesota. Her excellent student-teaching experience at Patrick Henry resulted in a teaching position in the residency program there the following year. As she notes about this unusual program, " I taught three classes a day and then had three hours for prep and observing other teachers, getting mentored, and working on a course through the university." As a "professional practice" school, aligned with the University of Minnesota's Graduate School of Education, Patrick Henry also offered Sharon a professional development cohort during her first year of teaching.

It was the dynamics of this cohort that had the biggest impact on her. Consisting of six teachers and a professor, the Human Action Re-

search Group met monthly to share resources and concerns and also function as a support group. It was within this group that Sharon became involved in a classroom action research project focusing on the effects of explicit grammar instruction in both contextualized and decontextualized grammar tasks. With her ESL class as her laboratory, she was able to examine her own teaching methods and evaluate her students' work to determine the effects of various writing assignments on the acquisition of the past tense. What was Sharon's reaction to this type of research? She said, " It's made me feel really empowered as a teacher because I now feel like I'm responsible for my own theory, my own research. And that's coming out of my own practice and I don't have to wait for somebody else for the latest thing."

Sharon has clearly begun the process of making professional development an ongoing process. She is using the research skills she has acquired as well as her ESL knowledge base to make her own connections between theory and practice. Working with the other cohort members and a professor, she continues to be a learner as well as a teacher.

2) Scott Endo also received his ESL teaching license and Master's Degree from the University of Minnesota. Upon graduation seven years ago, he began teaching in the ESL program at Hopkins High School and continues to be an outstanding staff member there. Scott remembers being asked in his first year to give a presentation to his school staff about the needs of ESL students and the task of teaching ESL. His first reaction to this request was that of puzzlement. He taught English; he didn't instruct staff. Yet the more he thought about his work as an ESL teacher, the more he realized that his job was far more comprehensive. He recognized that it also "included advocacy and communication with staff, and that means administration, teachers, everyone in the school system."

Since that first request, Scott and his ESL department have been asked to do other workshops. As Scott said, " there is not a clear idea of what ESL is, what ESL students are, and what ESL does. Even for those teachers who have been around for awhile and have heard the whole thing before, it's a good reminder."

His department's basic workshop format begins with a tip sheet

that outlines strategies for teaching second language learners. The ESL staff defines what an ESL student is, what primary language skills are, and whether students are of immigrant/refugee or international exchange student status. The ESL staff also notes what the ESL student is not – i.e. a bilingual student who speaks a second language at home but is proficient in academic English.

At the beginning of every term, Scott distributes to his colleagues a list of all of the ESL students in the school so that they are aware of those in their mainstream classes who have second language needs. He also gives his colleagues a demographic breakdown for their school district along with the diverse languages spoken by the students and the countries from which they come. As Scott says, this often comes as a surprise to many who are unaware of the great diversity of their high school population.

In discussing the various levels of English offered to their second language learners, the ESL staff also explain how they teach English as well as the other roles they take on. Adding a light touch, Scott explains how he often uses his students' drawings depicting English idioms to make teachers aware of how the use of idiomatic expressions can confuse new language learners. A picture of a person pulling on someone's leg was a good example of how "pulling his leg" was completely misunderstood. Scott is recognized as an articulate ESL spokesperson. His department's workshops reflect the proactive stance he has taken to expand his colleagues' understanding of their second language learners.

3) Nina Mosser's educational credentials and teaching experience are impressive enough: ESL K-12 license, elementary K-6 license from England, and a Master's degree in Special Education from Boston College. But it is the professional work she undertook as an ESL teacher at Mann Elementary School in St. Paul that puts her in a class by herself. With the recent arrival of many Hmong and Somali students at Mann, Nina discovered that the mothers of these students were anxious to learn English and to become more involved in their children's education. The Hubbs Adult Learning Center in St. Paul did offer evening English classes; but with a strong male presence there and a lack of both day care and transportation, many of the mothers were not comfortable in that setting.

Noting this, Nina decided to write a grant which would make Mann Elementary School a 'de facto' after-school Learning Center, offer the school-aged children tutors, provide infant care, make transportation available, and, most importantly, offer adult English classes for these women. By getting support from the school's Site council, from the PTA, from the Laou Youth Society, and from the Hubbs Adult Center as well, Nina was able to piece together a program which addressed the needs of both the ESL children at Mann and their mothers. She was told that one of the reasons this grant was successful was "because we went and used resources that already existed in the district and in the community."

Having the mothers in class three times a week also created many opportunities for relationships to form between Mann classroom teachers and parents. Nina noticed "the relationships that were created between the teachers and the parents were really in a whole different area." The mothers were able to talk to the teachers about academic or behavior problems in a more informal and supportive setting. Taking a proactive stance, Nina sought out help from her school and community to make this program a reality. Her excellent interpersonal skills made the grant writing a collaborative effort and also enabled her to bring together a diverse group of people who wanted to help these new immigrant families feel at home in their new community.

4) Licia Koch Robertson, another U of M graduate with an ESL license and a Master's degree, began teaching ESL at Frost Lake Elementary School in St. Paul as a student-teacher. Hired the following year as a full-time teacher, she was delighted to see that the former self-contained ESL model had evolved and had become a successful inclusion program for the primary age English language learners in the building. Now the school wanted to expand the inclusion model to the intermediate level, requiring Licia to do the type of collaborative teaching she eagerly supported.

Licia was very excited about the process but concerned about beginning it with reluctant teachers. At first, she "felt like a bit of a salesperson for the program", trying to promote her goals for the program. "Then," she states, "I realized that I really needed to start thinking first

and foremost about the team, not about what I think is necessarily the goal." She realized that the key was "getting together with other professionals and thinking about what is best for the kids, and figuring out how we can all move in the same direction, expending the same amount of energy but going in the same direction."

As a result of this experience, Licia identified what she calls the "3-D essentials' for collaboration:

1) Develop a level of trust with your colleagues. On a bad teaching day, they will be there to support you, problem-solve with you, and help you address the issues at hand.
2) Define your role. Explain your area of expertise to your colleagues so that you can contribute based on your strengths.
3) Delineate specific meeting times. By adhering to a firm schedule such as the first Friday of the month, you build in the necessary continuity that ongoing collaboration requires.

Licia underscores the importance of understanding that collaboration is a process that requires each member to move in the same direction to achieve group goals. Professionalism in practice results from this successful collaboration with mainstream colleagues and the utilization of strong interpersonal skills to do so.

5) Currently a doctoral student at the University of Minnesota and recently named National Board Certified Teacher in ESL, Karla Stone turned a challenge into a professional achievement as an ESL teacher at Armstrong High School in Robbinsdale, MN. After teaching there for several years, she decided to become a member of the school's graduate standards committee during the '98-'99 school year. At that time, Karla remembers worrying that the "school had not done anything yet in terms of figuring out where the different standards were going to be met in which classes." Although funding was available to hire a person in an extra-curricular position to be responsible for imbedding standards school-wide, no one had yet come forward to do the job.

Karla realized that, with a school population of over 2200 students and over 100 teachers, it would be difficult to figure out what her ESL students needed in terms of the larger school curriculum if she stood on

the sidelines. Rising to the occasion, Karla volunteered to oversee the implementation of the standards, learning through this process which classes taken by her students would cover which specific standards. She realized immediately that this job " allowed me to see which classes my students would not be taking, and therefore which standards they just wouldn't have a chance to get. Then, by default, those were the standards we embedded in the ESL program."

As the graduation standards person, Karla found that her ESL department was then better prepared for it own curriculum planning. She also said, "It helped me develop these interpersonal relationships with teachers because I got to knock on different doors and kind of hold them [mainstream staff] accountable for the standards." Karla was also able to participate in some state training, which, as she puts it, "pushed me professionally." She soon felt "more competent and articulate in talking about standards." Her key role in Armstrong's graduation standards required a great deal of learning on her part and resulted in her ability to take a pro-active stance regarding ESL students' ability to successfully meet standards for high school graduation.

Having also served as president of MinneTESOL, Minnesota's state ESL organization, Karla looks back on that experience as "an incredible opportunity to be involved, in terms of professional development." The relationships built through the organization have become an active professional network for her. She now promotes MinneTESOL membership for all ESL practitioners, reflecting her professional attitude towards active membership in one's state organization.

Conclusion

In 1956, when Myron Lieberman wrote his oft quoted book, *Education as a Profession,* he acknowledged that one needed to know what constituted a profession before one could begin to study education as a profession. The nebulous nature of the term *profession,* and thereby the term *professionalism*, has afforded many sociologists and educators the opportunity to create definitions within their own images and for their own ends. I, myself, do not find this nebulous condition to be a

shortcoming, for it allows for an evolving perspective.

One expert on professionalism, Friedson (1994), appears to agree. He notes that a definitional problem has been created by attempts to "treat profession as if it were a generic rather than a changing historic concept."(p. 16). His view allows for a more fluid and less static understanding of the terms *profession* and professionalism. It enables K-12 ESL teachers such as Sharon, Scott, Nina, Licia, and Karla, as well as their respective school colleagues to determine whether their behavior, their work, and their attitudes are reflective of a professional.

In a similar vein, Richard Hall (1985) a renown sociologist who had spent his academic career carefully defining "profession" and "professionalism," admitted, after many years in the field, that "professionals have images about what professionalism involves, images that have multiple dimensions, and determine for us what professional behavior is or is not" (p. 227). He told of his own personal dilemma in filling out a personnel evaluation form for non-faculty university employees in which he was asked, "Is his/her work carried out in a professional manner?"

> How was I to respond to this question? On the one hand, my sociological background and familiarity with the literature on the professions and professionals cried out that these people were not professionals. After all, they had not had special training to become an assistant or associate dean or grants administrator. They also had relatively little autonomy in their work. On the other hand, and this is the hand that won, I "knew" what acting professionally meant, just as the other nonsociologically trained vice presidents did as they evaluated personnel. In this case, acting professionally meant the ways in which individuals carried out their work. . . . In other words, we had an image of what professional behavior was and was not. (p.227)

I find Hall's comments helpful in framing the narrative voices of my five K-12 ESL teachers. They all acted professionally in the individual ways in which they carried out their work. By operationalizing the concept of professionalism within their own schools and communities through activities that capture the image of what professional behavior is, each of these teachers has established an identity as an ESL professional. Each

has put professionalism into practice.

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The New English Language Proficiency Standards: Issues in Curriculum and ESL Teacher Professionalism

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This article presents a description and discussion of the new K-12 English Language Proficiency (ELP) Standards from Minnesota and the WIDA Consortium Standards which Wisconsin is adopting. Issues in their implementation are outlined from the perspective of content-based instruction (CBI), local curriculum control and collaboration among teachers.

Introduction

English as a second language (ESL) teachers in the United States who completed their licensure requirements before 1997 were never trained to link their instruction to any state or national standards; they did not exist yet. The first K-12 standards in ESL were published in 1997 by TESOL, the national professional organization for ESL teachers. Now it is common in ESL teacher education programs and school districts to expect teachers to link curriculum to the national TESOL Standards. For the first time in Minnesota and Wisconsin, there are state standards specific to the needs of English language learners (ELLs). These standards are called the Minnesota English Language Proficiency (ELP) Standards (Minnesota Department of Education, 2003) and the WIDA Consortium Standards (Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 2004).1 The standards appear at a time when there is a push toward the inclusion model of instruction, whereby the ESL teacher works

alongside a grade-level or content teacher rather than taking students out of the classroom. The move toward this model has dramatic implications for defining the role of ESL teachers, as well as what they teach. In this article, we will offer an introduction to the new Standards for ELLs to be used in Minnesota and Wisconsin and discuss some of their implications. We will provide a rationale for using standards to inform instructional and curricular choices and illustrate how this can be done through content-based instruction (CBI). Finally, we propose that the development of standards for ESL show the need for collaboration among teachers where the ESL teacher has a professional role in the process of meeting both the academic and language needs of ESL students.

An Overview of the Minnesota and WIDA Standards for ELLs

The new state standards for Minnesota and Wisconsin are available through their respective state websites: Minnesota Department of Education http://education.state.mn.us/ and Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction http://www.dpi.state.wi.us/. For those who have used the national TESOL Standards, the Minnesota and the WIDA Standards for ELLs have a few familiar features:

- They are designed specifically for ELLs.
- They take into consideration language uses and functions.
- They can be adapted to a range of ability levels.
- They recognize the important role of academic language development in the instruction of ELLs.
- They establish several broad goal areas and elaborate them through specific examples of activities that can meet the goal.

Both the Minnesota ELP Standards and the WIDA Standards have relied on the TESOL Standards as a point of departure but have benefited from efforts in states such as New York and California to make state-specific standards that will align with state-developed language proficiency assessments (see Stone, 2003). The national TESOL Standards were designed primarily with the ESL teacher in mind but were also intended to communicate language-learning goals with all teachers that work with ELLs. They lay out three broad goal areas related to social,

academic and sociolinguistic language use. These areas are further divided into three standards including attention to interaction as well as academic language use and learning strategies. The Minnesota ELP and the WIDA Standards make stronger statements about using content to teach language.2 The Minnesota ELP standards have links to Language Arts and Mathematics curricula and links to Science are planned. The WIDA Standards make the language of the content central to their framework with language closely tied to each content area. Making connections to academic content in the standards is a way to promote the notion that language development in K-12 settings should be linked to academic content. Table 1 below lists the Minnesota ELP and the WIDA Consortium Standards. The content connections in the Minnesota Standards appear in the document under each standard, while the WIDA Standards target the content areas in the standards themselves.

As stipulated by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), the Minnesota and WIDA Standards are written to focus on all four modalities (i.e., reading, writing, speaking listening) and are broken into four grade groupings (i.e., K-2, 3-5, 6-8 and 9-12). The states differ in that Minnesota targets English proficiency at four levels (i.e., Beginning, Intermediate, Advanced and Transitional, which refers to learners who are nearly fully mainstreamed but still benefit from ESL classes), while Wisconsin has standards for five levels (i.e., Entering, Beginning, Developing, Expanding and Bridging, which refers to learners who are to the point where students can attain the state academic content standards). This grade and ability level specificity makes the standards practical for teachers to use because they may review the standards for the grade cluster above or below their students' level, as well the standards that are matched to their grade and students' level. Both sets of standards reflect the distinction between skill in academic and social language use (Cummins, 1991).

The Minnesota ELP Standards

The Minnesota standards specify the following four aspects of language skills, called proficiency descriptors, in addition to a focus on the modalities. The proficiency descriptors and examples of each area at a variety of proficiency levels are listed in Table 2.

Table 1: Overview of the Minnesota and WIDA Standards

Minnesota's ELP Standards	
Standard 1.1: The student will UNDERSTAND SPOKEN English to participate in INFORMAL (social) contexts.	Standards 1.2: The student will UNDERSTAND SPOKEN English to participate in FORMAL (academic) contexts.
Standard 2.1: The student will PRODUCE SPOKEN English appropriately to participate in INFORMAL (social) contexts.	Standard 2.2: The student will PRODUCE SPOKEN English appropriately to participate in FORMAL (academic) contexts.
Standard 3.1: The student will UNDERSTAND WRITTEN English to participate in INFORMAL (social) contexts.	Standard 3.2: The student will UNDERSTAND WRITTEN English to participate in FORMAL (academic) contexts.
Standard 4.1: The student will PRODUCE WRITTEN English appropriately to participate in INFORMAL (social) contexts.	Standard 4.2: The student will PRODUCE WRITTEN English appropriately to participate in FORMAL (academic) contexts.

Wisconsin's WIDA Standards	
Standard 1	English language learners communicate in English for SOCIAL AND INSTRUCTIONAL purposes within the school setting.
Standard 2	English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of LANGUAGE ARTS.
Standard 3	English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of MATHEMATICS.
Standard 4	English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of SCIENCE.
Standard 5	English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the content area of SOCIAL STUDIES.

Note: The items written in upper case letters are intended to help the reader to understand the organization of the standards for each state by pointing out the key parts of the specific standards.

Table 2: Proficiency Descriptors Represented in the Minnesota ELP Standards

Skill Area	*Examples of Skills*
Purpose, Audience and Genre	• Understand simplified content-area texts (Advanced) • Understand printed material and Web sites for a wide public audience (Transitional)
Communicative Functions	• Derive meaning from visual elements in texts (Beginning) • Express many needs and preferences (Intermediate)
Language Features	• Write simple sentences in standard word order (Beginning) • Understand how grade-level text is organized (Transitional)
Word Knowledge and Use	• Understand vocabulary related to basic needs (Beginning) • Use sufficient vocabulary to get ideas across (Advanced)

The inclusion of *Purpose, Audience and Genre* as skill areas may expand the curriculum because it promotes variation in, for example, the choice of texts and tasks. This allows for the use of more authentic materials that are written or spoken for a wider range of audiences. The Minnesota Standards parallel the TESOL Standards in the central role *Communicative Functions* play. Functions are essential to instructional decisions because they forefront what learners will actually do with language. The more ESL teachers consider the real-life language demands on their learners, the more functions will come into play in the curriculum. By including *Language Features* as a separate category, the Minnesota ELP Standards address a gap in the national TESOL Standards. The TESOL Standards only deal with functions, leaving it to the teacher to decide what grammatical forms are necessary for the given functions. While it is good practice to teach forms through meaningful and communicative activities that target functions in planned ways, it is easy to neglect grammatical forms when taking a purely functional approach because it seems to diminish the importance of targeted grammar instruction. The *Language Features* category in the standards

puts focused attention on language back in a more prominent place and identifies some basic grammar, pronunciation and discoursal features that should be included in the curriculum, whether they are taught implicitly or explicitly. *Word Knowledge and Use* is another new feature. This category indicates the extremely important role of vocabulary development for ELLs, and having it articulated in two parts, *knowledge* and *use*, highlights the need to develop both receptive and productive skills in developing vocabulary. One advantage of this level of specificity in laying out skill areas is that it recognizes the work of second language instruction in developing language proficiency rather than assuming that all of these aspects of language development will occur without any special attention to them.

The WIDA Standards

The WIDA Standards have two frameworks – a large-scale frame work and a classroom framework. The large-scale framework includes standards, referred to as model performance indicators, that the state is responsible for assessing. The classroom framework reflects the standards which should be assessed in the classroom, at the local level. Each framework generates separate sets of model performance indicators for listening, speaking, reading and writing. The model performance indicators have three components:

1. function (how the students use language);
2. content (what the students are expected to communicate);
3. modality (how the students process the input either through oral or written language) (WIDA Standards, 2004, p. 7).

To accompany the WIDA Standards, Wisconsin has developed a robust comprehensive assessment system for English language learners in content classes that includes alternate performance indicators for the content standards (Wisconsin Alternate Assessment for English Language Learners, 2003). The goal of this work is to guarantee English language learners' full integration into Wisconsin's assessment and accountability system. This comprehensive assessment system does a number of things, including the following;

- Targets English language learners with low English language proficiency (determined by state-approved tests) in grades 3, 4, 8, and 10.
- Allows ELLs to show their content knowledge in their native language through performance or alternate assessments.
- Tailors rubrics for performance assessments to English language learners.

In addition to assessing ELLs in the content areas, using an alternate assessment measure, the WIDA Consortium has produced an English language proficiency test called *ACCESS for ELLs* that is directly linked to the WIDA Standards. This test will be implemented within the next year.

Summary

The new standards to be used in Minnesota and Wisconsin promote many sound instructional and assessment practices in ESL and lay out a framework that captures much of how the second language education field currently sees the range of language skills that English language learners need to succeed in school. The standards attend to language functions, both social and academic language skills, and are grounded in the language needed for content instruction.

Benefits of Standards for ESL Teachers and Programs

Standards can help support sound curriculum development and instructional practices that benefit English language learners. Although perhaps counter-intuitive at the outset, standards can give teachers a great deal of flexibility and autonomy to implement instructional and curricular innovations. While the Minnesota ELP standards offer learning goals that students are expected to achieve at different levels, they do not dictate a curriculum or tell teachers how to teach. Therefore, if the approach to instruction is standards-based, teachers (either as individuals or working through districts or departments) can choose their own materials, projects and daily activities to develop the range of skills addressed in the standards. The WIDA Standards, which are carefully

aligned with content standards, also do not mandate any particular curriculum or instructional approach. This quality respects the professionalism of ESL teachers, allowing them to make reasoned decisions about applying the standards based on their understanding of their learners' backgrounds and broader academic needs as they move into the grade-level content instruction.

Standards can also help articulation efforts between levels in a program or between programs in different schools and districts. The standards can be a unifying document for teachers to use to talk with each other about their programs. While it is not desirable to send top-down mandates to ESL programs to the extent that there is no room for teacher decision-making, it may be helpful for all programs in a given district to be working toward some of the same larger goals. In this way, the standards can work toward assuring quality ESL programs across the state.

The state and national standards can provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own instruction and curriculum. All teachers approach their work with specific strengths and passions towards portions of their curriculum. For example, while one teacher may have mastered ways of scaffolding many types of writing assignments, another teacher may be very good at encouraging students to read across different genres. The standards offer teachers the opportunity to pinpoint gaps that naturally occur in any curriculum and in any program. Even the most expert of ESL teachers should be able to examine the standards and find items that are inadvertently neglected in their classes, but valuable for their students to learn. Quite often, making changes to address curricular gaps can be revitalizing to teachers and programs.

Finally, in a field that has often been marginalized, standards offer the promise of raising the status of ESL teachers. Just as other content areas have standards, it is important for ESL as a field of study and a profession to also have them (Wolters, Henderson, & Alcaya, 2003). Having distinct state standards can assist in giving ESL equal status in K-12 educational settings, and this is particularly important in the context of more collaboration and inclusion. Practically speaking, standards can help ESL teachers define the role of ESL as a distinct component in the instruction of ELLs. While content area teachers attend to the

content area standards, the ESL teachers can find a role in assuring that language development, as laid out in the standards, is incorporated into the instruction. Ideally, the content area teacher and the ESL teacher would work together to assure that ELLs receive the content knowledge they need as well as develop their academic language skills, most likely involving some instruction offered in the content class and some in a pull-out ESL class. Having specific ESL standards can make it easier to communicate to those outside the field that ESL is a profession and that specific preparation, as is available through ESL licensure programs, is needed to be able to implement the standards and assure quality content instruction and continued language development for ELLs.

Challenges of Standards for ESL Teachers and Programs

It is reassuring to know that the Minnesota Department of Education and the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction involved many accomplished teachers in the development of the ELP Standards and then submitted them to external review. As with the national TESOL Standards, there was a grass-roots element in their creation. On the other hand, the adoption and implementation of standards involves some degree of imposition of an external body on individual programs and teachers. This is an interesting dilemma. While we see that standards can free teachers to enact the standards in their own way, we also see that they are ultimately a mandate.

For this reason, as with most new standards, the new standards may be met with some resistance. This is understandable because teachers are often wary of investing a great deal of energy in the adoption of something new after seeing other mandated programs come and go. Another valid objection to standards is that they are seen as the flip side of standardized testing mandated by NCLB and a topic of concern and often despair for many who work with ELLs (for local commentary on NCLB see Robson, 2004, March 10). In Minnesota, the ELP Standards will need to align to the Minnesota Test of Emerging Academic English (TEAE) as well as a new speaking and listening test that is currently under development. The WIDA Standards are deeply intertwined with state assessment requirements that have long been in place through

the Alternative Performance Indicators. For both states, the links between standards and tests are more likely to strengthen than weaken with each revision of the standards and their corresponding tests.

In an ideal educational setting, teachers would be at the center of any substantive change in schools and therefore require the freedom to be autonomous decision makers (Arnowitz & Giroux, 1985). NCLB assumes exactly the opposite – that taking control away from teachers will improve education. The standards do impose a framework on the curriculum. For this reason, teachers may find it challenging to internalize this new framework or to fit their existing curricula into it. Teachers may find that they do not always agree with the selection of items or that the standards may be organized in a way that does not match the way they conceptualize their curriculum. For example, the new state standards are organized according to modality as well as learner level and age. This multifaceted perspective may not reflect the schema some ESL teachers have for their classes. Perhaps some existing programs conceptualize language ability across levels and modalities differently than the standards do, resulting in some mismatches. Thus, learning to use the new standards will require patience and time, and may ask some programs to rethink their curriculum.

On the other hand, if we consider the role ESL textbooks have played in dictating curriculum, or actually being used as curriculum, standards are fairly benign. While standards in the field of TESOL have been widely accepted in the field as a way to promote professionalism (Beckett & Haley, 2000, November/December), we would argue that the wholesale adoption of textbooks as curriculum is one of the greatest threats to teacher professionalism across disciplines. A survey of several thousand K-12 teachers found that 89 percent of instructional time was structured around some sort of textbook program including teachers' editions, collections of tests and other pre-made materials (Woodward & Elliott, 1992, Summer). The power textbooks have to control teachers and their curriculum is great. Woodward and Elliot argue "the more teachers rely on textbooks and teachers' guides to make instructional decisions (and the more administrators encourage that reliance) the achievement of professional status is significantly weakened" (1992, p. 178). Administrators and teachers must be cautious in text selection

because as standards are put into place in states across the United States, textbook companies are designing entire packages, replete with every imaginable curricular accoutrement, to align with those standards. This is an enterprise that may seem like an instant way to have a standards-based curriculum, but we urge caution. The more such industrially-produced curricula are adopted uncritically and on a large scale, the more teachers forgo what they were trained to do – make pedagogical judgments based on their own students' interests, needs and progress. A vision of more teacher responsibility regarding curriculum encourages local control over decisions in how the curriculum unfolds and how links are made between curricular themes over time. This vision could include the use of textbooks to support instruction but not to be the curriculum. Our vision would also include locally determined evaluation of ELLs through performance assessments using teacher-made or adapted rubrics that are specific to the assignments, which are based on the standards. School districts and teachers should be wary of commercially-produced curricula to achieve accountability under NCLB.

In conclusion, with the high level of teacher preparation most ESL teachers bring to the classroom, we feel that textbook mandates are a greater threat to professionalism than the standards. Content-based instruction (CBI) and the use of authentic materials and engaging tasks fit easily with the new standards, as we illustrate in the following section.

CBI as a Natural Choice for K-12 ESL Programs

CBI is an approach to language instruction that makes content the vehicle for teaching language. It has many advantages (see Bigelow, Ranney, & Hebble, in press; Eskey, 1997; Pally, 2000; Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1992; Stoller & Grabe; 1997). It facilitates learning language through meaningful, communicative and experiential instruction, thereby heightening learner motivation; it grounds instruction with interesting texts and tasks; it gives language learning tasks and texts purpose and exposes learners to a variety of genres needed in the mainstream; and it has the potential to link form and function in interesting and motivating ways. CBI can be an antidote to the problems of some language teach-

ing in which a traditional grammatical focus dictates the syllabus and in which forms are taught out of any meaningful context, leading to the common problem of students not being able to use their knowledge of grammar in actual communication.

Fortunately, current trends in the education of ELLs in K-12 schools also promote CBI. As the percentages of ELLs rise and the necessity for them to have access to the full curriculum becomes apparent, schools are often turning toward inclusion and sheltered content models (Short 1999), whereby the ESL teacher works in the content classroom alongside the grade-level teacher. In general, ESL teachers are working more with academic curricula that support the students' general academic needs as well as developing their language skills. These trends, along with the inherent value of the approach, are pushing ESL instruction more toward CBI.

Despite this beneficial convergence of factors favoring CBI, there is a potential drawback in the approach: teachers may neglect to teach language in favor of content rather than keeping the focus on teaching language through content. One of the most commonly cited problems with CBI is that it is very easy for teachers to "become excited about interesting and appealing content and overlook the language exploitation aspects of instruction" (Stoller & Grabe, 1997, p. 93). It is much more difficult to analyze the language needs inherent in a given content task, articulate language objectives that are embedded within the content, find a way to incorporate deliberate instruction in language features (whether implicit or explicit), and plan the syllabus to cover a range of linguistic forms when they are not laid out in a linear fashion by a textbook or prescribed curriculum. Furthermore, inclusion and sheltered content models often do not leave time or opportunities for targeted language instruction since the focus is on giving students access to the mainstream curriculum. Yet it is vital for the ESL teacher to constantly plan for and attend to developing language proficiency even when the medium is content.

The new standards have made a timely entry when there is an urgent need for both content-based teaching as well as the equally important need for focused attention to language. We need standards that can serve as a framework for integrating content and language instruc-

tion and for defining the respective roles of content teachers and ESL teachers. The new Minnesota and WIDA Standards have the potential to address these needs. Both sets of standards are innovative in that they link language and content learning. At the same time, they address language development in a way that is even more focused than the national TESOL Standards. For example, the Minnesota Standards clearly call for teachers to attend to communicative functions, language features such as sentence structure, and vocabulary and to consider questions of purpose, audience and genre. These skills can easily be incorporated in CBI and they can serve to remind the ESL teacher that the purpose of instruction must remain focused on language development even when the medium is content. In classrooms where the ESL teacher works alongside a grade level teacher in an inclusion model, the standards can help define the ESL teacher's role as the one who is in charge of delivering instruction for pressing language needs rather than as an assistant to the grade-level teacher who is in charge of delivering the content instruction. In a climate where the complaint is frequently heard that the ESL teacher is reduced to being an aide or paraprofessional (Edstam, 2001), we hope that the standards will contribute to articulating the domain of the ESL teacher.

How a Content-Based Project Addresses the ELP State Standards

By teaching language through content, many ESL teachers are already addressing the new standards. A common project at the middle and high school levels is to do research on a topic using a variety of materials, many of which are written for native speakers of English. Such projects may focus on themes related to countries, cultures, music, art, or animals. Typically, students choose a specific topic and need to report on a variety of key information related to the topic. This type of project requires students to use a range of research and writing skills, perhaps culminating in an oral presentation or poster presentation on the topic. If teachers are using this approach, it is unlikely that there will be much to change about the project for it to meet the new standards. Table 3 illustrates a few typical tasks that could be included in a project related to learning about endangered animals and then lists a few of the

Minnesota and WIDA Standards that could align with the task. There are many more standards that may be addressed, depending on the focus of the task and the task design. The learner level is listed according to the standards, but this is not to say that the task should be done only by learners of that level. Teachers will find that even the upper level standards can be accomplished in many ways by scaffolding students at the lower level, with peer and teacher assistance (Vygotsky, 1986). In fact, teachers may want to focus multi-leveled classes on the skills at the upper levels with the understanding that students will accomplish tasks with more or less complexity, length or depth.

A Vision for ESL Professionals

We have argued that Minnesota and Wisconsin's standards for ELLs can play a positive role in the ESL profession in our states. Ideally, they will urge ESL teachers to make academic content more central to their curriculum and content teachers will become more aware of both the language learning that must be occurring in their content classes and the roles their ESL colleagues can play in improving the language development of their ELLs. ESL and content teachers both bring their respective strengths to the education of ELLs. However, now content teachers are learning more about how to make the content in the mainstream classes comprehensible to their ELLs. The role of the ESL teacher is also in flux. In some settings, this has meant that ESL teachers may come to have less direct contact with ELLs because their work demands them to be administrators of ELL services, to test students and to perhaps to work mainly with content teachers on instructional modifications for ELLs (Platt, Harper, & Mendoza, 2003; see also Hansen, this volume). By fulfilling these new roles, ESL teachers are unfortunately not using their knowledge about language, language learning and second language pedagogy in direct ESL instruction. While we do believe that grade-level or content teachers can learn to modify instruction to make content classes comprehensible for ELLs, we also believe that content teachers cannot by themselves fulfill the role of promoting language development. This is where ESL teachers still have an essential role. How-

Table 3: How endangered animal project aligns with the Minnesota and WIDA Standards

Example Project Tasks	*MN ELP Standards Targeted*	*WIDA Standards Targeted*
Read and take notes from internet pages on information about the animal of choice such as where the animal lives, what it eats and why it is endangered.	Access and understand age-appropriate information on Web sites. (Standard 3.1 & 3.2, Advanced) Understand enough vocabulary to comprehend isolated parts of a text. (Standard 3.1, Intermediate) Evaluate the accuracy and credibility of information found on Internet sites. (Grade 6 Language Arts Benchmark) Strategies: Know when to use native language sources to promote understanding. Actively connect new information to prior knowledge or personal experience. Use context and visual cues to guess meaning.	Skim material for relevant information (Standard 1, Reading, Expanding) Process information in newspaper and magazine articles or on the Internet (Standard 5, Reading, Developing) Identify facts from pictures and sentences (Standard 2, Reading, Entering)
Organize and cite sources of information.	Cite sources using a model. (Standard 4.2, Transitional) Apply capitalization and punctuation rules much of the time. (Standard 4.2, Advanced)	Select and use graphic organizers to present ideas for writing (such as Venn diagrams) (Standard 2, Writing, Developing).
Describe animal verbally with pictures of the endangered animal to peers.	Understand isolated target vocabulary such as *animal, bird, habitat, extinction.* (Standard 1.1, Beginning) Answer highly contextualized, simple questions such as *What does it eat?* (Standard 2.1, Beginning) Strategy: Use visual aids to convey information.	Describe features of animals or plants from visual prompts (Standard 5, Writing, Developing). Ask questions or exchange information with peers (Standard 1, Speaking, Beginning).

Write letters or make a list of why others should take action to save the endangered animal. Discuss reasons in groups. Revise papers for organization and accuracy.	Write multiple sentences on a single topic. (Standard 4.2, Transitional) Participate in limited/guided discussions. (Standard 2.2, Intermediate) Edit own work. (Standard 4.2, Intermediate, Advanced and Transitional) Strategy: Observe and model how others write in a particular situation or setting.	Give persuasive arguments on school-related topics (Standard 2, Speaking, Expanding). Edit, revise, or rephrase written language based on feedback (Standard 1, Writing, Expanding).
Share information with others about the animal through an illustrated book, oral report or poster. Answer questions. Read about or listen to others talk about their animal.	Understand highly contextualized conversations on familiar topics. (Standard 1.1, Intermediate) Ask and answer questions. (Standard 2.1, Transitional) Strategy: Focus attention selectively when listening (e.g., take notes on certain information about classmates' animals). Rehearse language	Summarize and present information (Standard 4, Speaking, Expanding). Answer WH- questions regarding visually supported information on ads, cartoons, signs, or posters (Standard 2, Speaking, Entering). Process information from speakers who use visual or graphic support (Standard 2, Listening, Entering).

Along with the push for teaching academic content to ELLs, language and learning strategies must be developed as well. There is the danger of passing over these needs in collaborative teaching arrangements where the content teacher often dominates the curriculum decisions as well as the instruction. An alternate vision is one of an ESL teacher using content to teach language as well as to support ELLs' academic work, or of ESL and content teachers working side by side as equal partners, each with a focus on an area of need, language or content development, blending the two areas together but never forgetting the importance and distinct features of each one. The new standards can support this vision by articulating the ELLs' language learning needs and situating them in the academic curriculum. Of course, the standards

ever, this role must be defined and defended in a current school climate where all teachers are being retooled to make content comprehensible to ELLs. In fact, standards are a reminder that ELL needs go beyond making content accessible (Kinsella, 1997).
can only provide a framework and the real task of making the integration work can only be done by people working in particular school settings, with support from school administration.

Conclusion

As teachers and teacher educators grapple with new standards, it is useful to remember what standards are and what they are not. The standards can be useful to teachers as they reflect on their curriculum and instruction. Cross-referencing instruction with the standards provides a natural form of accountability to programs, teachers and to ELLs. Standards simply provide a broad view of what learners should strive to achieve and are not to be used as if they were a curriculum in and of themselves. Standards that are thoughtfully integrated over time and in conversation with ESL professionals and content teachers can grant status and validity to ESL classes and the profession. The standards are to be used as a guide and as a tool for reflection.

Standards are not the solution to all of the challenges schools face in providing equitable and quality education for ELLs. Teachers are charged with choosing appropriate instructional strategies that match their students' levels and needs. Teachers still choose the learning activities through which students will improve their language skills. If the standards are to be of use, teachers must work synergistically with other efforts to improve instruction for ELLs. Standards do not replace the training, experience and support needed for teachers to be successful in the classroom. The standards can, however, provide a framework for collaboration between ESL and content teachers. Given the urgent need for ELLs to develop language and academic skills, it is our hope that the standards will be used to guide teachers' professional judgment.

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(Footnotes)

1 Federal grant monies were awarded to Wisconsin (the lead state), Delaware, and Arkansas (WIDA), the original partners, and the District of Columbia, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont later joined the team. The WIDA Consortium Standards will be used in all of these states.
2 The WIDA Standards will be used as a companion document to the national TESOL Standards.

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We would like to thank Elizabeth Cranley, Julie Henderson, Cheryl Alcaya and Tina Edstam for comments on an earlier draft of this paper. All errors remain our own.

Exploring the Immediate and Delayed Effects of Formal Instruction: Teaching Giving and Responding to Compliments

Noriko Ishihara

Although research in interlanguage pragmatics has investigated learners' developmental processes in gaining pragmatic ability, there have been far fewer longitudinal studies examining effects of instruction. This preliminary case study explores immediate and delayed instructional effects on giving and responding to compliments in two ESL classrooms. The instruction, given to 31 intermediate adult Intensive English Program (IEP) learners, facilitated their outside-of-class observation and interaction. Their performance and awareness of giving and responding to compliments were described as measured before, during, and immediately after instruction; delayed effects of instruction was measured through their performance one year after the instruction. As the instruction progressed, learners produced longer written complimenting dialogues on appropriate topics, approximated native speakers in their use of syntactic structures of compliments, and utilized newly learned response strategies. Even one year after instruction, a subset of the learners demonstrated their retention of central skills although a few response strategies were marginally employed. The instruction also contributed to the learners' understanding of the culturally specific nature of complimenting and awareness of gender, relative status, and appropriate topics. After the instruction, the learners reported a higher level of confidence in complimenting interactions and enhanced motivation for learning other speech acts. The preliminary analyses lend

support to the positive effects of instruction in pragmatics reported in previous studies.

Introduction

As is true of any speech act[1], giving and responding to compliments is culturally bound communicative behavior, largely reflecting the sociocultural values of the interlocutors. While a simple compliment about a possession of the addressee is not unusual between friends or even strangers in the United States, in another culture like Samoan complimenting rarely takes place since paying a compliment is synonymous to requesting the object (Holmes & Brown, 1987). Arabic speakers frequently employ proverbs or set phrases when responding to compliments; Chinese speakers customarily refuse compliments, stating that the recipient of the compliment is not worthy of praise (Dunham, 1992). Literature has heavily documented instances of embarrassment, dismay, and offense experienced by ESL learners in giving and responding to compliments in English (Dunham, 1992; Holmes & Brown, 1987).

Compliments and Responses to Compliments in American English

In American English, compliments serve multiple functions conveying a variety of intentions speakers wish to communicate. Compliments are not only sincere admiration of positive qualities, but they also replace greetings, gratitude or apologies, and soften the face-threatening acts when combined with criticism, scolding, apologies, or requests (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983, 1989). Americans pay compliments so frequently to acknowledge and praise positive attributes that failing or neglecting to do so can be interpreted as a sign of disapproval (Manes, 1983; Wolfson, 1989, Wolfson & Manes, 1980). In addition, compliments can be employed as a conversation strategy with which to open an interaction to establish ties of solidarity (Billmyer, 1990; Dunham, 1992). Compliments can be a conversational tool with which learners establish friendships and become more integrated into the target language culture. Such integrative motivation closely relates to learners' linguistic achievements and facilitates pragmatic development (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

Performing such a multifunctional social strategy is a complicated and difficult task for learners to pick up without formal instruction. However, before teaching it, language instructors need to become aware of how compliments are actually given and responded to in authentic settings. In fact, research has in large part uncovered the way Americans exchange compliments. Manes and Wolfson (1981) collected 686 naturally occurring compliments and found them to be extremely formulaic. The data were gathered from middle-class Americans, male and female of varying ages and occupational/educational backgrounds. Eighty-five percent of the compliments used one of the first three syntactic categories below and 97% fell into the nine categories (pp. 120-121).

1. NP is/looks (really) ADJ. (*Your blouse is beautiful.*)
2. I (really) like/love NP. (*I like your car.*)
3. PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP. (*That's a nice wall hanging.*)
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP. (*You did a good job.*)
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV. (*You really handled that situation well.*)
6. You have (a) ADJ NP! (*You have such beautiful hair!*)
7. What (a) ADJ NP! (*What a lovely baby you have!*)
8. ADJ NP! (*Nice game!*)
9. Isn't NP ADJ? (*Isn't your ring beautiful?*)

Eighty percent of compliments were adjectival and two-thirds of them included five adjectives (*nice*, *good*, *beautiful*, *pretty*, and *great*) whereas two verbs (*like* and *love*) were dominant among the compliments containing a semantically positive verb (86%).

Since compliments typically initiate a conversation or are independent of the previous topic, the use of deixis was prevalent to identify the referent of the compliment unambiguously (Manes & Wolfson, 1981). The majority of the compliments (70%) utilized second person pronouns (***You** look great*) or demonstratives (***That's** a nice hat*). Otherwise, the complimented object was clear from the context (*You bought a new jacket? **It's** a great color*) verbally or non-verbally. Identification of the referent was crucial and the deixis in compliments seemed to serve an important function in this role.

In terms of the topic of the compliment, three major categories have been identified in American English: appearance or possessions, abilities or accomplishments, and personality traits of the interlocutors (Knapp, Hopper, & Bell, 1984; Nelson, El Bakary, & Al Batal, 1993). A wide range of topics reflects what is culturally considered preferable in society. Positive remarks are offered regarding some attributes that are noticeably different such as newness and weight loss in mainstream American culture (i.e., "noticings", Hatch, 1992). Whereas compliments on appearance or possessions can be given relatively freely regardless of the status of the interlocutors, those on abilities or accomplishments seem more restricted in their distribution. Speakers in higher positions are capable of evaluating the performance of those of lower status, thus utilizing compliments as positive reinforcement (Wolfson, 1989).

Research shows evidence of gender difference in English compliments. Women tended to both give and receive compliments much more frequently than men (Herbert, 1990; Wolfson, 1989). Appearance of American males may be considered an inappropriate topic for compliments from either gender; especially compliments on appearance directed to males of higher status have been found to be highly restricted. Women predominantly used first person compliments (*I like/love...*) and exclamatory forms (*What lovely earrings!*), whereas men preferred impersonal expressions (*Great shoes*) (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988). Compliments given by males were more likely to be accepted especially by females. Compliments by females were likely to be a negotiation of social distance and used to increase or consolidate solidarity between the interlocutors while those by males might be viewed as face-threatening expressing desire for the object being complimented on (Holmes, 1988).

Studies of American responses to compliments have also revealed cultural norms shared by the society. Although appreciation of compliments (*Thanks*) is often recommended as the most appropriate and graceful response, a large portion of responses was found to employ self-praise avoidance strategies (Pomerantz, 1978). Drawing on Pomerantz (1978), Billmyer (1990) grouped responses to compliments into three categories for instructional purposes: acceptance, deflection, and rejection. The repertoire of deflection types consisted of the following behaviors: commenting on the history of the referent (*I got it at*

Macy's), shifting credit away from self (*My mother gave it to me*), downgrading the compliment (*It was on sale*), questioning the compliment or requesting reassurance (*Do you really think so?*), and returning a compliment (*Yours is nice too*) (pp. 36, 42).

The empirical distribution of American response types has also been reported. Simple acceptance of the compliment, or an appreciation token (*Thank you*) occurred in 29% of all compliment responses in Herbert (1989, 1990), Herbert and Straight (1989), and Nelson, Al-Batal, & Echols (1996), and 30% in Chen (1993). In Nelson *et al.* (1996), nearly half of the compliments were deflected and few were rejected. Among the mitigated compliment responses, they found such strategies as deflecting or providing a qualifying comment[2] and reassurance or repetition request[3]. Rejection of compliments tended to occur much less frequently due to its potential face-threatening nature (Knapp *et al.*, 1984; Nelson *et al.*, 1996).

Effects of Classroom Instruction on Compliments

Classroom instruction on pragmatics has been researched to determine whether learners would benefit from such formal instruction. Billmyer (1990) studied the effect of tutorials on compliments and compliment responses on ESL learners and found considerable improvements in performance of the learners. She contended that formal instruction on the pragmatic language use "can assist learners in communicating more appropriately with native speakers of the target language in meaningful social interaction outside the classroom" (p. 44).

Research on classroom instruction has explored the relative effects of explicit and implicit instruction and found learners' improvement in pragmatic ability with both approaches. However, explicit instruction generally appeared to be more effective than the implicit approach (Kasper, 1997). Similarly, Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) examined the effects of inductive and deductive instruction on learners' performance in compliments and compliment responses and found that both approaches assisted in pragmalinguistic[4] improvement, although only the deductive approach led to sociopragmatic development.

Since classroom instruction cannot comprehensively provide the pragmatic knowledge that learners need, the learners' awareness of pragmatic norms in the second language plays an integral role. While Schmidt

(1993) emphasized the importance of conscious learning and noticing, Kasper (1997) contends that learners could acquire pragmatic information through awareness-raising activities, such as observational tasks involving assignments outside the classroom with a focus on sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic features. Such tasks help learners to integrate linguistic forms and their pragmatic functions in context. Hinkel (1994) suggests raising learners' self-awareness and encouraging non-judgmental observation.

An important question about classroom instruction is concerned with teaching material and models that serve as a basis for instruction. As Kasper (1997) argues, since native speakers' intuition is sometimes an unreliable source of information about pragmatic use of language, teaching materials on pragmatics must be research-based. Published teaching materials have generally been written based on material developers' intuition and thus known to often inaccurately represent the way the language is actually used (Bardovi-Harlig, Harford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995).

Several chapters on giving and responding to compliments in ESL/EFL textbooks were examined to see to what extent they reflected spontaneous complimenting behavior in light of the research findings (Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996: Tillitt & Bruder, 1985; Genzel & Cummings, 1994; Yoshida & Sophia University Applied Linguistic Research Group, 2000). None of them had a comprehensive description of or instructions on complimenting in such well-researched areas as: appropriate topics of compliments, syntactic categories, gender, and response types. Sample compliments and responses were either not listed at all or partially represented but often accompanied by inaccurate or misleading interpretations of the way compliments were employed. Moreover, compliments were absent in some of the textbooks that taught functional use of English (Jones & von Baeyer, 1983; Madden & Rohlck, 1997; Mathews, 1994).

Research Question

The previous section has argued that giving and responding to compliments reflects cultural norms of the target community and that the linguistic model to be presented in the classroom must be empirically

based. In an effort to prevent or minimize offense and communication breakdown that learners may experience in complimenting interactions, in this study instructional materials were created based on empirical research and instruction was given to intermediate adult ESL learners. Previous studies investigating effects of formal instruction on compliments have reported positive results regarding learners' performance (Billmyer, 1990; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). This study explores not only immediate effects of formal instruction on learners' performance and pragmatic awareness of the speech act but also delayed effects on their performance as measured one year after instruction. The underlying hypothesis is that classroom instruction can assist learners in: producing appropriate compliments and responses, becoming more aware of pragmatic use of the language, and feeling secure and comfortable in performing the speech act. It is also expected that learners maintain their skills in giving and responding to compliments even one year after the formal instruction. The research question in this study is: *What are the effects of classroom instruction on the intermediate adult ESL learners' performance in and awareness of compliments and responses to compliments?*

Methods

Participants

The instruction was administered to two groups, representing 31 intermediate adult international students from 20 countries enrolled in an IEP at a large Midwestern university. The first group consisted of 13 learners, four males and nine females from 10 countries (Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Cameroon, France, Mexico, Brazil, Korea, Taiwan, Japan, and Myanmar). The second group contained 18 learners, 13 males and five females, representing 13 countries (Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Turkey, Senegal, Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Russia, Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Korea, Taiwan, and Japan). Their time in the United States prior to the instruction varied from several weeks to three years. Since the instruction took place in an authentic classroom, irregularities in learner attendance were beyond control; one assignment was optional in consideration of other assignments learners had at the time of instruction. There-

fore, the total numbers of participants, compliments, and compliment responses vary and will be reported for each measure. One year after instruction, ten of the learners who were still in the community participated in the delayed after-measure.

Materials

Classroom materials were created and used as a basis of instruction (see Ishihara, 2003a available on the internet for more details on the materials and lesson plan). The information on syntactic categories of compliments and response strategies was taken from past studies (Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Billmyer, 1990). All the handouts and assignments were collected for analysis. The delayed after-measure was also created and administered through e-mail or regular mail.

Instruction and Instruments

The instruction was given in four sessions in total of approximately 200 minutes. There are five written measures in this study: a before-measure, two interim-measures, an after-measure, and a delayed after-measure. These measures were implemented as process assessment activities in the course of an oral skills class except for the delayed after-measure.

1) At the beginning of instruction, an initial inventory was given, which 28 learners worked on individually. This inventory was designed as a before-measure to probe their initial performance in giving and responding to compliments as well as their awareness of such complimenting behavior. The 28 learners wrote down 54 complimenting interactions as they would say them in English and answered several questions as to their present knowledge about American complimenting behavior (what is complimented on and who is likely to give and receive compliments), their level of comfort in such interactions, and their first language compliments.
2) An interim-measure was implemented during the second stage of instruction in the form of an outside-of-class assignment. Nineteen learners complimented other English speakers and jotted down 62 compliments they had given and their interlocutors' responses immediately after each conversation. The note-taking approach was employed to maintain the interaction as natural as possible without hav-

ing to ask for permission for recording. Learner-initiated compliments were assessed for their interim performance; the compliment responses reported by the learners functioned as the baseline data to be compared with learners' response strategies in subsequent stages. In this activity, learners were given opportunities to observe speakers of their own age, gender and status, namely, linguistic models from similar speakers. Although this fact rarely contributed to practicing high-stake compliments that involved status difference between interlocutors, learners were exposed to the input that was the most relevant and appropriate linguistic models for themselves.

3) The other interim-measure was implemented through a reading assignment of excerpts (Wolfson, 1983) to stimulate learners' pragmatic awareness and analysis of compliments. This assignment was optional for the learners and 12 of them completed it.
4) At the end of the instruction 22 learners produced 22 complimenting dialogues as they filled out an exit inventory in class. This immediate after-measure evaluated their written complimenting dialogues, elicited feedback about the instruction, and probed their level of pragmatic awareness. Learners wrote down imaginary complimenting interactions and answered several questions designed to investigate their level of confidence and pragmatic awareness in complimenting behavior and level of motivation toward learning other speech acts.
5) One year after instruction, the delayed after-measure was administered in order to assess long-term effects of the classroom instruction. Ten learners volunteered to participate through e-mail or regular mail and produced 18 complimenting interactions. They were asked not to review their notes or handouts on giving and responding to compliments, to write down two complimenting interactions as they would say them, and to indicate the interlocutor's gender and relationship to themselves.

Data Analysis Procedure

Regarding learners' performance of compliments, their written work was analyzed in terms of three aspects: length of complimenting dialogues, syntactic categories, and response types and strategies. Length of each written dialogue was measured by the number of turns in the

dialogue[5] to investigate to what extent learners develop the interaction after the compliment. The syntactic categories of compliments were sorted based on Manes and Wolfson (1981). Responses to compliments were analyzed with regard to the response types and strategies involved in the written dialogues (see Table 3). For instructional purposes, the classification was based on Billmyer (1990) with a few alterations in an effort to categorize the learner data. The response types were: *simple acceptance*, *deflection*, and *conversation development*[6]. Simple acceptance of a compliment was a mere appreciation token (*thank you*) which was not followed by any further deflecting comments. Deflection was further classified into four strategies (*downgrading*, *shifting credit*, *questioning*, and *returning*), and conversation development consisted of two strategies: *commenting on history*[7] and *expressing surprise*[8]. Learners' pragmatic awareness was analyzed in terms of the extent to which learners noticed the existence of culturally-bound norms within the target language, their attention to pragmatic use of the language, and the understanding that they gained of their pragmatic ability.

Results

In an attempt to answer the research question, the paper first describes learners' performance in and then reports on their pragmatic awareness of giving and responding to compliments as assessed through the before-, interim-, after-, and delayed after-measures. Learners' performance in giving and responding to compliments are analyzed in terms of: length of complimenting dialogues, syntactic categories, and response types and strategies. Learners' comments and assignment responses are quoted in their own writing from the collected handouts to reflect their pragmatic awareness and performance accurately.

Learners' Performance in Giving and Responding to Compliments

Before-measure.

Prior to classroom instruction about giving and responding to compliments, 28 learners wrote down 54 complimenting spoken dialogues.

Such learner production was analyzed in terms of the length of the dialogue, syntactic category of the compliment, and response types and strategies. At this stage, learners' imagined interactions were fairly short and simple; the average number of turns was 1.9 among the 54 interactions.

Most of the learners' compliments (85%) fell into the nine syntactic categories reported by Manes and Wolfson (1981) (see Table 2 for details), although 44% of them employed Category Eight (*Nice game*) which is the shortest and simplest. Fifteen percent (eight compliments) did not fall into any of the nine syntactic categories.

Although small in number, this 15% displayed a few conspicuous features. Two compliments (11%) given by learners from Uuzbekistan and Senegal started with *you* in interrogative sentences (*You have a very nice shirt?*). Four Taiwanese, Korean, Japanese, and Russian learners omitted the referent (*Looks nice*) or used a pronoun without providing a specific referent in the context (*That is especial* [special]).

Prior to instruction, 19 responses out of 54 (40%) simply accepted compliments, while 33% already employed deflection strategies, and 10% extended the conversation up to six turns, commenting on the history of the object (see Table 3 for more details). Some creative responses that were deviant from native speaker norms were found in the data (unedited quotes below):

(1) *A: I like your hat.*
B: Keep liking.

(2) *A: You look good?*
B: Thanks, I'll try be better.

At this point, learners did not specify who was speaking in those dialogues, and may not have taken into account such contextual variables as gender, relative age, status, distance, and roles of the interlocutors.

Interim-measure.

In the second stage of instruction, 19 learners recorded 62 complimenting interactions outside the classroom. The compliments were

given by learners who had already studied what to say, what and what not to compliment others on, and who was more likely to give and receive compliments. The length of the complimenting interactions increased to 2.8 turns in the learner-collected data (Table 1). Learners utilized a wider variety of syntactic categories in giving compliments than they did in the before-measure (Table 2). Although Category Eight (*Nice game*) was still one of the most common in 14 compliments out of the 62 (22%), Category Two (*I like/love your dress*) was equally frequent (22%), and 18% of the compliments employed Category Three (*That's a nice watch*). In two compliments (3%), referents were not specified and did not fall into any of the nine categories.

In terms of response strategies, the learner-collected data were rich in variety (Table 3). Of the 62 American responses, 27% simply accepted the compliment, 34% deflected the compliment, while 31% developed the conversation by discussing the history of the object. The following quotes are some examples found in the baseline data collected by the learners.

Simple Acceptance:

(3) *A: I like your T-shirt.*
B: Oh, thank you.

Downgrading:

(4) *A: Nice T-shirt!*
B: Well, A, I bought it at a thrift store.
A: But it looks new!
B: Oh, no, it's used, I bought it for $1.
A: That's really cheap.
B: Thanks you, I have go to home.

Questioning:

(5) *Jeff: You really did a nice work. You made a delicious food.*
Ricardo: Do you really think so?

Shifting Credit:

(6) *A: I like your watch.*
B: Thanks, my fatehr [father] give to me in my birthday.
A: I think is really cool.

Returning:

(7) *Paula: Hi, S.*
S: Hi. I like your hair. Did you cut your hair?
Paula: Thank you. Your hair is nice, too.
S: Thank you.

Commenting on History:

(8) *A: Nice watch!*
B: Thank you, I got it from Jamaica.
A: It looks expensive, doesn't it.
B: It's kind of expensive but I think it was will worth it.
A: Which kind of watch is it?
B: Seiko, it's very good brand of watches.

After-measure.

In the after-measure, 22 learners produced 22 complimenting dialogues. The length of written dialogues greatly increased to an average of 5.4 turns (Table 1). As for the distribution of the syntactic categories, three were fairly commonly employed (Table 2): Category Three (*That's a nice car*) in five instances out of 22 (23%), Category Seven (*What a beautiful house*) and Category Eight (*Nice game*) for 18% each. With regard to responses to compliments (Table 3), simple acceptance of a compliment occurred in only one case (3%) whereas deflection strategies were employed in a majority of the interactions (87%). The most frequently used deflection strategies were shifting credit (29%), downgrading (26 %), and questioning (29%). Below are some of the dialogues learners wrote in the after-measure. In the first example, a Venezuelan learner used questioning, downgrading, and commenting on history strategies:

(9) *A: Hi Honey...oh I like your shirt.*
B: Really?
A: Oh, yeah, it's fabulous.
B: It's just too cheap; I bought it in Marshall's last week.
A: I want to buy one shirt like this.
B: I can tell you which floor.
A: That's a good idea.

A Korean learner used a compliment as a conversation opener, developing the dialogue:

(10) *A: That's nice jacket!*
B: Do you really think so? This is old thing.
A: When?
B: When I gratuated [graduated] University. So... 3 years ago.
A: Oh. You gratuated University! Which university? Where is it?
B: I graduated Y N University. It's in my country, my hometown ~
A: ...
B: ...

Delayed after-measure.

In the delayed after-measure, the length of 18 dialogues written by 10 learners was increased to an average of 7.8 turns. Below is the table indicting the shift in the length of the dialogues in each measure.

Table 1. Length of Written Complimenting Dialogues

(Average number of turns in learner dialogues)

Before-Measure	1.9	(54 interactions by 28 learners)
Interim-Measure	2.8	(62 interactions by 19 learners)
After-Measure	5.4	(22 interactions by 22 learners)
Delayed After-Measure	7.8	(18 interactions by 10 learners)

One year after instruction, learners' distribution of syntactic categories shifted and over half of the 18 compliments employed Category One (*Your blouse is beautiful*) (33%) or Category Two (*I like your dress*) (28%). Seventeen percent fell into Category Six (*You have such a nice jacket*). Table 2 shows more details of the distribution throughout the measures.

Learners' 18 compliment responses in the delayed after-measure centered around two strategies often used in combination: downgrading (47%), and commenting on history (37%). They marginally employed other deflection strategies: questioning (7%) and shifting credit (7%), but avoided simple acceptance in the vast majority of cases. Downgrading and commenting on history occurred in combination in eight conversations (44%), and over half of these interactions (55%) discussed a sale and/or the price of the object. Table 3 shows the breakdown on distribution of compliment response strategies assessed in every measure.

Table 2. Distributions of Syntactic Categories

<table>
<tr><th rowspan="2">Syntactic Categories</th><th rowspan="2" colspan="2">Native Speaker Baseline*</th><th colspan="8">Learner Performance</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Before Measure (n=54)</th><th colspan="2">Interim (n=62)</th><th colspan="2">After (n=22)</th><th colspan="2">Delayed After (n=18)</th></tr>
<tr><td>1 (NP is/looks ADJ)</td><td>54%</td><td rowspan="3">85%</td><td>6 (11%)</td><td rowspan="3">17 (31%)</td><td>10 (16%)</td><td rowspan="3">35 (56%)</td><td>3 (14%)</td><td rowspan="3">11 (51%)</td><td>6 (33%)</td><td rowspan="3">12 (67%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>2 (I like/love) NP)</td><td>16%</td><td>8 (15%)</td><td>14 (22%)</td><td>3 (14%)</td><td>5 (28%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>3 (PRO is ADJ NP)</td><td>15%</td><td>3 (6%)</td><td>11 (18%)</td><td>5 (23%)</td><td>1 (6%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4 (You V ADJ NP)</td><td colspan="2">3%</td><td colspan="2">2 (4%)</td><td colspan="2">3 (5%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (4%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>5 (You V (NP) ADV)</td><td colspan="2">3%</td><td colspan="2">1 (2%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (2%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>6 (You have ADJ NP)</td><td colspan="2">2%</td><td colspan="2">2 (4%)</td><td colspan="2">6 (10%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (4%)</td><td colspan="2">3 (17%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>7 (What ADJ NP!)</td><td colspan="2">2%</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (2%)</td><td colspan="2">4 (18%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (6%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>8 (ADJ NP)</td><td colspan="2">2%</td><td colspan="2">24 (44%)</td><td colspan="2">14 (22%)</td><td colspan="2">4 (18%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (6%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>9 (Isn't NP ADJ)</td><td colspan="2">1%</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td><td colspan="2">0 (0%)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Others</td><td colspan="2">3%</td><td colspan="2">8 (15%)</td><td colspan="2">2 (3%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (4%)</td><td colspan="2">1 (6%)</td></tr>
</table>

* The native speaker baseline is from Manes and Wolfson (1981).

Table 3. Distributions of Compliment Response Strategies

Response Types and Strategies: Types	Strategies	NS Responses Baseline from Learner Data (n=62)	Learners' compliment Response Types & Strategies: Before Measure (n=48)	After Measure (n=31)	Delayed After-measure (n=30)
Acceptance	Simple Acceptance	17 (27 %)	19 (**40 %**)	1 (**3 %**)	1 (**3%**)
Deflection	Downgrading	7 (11 %)	1 (2%)	8 (**26 %**)	14 (**47%**)
	Questioning	3 (5 %)	9 (19 %)	9 (**19 %**)	2 (7%)
	Returning	3 (5 %)	2 (4 %)	1 (3 %)	0 (0%)
	Shifting Credit	8 (13%)	4 (8 %)	9 (**29%**)	2 (7%)
Conv. Develop.	Commenting History	19 (31 %)	5 (**10 %**)	2 (6 %)	11 (**37%**)
	Expressing Surprise	5 (8%)	1 (2 %)	1 (3 %)	0 (0%)
Others		0 (0%)	7(14%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Some of the learner productions from the delayed after-measure are as follows:

(11) [Learner, female]: *Oh, you have a nice watch. I think this is a new one I think.*

[Friend, female]: *Think you (learner's name). Yes, this is a new one. I love it very much.*

[Learner]: *I think, this is very expensive.*

[Friend]: *No, this is not expensive. But normal prize is a kind of expensive. But this one is I got a valentines sale. I paied only $ 29.99.*

[Learner]: *Can I see your watch carefully and It's ok* with my hand or not.

[Friend]: *Why not ! This is very match your hand. See, this top of the cover lens also you can change four different colour. Including silver colour, gold colour black colour and this dinmond cover too. They give you*

tenfull year limited warranty.

[Learner]: *Really ! I must buy this watch. Can you tell me, where can I buy that kind of watch.*

[Friend]: *You can buy any SEARS. This sale will be until 14th Feb: If you want to go this week end, I can go with you there. Can you wait?*

[Learner]: *Sure, I can. You want me to come and pick you up.*

[Friend]: *That's a good idea. I'll call you and let you know the time. I think round about 11:30 am, but I'm not sure yet.*

[Learner]: *That's ok for me. Thank you so much.*

[Friend]: *No problem. See you. Bye!*

(12) [Friend, female]: [Learner's name], *I love your new jacket. It is really nice.*

[Learner, male]: *Oh! Thanks. But this is not a new jacket. It is an old one that I rarely wear.*

[Friend]: *No way!! Looks brand new. I just saw a very similar jacket at the store, and I almost bought it.*

[Learner]: *Oh really!, well, but you don't have to worry about buying one you can borrow mine.*

[Friend]: *Oh, thanks!!*

Learners' Awareness of Giving and Responding to Compliments

Before-measure.

At the start of the instruction, some learners were concerned not only about what to say to give and respond to compliments in English, but also about how to appropriately interpret and respond to compliments. While five learners (18%) from Ecuador, Saudi Arabia, and Korea mentioned that they did not know how to give and respond to compliments, a Korean learner was anxious about his interpretation

of compliments (see the unedited quote (13) below). Some Asian learners expressed shyness they had yet to overcome. A female Korean learner mentioned that Korean people did not directly compliment others and that she usually felt uncomfortable when she received compliments. A male Taiwanese learner expressed awkwardness in responding to compliments that were rare in his language (see (14) below).

> (13) *I'm worry about if I miss understood what they say or I don't know how I give compliments to others.*

> (14) *[I feel] uncomfortable because the Chinese people is very shy, and they are not used to getting a compliments.*

Some others learners already demonstrated awareness of the culturally specific nature of compliments but did not articulate in what way giving and responding to compliments differed in their first and second languages. A Venezuelan and two Saudi Arabian learners had the following to say:

> (15) *In my country we use other ways when we exchange compliments. In USA, we must be careful when we say compliments because some people don't like that.*

> (16) *[I feel uncomfortable in giving compliments] because words have a deep meaning in my native language that I can't express in English.*

> (17) *I don't [know] what people say in this [complimenting] situation. Even if I know it in my native language, if I translate it, it won't work.*

Before instruction, most learners already correctly guessed that women received compliments more often from both men and woman. Excluding the responses that did not clearly indicate who gave and who received the compliments, four learners from Venezuela, Brazil, Turkey

and Taiwan guessed that men usually gave compliments to women. Two from Colombia and Uzbekistan mentioned that women often received compliments but did not indicate from which gender they received them. One Japanese learner indicated that women complimented women; no one mentioned that men were likely to receive compliments. Some of them speculated that teachers and bosses (i.e., those of higher status) were more likely to compliment students and employees (those of lower status). However, some others believed that compliments tended to be given by those of lower rank to those of higher rank, such as employees to bosses, students to teachers, and players to coaches, which is often not the case in American English, especially for compliments on performance or ability.

With regard to compliment responses, some learners seemed to have the stereotype that Americans always accepted compliments. Three learners from Mexico and Venezuela stated:

(18) *People like [compliments] and said OH thank you*
A [complimenter]: Nice hair
Nice car
Nice shoes

(19) *Americans: Just they smile and say than you.*
In my country the people say:
Person A: I like your shirt.
Person B and the other responds: It's yours.
Thank you.
I can buy one like this for you.
Lier *[liar].*
Do you think?

The learners may have been taught that in previous instruction (i.e., "transfer of training") or may have over generalized graceful acceptance of compliments by American speakers that they happened to have experienced.

During instruction.

In this section, the activities that stimulated learners' awareness by revealing learners' pragmatic gaps will be discussed. Learners' reac-

tions in and out of class that indicated their level of pragmatic awareness and motivation in learning giving and responding to compliments will also be reported. In addition to the pre- and post-instructional data analysis, such interim observation is important to help identify when raised learners' pragmatic awareness during the instruction and in what way that happened.

In the first phase of instruction, learners were asked to guess some of the most challenging aspects in learning English. While some grammar points were enumerated, no one pointed out pragmatic aspects. They were astounded to hear that acquiring nativelike functional and appropriate use of language would take over ten years in a setting where the language was in daily use. This initial discussion had a shock factor leading to the learners' increased level of motivation to learn speech acts in order to speed up such a time-consuming language learning process.

Some classroom activities were designed specifically to raise learners' pragmatic awareness of giving and responding to compliments in English. One question in the before-measure asked learners to translate literally what they would say to give and respond to compliments in their native languages. In the linguistically diverse classes, a variety of cultural expectations became evident. Asian learners were shocked by the frequency and explicitness with which Spanish speakers gave compliments in their cultures; Arabic speakers fascinated the others with the poetic way they responded to compliments in their language. Below are some of the responses that would be inappropriate or awkward in English in most situations.

(20) [A:] *You have a nice shirt!*
[B:] *It's not the shirt but I.* (Senegal)

(21) *Thanks, are you kidding?* (Brazil)

(22) *You can have it.* (Jordan)

(23) A: *Nice job!*
B: *No, I didn't do well.* (Korea)

Learners seemed to have enjoyed discovering different cultural norms in compliments. The second group of learners continued this sharing during a lunch break by writing on the board and teaching each other what they would say in their native languages and what they meant in English. These activities probably contributed to the learners' enhanced awareness of culturally specific norms in complimenting behavior.

Although most of the learners had a good grasp of what compliment topics were appropriate and what were not, a few learners (Spanish, French, and Korean speakers) complimented on a color of lipstick and color of eyes. This facilitated a discussion on what and what not to compliment on in American culture. Such compliments from a male to female would probably be acceptable in Spanish interactions as termed as "*piropos*" (Campo & Zuluaga, 2000). Even in English, they would be appropriate if given between close female interlocutors. However, if delivered from a male to a female, compliments on beautiful eyes or beautiful color of lipstick could carry unintended flirtatious connotations. Therefore, learners were warned against such potentially inappropriate topics. In the after- and delayed after-measures, such potentially inappropriate topics no longer emerged in the learners' production.

Interim-measure.

The optional assignment was completed by 12 learners. All of the four American teachers consulted had commented that the positive value of being slender did not necessarily apply to both male and female and that complimenting on decreased weight could be too personal or offensive; thus, potentially inappropriate. In contrast, seven out of 12 learners (58%) stated that being slim was a positive value for both men and women while five (42%) indicated the inappropriateness of comments about weight. As Korean and Taiwanese learners commented:

> (24) *In the U.S.A. ... it will be a good compliment. But it is not used too much. It will (would) be dangerous... I think saying "You lost some weight, didn't you?" is a compliment. But if it is used for very very scany [skinny] person, it would be not a compliment.*

(25) *[If you say "You lost some weight, didn't you?",] I think you will get a pouch [punch]. People don't like others talk about their weigh. Too sensitive.*

After-measure.

In the before-measure, 62% of the learners reported that they were not at all or not always comfortable with giving and responding to compliments. On the contrary, in the after-measure 86% reported their increased sense of comfort in giving and responding to compliments. One Korean learner indicated that the information was "so-so" because she had always tried to give compliments anyway. Another Colombian learner, who mentioned in the before-measure that he did not give compliments in English at all, indicated:

(26) *The information* [given in the class] *don't help me to feel more comfortable but it help me to know what kind of compliments I can use and if is possible use in the same form that I use in my own language.*

Similarly, most learners commented that through class discussions and practice, they had learned about the culturally specific nature of compliments and American norms in giving and responding to compliments. Colombian, Brazilian, and Venezuelan learners made the following comments respectively:

(27) *I feel comfortable* [in giving and receiving compliments in English]. *I think that is good to learn about compliment in U.S. because can be different from one culture to another. Therefore, can cause missing understandings.*

(28) *I feel good because is similar in my language and in my culture. However, I feel comfortable because is good to know what I can say or what I can't say to*

compliment somebody.

(29) *I feel more comfortable to give compliments because now I know how I can give compliments and to which people I can give it. Americans with lower status don't give compliments to people with higher status that is normal in my country and for me. This is one of the many things that I learned.*

In addition, a vast majority of the learners also indicated an extremely high level of interest in learning other speech acts. All of them indicated their interest in learning multiple speech acts. Among 22 learners, nine wanted to learn about refusing an invitation and apologizing; there were eight votes for giving condolences, inviting, and addressing people, seven for giving gratitude, and six for making a request, greeting, and congratulating. No one indicated lack of interest in learning these speech acts. This fact indicates that instruction on speech acts is probably a much needed area from learners' perspectives.

Discussion

The analyses of the preliminary findings of this study suggest that the formal instruction on giving and responding to compliments probably contributed to the learners' enhanced performance of the speech act. The instruction also raised learners' pragmatic awareness and facilitated their learning of the speech act outside the classroom, which in turn seems to have assisted learners in producing syntactically more nativelike compliments on appropriate topics and using various response types and strategies. The learners also demonstrated their conversational skills to build solidarity utilizing compliments.

To look further into the learners' performance in giving and responding to compliments as observed through the before-measure, learners' written complimenting interactions were generally very short, typically consisting of a single compliment and a simple acceptance of the compliment. As learners studied complimenting in class, however, their

written compliments were greatly expanded, as they deflected compliments, gave further compliments, and developed the dialogues. One year after instruction, learners appeared to have maintained and further developed these skills; the average number of turns was even larger. In authentic situations, such skills would probably prove helpful in giving sincere compliments and establishing solidarity between the interlocutors.

With regard to the syntactic categories of the compliments, in terms of the first three most frequently used categories that occurred 85% of the time in the Manes and Wolfson corpus, the distribution of learners' syntactic categories approximated this native norm as time progressed (31%, 56%, 51%, and 67% respectively in each measure[9]). This developmental pattern is in fact similar to that reported in Rose and Kwai-fun (2001). Another interesting pattern showed that although nearly half of the pre-instructional compliments employed the simplest category (Category Eight, *Nice game*), after instruction far fewer learners preferred this category, but most began demonstrating their abilities to use various other categories. The findings from the delayed after-measure also indicate the learners' frequent use of the other categories.

Furthermore, prior to instruction 15% of the learners' compliments did not fall into the Manes and Wolfson's (1981) nine syntactic categories. The non-nativelike features found were unspecified referents and compliments in interrogative forms. The omission of the referent as a subject in the sentence might be viewed as a negative transfer from their native languages (Chinese, Korean, Russian, and Japanese) in which such structures are allowed. Once the syntactic categories were introduced, however, deviations rarely occurred, which may indicate learners' readiness to acquire such information.

The distribution of learners' compliment response strategies also shifted as assessed in each measure. Although several pre-instructional compliment responses were pragmatically deviant (e.g., (1) and (2) above), such responses were not observed thereafter. Additionally, in contrast to the initial written dialogues where learners heavily relied on merely accepting compliments, post-instructional responses reflect more

frequent use of newly learned deflection strategies (i.e., questioning, shifting credit, and downgrading). The native speaker baseline data both reported in previous literature and collected by the learners in this study showed fairly wide distribution of compliment responses. Based on such baseline data, classroom speaking practices encouraged learners to not always accept compliments but utilize the other response strategies as well in order to express themselves most comfortably. Having various tools of communication probably allowed learners to respond at their own level of comfort, in most cases deflecting rather than simply accepting compliments[10].

The results of their performance one year after the instruction suggest that in responding to compliments learners centered on the downgrading and commenting on history strategies. Although this may indicate learners' attrition of other deflection strategies over time, the learners appeared to have maintained central linguistic skills and preferred response strategies.

Putting learners' performance aside, the learners' pre-instructional pragmatic *awareness* of giving and responding to compliments varied and indicated both linguistic and pragmatic gaps. As was observed in the before-measure, learners were concerned not only about producing appropriate compliments and responses, but also about how to interpret them, that is, the perlocutionary aspects of the speech act. Some learners expressed awkwardness in responding to compliments that were rare in their countries. Others were already aware that they could not transfer their first language norms, and therefore, they felt that they could not express themselves appropriately in English. Some learners expected those of lower status to typically give compliments to those of higher status, which was a norm in their native cultures. Still others appeared to have transferred their first language norms in complimenting without being aware that appropriate topics of the compliment were culturally bound.

During the instruction, learners collected their own notebook data to study American compliment responses. They initiated interactions with Americans by giving them appropriate compliments in consideration of the topic, gender, and relative status of the interlocutors. This combined activity of production and data collection encouraged learn-

ers to use compliments in real-life interactions and to observe and analyze naturalistic compliment responses. A few learners even reported that they continued to give compliments beyond the classroom instruction. Such learner involvement is likely to contribute to their taking the initiative in complimenting behavior and in exposing themselves to further authentic and relevant linguistic input.

Additionally, a vast majority of the learners indicated an enhanced level of comfort with complimenting interactions and an extremely high level of interest in learning other speech acts. A few learners even asked whether such topics would be covered for the rest of the term or in any other courses. Considering such learner feedback, we may conclude that classroom instruction can assist in raising learners' pragmatic awareness of target language norms and perhaps can also stimulate their motivation for pragmatics learning in general.

Limitations of the Present Study

The present study involved a data collection procedure which was limited in authenticity and spontaneity. It has been pointed out that written tasks such as the discourse completion task (DCT), in which learners imagined themselves speaking, do not precisely conform to the way they actually speak (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992). Furthermore, although some claimed that the DCT could elicit data comparable to oral production despite minor differences (e.g., Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Rose & Kasper, 2001), others showed significant discrepancies between the DCT and other measures (e.g., Hinkel, 1997; Rose, 1994; Rose and Ono, 1995). These studies, among others that researched effects of rejoinders in the DCT, questioned the validity of the DCT elicited data and cautioned to treat them more prudently. Nelson, Carson, Al-Batal, & El-Bakery (2002) further reported that the DCT might validly collect pragmalinguistic data, but might not appropriately measure sociopragmatic aspects of the speech act. Therefore, it should be noted that the learner tasks in this study, in which learners imagined complimenting situations, may not have reflected learners' oral performance accurately and should be treated with caution. As

suggested (e.g., Brown, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002), different assessment instruments for different purposes, data should be collected through multiple measurements in oral and/or written modules depending on the purpose of the study.

Another difficulty in conducting this study resulted from its setting in the authentic classroom. As Rose and Kasper state that the classroom is a poor laboratory (2001), learners' attendance naturally varied and some missed part of the instruction and/or assignments. This resulted in the varying number of participants in every measure. There is also a possibility that those who received the instruction favorably attended and provided positive feedback while others did not participate as much. Such real classroom setting created the lack of consistency in the design of the study. Although this is the reality in a classroom that an instructor always has to face, more variables may well be controlled in further research.

Conclusion

Although these findings are preliminary, this study has shown that explicit formal instruction can facilitate learners' improvement of not only performance in, but also awareness of giving and responding to compliments. The conclusion lends support to past studies which documented positive effects of classroom instruction on learners' performance in complimenting (Billmyer, 1990; Kasper, 1997; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001). The analysis of the learners' feedback further suggested that the instruction probably assisted learners in becoming more comfortable about giving and responding to compliments and developing interest in further pragmatic learning.

The present study has also reported the delayed effects of formal instruction. The fact that some other skills and strategies (i.e., utilizing less frequently used syntactic categories for compliments and other deflection strategies) were only marginally utilized indicates that there may have been partial attrition in learners' acquisition of the speech act as time wore on. However, even one year after instruction learners appeared to have maintained central skills and strategies such as: developing conversation utilizing compliments, giving compliments on appropri-

ate topics, utilizing syntactically nativelike compliments, and using downgrading and commenting on history response strategies. With these analyses of the immediate and delayed effects of formal instruction, it is hoped that the present study has provided an additional impetus for further research on empirically based instruction in pragmatics that effectively contributes to second language learning.

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(Footnotes)

1 Speech acts are actions performed via utterances (Yule, 1996). They are functional units in communication such as apologies, requests, complaints, invitations, and compliments. This study attempts to investigate not merely the single speech act of complimenting but rather includes responses to compliments in sequences of interactions. Compliments and responses to compliments are a set of communicative acts that serves a particular function consisting of sets of strategies (i.e., speech act *set*, Cohen, 1996).

2 The qualifying comment provides additional information as in *"I bought it at REI"* or downgrades the compliment as in *"It's one of my oldest"*.

3 The reassurance or repetition request asks for an expansion or repetition of the original compliment (*"You don't think it's too bright?"*) or questions sincerity of the complimenter (*"Do you really like them?"*).

4 The terms *pragmalinguistic* and *sociopragmatic* are based on Thomas' distinction between the two types of pragmatic failure:

pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure. The former is basically a linguistic problem which occurs as a result of misunderstanding the intended illocutionary force of an utterance. The latter results from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior (Thomas, 1983, p. 99).

5 The average number of turns was obtained by adding the number of turns in every dialogue written by the learners and dividing it by the number of the total dialogues. Some dialogues started with greetings and such portion of the interaction before a compliment was excluded.

6 The rejection type did not constitute an independent category due to the obscured distinction sometimes present between rejection and deflection. While rejection could occur immediately after the compliment (*It's not all that nice*), it can also happen as a result of a series of deflection strategies without acceptance (*This old thing? It's a rag my sister gave me*). Moreover, among the American responses in this study, an outright rejection was not observed and its frequency of occurrence was reported to be considerably low. Therefore, for instructional purposes this high-stake response type was not highlighted as a separate category but introduced as the consequence of not ultimately accepting the compliment.

7 Commenting on history, categorized under the deflection type in Billmyer (1990), is classified under a new response type, *conversation development* in the present study. While commenting on history may in some cases involve deflection such as downgrading (*I bought it at a K-mart bluelight sale*), it does not seem to necessarily lead to avoidance of self-praise (*I bought it [my watch] in Switzerland when I was there on vacation last month*), which could even occur with an acceptance of the compliment (*Thank you, I bought it when...*). Such a distinction was often obscured in the data, yet either case appeared to represent a clear intention of developing the conversation; thus, commenting on history is classified as a strategy for a response type, conversation development. However, it should be noted that deflection and conversation development semantically overlap and deflection may also be viewed as an intention to sustain the conversation.

8 The small category, *expressing surprise* (*You like it? /Really?*) emerged in the analysis of the learner data. Although such responses were similar to *questioning*, the function was not indeed to question the compliment but perhaps to express surprise probably with the intention to sustain the conversation. Therefore, these questioning responses were termed as *expressing surprise* and classified as a strategy under the conversation development type.

9 The hike in the in the distribution of the first three syntactic categories observed in the interim measure (31% in the before measure to 56% in the interim measure) might be attributed to the explicit instruction on compliment forms. On the other hand, the slight drop shown in the after-measure might reflect the shifted focus of the instruction on compliment responses (rather than compliments) given immediately before the measure.

10 Even one year after instruction, learners still largely avoided simply accepting compliments. Such learners' strong preference for self-praise avoidance strategies might suggest that equipped with various strategies of communication, learners may not wish to accept compliments as often as their American counterparts did. See other studies for further exploration of such issues as learner agency, subjectivity, and identity (e.g., Ishihara, 2003b; LoCastro, 1998, 2001; Siegal, 1996).

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Using children's multicultural literature in the culturally and linguistically diverse classroom: an African example

Feng-Ling Margaret Johnson

The use of children's literature set in the ELLs' countries or cultures facilitates ELLs' use of top-down processing, promotes reading comprehension, builds self-esteem in ELLs, aids in the process of ELLs' cultural adjustment, contributes to the celebration of diversity and multiculturalism, and creates opportunities for learning about other countries and cultures for native English-speaking learners in our classrooms. The author uses her personal experiences with African children's literature as an example to advocate for the inclusion of such materials in the classroom. She explains the rationale, recommends a set of selection criteria, and describes her search process, which can be easily duplicated by readers interested in books set in other cultures. An annotated bibliography of African children's literature is included.

The United States of America has been a nation of immigration historically. In the Twin-Cities metro area, an increasing number of culturally and linguistically diverse learners are enrolled in our school districts. While many ELL teachers and school administrators value and appreciate the rich cultural heritages that these learners bring with them, they also strive to assist these learners in gaining proficiency in English, in content learning, and in their acculturation processes into American culture. Children's literature has long been recognized as an excellent tool

for literacy development both for native English-speaking learners and ELLs from other cultures. Whereas time-tested, good children's literature often conveys universal human emotions and/or virtues (e.g. love, honesty, loyalty and courage in times of great conflict or difficulty), much of this is written within the western cultural, social framework and discourse style, which may be foreign and irrelevant to ELLs. Imagine the difficulty an ELL, say from Ethiopia, has in relating to the discourse style and cultural references in *Good Night Moon, Snow White and the Seven Dwarves*, or *The Cat in the Hat*.

Research in the psycholinguistic processes of reading affirms that readers' background knowledge of the topic and of the world is critical in their comprehension of the texts as they use that knowledge to make predictions and intelligent contextual guesses in the interactive processes of reading (Freeman & Freeman, 1992). When the textual and cultural references are foreign to them, they have to increasingly depend on the bottom-up processing (e.g. sounding out the words and processing from print to meaning) and less on the top-down processing (e.g. relating their background knowledge to the text and making sense of the text) (Goodman, 1970; Nuttall, 1996). Consequently, reading becomes laborious and comprehension low; enjoyment from reading is limited or non-existent.

It is the purpose of this article to advocate the inclusion of quality children's literature set in the cultures or countries represented by ELLs in class in the reading curriculum, including reading instruction, during read-aloud time, during individual reading time, or whenever possible. Even though I have used, in this article, an African example to delineate and illustrate the rationale for this principle and my search process, it is applicable and transferable to children's literature set in other cultures. I chose to use an African example for two reasons: 1) there are an increasing number of African students in our school districts, and 2) I had the opportunity to experience West African cultures through a teacher mentoring program and, later, through a Rotary International Group Study Exchange program.

Many authors (referenced by Lu, ERIC Digests) have written articles about the use of multicultural literature for African American stu-

dents, Hispanic or Asian American students, who either are born in the U.S. or come when they are very young, and for whom the dominant culture they know is the U.S. culture, even though the heritage culture may be preserved in the home to various degrees. The concern of this article is about ELLs in the classroom who have only recently arrived in this country as immigrants or refugees and for whom U.S. culture is new because of immigration or resettlement.

Background

The genesis of the idea advocated here occurred to me after two visits to several West African countries (Sierra Leone, Ghana, Togo and Benin). During my second visit of five weeks, I stayed at locals' homes, toured urban communities and rural villages, visited many public and private schools, and had the opportunity to interact with some of the students and teachers there. After I got back to the U.S., I inadvertently came across Polly Alakija's *Catch that Goat!* (2002) at my local library. I was ecstatic! My eyes were glued to the lively story and realistic depiction of the bustling open-air Nigerian market brimming with the colors, sounds, smells and actions of West Africa. It was as if I had been taken back to where I had just come from, visiting with my African friends dressed in their colorful traditional garb, tasting the delicious food, and roaming down the crowded market full of energy and activity. I could relate to the people (and their familiar African names) in the story; I nodded my head and smiled at what I saw on the page down to minute details (e.g. store names like "Amazing grace beauty salon" "Divine music" & "Mama Put Cool Spot," where regional favorite foods like cow-leg pepper soup, fufu, egusi are served). Everything in the book, the text and illustrations, was meaningful to me, and I could almost guess what might happen next. The rich culture of West Africa came alive in my mind again. The whole reading experience was pure *delight*! That was when it clicked—this is what it is like for an ELL to read a good story/book set in his or her cultural context. ELLs in our classrooms should be given the opportunity to experience reading as I had experienced it with *Catch that Goat!*

Rationale

The first and foremost advantage of using children's literature set in the home country or culture of the learner is that the landscape, flora and fauna, and cultural manifestations (e.g. names of people and shops, clothing, objects, cookware and earthenware, etc.) and daily activities are familiar to the learner so that reading is meaningful. The learner is able to activate his or her background knowledge about the cultural context and apply more top-down processing than bottom-up processing in his/her interaction with the text. The learner is better able to make predictions based on prior knowledge, is able to make text-to-self connections (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000), to make intelligent guesses of unfamiliar words based on contextual clues, and is able to pick up cultural-specific nonverbal messages expressed in the illustrations. When learners are provided ample opportunities to practice these effective reading strategies, they improve reading comprehension and reading skills. They could then apply those skills and strategies in the reading of other materials. The experience of being able to read and comprehend a text also boosts learners' confidence, thus encouraging them to read more.

Secondly, when ELLs are taken out of their heritage cultures and live in the new culture, until they are well acculturated, there exists a time period of adjustment during which they may feel misunderstood, unaccepted and confused. "From reading stories about their own culture, children have opportunities to see how others go through experiences similar to theirs, develop strategies to cope with issues in their life, and identify themselves with their inherited culture" (Lu, ERIC Digests). In addition, reading and seeing in the book familiar landscapes and people of their ethnic group by their ethnic names in their daily garb going about their daily life brings a little bit of home into their new, often unfriendly, way of life in the new country. It brings comfort and delight and is helpful in their acculturation process. I hasten to say that children's literature set in American or western cultures need not be excluded from the ELLs because these books can be essential in their learning of American culture and values, in addition to many other reasons for which teachers use them in the classroom. Thirdly, when teachers read these stories aloud and discuss them in class, they communicate the message that minority cultures are valued and respected and that diversity in our school/

society is something to be celebrated rather than eradicated. These stories provide ELLs the rare opportunity to be the knowers or experts who could, if they so choose, share cultural perspectives or insights with their classmates. The experience of being the expert and of sharing with the class promotes self-understanding and helps develop pride in their heritage cultures and positive self-concept.

Finally, reading stories set in other cultures benefits the native English-speaking learners as well. These stories promote learning about other countries and cultures and help dismiss stereotypical views of certain countries or cultures. In the case of Africa, reading various stories set in Africa helps them realize that Africa is a vast continent with distinct cultural groups across fifty-two nations. There are urban modern cities and well-developed business districts besides the more stereotypical ideas of grass huts, bushes, jungles, and ritualistic tribal dances and drumming. These stories also provide experiences from cultures other than their own, help them to look at social conflicts or challenges from different perspectives, and thereby better their ability to think critically (Khorana, 1994).

Selection Criteria

Obviously not all multicultural children's literature is excellent or appropriate to use in the classroom. Some criteria for selection are necessary. Much has been written about the criteria for selecting multicultural children's literature. The selection criteria listed below take into account recommendations from various sources (Beilke, 1986; Brown, Malepe, & Sullivan, 1996; Harada, 1995; Harris, 1991; Pang, Colvin, Tran, & Yang, 1992; and Yokota, 1998).

1. **High literary quality**. The selected books should have strong plots, well-developed characterization, and communicate universal emotions or themes to which readers could relate.
2. **A child character in the story**. Whenever possible, select books that have a child at the center of the story because such a story helps the ELLs and the native English speaking American children connect with a country or culture far away.
3. **A focus on a country.** Labbo, Field & Brook (1996) and Brown,

Malepe, & Sullivan (1996) both argue strongly for a focus on a particular country because the landscape and culture in one country may be very different from others in the general geographical region.

4. **Positive, authentic portrayals of characters without stereotyping.** The books should "transcend stereotypes in appearance, behavior, and character traits of their characters" (http://ss.uno.edu/ssedci4660/Lks/sky1g2.html) and should not suggest that all members of a racial or ethnic group live in poverty or prosperity. Brown, Malepe & Sullivan (1996) state that it is also important to "avoid focusing on the atypical." For example, they point out that the Ndebele girl dressed in fine bead work who owns a pet chicken in Angelou's *My Painted House, My Friendly Chicken and Me* is exotic yet atypical for Ndebele children except in places where they are tourist attractions. Another example they give is Musgrove's *Ashanti to Zulu*, which they believe focuses on the exotic and the strange and neglects the common sights in every African country. Both books, however, are included in this bibliography because I believe that learners should be exposed to more than one book written in a particular cultural context, and that it is good for them to read ones that depict everyday life alongside ones that depict the unusual or the more prosperous aspect of African life. It is all too common that American school children incorrectly think of Africans as living a poor, primitive, agricultural village life without ever learning that there are many urban cities of Africa where people work in offices, hospitals, factories, and enjoy rich, colorful, cultural traditions, even if these traditions seem strange to American children.
5. **Authentic illustrations**. The illustration should be authentic and historically accurate in terms of the environmental landscapes and what people wear, eat, do, or use.
6. **Folktales.** Folktales often reflect a culture's values and are worth including in the selection.

Getting Started with the Search

After my encounter with *Catch that Goat!*, a search for books set in Africa ensued. The internet proved to be a great tool. I started

out with a search on "children's literature Africa" and that brought me to the website of the Center for African Studies at the University of Florida, which contains links to various authors of African literature, the Boston University African Studies Center website, and other websites related to African literature. On-line book sellers' websites are also great resources because they provide several titles in response to a title or author search and brief reviews for each of the titles on their lists. Miller-Lachman's (1992) *Our family, our friends, our world: an annotated guide to significant multicultural books for children and teenagers* can be a good starting point, too. Another great source is booklist publications such as *Book Links* by the American Library Association; for example, I found Field's article (2002) in *Book Links* helpful for my search. The annotated bibliography below is the result of months of searching and reading. Readers who are interested in children's literature set in another country or region of the world, may easily duplicate this process to find books set in other countries or cultures.

Some Comments about the Annotated Bibliography

The annotated bibliography below lists the titles by country as I agree with Labbo, Field & Brook (1996) and Brown, Malepe & Sullivan (1996) that matching an ELL with a great book set in his or her own country/culture is important. First of all, it makes the ELL feel special in that the teacher cares enough to make the effort of finding such a book for him/her to read or to read in class. Secondly, Africa is a vast continent with distinctive diverse cultures across the continent. The cultural context of a book set in North Africa could be foreign to an ELL from Central Africa. My personal experiences of growing up in an Asian culture and of traveling in West Africa support this claim. Despite some general similarities, there are significant differences among Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese or Chinese cultures even though Japan, Korea, Taiwan and China are all East Asian countries. Togo neighbors Ghana in West Africa, but the French-speaking Togolese culture is significantly different from the English-speaking Ghanaian culture. When books set in a specific country are not available; however, I feel that teachers, after considering other selection criteria, may exercise discretion and use books set in the general region to which an ELL's home country be-

longs. For example, a story/book set in West Africa in general may be fine to use with a student from a specific West African country. There is a certain degree of cultural congruence in a region that may justify the use of such a book because of the lack of better choices.

Efforts were made to include mostly recently published children's books for elementary grade children with the exception of non-fiction titles, which may be great for social studies and geography units, and titles considered classics or long-time favorites of teachers and students alike.

The indicated grade levels follow the recommendations of *School Library Journal*'s review or *Publisher's Weekly*'s review on the titles. Teachers, however, as most of them already know, need not feel limited to use a certain book within the recommended grade levels, as many of the titles are often enjoyed by learners from lower or higher grade levels as well (even adults!).

Conclusion

The use of children's literature set in the countries or cultures of the ELLs facilitates ELLs' use of top-down processing, promotes reading comprehension, builds self-esteem in ELLs, aids in the process of ELLs' cultural adjustment, contributes to the celebration of diversity and multiculturalism, and creates opportunities for learning about other countries and cultures for native English speaking learners in our classroom and for the teachers, too. It is the hope of the author that ELL teachers and general classroom teachers would consider using more of the stories/books set in countries/cultures represented by their ELLs in the classroom along side of children's literature set in the United States.

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Annotated Bibliography by Countries

Algeria

Fiction

Schwartz, Howard, and Barbara Rush. (1992) ***The Sabbath Lion: A Jewish Tale from Algeria***. Harper Collins. Gr. 2-5.

This book is about the power of faith in a ten-year-old boy, Yosef. He was on a dangerous journey through the hot desert from Algiers to Cairo. Because of his devotion to honoring the Sabbath, the Sabbath Queen sent a great lion to protect him through the journey.

Angola

Non-fiction

Laure, Jason. (1990) ***Angola***. Children's Press. Gr. 5-8.

This book introduces this southern African country with photographs.

Benin

Fiction

Anderson, David A. (1991) ***The Origin of Life on Earth: An African Creation Myth.*** Sights Productions. Gr. 3-7.

A Yoruba creation myth about how the deity Obatala descends from the sky to create the world. Winner of the 1993 Coretta Scott King Award and the African Studies Association Outstanding Book Award.

Cowen-Fletcher, Jane. (1994) ***It Takes a Village.*** New York: Scholastic. PreS-Gr2

Yemi is given the charge of taking care of her little brother, Kokou, at the market while Mama sells mangoes. No sooner does Yemi turn her back to buy some peanuts, Kokou wanders off through the market stalls, well-cared for by the village vendors along the way. Based on the African proverb, "It takes a village to raise a child," this book communicates to readers the power of a close-knit community.

Watson, Pete and Mary Watson. (1994) ***The Market Lady and the Mango Tree***. New York: Tambourine. Gr. 2-4.

The author, a former Peace Corps volunteer in Benin, tells the story of a calculating merchant who hoards mangos by rigging nets on the mango trees to trap mangos for herself. This market lady learns to share after a horrifying nightmare about mangos. West African village life springs to life in this amusing fable.

Botswana

Non-fiction

Botswana in Pictures (Visual Geography Series). (1990) Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 3-7.

An introduction, with fascinating pictures, to this country of the Kalahari Desert.

Burundi

Non-fiction

Powzyk, Joyce. (1988) ***Tracking Wild Chimpanzees***. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. Gr. 1-5.

The author shares her observations of the wildlife, people and culture in Burundi.

Cameroon

Fiction

Alexander, Lloyd. (1992) ***The Fortune-Tellers***. New York: Dutton. Gr. 2-7.

A carpenter finds a fortune-teller's predictions come true in an unusual way. The book is brilliantly illustrated with scenes set in Cameroon.

Grifalconi, Ann. (1986) ***The Village of Round and Square Houses***. Boston: Little, Brown. K- Gr. 3, Caldecott Honor book.

A story warmly and beautifully told from the point of view of a young woman from the village of Tos in Cameroon about her village life and her grandmother's tale on the origin of the practice in the village where the women live in round houses while the men live in square houses.

Sierra, Judy. (1992) ***The Elephant's Wrestling Match***. New York: Lodestar. Gr. 2-5.

In this retelling of a Bulu folktale, many animals respond to the challenge to a wrestling match issued by the mighty elephant, but only a tiny bat is able to defeat him in a battle of wits.

Congo

Fiction

McDermott, Gerald. (1994) *The Magic Tree: A Tale from the Congo*. **New York: Holt. Gr. 2-5.**

A book, with beautiful art work, set along the Congo River about how an unloved twin who releases a princess and her people from a magic tree and finds strength, beauty and love; however, he loses all when he breaks his promise to the princess and reveals the secret of his success to his unloving family.

Egypt

Fiction

Heide, Florence & Judith Gillilang. (1990) ***The Day of Ahmed's Secret.*** New York: Lorthrop, Lee & Shepard. Gr. 1-4.

As young Ahmed delivers bottled butane gas on a donkey cart through the bustling streets of the metropolis of Cairo, readers are treated to the sounds, sights, colors, smells, and the synergy of the busy city. He keeps his secret all day, as hard as it is, until he is done with his rounds and is home with his loving family. Then, comes the poignant revelation of his secret—he can write his name in Arabic!

Ethiopia

Fiction

Day, Nancy Raines. (1995) ***The Lion's Whiskers: An Ethiopian Folktale***. New York: Scholastic. Gr. 1-3

In this tale from the Amhara people of Ethiopia, a patient stepmother takes the advice of a medicine man and acquires three whiskers from a lion with patience and wit; she then applies the wisdom to winning the trust and love of her stepson.

Laird, Elizabeth. (2000) ***When the World Began: Stories Collected in Ethiopia***. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Gr. 4-6.

The author lived and later traveled throughout Ethiopia, visiting storytellers in the land and using the help of interpreters to write down for the first time stories passed down from generation to generation for hundreds of years. This book is a collection of twenty Ethiopian folktales and stories.

Levitin, Sonia. (1987) ***The Return***. New York: Atheneum. Gr. 6-9.

A book about the forbidden and perilous journey that Desta, her siblings, her betrothed, and his family, all Jews, take from Ethiopia to Israel in the early 1980s.

Gambia

Fiction

Hoffman, Mary. (1995) ***Boundless Grace***. New York: Dial. Gr. 2-5.

Sequel to *Amazing Grace*, this book follows Grace, and her grandmother, to Gambia to visit her father, stepmother and their family. A tender story about a spunky young girl's emotional struggle with two families and eventually coming to understand that "families are what you make them," as her grandmother has always told her.

Ghana

Fiction

Aardema, Verna. (1984) ***Oh, Kojo! How Could You!*** New York: Dial. PreS-Gr3

A retelling of a humorous Ashanti folktale about a young man named Kojo, who gets the better of the trickster Anansi.

Appiah, Sonia. (1989) ***Amoko and Efua Bear***. New York: Macmillan. PreS-Gr.2.

Amoko, a 5-year-old Ghanaian girl, is very attached to her teddy bear. One day she is heartbroken for having lost her teddy bear, but is overjoyed to have it back after her parents found it in the

forest, a familiar experience with which many children could identify.

McDermott, Gerald. (1972) ***Anansi the Spider: a Tale from the Ashanti.*** New York: Henry Holt. Gr. 1-5.

An amusing story, with boldly colored artwork, about how Anansi, the trickster, is responsible for placing the moon in the sky.

Medearis, Angela Shelf. (1995) ***Too Much Talk***. Cambridge: Candlewick. Gr. 1-4.

A retelling of a humorous Ghanaian folktale about a village chief who refuses to believe that yams, fish, cloth, and water can talk until his throne talks to him.

Musgrove, Margaret. (2001) ***The Spider Weaver: a Legend of Kente Cloth***. New York: Blue Sky. Gr. 1-4.

A Ghanaian tale about how two Ashanti weavers, inspired by a spider and its brilliantly designed web that they encounter in the jungle, return to their village and create intricate, colorful patterns of their own. They come to call it Kente, a cloth that is now known throughout the world.

Non-fiction

Ahiagble, Gilbert & Louise Meyer. (1998) ***Master Weaver from Ghana***. Greensbora: Open Hand. Gr. 3-5

Great photographs accompany the explanations given by a contemporary male weaver from Denu, Ghana about the village life, the tradition of weaving and its importance in their Ewe culture.

Angelou, Maya. (1996) ***Kofi and His Magic***. New York: Crown, Gr. 2-4.

A young Ashanti boy, Kofi, introduces the wonders of his life in and around the village of Bonwire in Ghana, West Africa to the readers through beautiful Kente colors and gorgeous photographs of everyday activities.

Osseo-Asare, Fran. (1993) ***A Good Soup Attracts Chairs: A First African Cookbook for American Kids***. Gretna: Pelican. Gr. 3-8.
The book contains more than 35 recipes from Ghana and other West African countries, along with suggestions for throwing an African party.

Kenya

Fiction

Aardema, Verna. (1995) ***How the Ostrich Got Its Long Neck: A Tale from the Akamba of Kenya***. New York: Scholastic. Gr. 1-4.
A tale about how the crocodile is responsible for giving the ostrich a long neck.

Gakuo, Kariuki. (1992) ***Nyumba ya Mumbi: The Gikuyu Creation Myth***. Nairobi: Jacaranda Designs Ltd. Gr. 2-5.
This book is about the beginning of the Gikuyu community and how the nine clans were formed.

Martin, Francesca. (1992) ***The Honey Hunters: A Traditional African Tale***. Cambridge: Candlewick. Gr. 2-5.
Adapted from a Ngoni tale, a young boy and several animals (zebra, lion, elephant, etc.) form a joyful procession through the jungle in search of honey, but unfortunately the animals fight with one another upon the discovery of honey.

Mollel, Tololwa. (1991) ***The Orphan Boy***. New York: Clarion. Gr. 2-4.
A tale from the author's homeland about how an old man receives an orphan boy with mysterious power into his life and how he loses the boy; the tale explains why the planet Venus is known to the Maasai as Kileken, the orphan boy.

Shuleni, Mcheshi. (1995) ***Mcheshi goes to the School***. Nairobi: Jacaranda Designs. PreS-Gr. 2
An English/Kiswahili bilingual book produced in Kenya about a little girl's day at the school including activities inside and outside of the classroom.

Sokoni, Mcheshi. (1991) ***Mcheshi goes to the Market***. Nairobi: Jacaranda Designs. PreS-Gr. 2

An English/Kiswahili bilingual book produced in Kenya about a little girl going to the market with her mother on market day.

Non-fiction

Feelings, Muriel. (1981) ***Jambo Means Hello: Swahili Alphabet Book***. New York: Dial. Gr.1-5.

A Swahili alphabet book that introduces readers to everyday life in East Africa.

Griffin, Michael. (1988) ***A Family in Kenya***. Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 2-5.

This book portrays the lifestyle of a family in Kenya through informative text and full-color photos.

Liberia

Fiction

Aardema, Verna (1999) ***Koi and the Kola Nuts: a Tale from Liberia.*** New York: Atheneum. K-Gr. 4

A story about how kind-hearted Koi, the youngest son of a chief, uses his only inheritance, a bag of kola nuts, to help a snake, an army of ants, and a crocodile. All of these animals turn out to be of great help in helping him complete three tasks demanded by the chief of another village to earn the hand of his daughter along with half of the chief's kingdom.

Libya

Non-fiction

Gottfried, Ted. (1994) ***Libya: Desert Land in Conflict***. Brookfield: Millbrook. Gr. 5-8.

Informative text and photographs present a war-torn country and its history.

Mali

Fiction

Burns, Khephra. (2001) ***Mansa Musa: The Lion of Mali***. San

Diego: Harcourt. Gr. 3-5.

A fictional tale of the boyhood of Mansa Musa, Mali's great fourteenth-century leader.

Wisniewski, David. (1992) ***Sundiata: Lion King of Mali.*** New York: Clarion. Gr. 3-6.

This inspiring story is about how Sundiata overcomes physical handicaps and social disgrace to rule Mali in the thirteenth century.

Malawi

Fiction

Williams, Karen Lynn. (1990) ***Galimoto.*** New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. PreS-Gr.3.

A determined, resourceful 7-year-old boy, Kondi, sets out to collect wires from various places through bartering, creative thinking and persuasion. He finally gathers enough wires to make himself a galimoto and proudly parades it with his friends and their galimotos in the village.

Mauritania

Non-fiction

Goodsmith, Lauren. (1993) ***The Children of Mauritania: Days in the Desert and by the River Shore***. Minneapolis: Carolrhoda. Gr. 2-6.

This book follows the life of a Moorish girl in the desert and the life of a Halpoular boy at the river shore.

Morocco

Non-Fiction

Stewart, Judy. (1986) ***A Family in Morocco.*** Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 2-4.

The book details the daily routines of a 12-year-old girl living in Tangier, a port city of Morocco.

Mozambique

Fiction

Farmer, Nancy. (1993) ***Do You Know Me?*** New York: Orchard. Gr. 5-8.

Uncle Zeka comes to live with nine-year-old Tapiwa and her family after his village is burned by bandits. A perfect combination of clever and foolish, Uncle Zeka becomes Tapiwa's best friend.

Namibia

Fiction

Beake, Lesley. (1993) ***The Song of Be***. New York: Holt. Gr. 5-8.

A young Namibian bushman woman comes to the realization, through her experience of traveling through the desert looking for the peace she remembers as a child, that she and her people—the Namibian Bushmen—must reconcile their contemporary lifestyles with their ancient traditions.

Non-fiction

Brandenburg, Jim. (1994) ***Sand and Fog: Adventure in Southern Africa***. New York: Walker. Gr.3-7.

Compelling photos and personal commentary lead readers into the exploration of the Namib Desert and the country of Namibia.

Nigeria

Fiction

Alakija, Polly. (2002). ***Catch that Goat!*** Cambridge: Barefoot. PreS-Gr. 2.

Set in a busy Nigerian market, Ayoka pursues her run away family goat, which runs through town's market stalls taking whatever looks good or tasty.

Gerson, Mary-Joan. (1992) ***Why the Sky is Far Away: A Nigerian Folktale***. Boston: Little, Brown. Gr. 2-5.

A Bini tribe story that explains why the sky is far way. The sky was once so close that tribe people could just cut parts of it to eat, but eventually the sky moved far away because of people's wastefulness and greed.

McDermott, Gerald. (1992) ***Zomo the Rabbit: A Trickster Tale from West Africa***. San Diego: Harcourt. Gr. 2-5.

The mischievous trickster, Zomo, accomplishes three impossible tasks in order for the Sky God to give him wisdom.

Mollel, Tololwa M. (1994) ***The Flying Tortoise: An Igbo Tale***. New York: Clarion. Gr. 2-5.

The selfish, clever tortoise, Mbeku, gets himself invited to a banquet in Skyland and does not treat his bird friends fairly. They outwit him and get him trapped with no way to return to earth. He eventually falls from the Skyland to earth and shatters his smooth shell. The story explains why the tortoise has a checkered shell.

Shepard, Aaron. ***Master Man: A Tall Tale of Nigeria***. New York: HarperCollins, 2001. K-Gr. 4.

Shadusa is proud to be the strongest man until he meets two giant "Master Men," who fight over Shadusa to the sky, where they stay wrestling to this day. A Nigerian tale about the origin of thunder.

Non-fiction

Barker, Carol. (1985) ***A Family in Nigeria.*** Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 2-5.

The book describes the life of a 12-year-old Yoruba boy in Aye-Ekan, a small village in southern Nigeria.

Olaleye, Isaac. (1995) ***The Distant Talking Drum: Poems from Nigeria***. Honesdale, PA: Boyds Mills. Gr. 4-8.

Lush illustrations and graceful poems portray life and customs in a Nigerian village.

Onyefulu, Ifeoma. (1993) ***A is for Africa***. New York: Puffin. PreS-Gr.2.

Text and beautiful photographs by the author, a member of the Igbo tribe in Nigeria, introduce twenty-six things, from A to Z, representatives of all African people.

Onyefulu, Ifeoma. (1995) ***Emeka's Gift: An African Counting Story***. New York: Puffin. Gr. K-3.

Text and photographs portray a little boy, Emeka, of the Igala tribe daydreaming about various things he would like to take to his grandmother. Objects photographed in the book are every-day things found in the village.

Rwanda

Fiction

Aardema, Verna. (1993) ***Sebgugugu the Glutton: A Bantu Tale from Rwanda.*** Trenton: Africa World Press. Gr. K-2.

Sebgugugu, a greedy, poor villager, disregards the instructions of Imana, the Creator, about food. He learns a hard lesson about gluttony when he loses the little he has for want of more.

Somalia

Fiction

Hoffman, Mary. (2002) ***The Color of Home***. New York: Phyllis Fogelman. K-Gr.2

Hassan, new in the U.S. from Somalia, misses the colors of his native land. Unable to speak English, he paints a picture of his old home. Through an interpreter, Hassan uses the picture to tell his teacher about his old home in Somalia as well as the reason his family had to leave through the picture.

Tadjo, Veronique. (2000) ***The Lucky Grain of Corn***. London: Milet. K-Gr.3

An English/Somali bilingual story about a boy who runs after a guinea fowl which steals the lucky grain of corn he received from his parents.

South Africa

Fiction

Daly, Niki (1999) ***Jamela's Dress***. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.

Charged to keep an eye on her mother's freshly-washed, new fabric for a dress, Jamela, unable to resist the temptation, wraps

herself up in it and shows it off as she walks past her neighbors through town.

Daly, Niki. (1985). ***Not so Fast, Songololo***. New York: Macmillan Publishing. K-Gr. 3

A story about a young boy who helps his grandma shop in the city. and how grandma and grandson share a special day together.

Isadora, Rachel. (1991). ***At the Crosroads***. New York: Greenwillow Books. PreS-Gr.2

A story about the long-awaited family reunions where children and their mothers wait at the crossroads for the return of their fathers from the mines after many months in the segregated townships of South Africa.

Isadora, Rachel. (1992). ***Over the Green Hills***. New York: Greenwillow. PreS-Gr.2

Zolani walks with his mother and baby sister on a journey to see his grandmother. Along the way, they meet people and see the countryside.

Isadora, Rachel. (1998). ***A South African Night.*** New York: Greenwillow. PreS-Gr.3

Text and series of watercolor illustrations contrasting the sleeping residents of Johannesburg and the lively nightlife of the animals in Kruger National Park.

Naidoo, Beverley. (1985). ***Journey to Jo'burg: a South African story***. New York: J. B. Lippincott. Gr. 4-12

Naledi and her brother walk a long way to Johannesburg to find their mother to tell her about their seriously ill baby sister. Through the journey, they learn about those who have come and gone in the struggle against apartheid.

Sisulu, Elinor. (1996). ***The Day Gogo Went to Vote.*** Boston: Little, Brown. K-Gr. 3

A young girl, Thembi, recounts how she and her great-grand-

mother, who hasn't left the house for many years, travel to the polls to vote in the first election that black South Africans were allowed to vote.

Stock, Catherine. (1990). ***Armien's Fishing Trip***. New York: Morrow Junior K-Gr.3

When teased by his friends from the old home town by Kalk Bay during the apartheid period in South Africa, a little boy named Armien boasts to his friends that he would be going fishing with his uncle in the big fishing boat. Since little boys are not allowed aboard fishing boats on the rough and dangerous sea, Armien sneaks into his uncle's fishing boat at dawn and finds himself being the hero who discovered the fisherman washed into the sea by a huge wave and called for help.

Non-fiction

Angelou, Maya. (1994). ***My Painted House, My Friendly Chicken, and Me***. New York: Clarkson Potter, Inc. Gr.1-3

An eight-year-old Ndebele girl, Thandi, who lives in a village in South Africa, shares about her painted house, her best friend, a chicken, and her family.

McKenna, Nancy Durrell. (1984) ***A Zulu Family***. Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 2-5

The book presents the life of an eleven-year-old Zulu girl and her family in Kwazulu, the work of her relatives and neighbors, her chores and schoolwork, and her pride in her Zulu heritage.

Wilson-Max (1998) ***Halala Means Welcome! A Book of Zulu Words***. New York: Hyperion Books. Gr. 1-4

This excellent picture book introduces 25 Zulu words through the daily activities of a boy and his friend.

Sudan

Non-fiction

McKissack, Patricia and Frederick. (1994) ***The Royal Kingdoms of Ghana, Mali, and Songhay: Life in Medieval Africa.*** New York: Henry Holt. Gr. 5-8.

The authors examine the civilizations of the kingdoms of western Sudan that flourished from A.D. 500 to 1700 and became a center of trade and culture for the continent.

Sudan in Pictures (Visual Geography Series). (1988) Minneapolis: Lerner. Gr. 3-7.

An introduction to the land, people, history, government and economy of Sudan with many photographs, maps, and charts.

Swaziland

Non-fiction

Leigh, Nila K. (1993) ***Learning to Swim in Swaziland: A Child's-Eye View of a Southern African Country***. New York: Scholastic. Gr. 1-4.

Eight-year-old Nila writes to her classmates in New York from Swaziland about her observation of life in Swaziland—its geography, housing, culture, people and their customs.

Tanzania

Fiction

Bozylinsky, Hannah Heritage. (1993) ***Lala Salama: An African Lullaby***. New York: Philomel. PreS-Gr. 2.

In Swahili and English, this lullaby follows a young Maasai boy saying goodnight to all the animals before going home for the night.

Mollel, Tololwa M. (1995) ***Big Boy***. New York: Clarion. Gr. 1-3.

A tale about a little boy, Oli, who longs to be big so he can go hunting with his brother, gets his wish granted by a magical bird. After causing some accidental damage while being a giant, he wishes to be small again and awakes from his dream to see his family.

Mollel, Tololwa M. (1992) ***A Promise to the Sun: An African Story***. Boston: Joy Street (distributed by Little, Brown). Gr. 2-4.

An African tale that explains that bats fly only at night because they failed to keep their promise to the sun.

Stuve-Bodeen, Stephanie. (1998) ***Elizabeti's Doll***. New York: Lee & Low. K-Gr. 2.

When Elizabeti's new baby brother is born, she finds a doll that she can take care of while Mama watches the baby. Elizabeti uses the doll, which she names Eva, to imitate her mother's care for the baby. She feeds the doll when Mama feeds the baby and sings to the doll when Mama sings to the baby.

Stuve-Bodeen, Stephanie. (2000) ***Mama Elizabeti***. New York: Lee & Low. K-Gr.2

A warm story about a little girl, Elizabeti, taking care of a younger brother after her mother has a new baby girl.

Stuve-Bodeen, Stephanie (2002) ***Elizabeti's School***. New York: Lee & Low. K-Gr. 2

Elizabeti is excited to go to school, but when she gets there, she misses home. She is happy to get home. While in the evening she plays a game she learned at school, she discovers she can <u>count</u> her new kittens!

Stuve-Bodeen, Stephanie (2003) ***Babu's Songs***. New York: Lee & Low. K- Gr. 3

A heartwarming story about the love between grandfather and grandson. Babu, a mute toy maker, makes a music box for his grandson, Bernardi, who sells it out of a strong longing to get a soccer ball but then regrets it. With the cash that Bernardi gives to Babu, Babu buys a school uniform and a soccer ball for Bernardi.

<u>Non-fiction</u>

Margolies, Barbara A. (1994) ***Olbalbal: A Day in Maasailand***. New York: Four Winds. Gr.3-6.

Text and photos chronicle a typical day in a traditional Maasai village on the plains of East Africa.

Pringle, Laurence. (1993) ***Jackal Woman: Exploring the World of Jackals***. New York: Atheneum. Gr. 3-6.

The book is about the author's work of nearly two decades,

observing the lives of two jackal species on the Serengeti Plain in Tanzania.

Uganda

Fiction

McBrier, Page. (2001) ***Beatrice's Goat***. Ill. by Lori Lohstoeter. New York: Atheneum. K-Gr.3

Young Beatrice's dream of attending school is fulfilled after her family is given an income-producing goat. The story is based on a true story about the work of Heifer Project. Rich illustrations display the colors and lushness of the Ugandan countryside.

Non-fiction

Sobol, Richard. (1995) ***One More Elephant: The Fight to Save Wildlife in Uganda***. New York: Cobblehill. Gr. 3-7.

This book chronicles the efforts of two brothers, Peter and Wilhelm Moeller, to protect the herds of elephants and other wildlife in the Queen Elizabeth National Park in Uganda.

Zaire

Fiction

Aardema, Verna. (1991) ***Traveling to Tondo: A Tale of the Nkundo of Zaire***. New York: Alfred A. Knope. K-Gr. 3

Bowane, a cat, is traveling to Tondo to marry a beautiful cat. He invites other animals that he meets along the trip to go with him, but they foolishly delay him. When they finally get to Tondo years later, his bride has already married someone else.

Zambia

Non-fiction

Laure, Jason. (1989) ***Zambia***. Chicago: Children's Press. Gr. 5-7.

This book introduces readers to the history, geography, and people of Zambia.

Rogers, Barbara R. (1991) ***Zambia (Children of the World Series)***. Milwaukee: Gareth Stevens. Gr. 5-8.

Part of the *Children of the World* series, this well-illustrated

book introduces the geography, climate, history, people, industry, and culture of Zambia.

Zimbabwe

Fiction

Farmer, Nancy. (1994) ***The Ear, the Eye, and the Arm***. New York: Orchard. Gr. 5-8.

A classical, futuristic and funny tale of courage. The story is set in Zimbabwe in the year of 2194. Three children, Tendai, Rita and Kuda, are kidnapped and put to work in a plastic mine, but they overcome obstacles and the evil plans of their tormentors with their wits and great courage.

Steptoe, John. (1987). ***Mufaro's Beautiful Daughters: an African Tale***. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. PreS-Gr.3

This story tells of how the two daughters of Mufaro, one proud with a bad temper and the other, kind and sweet, go before the king, who is choosing a wife. The king chooses the kind sister as his queen because of her kindness shown to a snake, a hungry boy and an old woman, who all turn out to be the king in disguise. The realistic illustrations are based on the flora and fauna of the Zimbabwe region.

Stock, Catherine. (1993). ***Where are you Going Manyoni?*** New York: Morrow Jr. K-Gr.3

Set on the Limpopo River in Zimbabwe, the author and illustrator takes the readers through the beautiful landscape with various African wildlife and distinctive plants along a little girl's daily walk to the school in another village.

Non-fiction

Cheney, Patricia. (1990) ***The Land and People of Zimbabwe (Portaits of the Nations Series)***. New York: HarperCollins. Gr. 5-8.

An exploration of the country of Zimbabwe including its history, geography, economy, culture and the people.

THE AUTHOR

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Keeping it Real: Using Authentic Materials with Beginning Adult Learners

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Adult ESL students learn best when class content is readily applicable to their lives. The materials teachers choose play a major role in making a lesson both interesting and practical. While authentic materials can be challenging for beginning adult learners, teachers can and should find ways to integrate authentic texts, both oral and written, into their curricula. This article first explains why authentic materials are so important, then gives some advice for effectively using them with low-level adult students. Through examples, the author shows how various authentic materials can be used within commonly taught topics. A list of further materials to consider is included.

Authentic Materials and the Adult ESL Learner

Adults beginning to learn English in the U.S. study in a myriad of settings: from community colleges and literacy councils to church basements, from non-profit organizations and community-based groups to apartment complexes and workplaces. These ESL learners are as varied as the settings in which they study. Some are well-educated in their first language, while others have little or no prior education. Some have been in the U.S. for 20 or 30 years but are just now beginning to study English formally, and others arrived only a few weeks ago. In one class students might range in age from 17 to 70, one may come from a rural village in Ethiopia and another from the urban jungle of Hong Kong. There is perhaps no other area of ESL that is more diverse.

Within this diversity, however, adult ESL learners have many commonalities. As Malcolm Knowles (1973) put forth, there are principles of adult learning that are indeed constant. "Adults are self-directed, practical, and problem solving; they have reservoirs of experience to help them learn new things; and they want to know why something needs to be learned and how it will be applicable to their lives" (Florez & Terrill, 2003, p. 3). The materials that teachers use play a major role in creating a classroom that is both accessible and productive for adult learners. Authentic materials can help meet students' needs for immediate application and relevance of course content. Another result is often higher enthusiasm and participation from students. As H. Douglas Brown (1994) writes, "By introducing natural texts...rather than concocted, artificial material, students will more readily dive into an activity" (p. 245).

Authentic materials include anything that a native speaker would read, fill out, view, or listen to (i.e., a bus schedule, a credit card application, news footage, a radio commercial). Authentic materials are "oral and written texts that occur naturally in the target language environment and that have not been created or edited expressly for language learners" (Larimer & Schleicher, 1999, p. v). Authentic materials differ from unauthentic materials in that they have not been simplified or otherwise changed for non-native speakers. Many, if not all, ESL teachers use authentic materials from time to time. It is only natural to bring in supermarket ads during a food unit and medicine labels during a unit on doctor visits. We bring "real" oral and written texts to the classroom to make a class more interesting perhaps, to demonstrate the lesson's relevance, to highlight cultural points, or simply to give students a chance to apply what they've learned.

However, using authentic materials with beginning learners can be challenging. Consider the vocabulary required to fill out a job application or to read a newspaper article. It is tempting to re-write otherwise authentic materials to make them easier for students to understand, or to avoid such materials altogether until students are more advanced. Certainly, there is a time for simplified or unauthentic materials, whether

published or teacher-created, to help students gain key language skills. But authentic materials should not be overlooked or delayed. In fact, they can be easily and successfully integrated into the curriculum from day one, even with low-literacy adult learners.

Effective Use of Authentic Materials

An endless supply of authentic readings, writing tasks, and audio and video clips are available in the culture for ESL instructors to use. However, unlike a published text, authentic materials come without a teacher's guide, perhaps making it more difficult to create principled lesson plans to accompany them. Here are some things to keep in mind when planning authentic materials-based lessons for beginners.

Choose Wisely.

Authentic materials should be relevant to the topic at hand, interesting, and serve a communicative purpose. Ideally, students should be somewhat familiar with the text or source of the text already. For example, when studying shopping or clothing vocabulary, work with ads from a store that students frequent. Or when talking about potential jobs or phone skills, use a page from the phonebook that lists local businesses that students know.

The more students already know about the subject, the less mysterious and more valuable the authentic text will be. While the nature of authentic texts means that students will probably not understand everything presented, try to 'decrease the chaos' by making sure the type is large enough to read, and that the volume and clarity are sufficient if using audio or video material.

Build, Build, Build Schema.

When we read, we construct meaning based not only on what we see printed before us, but also on what we already know and feel about the subject. This idea that text itself does not carry meaning is called *schema* theory. "Schema" refers to everything a person brings to a text: previous knowledge, experiences, feelings, etc. When using authentic materials with beginning learners, it is particularly important to build

schema well, that is, to activate previous knowledge, or else students can become overwhelmed or confused. "Instructors need to provide pre-reading activities that encourage students to bring their previous knowledge and experience to the reading. They need to provide guidance in the organizational structure of the reading and practice activities that reflect real-life tasks that would accompany such readings" (Savage, in Crandall & Peyton, 1993, p. 22).

The more a learner already knows about what is coming, the less he or she has to gather from the printed page. For students to benefit from an authentic text, they must be prepared for it. Authentic materials often make excellent cumulative activities. For example, during a unit on occupations, students have already worked with vocabulary like job counselor, interview, assembly line, boss, hired, fired, etc. They have already talked and written about their current and past jobs, as well as their hopes for future employment. They have discussed the job application process and what's expected of an employee in the U.S. As an ending activity, the teacher shows a few clips from the *I Love Lucy* episode "Changing Jobs" where the women get jobs at a chocolate factory and fail to keep up... Students not only enjoy the humor of this show, but they can then talk and write about what happened using words and concepts they've just studied.

Vary the task, not the text.

Authentic texts are often challenging to beginning learners. What makes them useful for language learning is not the texts themselves, *but what we ask students to do with them.* As Larimer & Schleicher (1999) point out, "Authentic materials have a place in every classroom, from Day 1, and the simplification that makes these materials accessible to beginning learners should be accomplished in the selection and design of the tasks that accompany them (as opposed to editing or adaptation)" (p. vi). Naturally, a pre-literate student will not be able to fill out a medical history form from the doctor's office. But with sufficient preparation and schema-building, we can ask that student to find and circle the words *name, address, phone number*, and *date* on that form and fill them in. Suddenly, the form is not quite so overwhelming, and the

student begins to see the basic personal information pattern that forms take.

Most television programs contain spoken language that is too fast for beginning students to understand completely. But a teacher can choose a small segment, perhaps 2-5 minutes long and tailor the task to the students' level. For example, during a unit on food and cooking, a teacher shows a segment from *Emeril* making fish tacos. Students already learned the names of many foods and talked about where they learned to cook (a grandmother's kitchen, a favorite aunt's house, from a cookbook, or maybe watching cooking shows). They are familiar with this genre of show, and some have even seen *Emeril* before. The teacher asks half the students to listen only for names of ingredients and write them down if they can. The other half is asked to listen and record cooking words like *mix, fry, add*, etc. As much banter and other talking there might be on the show, the students are focused only on those tasks, and they can watch repeatedly as needed. Afterwards, students can work cooperatively to compare notes and put together a written recipe for the dish. The key is to get all the students involved in a task that is do-able. This approach builds confidence where a less-focused task would leave students feeling frustrated.

The following section gives more examples of how different authentic materials can be used to enhance curriculum for beginning students.

Sample Activities

Teachers in many programs have limited time and freedom to "deviate" from pre-set curricula, textbooks, or lessons geared toward certain assessments. However, teachers can easily use authentic materials in conjunction with their books and plans. The extra time required to prepare and execute these real-life lessons is well-worth the effort.

While beginning adult ESL courses vary greatly, most cover a few basic topics like family, food, jobs, etc. Below are examples of some authentic materials-based activities within two widely taught topics (*Keep-*

ing in Touch, and *Gardening/Farmer's Market*). The following examples have been used successfully in my own teaching and can easily be adapted for various teaching settings.

Keeping in Touch: Phones and Post offices

Unit Objectives— Learners will be able to:

1. give and receive personal information orally and in writing.
2. talk about ways they keep in touch with friends and family.
3. fill out a change of address form.
4. address a post-card and an envelope.
5. speak with a postal worker.
6. find specific telephone numbers in a list.
7. decipher a Twin Cities area code map.
8. find the total owed on a phone bill.

In my experience, this unit is of particular interest to students, and they often know quite a bit about the subject already. Some beginning learners are already familiar with phone bills and post-offices, while others have not had to deal with such things on their own. In addition to the usual post-office vocabulary and conversations covered in many beginning texts, consider the following:

- Show examples of actual letters, stamped envelopes, and postcards to open the unit and build schema.
- Give each student a free "mover's guide" from the post office. It contains several pictures to talk about and an actual change-of-address form students can use to practice filling out this important form.
- Put everyone's name in a hat. Students draw a name and must write that person a post-card or letter. Practice addressing legibly and letter-writing format. Mail the letters.
- Show stamps from different countries and have students bring some in as well. Talk about what's pictured, how much they cost, and how long delivery takes to different locations. This is a great way to discuss prices, geography, making change, and dates and calendars.
- Visit www.usps.com and let students explore; the "shop"

page has many stamps and other products, and students can also locate their local post office and hours. Consider a field trip to a nearby post-office.

- Bring in samples of old phone bills and have students circle the total owed and when it is due. Have willing students bring in their phone bills as well. Practice check-writing, buying money-orders, and role play post-office conversations.
- If possible, bring in several local phone books (big city tip: many suburbs or neighborhoods have much smaller and friendlier phone books—much easier than carrying several Minneapolis books...) and let students find their names or the school's name. Students can work in pairs and find each other or businesses they know in a scavenger hunt-format. This exercise helps students practice numbers and also reading for specific information.
- Using the area-code and country code map in the phone book, have students locate and record various information (see appendix 1, map and chart have been added for clarity). Use this exercise to practice map skills as well as chart reading.

Gardening/Farmer's Market:

Unit Objectives— Learners will be able to:

1. talk and write about their gardens and farms here and in their home countries.
2. read and write about planting a seed using Language Experience Approach (LEA).
3. listen for specific words in an English song ("The Garden Song").
4. discuss the pros and cons of the Minneapolis farmer's market and give tips for shopping there.
5. discuss shopping for food here and in their countries.
6. review months of the year and fruit and vegetable vocabulary.

A great many of my students are avid gardeners. Many students were farmers in their home countries and have a lot to share about this topic. In addition, many of the vendors at the St. Paul and Minneapolis farmer's markets are non-native speakers of English; some are even students at our school! Whether during a food unit, a shopping unit, or a unit just about gardening, here are some more ways to use authentic materials:

- Use photographs and magazine pictures— lots of them. Pictures of farms, gardens, and outdoor markets can help open the unit and build schema. Refer to the pictures throughout the unit. Have students draw or show pictures of their gardens and farms.
- Bring in packets of seeds for students to read and talk about. Have them find information about when and how to plant on the seed packet.
- Listen to "The Garden Song" by Peter, Paul, and Mary (lyrics by David Mallett, 1975). Lower students can listen and circle certain words as they hear them (see appendix 2) while higher, more literate students can fill in a cloze exercise (see appendix 3). This listening exercise is a fun way to practice listening for specific information and reinforces some key vocabulary.
- Visit *http://www.mplsfarmersmarket.com* or *http://www.stpaulfarmersmarket.com* and explore the on-line information about the markets. Consider a field trip. In the classroom, role-play farmers' market conversations, practice making change, create a list and budget for market purchases.
- Use a calendar from a "fruit or vegetable of the month" club (there are lots, but I use a colorful calendar from *http://www-nehc.med.navy.mil/hp/nutrit/fotm/* , see appendixes 4 and 5). Students can either refer to a print-out or go online to answer questions. This exercise helps them review the months of the year and fruit and vegetable vocabulary simultaneously.

Conclusion

As diverse as adult ESL students are, they can all benefit from authentic materials in the classroom. By choosing materials wisely, building schema, and carefully designing pedagogical tasks, teachers can make authentic texts accessible and useful for beginning students. A wealth of authentic oral and written materials is available to choose from, and these texts can be successfully integrated into existing curricula. It is well-worth the time and effort to locate and prepare authentic materials, thereby enhancing instruction for low-level adult learners.

Resources

Below is a list of more authentic materials to consider.

Print Materials:

newspaper weather page
fruit and vegetable of the month calendar
store advertisements and coupons
medicine labels
nutrition information on foods
directions on a cake mix box
planting directions on seed packet
post-cards for studying about cities/countries/nature
write letters or post-cards to each other
brochures from community organizations, government offices
store or mall maps, directories

Audio:

"What a Wonderful World" by Louis Armstrong
"Leaving on a Jet Plane" by John Denver
"The Garden Song" by Peter, Paul, and Mary
phone conversations
answering machine messages

Video:

cooking show clips
weather, news clips

Mr. Bean clip—packing for a trip
I Love Lucy clip—assembly line at the chocolate factory

On-Line:
www.weather.com
national parks website
local parks/attractions websites
community organization websites
government resources websites
www.whitehouse.gov

Note: Field trips and guest speakers are truly authentic activities that can also be successfully integrated into adult ESL classes. I have not addressed them here because they are not *materials*, per se, but here is a short list of possibilities to consider:
Field Trips: library, fabric store, art museum, history center, capitol building, botanical garden, YMCA, community center, park visitor center, potential workplaces, etc.
Guest Speakers: police officer, county extension service worker (nutrition and food safety), job counselor, tax accountant, local artist, state representative, former students now employed, etc.

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THE AUTHOR

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APPENDICES (see following pages)

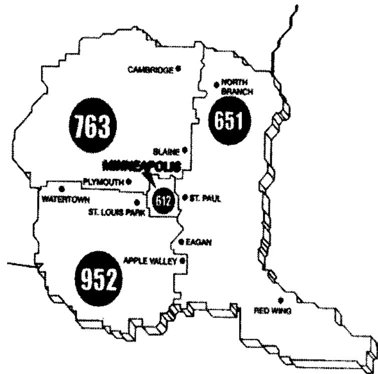
Appendix 1

Name ______________________ Date ____________________

Keeping in Touch by Phone

Area Codes

There are 4 area codes in Minneapolis-St.Paul.
Look at the map of area codes to answer the questions.



1. What is the area code for Minneapolis? ________
2. What is the area code for Apple Valley? ________
3. What is the area code for St. Paul? ________
4. What is the area code for Blaine? ________
5. What is the area code for Eagan? ________
6. What is YOUR area code? ________

Country Codes

Before calling another country, you must dial: 011--**country code**--area code---number
Look at the chart of country codes and answer the questions.

1. What is the code for the U.S.A? ____________
2. What is the code for Kenya?__________
3. What is the code for Burma? __________
4. What is the code for Russia? __________
5. What is the code for Somalia? __________
6. What is the code for China? __________
7. What is the code for YOUR country? __________

Country	Code
Australia	61
Burma	95
Cambodia	855
China	86
El Salvador	503
Eritrea	291
Ethiopia	251
Kenya	254
Korea	82
Laos	856
Mexico	52
Russia	7
Somalia	252
Thailand	66
United States of America	1
Vietnam	84

How often do you call another country?

Do you ever have problems calling another country?

How many hours is the time difference between Minnesota and your country?

Appendix 2

The Garden Song

Circle the words you hear.

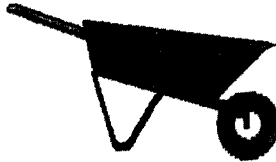
rain	row	music
garden	sun	care
rake	grow	tree
plant	seeds	ground

Appendix 3

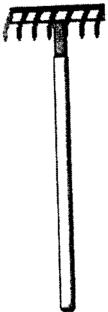
Garden Song
sung by Peter, Paul, and Mary, lyrics by David Mallett- ©1975

Chorus:

Inch by inch, row by row, gonna make this __________ grow
All it takes is a _________ and a hoe and a piece of fertile ground
Inch by inch, row by row



Someone bless these __________ I sow
Someone warm them from below
Til the __________ comes tumbling down



Pullin' weeds and pickin' stones,
we are made of dreams and bones
I feel the need to __________ my own cause the time is close at hand
Grain for grain, __________ and rain I'll find my way in nature's chain
Tune my body and my brain to the ___________of the land

Chorus

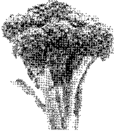
__________ your rows straight and long,
Temper them with prayer and song
Mother earth will keep you strong if you give her love and _________
An old crow watching hungrily from his perch in yonder ___________
In my garden I'm as free as that feathered thief up there

Chorus

rain	garden	rake
seeds	sun	grow music
care	tree	plant

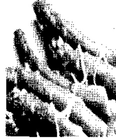
Fruit & Vegetable of the Month

January


Broccoli

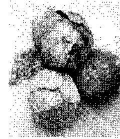
Grapefruit

February


Asparagus

Bananas

March


Cabbage

Pineapple

April

Carrot

Grape

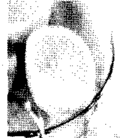
May

Peas

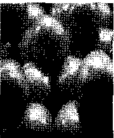
Mango

June

Corn


Lemon

July


Tomatoes

Peaches

August

Squash

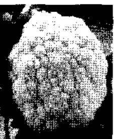
Watermelon

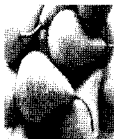
September

Bell pepper

Apple

October


Cauliflower


Pear

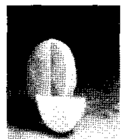
November

Sweet Potatoes

Kiwi

December

Brussel Sprouts


Orange

webmaster@nehc.med.navy.mil
http://www-nehc.med.navy.mil/hp/nutrit/fotm

Appendix 5

Name ________________ Date ____________

Words that begin with '**P**' ?

____

Words that begin with '**C**' ?

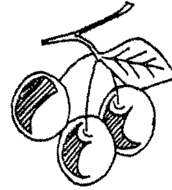
____

Words that begin with '**B**' ?

____

What is the fruit for March? ____________________

What is the fruit for September? ____________________



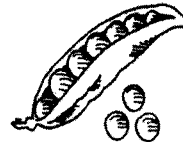
What is the fruit for April? ____________________

What is the fruit for February? ____________________

What is the vegetable for July? ____________________

What is the vegetable for May? ____________________

What is the vegetable for June? ____________________



What is the fruit for December? ____________________

What is the fruit for June? ____________________

What month is mango? ____________________

What month are peaches? ____________________

What month are carrots? ____________________

What month are bell peppers? ____________________

Issues and a Model of Assessment for Determining Learning Disabilities (LD) in the English as a Second Language (ESL) Adult Population

Margaret (Marn) Frank
LDA of Minnesota

Since 1967, LDA (Learning Disabilities Association) of Minne sota, a nonprofit educational agency located in Minneapolis, has been helping people of all ages at risk for learning difficulties or learning disabilities. For over seventeen years, LDA has provided diagnostic learning disability assessment to Minnesota Adult Basic Education (ABE) and has completed hundreds of adult assessments statewide for native English speakers. The process includes an informal screening and interview combined with formal testing of intellectual ability and academic achievement. The outcome is a comprehensive learning profile, diagnosis (when applicable) of a learning disability, and documentation for personal, educational, or vocational purposes.

Over the years, the number of ESL adults attending Minnesota ABE programs has dramatically increased to represent 46% of the total enrollment (Shaffer, 2003). Most of these adults are able to acquire English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills and move on to employment or further training. However, some are not able to acquire proficient language or literacy skills despite long-term enrollment, regular attendance, motivation, effort, and repeated instruction. This has caused dedicated ESL instructors to ask LDA: "Can you test ESL adults for a learning disability?" For several years, the response has been "No" due to the many issues of applying the diagnostic assessment process to non-native English speakers.

A major issue involves the definition and standardized assessment tools currently being used in the field for the diagnosis of a learning dis-

ability. A summary of LDA's operational definition of a learning disability is the following:

Inclusions (what LD is):

- Evidence of an information-processing problem in how the brain receives, processes, stores, or produces information
- Evidence of at least average intellectual functioning
- Evidence of significant difficulties in the achievement and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, spelling, reasoning, recalling and organizing information, or doing mathematics

Exclusions (what LD is not):

- Visual, hearing, or physical/motor disabilities, mental retardation, or emotional disturbance
- Environmental or economic disadvantages or cultural differences

Evidence of an information processing problem, at least average intellectual functioning, and significant achievement difficulties are documented using standardized testing instruments. Schwartz and Terrill (2000) listed three major problems with standardized tests for diagnosing LD in non-native English speakers:

> First, instruments designed to diagnose learning disabilities are usually normed on native English speakers, so the results cannot be reliably used with learners whose first language is not English. Second, since the concepts and language being tested may have no direct translation, the validity of tests translated into the native language is questionable. Third, most tests are primarily designed for and normed on younger students and may not be suitable for adults.

Another related problem is the level of oral language proficiency required by the standardized testing situation. Although many ESL adults acquire social language or conversational skills, the setting and format of

diagnostic assessment is very formal and academic. They may be unfamiliar or uncomfortable with the office setting, test directions, test administration, and lack of feedback stipulated by test protocol. Interpretation of the test directions or test items may not alleviate this problem because the interpreter may also be unfamiliar with standardized test language or procedures. Additionally, interpretation compromises the assessment results because there is little control by the examiner over the exchange of verbal and nonverbal communication.

A second issue is the similarity between second language acquisition in adults and characteristics of a learning disability. Second language acquisition in adults is complex, developmental, yet variable, often begins with a "silent period", continues with many errors and inconsistencies, and takes a long time to achieve proficiency. Research in the linguistic field has determined that social language, including conversational skills and basic literacy, may require 2-5 years of exposure *under the best of circumstances*. Academic language, referring to complex grammar, vocabulary, semantics, pragmatics, and higher thinking across all four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, may require an additional 7-10 years of exposure and instruction. This continuum is likely extended for many ESL adults as they are frequently dealing with multiple responsibilities that can interfere with regular English instruction. Similar to the challenges of language or literacy acquisition, are characteristics of LD. These include an inconsistent profile of strengths and weaknesses; difficulties with auditory or visual learning; knowing the answer, but not being able to produce it; not remembering today what was learned yesterday; and the need for repetition and extra time in order to achieve proficiency. In other words, what may appear to be a learning difficulty or learning disability is actually the challenge of second language acquisition for many adults. This is especially true when the adult has limited or no educational experience in their native language.

A third issue is that ESL adults are often dealing with internal or external factors from both the past and present that may be interfering with learning or performance across settings. These complicated personal, physical, emotional, educational, or socio-cultural factors may "rule out" or exclude the diagnosis of a learning disability according to

the definition, although LD may co-exist with other disabilities. Rance-Raney (2000) stated that: "definitive identification of an LD learner who is also a second language learner may be nearly impossible".

Finally, there is the issue of labeling and stigmatization. LD is an area of disability and there are many misunderstandings attached to that label within our own American culture. This may be compounded in the non-native English speaking population because the identification of a learning disability is not well known or recognized in other cultures. According to Schwarz (2000): "In many cultures and countries, especially third world ones, slow or different learners are humiliated, punished, or removed from school." The diagnosis of any area of disability must be approached with caution and professionalism and in the best interests of the person being referred for assessment.

With all of these issues in mind, LDA of Minnesota developed *TAKING ACTION-a resource guide for instructors serving ESL adults with learning difficulties or learning disabilities.* This resource guide covers the ESL and LD populations, second language acquisition, other factors, best practices for ESL, other models of LD/ESL assessment, and introduces LDA's model of assessment. The guide is being disseminated to ABE/ESL providers throughout the state and an LD/ESL assessment model is being piloted through supplemental service grant funding from the Minnesota Department of Education-Adult Basic Education.

Similar to LDA's diagnostic assessments for a specific learning disability (SLD) or application for GED accommodations, the LD/ESL assessment is multi-purpose:

1. To determine a comprehensive language and learning profile in order to recommend individualized strategies and accommodations to improve learner progress.
2. When applicable, to document the presence of a learning disability that impacts the ability to learn in the classroom or perform in the workplace.
3. When applicable, to document the presence of a learning

impairment/difficulty that significantly limits a major life activity such as learning or working.

The LD/ESL pre-referral, referral, and assessment process is also similar, but different in consideration of the non-native English speaking population. This process addresses the principles of second language acquisition, the impact of other factors on learning and performance, the importance of adequate educational opportunity in both first and subsequent languages, and the need to use language and culturally sensitive standardized testing. The steps are as follows:

Pre-referral:

Enrollment in ABE/ESL for at least 160 hours, completion of CASAS or BEST testing and the informal *Screening Interview of Learning Difficulties for ESL Adults* from *TAKING ACTION.*

Referral:

1. Completion of the informal *History of English Language Learning & Instruction for ESL Adults* from *TAKING ACTION.*
2. Submission of both the screening interview and history form to LDA of Minnesota.

Assessment:

3. LDA administration of formal oral proficiency and academic achievement testing.
4. LDA administration of formal general ability testing.
5. Feedback conference with LDA staff, referring ESL instructor, and ESL adult.

The pre-referral requirement of at least 160 hours of enrollment and pre/post testing within an ESL program verifies adequate exposure to the English language over time, but a persistent lack of progress. Completion of the *Screening Interview of Learning Difficulties for ESL Adults* verifies awareness and understanding of the ESL adult's personal, lan-

guage, educational, family, and medical background. Completion of the *History of English Language Learning & Instruction for ESL Adults* verifies a current history of English instruction, but a continuing lack of progress despite special strategies or accommodations.

LDA's formal LD/ESL assessment begins with verification that the ESL adult has adequate listening and speaking skills in order to proceed with standardized academic achievement and general ability testing without language interpretation. The Oral Basic English Skills Test (BEST) is used to document a minimum Student Performance Level (SPL) of 4. This level is described as able to understand "some simple new phrases containing familiar vocabulary spoken slowly with frequent repetition". Following the verification of adequate oral proficiency, selected subtests from the Woodcock Johnson III Tests of Achievement are administered to measure oral language skills, basic reading skills, math calculation, and written expression. Test results include standard scores, ranges, percentiles, and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) scores for oral language clusters. CALP scores range from 1-5 and indicate whether the learning problem is primarily due to a lack of English vocabulary knowledge (scores of 1-3) or a possible learning disability (scores of 4-5).

General ability is measured by using the Comprehensive Tests of Nonverbal Intelligence (CTONI). Results of the CTONI are most useful for estimating the intelligence of individuals who experience undue difficulty in language or fine motor skills, including individuals who are bilingual, who speak a language other than English, or who are socioeconomically disadvantaged, deaf, language disordered, motor disabled, or neurologically impaired. No oral responses, reading, writing, or object manipulations are required to take the test.

The LD/ESL assessment concludes with a feedback conference between the ESL adult, the referring ESL instructor, and LDA staff at the program site. The purpose of the conference is to explain the assessment summary report documenting reason for referral, history and background, observations, test descriptions, test results, test interpretation, summary, diagnosis (when applicable), and recommendations for instruc-

tion and accommodations. The referring ESL instructor plays a vital role in helping the ESL adult understand the purpose, process, and results of the diagnostic assessment.

All participants in the pilot will be asked to evaluate the process resulting in revision of the model as needed to meet the needs of ESL instructors, ESL learners, and the capacity of LDA of Minnesota. There are future plans to expand this assessment model in the fall of 2004.

LDA recognizes that the LD/ESL assessment model is uncharted territory for all participants. Yet, in spite of all the complications and risks, ESL adults with learning impairments or learning disabilities have the right to equal opportunities for accommodations, protections, and academic and/or employment success. They also have the right to understand their language and learning profile and the role of advocacy in their home, school, and work life. LDA hopes our work in progress will provide both documentation and self-understanding for ESL adults striving to make a better life for themselves and their families.

At the time of submission, five LD/ESL assessments were complete and several more in progress. Although none of the completed assessments resulted in the diagnosis of a learning disability, three received documentation of a significant learning impairment or difficulty and one received documentation of a reading difficulty. Recommendations were made for new and continuing outside support services, additional neuropsychological assessment, realistic goal setting, and individualized, systematic beginning reading instruction.

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Preparing English Education Majors to Teach Second Language Learners

Dr. Marilyn Durham, Associate Professor
University of Wisconsin—Whitewater

A growing challenge to education programs at public universities today is the need to prepare aspiring teachers to address the special requirements of students whose first language is not English. I have discovered that lecturing on the best strategy for teaching the parts of speech to English language learners falls far short of getting the job done. As a member of the English faculty and instructor of a course called Theories of Composition for Teachers, I struggle to teach my students how to elicit substantive and authentic writing in the English classroom. In today's world of rapidly changing population demographics, however, I need to do more than model traditional instruction in composition and grammar. My practical objective is to suggest to my English Education majors ways of causing literacy learning among second language learners of wide-ranging competencies who find themselves in a classroom of native speakers.

Secondarily, and on a theoretical level, I want to introduce the idea that education is not always a neutral endeavor, embodying equity and social justice, but rather a complicated and mediated process implicating race, class and gender in a constantly changing society.

These goals require me to explain and promote a sociocultural perspective in language and literacy. I have found Sonia Nieto's work in this area very useful, particularly the collection of her essays, Language, Culture and Teaching: Critical Perspectives for a New Century (2002). Asking my students to read several chapters from Nieto's text in conjunction with an excellent work of young adult fiction, Esperanza Rising, (Munoz Ryan, 2000) has allowed me to introduce the theoretical framework of a sociocultural understanding of learning while illustrating the tenets of the theory with the experience of reading and processing Munoz

Ryan's text. As students learn from reading about Esperanza and her culture, they acquire a firm platform for discussion of the intersection of language, learning and culture. These insights will prepare them to create more meaningful opportunities for learning in a classroom containing second language learners.

Nieto (2002) provides an accessible definition of a sociocultural perspective by delineating it as a view firmly rooted in an "anthropological understanding of culture; a view of learning as socially constructed and mutually negotiated; an understanding of how students from diverse segments of society—due to differential access, and cultural and linguistic differences—experience schooling; and a commitment to social justice" (p. 4). She outlines five central tenets of this approach to education, but the fundamental principle seems to be that social relationships and political realities are at the heart of teaching and learning. This crucial insight is the central outcome my students and I work toward in this unit on literacy learning among second language learners. By reading and discussing Esperanza Rising (Munoz Ryan, 2000) in the context of sociocultural theory, the relationship between individual behavior/attitude and the sociopolitical environment becomes more meaningfully precise to English Education majors.

One of these five tenets which Nieto (2002) mentions is *agency*, an important concept in understanding sociocultural theory. Put briefly, students must be active agents in constructing and acquiring knowledge. Nieto argues that learning is not a simple transmission of knowledge from authority to learner, but the result of "working with students so that they can reflect, theorize, and create knowledge" (Nieto 2002, p. 7). I have observed these exact processes taking shape in my students' minds as they read and discuss Esperanza Rising (Munoz Ryan, 2000). They come to actively understand elements of the history and culture of second language learners, rather than simply listening to a lecture on the subject. The quality of this active learning is enhanced by the intellectual, psychological and emotional investment which the act of reading necessarily evokes. The imaginative extension required of a reader of literary fiction not only invites one into a unique narrative universe, but also creates a way of sociocultural knowing about the individuals in the narrative, their background and environment. The students in my com-

position theory class begin to value a sociopolitical perspective on learning when they have participated in a concrete demonstration of the vital role agency plays in transmitting knowledge. To make the point more obvious, it is not enough to lecture on a theory of learning in preparing future teachers. We, as literacy educators, need to show the value of agency by bringing learning to life among our own students in our combination of lecture and assigned readings of theoretical frameworks with active learning strategies, including the critical analysis of fine literature relevant to the world of second language learners.

Esperanza's story is very simple. In 1932 a young Mexican girl loses her father and the great wealth she had grown up with; she is then forced to travel to California with her mother and a family of former servants to work as agricultural laborers, harvesting crops and tending the fields and vines throughout the year. Ryan's book is a work of historical fiction, based on the life of her grandmother, and due to the author's powerful evocation of character and period, students seem fascinated to learn about that place and time in American history. Esperanza and her family lived in a permanent company-owned camp, enjoyed full-time, year-long employment in the fields and orchards of the San Joaquin Valley—harvesting a range of crops from asparagus to peaches to potatoes to grapes—and played a vital role in defining that piece of our collective past. Students gain a new awareness of life during the Great Depression, a subject familiar to most, but after reading about Esperanza they have a richer understanding, including the perspective of Mexican immigrants, of the country during those difficult years. They also understand better the heterogeneous quality of American society and the complexity of the ethnic composition of the American people since there are workers from numerous linguistic, cultural and racial groups portrayed in the story and living in the camps.

Another learning outcome to reading and discussing Esperanza's story is that they become sensitized not only to the plight of the poor, but to the divisions and oppression which plagued the poor who were also people of color, immigrants, or marginalized ethnic groups. During classroom conversations about plot developments a little known piece of American history surfaces in the story of the Deportation Act which impacts members of Esperanza's working community, although not the

protagonist herself. This legislation, in effect between 1929 and 1935, sent half a million Mexicans and Mexican Americans back to Mexico, regardless of their citizenship status. County officials in Los Angeles organized deportation trains and the Immigration Bureau made sweeps in the San Fernando Valley, arresting anyone who looked Mexican. This "voluntary repatriation" was greater than Native American removals of the nineteenth century and greater than the Japanese-American relocations during the early Forties. I have seen my students become active agents in constructing their own insights into the ways that race and class have dictated public policy in the past; I expect them to move from these insights to an awareness of education as embedded in a sociopolitical matrix of their own making today.

Another central concept which Nieto (2002) uses to outline a sociocultural theory of learning is *identity/hybridity*, which allows one to include cultural identity in the measure of a student's intelligence. She insists on a view of cultures as dynamic, multi-faceted, and constantly absorbing influences from the social and political environments in which they thrive. To define cultural hybridity, she cites Ariel Dorfman's autobiography, Heading South, Looking North: A Bilingual Journey (1998), in which he reflects on his biracial and bicultural status. "I was a hybrid, part Yankee, part Chilean, a pinch of Jew . . . I was unable to look directly in the face the divergent mystery of who I was, the abyss of being bilingual and binational, at a time when everything demanded that we be unequivocal and immaculate" (Dorfman, as cited in Nieto 2002, p.14). Thus, hybridity implies that culture is entangled with political realities, especially shaped by power and privilege, and thus "culturally responsive pedagogy" becomes a much more complicated proposition than celebrating national and religious holidays or sampling food from other lands. Such a pedagogy becomes more of a "political project," according to Nieto (2002), which questions the "structural inequality, the racism and the injustice that exist in society" (p. 14). Lecturing to college students today on structural inequalities and racism in the United States often produces blank stares, followed by eyes glazing over and general inattentiveness. They seem to be asking me, How is this relevant to my role as a literacy educator?

But the point can be made dramatically in a close reading and discussion of Esperanza Rising (Munoz Ryan, 2000), a text with a protagonist who must confront her own race- and class-based prejudices as she struggles out of childhood into a devastatingly new adult life in a strange society; California during the Great Depression. Esperanza was the light-skinned daughter of wealthy, land-owning Mexicans of European ancestry who enjoyed her privileged life with a deep sense of entitlement, scarcely noticing the indigenous Indian people of her country. It falls upon Miguel, a mestizo and former servant, to guide Esperanza and her mother to their new life in America, and to point out certain sociopolitical realities to the young girl who had previously walked through life with her eyes half shut. Pausing at a train station on their journey out of Mexico, the two young immigrants witness an old Indian woman begging from and being spurned by expensively-dressed Mexicans of obvious Spanish descent. Miguel is disgusted and quotes the Mexican proverb, "Full bellies and Spanish blood go hand in hand" (Munoz Ryan 2000, p. 79). Esperanza is bewildered by this observation, reflecting her classist ignorance of her own culture and history. Miguel is surprised at her denseness: "Have you never noticed? . . . Those with Spanish blood, who have the fairest complexions in the land, are the wealthiest" (Munoz Ryan, p. 79). Esperanza denies this truth, but reasons that even if it were true, they were going to the US and it couldn't be true there. Just something old wives say, she thinks. No, corrects Miguel, something the poor say.

When we study this text in Theories of Composition, students almost always remark upon the power of this passage. Esperanza is universally condemned as an ignorant elitist and an unconscious racist. Upon a first reading, most students, at this point in the text, confidently expect her to ascend a vigorous learning curve once she reaches democratic, egalitarian California. They are headed for disappointment. Before we get that far, however, we pause to discuss and clarify aspects of Mexico's history which many in the classroom simply do not know. In an attempt to explain why skin color varies so radically in Mexico, I point out how in the early sixteenth century technologically-advanced European powers invaded and conquered a stable and prosperous group of cultures located in what we know today as North, Central and South America. I

explain how these mostly Spanish adventurers oppressed and exterminated much of the dark-skinned indigenous population while launching an aggressive program of economic exploitation. We discuss slavery, genocide, colonialism and its legacy. Some students experience a learning curve similar to the one they predicted for Esperanza. Some soften their condemnation of Esperanza as they themselves realize their own ignorance. For most, this piece of learning about the cultural context of the story takes place in a specific context itself: in a classroom where we are trying to evolve a definition of culturally sensitive pedagogy. Insight into class-based and racial inequalities in Esperanza's world can be used as a learning tool in our own world. This kind of active learning about historical and structural injustice not only creates empathy for the suffering of the oppressed, either in the past or today, but will hopefully motivate future teachers to eliminate the inequalities from their own perspectives on and approaches to educating all students in their classrooms, but especially second language learners.

A final reason for promoting a sociocultural perspective on learning in English Education programs is to cause our neophyte teachers to respect the second language learners in their classrooms. Nieto (2002) observes that sometimes a lack of performance on the part of young learners cannot be attributed to a lack of intelligence, motivation, or ability. The cause of failure sometimes can be traced to interpersonal dynamics created and sustained by authority and the sociopolitical environment of the learning space. She notes Herbert Kohl's comment that "to agree to learn from a stranger who does not respect your integrity causes a major loss of self" (as cited in Nieto 2002, p. 20). This lack of respect may be unconscious among our English Education majors, but we need to find ways to show them how to reveal and then reject the casual racist bias which tells them they know best and are better than language minority students. This is especially difficult because— having grown up in a largely monolingual and monocultural society—they may be completely unaware of any sense of innate superiority. Serious engagement with an exceptionally evocative fictional world such as Munoz Ryan portrays opens doors into an experience quite foreign to most of us born and raised in modern America; particularly outside of California, Texas or other border states. Reading and processing this story teaches

us how industrious, brave, loyal, supportive, intelligent, ambitious and loving these characters can be—and those characters are based on historical figures and members of the author's family. In her Author's Note, in fact, she expands upon the lives of the descendents of Esperanza and Miguel, giving us details concerning degrees, professions, achievements, and other major defining events of the family. Alfonso, Isabelle, and Hortensio were people possessing qualities worthy of our respect; all characteristics of a life of integrity. This recognition of the integrity of the agricultural workers who left Mexico for better economic conditions in the US will hopefully translate into respect for the Spanish-speaking learners in today's American classrooms. The intellectual and emotional operations activated by reading Esperanza Rising (Munoz Ryan, 2000) will go much farther toward promoting that respectful attitude than reminding our students we must avoid cultural bias in our work. They already know that, but not all have self-diagnosed their own prejudices. Others unfortunately feel that some measure of cultural superiority is actually justified.

These young people enrolled in education programs today which have implemented a sociocultural perspective on learning will benefit from an exposure to the linkage of language, literacy and culture: sensitivity to their intersection is vital if one is to empower through teaching.

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REVIEWS

Teaching Adult ESL: A Practical Introduction (2004) New York: McGraw Hill by Betsy Parrish

In *Teaching Adult ESL*, Betsy Parrish offers a long-awaited practical overview of teaching and learning in adult ESL. This interactive resource will help new and experienced teachers alike create more learner-centered classrooms and better understand their students as well as the challenges and opportunities unique to adult ESL.

The first two chapters of the text introduce the reader to the adult ESL learner and theories of language acquisition, as well as the different approaches and program options that exist today in the field. Parrish then offers guidance on contextualized language lessons, practice activities, and skills development, including a section on working with literacy-level learners. Many sample lessons and activities are provided to illustrate concepts and help readers make connections to the classroom. The next chapters prepare readers for lesson planning and managing classes, addressing important issues such as multilevel classes, open enrollment and learners with particular needs.

In her chapters on selecting materials and resources, Parrish identifies key considerations in evaluating and supplementing textbooks as well as integrating community activities and technology into instruction. The chapter on assessment provides a helpful overview of various formal and informal options and how they may be used by learners, teachers, and programs to evaluate outcomes. As nationwide focus on standards and accountability grows, her discussion of these issues in the final chapters is very timely.

Parrish engages her readers and invites them to reflect upon and analyze their own teaching and the examples given in the text. Each chapter begins with a task to get the reader thinking about the issues to come. At the end of each chapter, readers are asked to apply what they've learned through a series of activities. Options are given for those who are already teaching and those who are not teaching. These may be used as assignments for teacher training programs or as professional development activities for in-service teachers.

Teaching Adult ESL appeals to various audiences. New teachers will benefit from the excellent overview of adult ESL and Parrish's accessible and friendly writing style. She does not assume knowledge of terms or concepts, and she provides many examples of how theory actually plays out in the classroom. Experienced teachers who want to use the text as a reference will appreciate its clear organization and practical teaching ideas for creating learner-centered and contextualized lessons that can be used the next day. Lists of print-based and Web-based resources at the end of each chapter allow all readers to explore areas of interest in greater depth.

This is the book I searched for as a graduate student! The learners, classrooms and scenarios typically described in ESL teacher training texts often do not reflect the realities of the adult ESL context, and therefore, new adult ESL teachers are often faced with situations for which they have not been prepared. No one told us that we'd have learners who couldn't read their own languages, or that there would be such a wide variety of levels in our classrooms! As I think back on my own training, I wonder how my experience might have been different if I had been given the opportunity to meet some of my future students and challenges through this text, or benefit from the practical teaching suggestions offered. Through real-life examples, Parrish always keeps the learners at the forefront, painting a clear picture of the adult ESL classroom and the many forms it may take. *Teaching Adult ESL* is a wonderful starting point for those who want to examine their own teaching practices and most importantly, the learning taking place in their classrooms.

REVIEWER

Astrid Liden has an M.A. in Applied Linguistics from Concordia University in Montreal, Quebec and has taught ESL in a variety of settings. She currently manages adult basic education programs for the Minnesota Literacy Council.

Weaving It Together: Connecting Reading and Writing: Books 1-4. (2nd ed.) (2004) Boston: Heinle by M. Broukal

The visually pleasing cover of the *Weaving It Together* series, depicting threads on a loom and woven cloth in brilliant colors, is a well-chosen metaphor for the material inside. Interesting, colorful, and truly connecting writing and reading skills, this topic-based series would suit high-beginning or intermediate level ESL learners in college and university settings.

Weaving It Together achieves its stated objectives: to integrate reading and writing skills, to provide academic ESL students with engaging multicultural content, and to promote individualized and cooperative classroom learning. While a number of readings address people and events within the United States, the subjects do encompass people or events throughout the world; a few include the Persian New Year, the Mexican artist Frida Kahlo, and laughter clubs in India.

While the readings of the first three books were written for *Weaving It Together*, the high intermediate level book contains a number of reprinted authentic materials, some of which were first printed in periodicals like *Escape Magazine, Catalyst: GCSE Science Review,* and *New Scientist*. Others are excerpts from books such as *Digital Photo Illustration* by Jeremy Gardiner, *Personality* by Jerry Burger, and *Under Western Eyes* edited by Garrett Hongo. The series offers an additional type of authentic material: model essays written by international students. Although the pre- and post-reading exercises in the textbook may be influenced by a Western culture of learning, they would probably appeal to both ESL and EFL audiences since they represent a variety of experiences throughout the world.

The layout of the book seems very effective in integrating writing and reading skills as the book claims to do. Broukal organizes content by topic areas and presents activities in a fairly set order throughout the series. Topics addressed in the series include customs, inventions, readings from literature, food, symbols, language, the environment, artists, and nutrition. A variety of activities accompany texts within each topic. Most of the textbook exercises are in the form of discussion questions,

matching activities, multiple choice questions, essays, true-false questions, charts, cloze questions, outlines, research, and writing assignments. Pre-reading questions and a pre-reading activity are followed by the reading. After the reading there are vocabulary exercises, comprehension exercises, and also discussion questions. Next follow the writing activities, which vary according to the level of the text. In the writing activities section of the first two books, Broukal presents information on writing skills and provides opportunities for writing practice. In the third book a model essay and instruction on organizing replace the writing skills section. Finally, the fourth book in the series adds exercises on writing a summary, paraphrasing, and research. In addition to the textbook materials, the series offers optional CNN videos and internet activities that complement the reading, as well as CDs on which the readings are read aloud.

Overall, this writer is impressed with the lively, informative nature of the series, finds it effective in integrating reading and writing instruction, and recommends it for use in academic ESL courses. The main weakness of the text may lie in its occasional use of obscure vocabulary. However, the strengths of the text, the multicultural materials and the use of authentic texts in the fourth book of the series, far outweigh any weaknesses.

REVIEWER

Becky Uran Markman is getting her M.A. in the Teaching English as a Second Language Program at the University of Minnesota. She has tutored ESL in adult basic education through Person to Person and is currently teaching ESL at the Minnesota English Center.

Are ESL professionals on the way out? A review of an article by Platt, Harper and Mendoza

Midwest ESL professionals may have overlooked a 2003 article in TESOL Quarterly, thinking that its focus on Florida's ESL program was irrelevant to them. They'd be wrong. Although it focuses on ESL education in Florida, the article, *Dueling Philosophies: Inclusion or Separation for Florida's English Language Learners?* by Platt, Harper and Mendoza, summarizes the pressures ESL education is facing nationally. The authors first present a summary of ESL evolution over the past two decades, citing that while the national trend towards inclusion may have its historical roots in the Civil Rights movement, its current philosophical orientation is in the conservative camp (Donohue, 1995; Tollefson, 1995), and that in the attempt to provide the appearance of equity, the actual educational needs of the English Language Learner (ELL) are not necessarily well served (Olsen, 1997). Then, using a survey of Florida district-level ESL administrator concerns about ESL education as a backdrop, they explore the issue of *inclusion* vs. *separation* and discuss the future of ESL education.

Inclusion is defined as "the practice of serving students with special needs entirely within the mainstream classroom" according to Turnbull, R., Turnbull, H.R., Shank, M. & Leal, D. (as cited in Platt & Mendoza, 2003, p. 107). In contrast to inclusion are two *separation* forms of education targeting the ELL: 1) *bilingual education,* where ELLs are taught in their L1 for some or all of their subjects for a period of time, while simultaneously learning English, and 2) *ESL education*, where ELLs are pulled out of regular classrooms for some periods of the school day for specialized language or content instruction.

What is interesting about the survey results and the ensuing discussion by Platt et al. is that disagreement appears to be focused more around whether or not inclusion benefits ELL students, rather than inclusion vs. separation per se. While inclusion is seen as beneficial to ELL students, particularly more proficient students (more challenge, interaction with native-speakers of English), and native-speakers students (diversity, exposure to other languages), considerable concern over the apparent lack of ELL success in inclusion environ-

ments is noted. This is attributed to several factors, but focuses largely on the problem of adequate teacher training in dealing with ELLs and low literacy students, lack of teacher time to address these added needs, and the difficulty secondary classroom teachers face in modifying curricula to accommodate the needs of the ELL. Even when ESL professionals are available, their efforts might no longer involve direct student education, but rather, support for the mainstream teacher, or even compliance-related bookkeeping, resulting in an even further distancing of support for the ELL student.

In addition, the recent focus on assessment and performance, even where applauded by the survey participants, is seen to put a strain on the school's ability to meet ELL needs because of the need to prepare them for the tests, rather than working on language support itself. Much is at stake here for schools, for a school's overall performance can be brought down by poor ELL student scores, which in turn can affect funding available to address the needs of that population and the school as a whole. That the push for inclusion has coincided with drastically reduced funding for education programs and increased focus on standardized testing is also cited as a major concern. With fewer resources available, administrators are forced to make decisions for the good of the broadest cross-section of students. This again adversely affects resources supporting ELL education, thus increasing the likelihood of poorer education, which will affect the ELL student, the school and its funding, and the community. Overall, while in principle there were definitely arguments in favor of inclusion, arguments of reservation outnumber those advocating inclusion and were also more substantive in nature. Nonetheless, this does not appear to diminish the resolve to forge ahead with inclusion.

Platt et al. conclude by pointing out that this debate has policy-making consequences for the ESL profession. Already, colleges and universities are preparing new teachers to assume roles that were once the domain of the ESL professional. They urge that it is imperative that we, as ESL professionals, think clearly and critically about our role meeting the needs of ELLS in our schools and take steps to defend that role.

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REVIEWER

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The *MinneTESOL/*
WITESOL Journal
P.O. Box 141072
Minneapolis, MN 55414

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