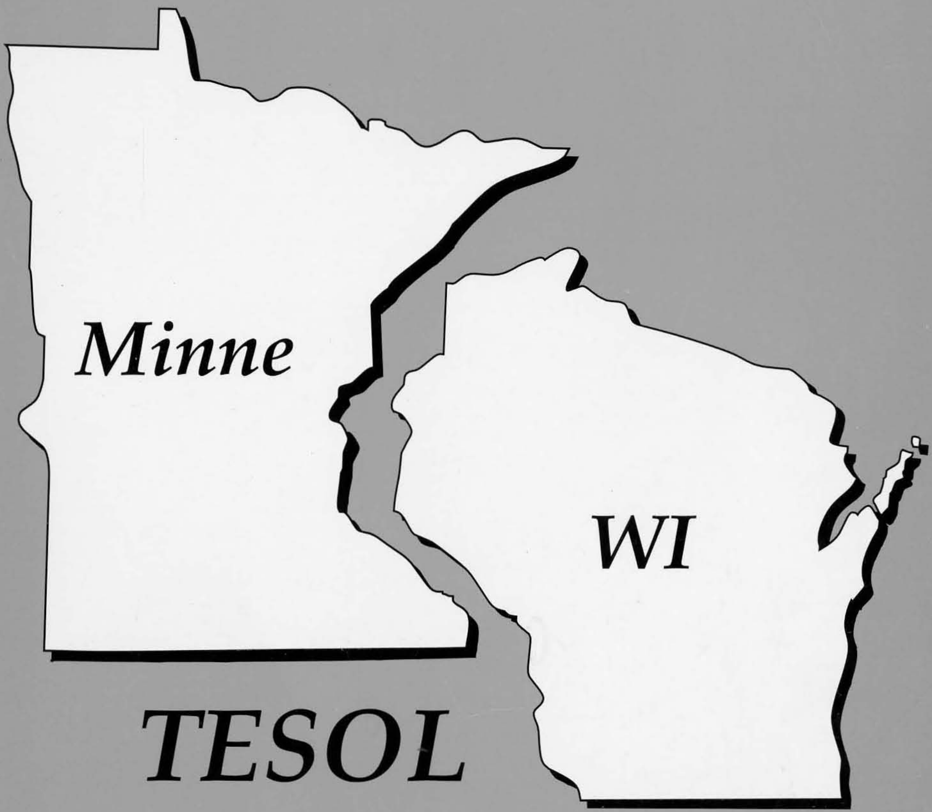
Minnesota and Wisconsin
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages



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

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MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal, Volume 21

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* is seeking contributions for volume 21 (Spring 2004). Contributions of the following type will be considered:

- Manuscripts about
  - —instructional methods, techniques, and materials
  - —research with implications for ESL
  - —issues in ESL curriculum and program design
  - —testing, assessment, and evaluation in ESL
  - —professional preparation
  - —sociopolitical issues in ESL
  - —learner perspectives about language learning
- Book reviews
- Samples of ESL students' work (poetry, essays, artwork)
- Work in progress*
- Responses to Volume 20 of the *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* for "The Forum" section**

* "Work in Progress" is a section of the Journal for short reports or updates on work that you are doing in any area of interest to our readership.

** "The Forum" section includes responses or rebuttals to any articles or remarks published in the previous year's volume.

Manuscripts should follow the same style guidelines as *TESOL Quarterly* (the style of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association).

Each manuscript must be accompanied by a short bio statement (50 words) and an abstract of not more than 200 words. Postal submissions should include 5 print copies of all materials. Submissions by email are preferred. If accepted, a final electronic version must be submitted. Submissions can be sent to:

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DEADLINE FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS FOR THIS VOLUME: NOVEMBER 30, 2003

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ARTICLES

REVIEWS

INTRODUCTION

This volume marks eight years of collaboration between Minnesota and Wisconsin on the MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal. We are pleased to continue this affiliate collaboration. The articles in this volume collectively examine the multiple roles ESL teachers play in the classroom, in schools, and in the workplace.

Noriko Ishihara focuses on the curriculum of practicum courses for second language teachers in the first article. She examines ten syllabi used in current practicum courses in the U.S. and synthesizes major components which promote effective instructional strategies in the practicum.

The development of ESL standards is another aspect of the concern for promoting effective instructional strategies. In our second article, Karla Stone examines the history of the ESL standards for Pre-K-12 students in light of the standards movement in the United States. State-by-state development of ESL standards and implications for Minnesota are discussed.

Oleg Tarnopolsky highlights ways in which Business English is taught through a content-based approach in our third article. The learning of English is paramount for people in the Ukraine who engage in international business, yet Tarnopolsky also demonstrates their need to understand the cultural context of Western business practices.

Our fourth article, by Susan Bosher, continues a focus on cultural knowledge by addressing the needs of immigrant/refugee students at the college level. It outlines an interdisciplinary approach that brings together ESL professionals, faculty from across the disciplines, and student service staff, to discuss strategies for promoting success among college ESL students.

Finally, two book reviews complete this volume. Sara Austin provides a review of *Dual Language Instruction* by Cloud, Genessee and Hamayan. Amy Hubers provides a review of Moua, Mai Neng's *Paj Ntaub Voice: A Journal Giving Expression to Hmoob Voices.*

We wish to thank the members of the Editorial Advisory Board in both Minnesota and Wisconsin for all the effort that went into producing this volume.

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Curriculum Components of the Practicum in ESL

Noriko Ishihara

Although the practicum seems to assume a central role in graduate teacher preparation programs, it is normally taught independently in individual institutions, and teaching practices and the curriculum have rarely been shared among teacher educators as collective knowledge. This paper examines the main components of the practicum curriculum in ESL teacher education through analysis of ten syllabi currently used in M.A. programs in the U.S. and probes the range of effective instructional strategies in these courses. Unique requirements and innovative approaches used by the practicum supervisors are highlighted. The paper also raises some issues regarding the assumptions embedded in such practicum courses and proposes areas for further investigation.

Introduction

Teacher educators in second language teaching often wish that they knew the answer to the question, "How does a teacher learn to teach a second language?" While there is no single answer to this query, it is generally believed that a teacher can only learn to teach from hands-on experience. In a number of graduate programs in second language teaching in the United States, the practicum (otherwise called *internship*, *field component*, and *student teaching*) seems to assume a central role in preparing pre-service teachers for actual classroom teaching (Stoynoff, 1999). In spite of this significant role that the practicum assumes, it is normally taught independently in individual institutions and teaching practices and the curricula have rarely been shared among teacher educators as collective knowledge.

This study focuses on the curriculum of such graduate practicum courses by reviewing relevant literature and examining the components of the courses. Ten syllabi or equivalent information used in actual practicum courses at eight U.S. universities were collected through personal or e-mail communication and a web search. The settings in which teacher learners are being prepared to teach varied from K-12, intensive English programs, community college, to adult ESL.

Several main components of the practicum curriculum will be examined across the collected syllabi in order to probe the range of effective instructional strategies in the practicum. I will attempt to identify a variety of requirements and approaches that the practicum supervisors currently utilize in preparing and evaluating teacher learners. Finally, I will raise some issues regarding the assumptions embedded in such practicum courses and propose areas for further investigation.

Not only does the practicum offer teacher learners an opportunity to teach but it also brings particular social and cultural contexts into the teaching. Johnson (1996b) and Freeman and Johnson (1998) argue for the importance of such real contexts in which teacher learners create their own interpretation of the teaching. She states that conceptual knowledge (theory) should be considered only one aspect of teachers' knowledge base and stresses that conceptual knowledge can be truly meaningful to teachers only when it is situated in their own classroom practice through the process of "sense-making." Teachers' knowledge is owned and constructed by teachers themselves and "learning to teach is a complex developmental process that is acquired by participating in the social practices associated with teaching and learning" (Johnson, 1996b, p. 767). Such a view empowers teachers who understand their teaching and thus own specific knowledge of the teaching contexts. It also places a particular importance on the practicum in teacher education programs, as it is perhaps the sole course that assures extensive sense-making opportunities in actual teaching contexts.

Components of the Practicum

If a goal of the practicum is to promote the "sense-making" process connecting theory and practice in a setting in which teacher learners are situated, how can the sense-making process be effectively promoted in teacher education programs, particularly in the practicum course? What is the range of requirements and approaches that have been used in the current practicum curricula in the United States? Many practicum programs seem to not only provide teacher learners with teaching experience with cooperating teachers but also offer reflective opportunities with the cooperating teachers and the supervisor of the practicum course. Such opportunities include:

1. Regular class teaching supervised by the cooperating teacher
2. Classroom teaching observed by the supervisor with a conference before and after each observation
3. Seminar meetings
4. Reflective papers
5. Assigned readings
6. Course website for discussion

7. Videotapes (audio recordings)
8. Micro-teaching and peer observation
9. Review of lesson plans

(Richards & Crookes, 1988; Stoynoff, 1999; Taylor, Shaw, Porter, Oprandy & Brinton, 2002)

Analysis of practicum syllabi collected from eight universities in the United States shows that some more items could be added to this list:

10. Observations of experienced teachers/peer teacher learners
11. (Interactive) journal writing
12. Teaching log
13. Action research
14. Portfolio

It should be noted that the above list is by no means exhaustive and that the categories are not always mutually exclusive. Rather, it attempts to show a wide range of possible components in the curriculum of the practicum from which teacher educators can select in creating or adapting their curricula for the practicum. The following sections of the paper focus on six major components of these curricula (see Appendix for the summary) and discuss various issues and ideas in literature and currently offered practicum courses.

1. Observation of experienced or peer teacher learners

Observation utilized for developmental purposes can be a powerful learning tool for teacher learners. Observation can serve as a way of gathering information on certain aspects of teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Structured classroom observation involves not only visiting the classroom but also reviewing the observed class period (Wajnryb, 1992). The planning process requires determining the purpose/focus of the observation and the method of data collection, while the reviewing stage may include reflecting on the observed class and analyzing and interpreting the data. While observation allows the identification of teaching techniques/practices that can be applied to other classrooms, discussion of those observations can also lead teacher learners to awareness of the teacher's beliefs and decision making processes based on such principles. Such experience can eventually lead to development of teaching principles and informed decision-making practices ("reasoning teaching," Johnson, 1999).

Methods of observation can be either qualitative or quantitative. While a qualitative approach can obtain a broad picture of the class, a quantitative approach often examines particular aspects of teaching (Day, 1990). Written ethnography and audio/video recordings provide qualitative data that can sensitize teacher learners to the complexity of teaching. A quantitative approach typically utilizes recordings of predetermined aspects of teaching (e.g., interactional patterns and class management). Although quantitative data may be generated and analyzed with relative ease allowing comparison across classrooms, the essence of events may not be recorded thoroughly and crucial issues might be missed and remain unexamined.

Although it is sometimes believed that teachers can learn intuitively through observing others teach, observation itself should be considered as a skill that can be acquired and improved through training or practice (Schlessman, 1997). While Richards and Lockhart (1996) provide various primarily qualitative observation tasks and a list of reflective questions (p. 16), Wajnryb (1992) provides a number of mostly quantitative techniques for classroom observation. In addition, Richard and Lockhart (1996) supply guidelines for classroom observation assuming that observation can be enhanced by explicitly informing teacher learners of its benefits and drawbacks.

Comparison of current practicum syllabi shows that most courses assign observation as a requirement (see Table 1 below). Typically two to four class observations in and outside the regular teaching contexts are assigned. Occasionally these are followed by reflective write-ups. One course requires two peer observations followed by discussions with the teacher observed (Syllabus D). Some syllabi indicate that there are written guidelines for conducting observations. One such sample (Syllabus A) consists of two pages containing etiquette and procedures of class observations as well as the rationale for the assignment.

TABLE 1
Observation of Other Teachers

Syllabus A	3 classes followed by written observation report
Syllabus B	4 classes followed by written observation report
Syllabus C	?
Syllabus D	2 or more peer observations and discussion
Syllabus E	Peer observation
Syllabus F	?
Syllabus G	Checklists provided for observation, no formal assignment?
Syllabus H	Some classroom observations, coding (mini research projects)
Syllabus I	4 observations of different contexts (e.g., IEP, local public schools)
Syllabus J	5 or more in-class observations before starting to teach

? = not mentioned in the syllabus

In addition to formal observations, another course provides weekly observation tasks that make teacher learners aware of certain issues of teaching and let them informally collect data regarding the issues while they teach and observe (Syllabus B). The tasks are from Richards and Lockhart (1996) or Wajnryb (1992) and related to the weekly readings. The information obtained through observation is also used as the basis for discussions in seminar meetings and weekly journal writings. An example of weekly observation tasks is:

> 1. Observe two teachers' classes and note examples of how they accomplish these aspects of the lesson:
>   a. Giving directions
>   b. Promoting student involvement in the lesson
>   c. Monitoring student performance
>   d. Providing feedback
>
> Do the teachers adopt similar or different ways of dealing with these dimensions of teaching? If there are differences, do these differences reflect different views of teacher roles? (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 110)

Considering the often-heard comment among teacher educators that teacher learners do not tend to ask their cooperating teachers questions as to their rationale for decision-making, such observation tasks may facilitate open communication and make teacher learners more aware of the underlying teaching principles of the cooperating teachers.

2. Journal writing/Reflective writing

Journal writing with fixed or open topics appears to be one of the most frequently adopted tools for reflection. Dialogue journals can be submitted in paper or electronic form for feedback from the supervisor and possibly peer teacher learners. Considering the question as to whether journaling is an effective tool of reflection or simply a required "chore," Brinton (2002a, 2002b) suggests giving teacher learners as much freedom as possible regarding its format; it can be in prose or in bulleted form, or possibly even on audiotape rather than on paper.

Integrating a computer-mediated communication tool, Kamhi-Stein (2000) distinguishes between private e-mail dialogue journal with the supervisor and open electronic bulletin board discussions with peer teacher learners. The e-mail dialogue journal centers on concerns specific to individual teacher learners (e.g., self-evaluation of teaching, and interaction with cooperating teachers). Due to its confidential nature, it allows the supervisor to provide personalized feedback, as well as emotional support. In contrast, electronic bulletin board discussions promote open exchange of ideas with peers and/or even cooperating teachers.

While collaboratively coming up with effective solutions to real-life classroom issues, teacher learners gradually develop a more realistic view of the classroom. Kamhi-Stein concludes that such use of computer-mediated communication tools prevents a feeling of isolation and anxiety among teacher learners who are placed in various settings and enables them to share the construction of knowledge while increasing their technological competence.

Although it is not always transparent from the collected syllabi, reflective writing is utilized in a variety of ways in the practicum courses investigated (see Table 2 below). In Syllabi A and B, journal topics were structured around a textbook and predetermined. Other courses require reflective writing on fixed or open topics on a less frequent basis in the form of a log (Syllabus C) or dialog journal (Syllabus I; Holten & Brinton, 1995). Still others utilize a course website for journal postings (Syllabi A and D) and responses to peer postings taking an issue-oriented approach (Syllabus D).

TABLE 2
Journal/Reflective Writing

Syllabus A	7 journals with set topics, web postings of some of them
Syllabus B	10 journals with set topics
Syllabus C	3 reflective writings ("logs")
Syllabus D	7 journal web postings and 6 responses, mostly open topics
Syllabus E	?
Syllabus F	?
Syllabus G	Weekly bulletin board postings (1 questions and 7 responses), 4 e-mail dialogue journals with the supervisor
Syllabus H	Weekly personal diary of impressions and experiences
Syllabus I	Dialogue journal (details in the guideline)
Syllabus J	Weekly journals

? = not mentioned in the syllabus

Although most journal assignments are shared and are interactive by nature, one exceptional assignment is the personal diary (Syllabus H) in which the supervisor wants teacher learners to write for themselves and not for the assignment's sake.

3. Classroom Teaching and Teacher Learner Supervision

An actual in-class teaching component is certainly the core of the curriculum of the practicum, yet assigned teaching hours vary depending on the course (see Table 3 below). Although some of the syllabi consulted do not discuss the exact hours of teaching, the range seems quite wide: one course has 30 hours over a quarter while another requires 105-140 hours for a semester. It is not known how these teaching hours were determined and whether teacher learners feel ready and qualified to teach after completing the practicum.

TABLE 3
Practicum Teaching Settings and Hours

Syllabus A	Intensive English Program (IEP)/105-140 hours (5-10h/wx 14w)
Syllabus B	IEP and adjunct/105-140 hours (5-10h/wx14w)
Syllabus C	Community college and adult education/for a semester
Syllabus D	Community college, adult education, IEP etc./40 hours (5h/ x8w)
Syllabus E	Various/?
Syllabus F	?/?
Syllabus G	?/30 hours or more over a quarter
Syllabus H	Local high/elementary schools/40 hours or more during the semester
Syllabus I	?/?
Syllabus J	?/20-30 hours (with a project if fewer than 50 hours)

? = not mentioned in the syllabus

Working with cooperating teachers and the supervisor, teacher learners must learn to teach in an unequal relationship, and this asymmetry potentially creates tension for teacher learners. Being aware of such an institutional setting, Freeman (1990), Gebhard (1990a), and Taylor et al. (2002), among others, provide various methods of supervision that range in approach from directive to non-directive.

Although teachers may have a negative attitude toward their supervisor's classroom observation due to its evaluative nature, most of the current resources seem to focus on the non-judgmental use of observation as a learning tool. As a way of making classroom observation less threatening, Tsui (1993b) suggests team observation between peer teachers for an extended period of time. In a post-observation conference, teachers reach an agreement on specific actions to improve future teaching. They monitor each other's progress in the subsequent observation and determine a further course of action. Such a continuous mutual development process would promote open communication and the less threatening peer observation facilitates constructive feedback in an equal power relationship while allowing them to share evidence of professional growth over time.

The paradox of the practicum lies where the purpose of practice teaching is developmental and not evaluative, but regardless of the grading system, the supervisor and cooperating teachers must in fact evaluate teacher learners' teaching skills along with their performance for the other requirements. Whereas a number of checklists and evaluating criteria have been published (e.g., Brown, 1992; Fantini, 1993; Wajnryb, 1992), none of the practicum syllabi consulted in this study spell out the supervisors' evaluating schemes. They may take a holistic approach or use a checklist or a rubric that may or may not be shared with the teacher learners. Much as a language teacher shares a grading rubric with learners and make important points explicit, demystifying the evaluation criteria might assist teacher learners in becoming aware of key features to be mastered in teaching.

The supervisor typically visits or has classes videotaped to promote self-reflection on the part of teacher learners. In the course syllabi investigated, classroom observations are usually accompanied by private pre- and post-observational conferences between the supervisor and teacher learners (see Table 4 below). It appears to be a common practice for the supervisor to assign readings on lesson plan construction or offer written guidelines (see Table 5 below). The lesson plan is discussed in the pre-observational conference or peer-reviewed in a seminar meeting. The aim of the post-observation conference is to identify areas for improvement and develop concrete actions for them (Pennington, 1990). Occasionally, post-conference reflection is submitted (Syllabi A and B; Shaw, 2002) and/or the supervisor offers written feedback (Syllabus I).

TABLE 4
Observation of Teacher Learners by the Supervisor

Syllabus A	2 videotapings (50min.x2), pre-/post-obs.conferences, videotapes also reviewed by peer, reflective write-ups
Syllabus B	1 videotaping +1 class visit/video-taping (50 min.x2), pre-/post-obs. conferences, reflective write-ups
Syllabus C	2 class visits (?) (40 min.+ x2), pre-/post-obs.conferences
Syllabus D	3 class visits by supervisor/TA (one videotaped), pre-/post-obs.conferences
Syllabus E	2 videotapings (50 min.x2), pre-/post-obs.conferences, review by peers

TABLE 4 (continued)

Syllabus F	1 videotaping reviewed by cooperating teacher or peer, conferences?
Syllabus G	3-4 mini lessons, pre-/post-obs.conferences, 1 videotaping with oral report
Syllabus H	None
Syllabus I	3 obs. and/or videotapings, pre-/post-obs.conferences
Syllabus J	3-5 obs. by supervisor, 3-5 by cooperating teachers, reflective write-ups

TABLE 5
Lesson Plans

Syllabus A	Used in conferences/class for peer review, checklist but no particular format
Syllabus B	Used in conference, no particular format
Syllabus C	?
Syllabus D	Used, no particular format?
Syllabus E	Used, no particular format but read Brown (1994)
Syllabus F	?
Syllabus G	Used for peer review of videotaped lessons
Syllabus H	Used, following B. Mohan's format
Syllabus I	Used in conferences
Syllabus J	Used for observed lessons/submitted for every lesson, no particular format?

4. Topics/Activities for Seminar Meetings

Porter (2002) raises a question as to whether supervisors should hold seminar meetings with the teacher learners, and if so, how often and how the meeting time should be used. Among her audience of approximately 30 teacher educators at the TESOL convention in 2002, almost all indicated that they, as supervisors, held seminar meetings at varying intervals. The norm seemed to be every week (approximately one-third), or every other week (roughly one-third). The others either met more frequently (even every day after teaching) or only a few times over the quarter/semester. Approximately one-third indicated that they had a fixed syllabus with topics or activities planned for each meeting, while about one-fourth had an open syllabus without predetermined agenda (See Table 6).

TABLE 6
Seminar Meetings

Syllabus A	12x2.5-hour meetings with set topics
Syllabus B	13x3hour meetings with set topics
Syllabus C	?
Syllabus D	3-hour meetings for every week with set topics
Syllabus E	1 meeting every other week for a total of 8
Syllabus F	1 meeting every week for a semester
Syllabus G	5x2-hour meetings with set topics
Syllabus H	1 meeting every week (for a semester?)
Syllabus I	1 meeting every week (for a semester?)
Syllabus J	1 meeting every week in total of 20 hours

With regard to the activities in seminar meetings, Syllabus D takes an issue-oriented approach debriefing teacher learners about classroom events and discussing issues raised by the teacher learners themselves. The supervisor also invites expert teachers and administrators who share with teacher learners their experiences and even the recruiting process for future reference. It was also pointed out in the colloquium discussion that it is only when teacher learners trust each other and the supervisor that seminar meetings could successfully bear fruit. Similarly, Oprandy (in Taylor et al., 2002) assigns journal writings, identifies issues from the journals that are pertinent to the entire group, and focuses discussion on those topics. He also utilizes small segments of transcribed audiotapes or videotapes as a springboard for discussion.

Shaw (2002) points out that many aspects of the teaching behavior in the audiolingual method (or its British version, the Structural-Situational Method) can still be important skills in current language teaching and argues that some physical techniques can still have a place in today's practicum. The examples include:

1. Nominating students to take turns in a whole class discussion
2. Physical arrangement of the classroom, especially the teacher's work station(s)
3. The teacher's overall mobility
4. The teacher's eye contact behavior
5. Teacher's non-verbal behavior to deal with classroom behavior and misbehavior

In Syllabus H, a course with predominantly non-native speaking teacher learners (eight out of nine), the supervisor appears to incorporate such teacher learners' needs and concerns into her selection of discussion topics in the seminar meetings. For example, the supervisor invites some international teaching assistants teaching ESL on campus and the class discusses advantages of being non-native speaking teachers.

Ellis (1990) characterizes teacher preparation practices as consisting of two aspects: experiential and awareness raising. As part of the awareness raising practices, which perhaps roughly correspond to the purpose of most seminar meetings, teacher preparation activities can be implemented through providing data using various resources such as:

1. Video and audio recordings of actual lessons
2. Transcripts of lessons
3. Textbook materials
4. Case studies
5. Sample of students' written work (pp. 28-30)

These data could be analyzed in practicum seminar meetings. In conjunction with such data, a variety of tasks can be given to teacher learners to deepen their understanding of classroom practices: comparing (e.g., lesson plans), preparing (e.g., a grading scheme), evaluating, adapting, ranking, and the like (e.g., steps of instruction) (Ellis, 1990, p. 30).

5. Action Research

One practicum course directs teacher learners' attention to classroom research by asking them to produce possible research questions for action research, which may be pursued further later in master's thesis form (Syllabus A). Another requires teacher learners to collect data in their very own classroom (Syllabus E) as follows:

1. Select an appropriate/doable research topic (i.e., a problem) well in advance,
2. Conduct an in-depth search of the literature related to that topic,
3. Propose several possible solutions,
4. Select a solution, solutions, or combination of solutions, try it, and
5. Discuss and evaluate the effectiveness of the solution.

Tsui (1993a) also proposes procedural guidelines for action research. Teachers are to audio/video-tape a lesson to identify an area to be improved. Partial transcription would help teachers focus on the issue being raised. The teachers devise strategies for improvement, write proposals for action research, and possibly keep a journal to facilitate reflection. At the end of the trial period, another lesson should be recorded and partially transcribed. Tsui argues that action research, with attainable goals and observable changes, can assist teachers in reflecting on their teaching and devising alternatives to improve their practices.

6. Portfolio

A portfolio or some kind of reflective writing is often an important final requirement in the practicum, giving teacher learners opportunities to synthesize their ideas and teaching experiences. It should not be just a collection of materials used and produced for language teaching and reflection, but components of the portfolio should be "created, collected, and organized in such a way as to demonstrate certain competencies" (Johnson, 1996a, p. 11). Kamhi-Stein (2000) requires the portfolio to include selected materials such as:

1. A copy of the videotaped mini-lesson accompanied by a reflective report
2. A lesson plan accompanied by critical analysis and evaluation of the lesson
3. The cooperating teacher's observation report and the teacher learners' response
4. A report on the strengths and weaknesses of the electronic bulletin board
5. A report on the overall practicum experience (pp. 123-4)

Dong (2000) emphasizes development of cultural sensitivity in the practicum where the portfolio is designed to demonstrate understanding of teaching diverse students. The key components of the reflective teaching portfolio emphasize teacher learners' reflection on their contextualized knowledge of the class and demonstration of their professional growth. Table 7 below shows portfolio or related requirements among the ten syllabi investigated.

TABLE 7
Portfolio/Reflective Writing

Syllabus A	Portfolio (reflective statement, all materials produced during the practicum)
Syllabus B	Reflective statement
Syllabus C	Final report
Syllabus D	Critical incident analysis
Syllabus E	?

TABLE 7 (continued)

Syllabus F	Portfolio (selected writings, reflection, teaching philosophy, resume)
Syllabus G	Portfolio (documents above, introduction, resume, and teaching philosophy)
Syllabus H	Summary evaluation on their classroom teaching
Syllabus I	?
Syllabus J	Portfolio (lesson plans, students' feedback, journals, materials produced)

In some graduate programs, teacher learners are required or have an option to develop a portfolio as representative of their learning during the program (e.g., Syllabi A, B, and H; Goldstein, 2002). Goldstein (2002) states that the portfolio represents both the products and process of the author's work and learning through extensive revision of the selected materials. In her program, "Portfolio Preparation" is in fact a required course in which teacher learners integrate theory, research, and practice. Such an integrative and comprehensive portfolio allows teacher learners to review and reflect on their learning throughout the program to reach their own understanding of second language teaching and learning, the most powerful teacher knowledge that individual teacher learners truly value in their career. For this reason, the development of a portfolio seems to be one of the most desirable steps in teacher preparation.

Thus far, the comparison of the current practicum syllabi has provided evidence of the wide range of requirements and instructional strategies utilized in the courses among various U.S. graduate programs. It is hoped that these ideas will be shared as collective knowledge among teacher educators in order to better serve future teacher learners. The next section explores what seem to be common assumptions underlying these courses, questions such assumptions, and attempts to identify some areas for further research.

Assumptions in the Practicum

Second language teacher education programs, the practicum in particular, seem to make certain assumptions regarding how teacher learners acquire knowledge of theories, students, and teaching, and how they are able to apply that knowledge to practice. What we consider a successful practicum experience makes teacher learners aware of alternative options in the classroom and teaching principles. However, this assumes that teacher learners are able to create a connection between such knowledge and practice, and integrate the newly acquired knowledge into their actual classroom context (Ellis, 1990). Teacher learners are also assessed through observable teaching behaviors or knowledge about teaching often through conventional tests rather than how they use the knowledge while teaching (Johnson, 1996a). This fact also points to the same assumption that knowledge of teaching transfers into practice; however, as Johnson (1999) states, many teacher educators know from experience that this is not necessarily true. One possible solution to this problem is the use of the portfolio (see above) that integrates teacher learners' understanding of theory and practice throughout the graduate program.

On the other hand, Gebhard's ethnographic study (1990b) provides interesting answers regarding this assumption that should be taken into consideration in developing a curriculum for the practicum. In his participant observation, he asks what opportunities are made available to teacher learners that can possibly account for changes in teaching behavior during the practicum. Through observing and analyzing various interactions, teaching, and other data sources, instances of their behavioral changes were manifested in four areas (i.e., student-teacher pattern of interaction, use of classroom space, expansion of the content, and error correction). These changes in teaching behavior seemed to have occurred when:

1. teacher learners can process aspects of their teaching through multiple activities;
2. interaction affords teacher learners chances to talk about their teaching
3. teacher learners are given a chance to teach in a new setting (pp. 124-9).

These findings have important implications for organizing components of the practicum and the other teacher education courses. Although it might be impossible for the supervisor to incorporate all of these components into the curriculum due to logistical problems, incorporation of these opportunities might greatly enhance teacher learner's "sense-making" process; thus making the practicum experience more meaningful. More research in this area should be done to reveal what other opportunities could lead to teacher learners' behavior change.

Another assumption that might underlie many of the current practicum courses is that they simulate actual classroom teaching well enough to be applicable in a real classroom. However, to what extent does practice teaching in the practicum approximate actual classroom teaching in real life? Since teacher learners are not ultimately responsible for the cooperating teacher's class, it is a sheltered environment that differs vastly from the real teaching context that teacher learners face after the practicum.

Brzosko-Barratt and Johnson (2002), using microanalysis of transcribed teaching data, document "institutional talk" in an asymmetrical relationship between the cooperating teacher and the teacher learner. Although the cooperating teacher utilizes institutional talk in a way that minimizes the unequal power relationship in successful mentoring, the nature of the classroom interactions is far from that in the real classroom in which the teacher learner would normally be the only teacher and authority. A teacher learner in Johnson (1996c) echoes this when she writes that her cooperating teacher decided what needed to be done and there did not seem to be much room for change. She feels that she needed to fit into what her cooperating teacher wanted her to do; therefore that was "not *real* teaching (italics Johnson's)" (p. 40).

Furthermore, it is often the case that teacher learners end up teaching in a totally different context from where they practiced teaching. It is also common for teacher learners to be prepared in a particular skill class yet get assigned to another skill course for which they may be unprepared. Further research might reveal the extent to which the practicum teaching prepares teacher learners to teach in authentic teaching situations that may differ from the familiar context in which they received training. In cases where continuous support beyond the practicum is essential for some novice teachers (Flowerdew, 1999), it would be crucial to identify what scaffolding they might need after the practicum.

Conclusion

Just as organization of second language curriculum is based on the course developer's beliefs in language learning and teaching (Graves, 2000), development of second language teacher education curriculum should also be based on the building blocks of the teacher educator's teaching principles and views of second language teaching and learning. Analysis of the ten current syllabi in this study reveals a variety of instructional strategies and ideas in the form of course requirements in the practicum courses that may hopefully be shared among teacher educators. While such collective knowledge shows the wide range of effective instructional strategies and components of the curriculum, the teaching context of the individual course and the supervisor's principles should be the guide in making informed decisions in creating the curriculum.

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Appendix

Components of the Practicum Syllabi Currently Used in Eight MA TESOL Programs in the U.S.

	Syllabus A	Syllabus B	Syllabus C	Syllabus D	Syllabus E
Practicum supervisor	MA program professor	IEP coord/ instructor	MA program professor	MA program professor	MA program professor
Practicum teaching setting	IEP	IEP/adjunct	Community college/adult ed.	Community college/ adult ed./ IEP etc.	Various
Practicum teaching hours	105-140 hours (5-10h/wx14w)	105-140 hours (5-10h/wx14w)	semester	40 hours (5h/wx8w)	?
Observation of teacher learner	2 videotapings (50min. x2) reviewed by supervisor and peer	1 videotaping + 1 class visit/video-taping (50 min.x2)	2 class visits (?) (40 min or morex2)	3 class visits by supervisor or TA (one of them videotaped)	2 videotaping (50 min.x2) reviewed by supervisor and peer
Pre/Post observational conferences	Pre and post	Pre and post	Pre and post	Pre and post	Pre and post
Lesson plans	Used in conf/class for peer review, checklist but no particular format	Used in conference, no particular format	?	Used, no particular format?	Used, no particular format but read Brown (1994)
Observation of other teachers	3 classes + written observation report	4 classes + written observation report	?	2 or more peer observations + disc.	Peer observation
Readings	1 required book, 1 chapter/w	1 required book, 1 chapter/w	1 reading packet from various sources	1 required book + opt books and video mat.	1 required book
Journal/Reflective writing	7 journals with set topics	10 journals with set topics	3 reflective writings ("logs")	(See "Web Discussion" below)	?
Web discussion	?	?	?	7 jour web postings + 6 resp, mostly open topics	?
Seminar meetings	2.5h/12 weeks, set top.	3 hr/13 weeks, set top.	?	3h/w, set topics	8 meetings (1/2w)
Other reflective writing / Portfolio	Portfolio (reflective statement + all mat. usd.)	Reflective statement	Final report	Critical incident analysis	?
Other requirements/ Activities	Teaching log to keep track of teaching hours /free topic discussion (30 min./w)	2 observation tasks assigned every week for class discussion and journal writing	4 hours assisting with testing /advising ESL students		Action research project
Action research project	Mentor/Mentee	Mentor/Mentee	Master tchr/ Student tchr	Mentor	?
Terms	Mentor/Mentee	Mentor/Mentee	Master tchr/ Student tchr	Mentor	?

Appendix (continued)

	Syllabus F	Syllabus G	Syllabus H	Syllabus I	Syllabus J
Practicum supervisor	MA program professor	MA program professor	MA program professor	MA program professor	MA program professor
Practicum Teaching setting	?	K-12/adult ESL/IEP/comm. college	Local high school/elem. school	?	Comm. college/ adult ed./ IEP etc.
Practicum teaching hours	?	30 hours (6 mini lessons of 15-20 min. each + 1 culminating lesson)	40 hours or more	Semester	20-30 hours (project requirement if 50 hours or less)
Observation of teacher learner	1 videotaping reviewed by cooperating teacher or peer	3-4 observations of mini lessons + 1 videotaping and oral report	none	3 observation and/or videotaping	3-5 observations by supervisor + 3-5 observations by mentor teacher
Pre/Post observational conferences	?	Pre and post	none	Pre and post	Pre and post with supervisor and cooperating teacher
Lesson plans	?	Guidelines + evaluating rubric	?	Guidelines	Used, format?
Observation of other teachers	?	3 checklists for mentor/self observation		4 observations of different contexts (Cent. for ESL/IEP/local pub. sch.)	Initially observe 5 or more classes teacher learners teach
Readings	?	?	2 chapters in a required book	?	2 required books
Journal/Reflective writing	?	4 e-mail journals with the supervisor	Weekly personal diary	Dialogue Journals	Weekly journals
Web discussion	?	1 posting of question + 7 postings of responses	?	?	?
Seminar meetings	1/w	5 group meetings	1 meeting every week	1 meeting every week	Weekly meetings for 16 total hours
Other reflective writing / Portfolio	Portfolio (selected and added writings)	Portfolio	Summary evaluation	?	Portfolio
Other requirements/ Activities	Nominate problem-solving topic and lead discussion in a seminar meeting	Participation in a regional TESOL conference + 3 reports about sessions attended	Curriculum development (optional)	?	?
Terms	Cooperating teacher	Mentor teacher/ Teacher-in-preparation	Cooperating teacher/Intern	Cooperating teacher	Cooperating teacher/ Student teacher

When One Size Doesn't Fit All: English Language Learners and Content Standards

Karla Stone

This paper examines the history of the ESL Standards for Pre-K-12 Students in light of the standards movement in the United States, and explores the impact they have had on standards in several states. It is demonstrated that more and more states are aligning their standards with the TESOL standards or creating separate English language learner (ELL) standards in order to better serve their ELL population. Finally, a recommendation is made for the development of ELL standards in Minnesota.

Introduction

High educational standards have played an increasingly important role on the national education scene in the past decade. A guiding principle behind these reforms has been to set high standards for *all* students. But what may or may not work for native English speakers cannot be assumed to have the same effect for English language learners (ELLs) and other often underrepresented populations (special ed., minority students). Are the current reforms merely a "reformulation, with new labels, of the status quo?" (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994, p. 55), or have they been effective in reaching the needs of all learners? From recent reports and increasingly changing demographic data, it appears that all students *have not* had equal access to educational opportunities. In response to an overall rise in the test scores for the Minnesota Basic Standards Tests of reading and math, released in April 2002, State Education Commissioner Christine Jax focused on the gap between scores for white and minority students; "That tells me we have more work to do.... You've probably reached all the kids you're going to reach doing things the same old way." She continued to express her disappointment "to see we have not found what works, and if we've found what works, we're not doing it well" (Draper, 2002). A similar sentiment was expressed in April 2003 by newly appointed Commissioner Cheri Pierson Yecke when she referred to the "appalling" gaps between white and minority student performance on 2003 tests (Draper, 2003). This statement reflects the need on local, state and national levels to critically examine the needs of *all* students when designing programs and assessments that are tied to standards. Students from diverse backgrounds do not begin their educational journeys on equal ground, and as a result, reform that is inherently meant to be equitable cannot be taken for granted to manifest itself equitably. Special consideration must be given to the unique needs of certain students, particularly those learning English as a second or additional language. Such an agenda is not only ethical, but backed by legislation as well. *Lau v. Nichols* (1974, as cited in Migrant Legal Action Program, 2001) retains that "treating people with different needs in the same way is not equal treatment" (414 U.S 563). Also, *Casteneda v. Pickard* (1981, as cited in Migrant Legal Action Program, 2001), requires (1) a sound approach to the education of LEP students, (2) reasonable implementation of the approach, and (3) outcomes reflecting that the approach is working (648 F.2d 989, 5th Cir.). The Casteneda ruling, used as the basis for Office of Civil Rights program evaluations, will become increasingly important as states document their compliance with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation. This legislation, adopted in January of 2002, describes the purpose of the English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act (Title III) as "to help ensure that children who are limited English proficient, including immigrant children and youth, attain English proficiency, develop high levels of academic attainment in English, and meet the same challenging State academic content and student academic achievement standards as all children are expected to meet", (P.L. 107-110, Sec. 3102, subpart 1). As a result, all states are now required to demonstrate adequate yearly progress towards achievement of academic standards for *all* learners, including English language learners. Additionally, these standards must be the same for all students, identify what students should know and be able to do, and encourage higher order thinking skills and problem solving (King, 2002).

Equitable assessments, while always having been the ideal, are becoming increasingly important as ELL populations continue to rise at rapid rates. According to U.S. Department of Education survey data reported by the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (NCELA), the LEP enrollment in K-12 schools was 4,416,580 in the '99-00 school year, a **104.97%** increase from 1989 (NCELA, 2002)! Because such continual growth in LEP enrollment was predicted in the early '90's, it served as partial impetus for the TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) community to align itself with the standards movement, and ultimately create the ESL Standards for Pre-K-12 Students (1997).

The Standards Movement

The standards movement in the U.S. really began with the 1989 Education Summit led by then President George Bush and the nation's governors. At that meeting, they created what became known as Goals 2000, which included a call for students to "have demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography" (National Education Goals Panel, 1991, as cited in Kuhlman, 1999, p. 5). In order to achieve these goals, many national organizations developed content standards, which have been modified and incorporated by most states.

The standards movement has materialized into two distinct, yet related tracks: content standards and performance standards. According to O'Malley and Valdez-Pierce, "Content standards specify the curriculum objectives, the knowledge students must have in each content area, and the skills they must be able to apply successfully" (1996, p.26). Performance standards, on the other hand, are "examples of student work that meet content standards" (Hershberg, 1997, as cited in Kuhlman, 1999, p. 5) Additionally, "performance standards identify the level of performance on a specific assessment task and scoring rubric that students must attain in order to function at a basic, proficient, or advanced level" (Freed, 1993, as cited in O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 26). In continuing the discussion of the impact of standards on English language learners, it is important to keep both types of standards in mind, yet it is the way in which standards are assessed that has a particularly strong impact on accountability reporting, and ultimately the equitable treatment of English language learners.

Methods for assessing standards vary. In addition to demonstrating minimal competencies on standardized tests, many states have begun requiring students to "show what they know" in relation to content area standards via performance assessments. Performance assessments hold promise for enriching the educational experience of English language learners, because they allow for a greater range of ways in which students can demonstrate their knowledge (Collier & Thomas, 1999; LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994). However, while the basic premise behind the standards movement has been to provide opportunities for academic success for *all* students, without special consideration of the impact the assessments of standards have on English language learners, LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera (1994) assert this population of learners remains in danger of being underserved and misrepresented by assessment data. They claim that "while ELLS can and do learn in accordance with high academic standards, their accomplishments will likely be underestimated if they are assessed in the same way as their monolingual peers" (p. 56). As a result, it is imperative that assessments consider the needs of all learners, including English language learners, by incorporating both linguistic and academic components. Also, "because of inaccurate and inconsistent scoring of open-ended or performance-based measures of English-language learner subject matter knowledge, training is needed so that such scoring is reliable" (August & Hakuta, 1998, p.52). Training also needs to incorporate a focus on language and content skills, especially for content teachers. Training opportunities for staff are a critical step in the right direction of considering the unique needs of English language learners in a standards-based environment.

Standards, by definition, call for consistency in the expectations for students, and researchers and practitioners in the field are increasingly seeing the need to ensure that all students have access to *equal educational opportunity* in order to meet the standards (Collier & Thomas, 1999; LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994). Sometimes, equal opportunity may mean specialized instruction or the use of strategies to help English language learners based on their unique needs, without lowering the standard. For English language learners, we must acknowledge that "meeting content standards is a more complex and cognitively demanding task than it is for students who are proficient in English", thus making such tasks "disproportionately difficult" (McKeon, 1994, p. 45). At the same time, it is important to expect English language learners to meet high standards. In order to help students meet the standards, language and content must be learned simultaneously from the beginning of ESL instruction, based on goals for all students. There is much documented research on the benefits of integrated language and academic instruction (Genesee, 1994; TESOL, 1997; Grabe & Stoller, 1997, as cited in Tedick, 2002), and such integration should also be reflected in the standards (content and performance) to which we hold our students accountable. What is most often missing in state content standards is the necessary focus on language related to content material, which is where the TESOL standards can play an important role.

The remainder of this paper will outline the history of TESOL's ESL standards in the context of the national standards movement, and examine the impact these standards have had on state-level standards. Based on a review of other states that have made explicit reference to English language learners in their standards, a recommendation for the development and/or delineation of ESL standards that are compatible with Minnesota's content standards will be outlined.

History of the ESL Standards for Pre-k-12 Students

In the early 1990's, members of TESOL realized that English language learners were not being included in the standards-setting movement that was gaining momentum in national educational circles. As a result, a task force was formed, which resulted in the creation of TESOL's *Access Brochure*. The *Brochure* is based on principles of equitable access to every aspect of education for all learners, including language minority students. It outlines fifteen standards of access that schools can use to judge the extent to which they are meeting national educational goals. These fifteen standards fall under the broader headings of access to a positive learning environment, appropriate curriculum, full delivery of services, and equitable assessment (TESOL, 1994). The *Brochure* created a foundation upon which further standards work was developed.

Following the creation of the *Access Brochure*, a smaller task force of TESOL members set out to create a framework for the creation of separate standards for ESL. The document they produced became known as *Promising Futures*, which became the introduction to the ESL standards document. Among other things, *Promising Futures* addresses the importance of separate ESL standards, as well as some of the myths surrounding second language acquisition (TESOL, 1996). Based on this framework, in 1995, the TESOL Board of Directors approved a project to create a full standards document for pre-k-12 English language learners. Many people from around the country collaborated on the project, and/or worked on writing teams, and in 1996 the first draft was launched (TESOL, 1997). The final document was approved and published in 1997, and has served as a valuable resource at all levels of education reform since then.

Since their creation, the ESL standards have served an important role in helping TESOL professionals advocate on behalf of English language learners. In 1996, a team representing TESOL was invited to participate in setting guidelines for school accreditation by the National Study for School Evaluation. The TESOL team drew extensively on the ESL standards and the Access *Brochure* to advocate for quality indicators that kept the needs of language minority students in mind (Gomez & Short, 1997). As a result of the team's work, schools participating in regional accreditation now have to include an examination of their treatment of language minority students, which indirectly ties back to implementation of standards and assessment, and how the needs of English language learners are being met in their programs.

In addition to serving as an advocacy resource, the ESL standards have begun to make an impact on curriculum reform by supplementing standards that lacked a focus on the language needs of English language learners. The ESL standards were not created to stand alone, but rather to serve as a bridge to standards expected of all students. While TESOL recognizes the importance and quality of these other standards, it also recognizes that "many of the content standards do not acknowledge the central role of language in the achievement of content" (TESOL, 1997, p. 2). The ESL standards emphasize the fundamental language needs faced by English language learners if they are to successfully attain standards in other content areas. In order for this to occur, TESOL especially recognizes the importance of professional development opportunities to train educators in the importance of the ESL standards, particularly content teachers.

> If ESOL students are to have full access to challenging curricula and to achieve the same high level in the content areas as native English speakers, then content area specialists must become aware of the importance of language in relationship to their disciplines so that they can better facilitate the academic achievement of their ESOL students (TESOL, 1997, p. 5).

It is important for content teachers (and ELL specialists) to understand that in meeting other standards, English language learners may require additional support and time, as well as additional content and performance standards, such as those created by TESOL, in order to guide the development of their English skills in relation to the content material (August & Hakuta, 1998).

The ESL standards have great potential to inform states' own content standards, and/or to be used simultaneously with those standards. The degree to which TESOL's ESL standards have been incorporated in various states varies greatly. Examples delineating the impact of the ESL standards on state standards are provided in the next section.

ESL Standards in Other States

"By linking the [ESL standards] to states' academic standards, educators can ensure that students with limited English proficiency receive consistently high quality English language and academic instruction" (Beckett & Haley, 2000, p. 102). Several states in the union have taken this statement to heart, but the ways in which the ESL standards have manifested themselves in different states varies greatly. While the ESL standards are designed to apply to all content areas, most states that have specific standards for English language learners have used English language-arts standards as the foundations for their ELL standards. Florida, for example, has English language-arts standards with additional progress indicators for English language learners, while the Texas standards are related to both English language arts and Spanish language-arts standards. New York and California have created their own versions of ESL standards based on their respective English language-arts standards (Rybinski, 2002). According to the Center for Applied Linguistics website, several other states have created standards-based documents for English language learners, including Arizona, New Jersey, and North Carolina. Additionally, the Chicago Public school system has created ESL standards based on the TESOL standards, and San Diego has created performance-based assessments aligned to the California ELD (English Language Development) standards (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2002). States' departments of educations have approached standards in vastly different ways, and the extent to which information is accessible from their websites also varies greatly. For that reason, the following states are presented because of the over-arching similarities in terms of their standards for English language learners, as well as the ease in which the information was accessible.

In California, a state law in 1997 required all tests assessing progress of English language learners be aligned with state standards for English Language Development. In 1999, those standards were designed to "assist teachers in moving English language learners to fluency in English and proficiency in the (California)

English Language-arts Content Standards" (California Department of Education, 1999, p. 11). The English Language Development (ELD) standards were designed to supplement English Language-arts standards to ensure that English language learners develop proficiency in the English language as well as the concepts and skills contained in the English language-arts standards. The ELD standards are divided into 4 grade clusters; k-2, 3-5, 6-8, and 9-12, and include progress indicators at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced level for each grade cluster. The ELD standards for grades 3-12 are designed for students who are literate in their primary language, and those who are not are expected to complete the k-2 standards which focus on phonemic awareness, concepts of print, and decoding skills (California Department of Education, 1999). A preliminary review of the standards did not specifically cite the TESOL standards, yet the executive summary of the California ELD standards appears to encompass aspects of the three goals set forth in the TESOL standards. The ELD standards are specifically linked to the California English language-arts standards, but are more detailed in terms of what skills students must be able to do.

Florida and New Jersey have relied heavily on the TESOL standards to create guides for program and curriculum development. While these states have not created separate standards, the influence of the TESOL standards is clear. Florida's Department of Education website has a guide titled, "Language Arts Through ESOL," in which ideas and sample tasks are presented to help support schools and districts in the development of curriculum. The guide includes a substantial reference to the ESL Standards for Pre-k-12 Students developed by TESOL, as well as background information on language acquisition. The Sunshine State Standards (Florida's version of content standards), approved in 1996, include additional progress indicators for the English language-arts standards (Rybinski, 2002), but these were not noticeably evident from the Florida Department of Education website.

In New Jersey, the TESOL standards played a formative role in ensuring that the needs of English language learners are reflected in curriculum decisions. New Jersey's Department of Education has created a guide titled, "Aligning the TESOL *ESL Standards for Pre-k-12 Students* to the New Jersey Standards for Language Arts Literacy: A document to assist school districts in the alignment of ESL curricula to the national ESL standards and the New Jersey language arts literacy standards"(New Jersey Department of Education, 2000). This document appears to be a follow up of a mandate for ESL curriculum alignment to the ESL Standards for Pre-k-12 Students, developed by TESOL, which have been adapted into code by the New Jersey Department of Education. Deborah Short, from the Center for Applied Linguistics, consulted on this project, and the TESOL standards play a dominant role in the alignment of standards, as the title of the guide suggests. Since English language learners must also meet all grade-appropriate Core Curriculum Content Standards, including the New Jersey Language-arts literacy standards, the guide stipulates that curriculum must be directly linked to these standards, as well. Interestingly, the guide has aligned the New Jersey language-arts literacy standards to the TESOL standards, (not the other way around), and sample progress indicators list examples of assessable activities at three grade-level clusters identical to those used by TESOL (pre-k-3, 4-8, and 9-12) that ESL students may perform to demonstrate progress towards meeting a particular standard (New Jersey Dept. of Education, 2000).

New York also worked closely with the Center for Applied Linguistics, but to an even greater extent. They have created separate learning standards in which the TESOL standards have been aligned with the English language-arts standards for each grade cluster, and developed new performance indicators as needed. The grade clusters include Early (Pre-k-1), Elementary (2-4), Intermediate (5-8), and Commencement (9-12). Additionally, for each grade cluster, progress indicators are given according to four proficiency levels: Beginning, Intermediate, Advanced, and Transitional. According to the introduction of the New York ESL standards document, "the ESL standards articulate the abilities and competencies that LEP/ELLs must demonstrate to integrate successfully into the English academic mainstream" (University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, & the Office of Bilingual Education, 2002, p. 1). They differ from other content area standards in that they "provide the language, knowledge, and skill development for high-level student achievement in the non-ESL content classroom" (p. 7). The standards include learning and self-monitoring strategies, and draw upon the linguistic and cultural diversity students bring to the classroom. There are 5 standards: 1) English for information and understanding, 2) English for literary response, enjoyment, and expression, 3) English for critical analysis and evaluation, 4) English for social and classroom interaction, and 5) English for cross-cultural knowledge and understanding. A key consideration of the needs of English language learners is the philosophy behind the performance indicators: "they do not assume mastery of a particular indicator at prior grade levels" (p. 8), but rather, they are cumulative.

Texas has organized their content standards according to "Essential knowledge and skills" for individual content areas at three grade level clusters (elementary, middle, and high school). For English language learners, they have added "Essential Knowledge and Skills for English as a Second Language," which are identical to the Knowledge and Skills for English Language Arts and Reading, with the addition of expectations specific to the needs of ESL students. The Knowledge and Skills for ESL are also connected to the Spanish language arts requirements at the elementary level (Texas Education Agency, 1998), which appears to be a connection to bilingual education. Specific reference to the TESOL standards was not evident from the documents found on the education department's website.

FIGURE 1
Summary Table of ESL Standards in Other States *

State	Separate ELL standards?	Additional progress indicators for existing standards?	Extent of connection to English lang. arts standards	TESOL standards clearly cited?
CA	Yes (1999)	No	Designed to supplement ELA standards	No specific reference made
FL	No	Yes (1996)	Tied to ELA standards	Yes
NJ	No	No	Lang. Arts literacy standards aligned to TESOL standards (2000)	Yes
NY	Yes (2002)	No	Tied to ELA standards	Yes
TX	No	Yes (1998)	Tied to ELA and Spanish lang. arts	Not clear

* Current as of May, 2002

Although the TESOL standards are not clearly cited in all of the examples presented in the table, the timeframe in which these additional standards and/or performance indicators were created point to an influence of the TESOL standards, at least on some level.

Additional examples of the impact of standards specific to English language learners can also be seen at the city level in San Diego and Chicago. In San Diego County, the Office of Education has sponsored the creation of Language Observation Tasks (LOTS) that are aligned to the California English Language Development standards and measure students' development in all four modalities in a portfolio-like process (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2002). The assessments are designed to be systematic and linked to classroom tasks, with an emphasis on the standards that are performance based, and therefore not assessable by the California English Language Development Test (CELDT). They are designed as a language growth and development rubric on a five point developmental scale (1=beginning, 5=advanced), according to grade spans (k-2, 3-5, 6-8, 9-12) (Kuhlman, 2002). Based on postings over the past several months to the ESL Standards Implementation Listserv (hosted by the Center for Applied Linguistics), teachers are beginning to recognize a need for an assessment system that is aligned to standards, yet keeps the needs of their English language learners in mind. The bridge between standards and assessment being developed in San Diego appears to be an important step in the movement towards equitable assessment for all learners.

In Chicago, a reform initiative approved in 1998 set the stage for the creation of a new curriculum guide, English as a Second Language Goals and Standards (Chicago Board of Education, 1998). The goals of the guide are to standardize ESL instruction throughout the Chicago Public schools, and to set a continuum of skills which students are to master from one level to another. With the permission of TESOL, the ESL Standards for Pre-k-12 Students served as the guide for the creation of the Chicago Public School ESL standards (Chicago Board of Education, 1998, p. v). Chicago has created an adapted version of the TESOL standards, and while they have included three broad goals, the number of standards under each goal varies. One key distinction of the Chicago standards is that they are meant to provide a scope and sequence for a three-year course of study for English language instruction to be in compliance with the state's time requirements for Transitional Bilingual Education (Chicago Board of Education, 1998, p. vi). As a result, the underlying purpose for these standards is quite different from those presented in other states.

With all of the previous examples in mind, the final section of this paper examines Minnesota's graduation standards and explores possibilities for using models created by other states to incorporate standards that are cognizant of the needs of English language learners in the Minnesota framework.

Minnesota's Content Standards

In Minnesota, standards were originally designed to meet state, not federal requirements, and are currently divided into two tracks: basic standards and high standards. In order to demonstrate achievement of basic competencies, students must pass Basic Skills Tests (BSTs) in reading, math, and writing before graduating from Minnesota high schools. The reading and math tests are administered beginning in the 8^{th} grade, and the writing test is first given in the 10^{th} grade. The high standards, which have been rife with controversy since their inception, are referred to as the Profile of Learning. Though likely to be repealed during the current legislative session, since they are still law at the time of the final revision of this article, a description follows. The Profile of Learning is divided into ten learning areas grouped by education levels (Figure 2). Under each learning area, a variety of content standards delineate what students should know and be able to do in the form of performance assessments (the number of standards varies by standard as well as by education level). Under current law (as of April

2003), local districts are able to set the number of standards students must complete before they graduate.

Minnesota Graduation Rule*

Basic Skills Tests

Reading (8th grade)
Math (8th grade)
Writing (10th Grade)

Reading & Math scores are scaled. (need 600 to pass). Writing scored on a rubric. Minimum of 3 (out of 6) required to pass.

Profile of Learning

Primary grades (k-3),
Intermediate Grades (4-5),
Middle Grades (6-8),
High Grades (9-12)

Final score based on a 4-point rubric created by Department of Children, Families, and Learning.

10 Learning Areas

Read, Listen & View Write & Speak	Scientific Concepts & Applications
	Social Studies
Arts & Literature	
	Physical Education & Lifetime Fitness
Mathematical Concepts & Applications	Economics and Business
Inquiry & Research	World Language

* (current as of 5/5/03)

The Content Standards contained in the Profile of Learning were officially adopted into law in 1998. Since that time, several changes have occurred, resulting in inconsistent implementation of the high standards, and misinformation regarding the rule governing the standards. As a result, the standards have been highly politicized and are now facing significant changes. In light of these proposed changes, and the overall unsettled atmosphere surrounding the Minnesota standards, incorporating the TESOL standards into Minnesota's educational climate might help to establish some consistency for English language learners in Minnesota, who are required to complete as many of the Minnesota content standards as their native English speaking peers. While the language of the content standards might be changed to add examples of both declarative and procedural knowledge, the overall essence of the standards is not likely to change, nor are standards likely to disappear from the educational environment in Minnesota. Despite repeated efforts by legislators to abolish or significantly alter the standards in Minnesota, changes which are now coming to fruition, the national climate is such that standards appear to be on the horizon for the long term, a fact that was recently bolstered by the passage of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation. Because NCLB requires states to have vigorous grade-level standards and then test to those standards, the need to provide equitable assessment of the content standards for all students, including English language learners, is as urgent in Minnesota as it is in other states. In order to assess standards equitably, the standards themselves must provide adequate opportunities for learning against which student progress can be judged. While NCLB stipulates that states must assess students against grade-level standards, the Profile of Learning was designed to meet state, not federal requirements. Any changes in Minnesota content standards will need to reflect new federal requirements in addition to the particular needs of learners in our state.

In Minnesota, very little reference is made in the Profile of Learning to the unique needs of English language learners. The only language specific to English language learners [the term Limited English Proficient (LEP) is used in the official documents] that exists in the law refers to modifications available, and not specific statements in the standards that apply to the needs of English language learners.

Some strengths of the Profile of Learning for English language learners include the flexibility given districts and schools to select the performance assessments used to document students' ability to meet the standards, and the fact that one or more assessment methods may be used to meet the content standards. Though the state has created the rubrics for each standard, schools and even individual teachers may choose the assessments they will use to help students demonstrate their knowledge. This has been a positive shift in the original law, which stipulated that districts must use state approved performance assessments (Office of Revisor of Statutes, State of Minnesota, 2001). Additionally, with the exception of the first two learning areas, Read, Listen, and View, and Write and Speak, students may complete a standard in their first language if it is possible to assess the student's performance in that language. With this accommodation, the state has recognized that some students may bring knowledge of content with them in their first language, and should be allowed to demonstrate that knowledge in another language, without reducing the rigor of the standard. Other accommodations include Individual Graduation Plans, which allow for modifications to a standard to be made if agreed upon by the district, teachers, the student and the student's parent. A modified standard will be designated at "pass-LEP" on a student's transcript.

Rather than make modifications to standards themselves, it makes sense to create a structure which will help students access the same curriculum and achieve the same standard as all students. Accommodations for meeting content standards are already acceptable under the current rule, as long as the validity and rigor of the standard is not compromised. Accommodations include allowing students more choice in assessment tasks and additional time to complete tasks. A more comprehensive approach to helping English language learners access Minnesota content standards might be to incorporate components of the TESOL standards. Since other states have already undertaken this important step, models exist to help us begin the process in Minnesota.

Based on models used in other states, the following proposal outlines the steps ESL professionals can take to ensure equitable access to content standards for the English language learners in Minnesota.

FIGURE 3
An Action Plan for Minnesota

1. Work closely with the state TESOL affiliate, MinneTESOL, to create a resolution that provides the backing of the organization to proceed with the alignment of Minnesota standards to those that specifically consider the needs of English language learners.

2. Encourage teachers to closely follow the development of new standards and advocate on behalf of English language learners for the inclusion of standards that incorporate language and content in all areas of learning.

3. Closely examine the content standards and determine whether it makes more sense to add specific progress indicators to existing content standards based on the TESOL standards, or to create separate standards linking the MN standards with the TESOL standards.

4. Outline considerations for the range of English language learners in Minnesota, keeping in mind age of enrollment in Minnesota schools, first language literacy, and educational history, among other variables.

5. Propose a model for staff development that would familiarize teachers (pre-k-12) with the TESOL standards and stress the importance of integrating language and content.

Conclusion

While many of the states mentioned in this report have claimed that their English language learner standards are tied to academic content, in reality this is true only for English language-arts. Admittedly, this is a good beginning, and many of the skills and strategies incorporated in this area will carry over to other content areas, yet in order for English language learners to have access to standards in *all* content areas, integration of language and content needs to occur in the other content areas, too. The nature of the TESOL standards is such that they can be aligned with all content areas, and need not be limited to English language-arts. While the TESOL standards and many of the states' content standards are rather broad, melding the two types of standards provides an opportunity to create progress indicators or clearly stated standards that are not only specific to the needs of English language learners, but also accessible to teachers who are struggling to implement standards. In order to provide equal access to high standards for all learners, the important work that has begun in several places around the country must continue in every school where English language learners are served. To do any less creates a risk for perpetuating the status quo; a scenario that ultimately misrepresents the abilities of English language learners.

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Sustained Content for Business English Programs: Structuring, Selecting, and Implementing Learning

Oleg Tarnopolsky

This article analyzes the underlying principles, structure, and method used in a sustained content Business English program developed for Ukraine. The principle of sustainment is implemented on all levels of the program - selecting, structuring, and distributing content, as well as organizing learning activities on the basis of that content. An analysis of learners' needs is demonstrated as the foundation for selecting content of Business English programs. The broad applicability of this type of program across other countries and conditions of learning is discussed. The procedure for organizing similar programs is outlined and the efficiency of programs of this type is shown on the basis of testing data.

Learning Business English is becoming extraordinarily popular all over the world. Increasing numbers of learners believe that acquiring it is one of the most important things in their studies of English as a foreign or a second language (Harmer, 2001:10). There is nothing surprising about that since English has become the *lingua franca* of the international economic community. Consequently, business people from whatever country have little chance of success in international markets without having at least a fair command of English. But sometimes business people from different parts of the globe such as the former USSR, Eastern European countries from the former Communist bloc, China, and some African countries have a rather vague idea about how business activities are carried out in the economically developed world. In this way, they often start learning Business English as a foreign language in their own countries or come to learn it as a second language in the U.S. or the U.K. without having sufficient information about ways of doing business in the West. That, in its turn, necessitates designing many Business English programs as strictly content-based ones although they should remain within the framework of sheltered English instruction (Freeman, 2000). That is all the more true since a content-based approach is considered as fundamental in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching to all categories of learners (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989).

The content-based Business English program described in this paper was designed for Ukraine, a post-Communist Eastern European country of the former USSR, where it has been highly successful over a number of years. However, the principles underlying the design of the program and its general characteristics seem to be of broader applicability – though they are surely not universal due to great differences in contexts for Business English studies in different places. And yet, this applicability may embrace a great number of cases where students need to learn some basics of doing business in the West together with acquiring Business English either as a foreign or a second language. The program was structured as one that would work in any developing country being a clean fit for teaching Business English whether it is in Asia, Latin America, or Eastern Europe. In other places such as Western Europe or in native-English speaking countries like the United States or the United Kingdom, program designers may sometimes need to make minor changes and adaptations. However, they will still be able to use the information provided in the paper as a foundation for structuring their own programs. Due to the expanding needs in such programs in all parts of the world, the practical experience in designing them may be of interest to those TESOL professionals who teach Business English in very differing conditions, such as teaching it in the USA, on the one hand, or Ukraine, China, or Brazil, on the other hand. Describing that experience is the purpose of this article.

Fundamentals of Business English Program Design

It is obvious that the design of any such program should reflect the variety of learners' needs. The learners' needs analysis was done in Ukraine (Tarnopolsky, 2000b) in 1991-1992 and 1996-1997. Three hundred potential learners were interviewed in 1991-1992. In 1996-1997 the number of interviewees was 225. The interval of four years was required to detect possible changes in learners' needs that could become apparent due to changes in economic and political situation in the country. The results of learners' needs analysis may be not of local interest exclusively. It will be shown further that to some extent they go beyond the purely national and local limits.

The analysis has demonstrated that 70% of all potential learners interviewed during 1991-1992 and the same percentage (70.2%) of those interviewed during 1996-1997 needed some ESP course. For 65% of them in 1991-1992 and 63.9% interviewed in 1996-1997 Business English was the ESP they required. All such learners with no exceptions set Business English for *oral* business communication as their primary goal because they needed it for conducting business talks and negotiations with foreign partners. But unlike 1991-1992 when those who wanted a Business English course were little interested in reading and writing skills, in 1996-1997 eighty five per cent of potential Business English students stressed their needs for business reading and writing skills and did not limit themselves to speaking and listening only. That change was probably caused by more regular written contacts of Ukrainian businessmen with their foreign partners. But even in 1996-1997 the interviewees considered reading and writing skills as secondary and subordinated to acquiring skills in oral business communication. Finally, all interviewees during both periods of interviewing preferred Business English courses to be preceded by a survival course of oral communication in English specifically oriented toward teaching business people how to socialize and to provide for their own personal needs when on business trips to other countries.

The data obtained when discussing these results with practical teachers of Business English from other countries may be of some interest. The contacts included twelve teachers from Great Britain (IATEFL international annual conferences of 1997 in Brighton and of 1998 in Manchester), ten teachers from Switzerland and Germany (IATEFL/BESIG international conference of 2001 in Bern), and five teachers from Greece (TESOL Greece Annual Convention of 2002 in Athens). The teachers contacted were practically unanimous in their opinions that the needs analysis results under discussion roughly but fairly reflected the learning preferences of their own students starting to learn Business English. Of course, these views cannot be taken as any kind of reliable proof. But at least, they provide some evidence that the obtained results show a general tendency that is not limited to Ukraine only but may be found in different countries where Business English is taught either as a foreign or a second language. This evidence means that in differing conditions of learning Business English a sufficient number of learners will be found whose needs analysis will provide the results roughly similar to those given above.

If this assumption is accepted as creditable, it follows that in many different conditions a Business English program for such groups of learners has to include at least four courses:

1. A mandatory Survival English Course with Business Orientation (SECBO - oral communication);
2. A mandatory Course of English for Business Talks and Negotiations (CEBTN - oral communication);
3. An optional course of Business English Reading (BER);
4. An optional course of Business English Writing (BEW).

All these courses are required to make a sequence where each course is based on the preceding one(s) and, in turn, serves as the starting point for the following one(s). Therefore, the content of every separate course has to be sustained - closely linked, interrelated, and interdependent with the other courses.

Structuring Sustained Content for a Business English Program

The following discussion is based on the assumption that the four-course program suggested above may be useful not only for Ukraine but for different countries where Business English is taught either as a second or foreign language to students whose learning needs, preferences, and requirements more or less match those of the potential learners described earlier in this paper.

The particular program discussed below is used as an example for designing similar programs with similar types of students in any country. The program in question has been successfully functioning in one of the largest Ukrainian cities, Dnipropetrovsk, since 1993. It should be mentioned that during the first years of its existence the program included the mandatory SECBO and CEBTN courses only, which was due to the results of the 1991-1992 needs analysis of potential learners. Due to the results of the needs analysis done in 1996-1997, the two optional courses were added in 1997. The program was organized for students at the false beginner level who needed to learn Business English, and today it has four mandatory and optional courses listed above in its structure. Other optional courses, including a general reading course and a general writing course, also make part of the program, but they are not analyzed further. The four Business English courses are designed both for adult students working or planning to work in business and for adolescents ages 13 and up who are considering careers in business. They are intensive with four-hour-long classes three times per week held in the evening and/or on weekends. Consequently, students can learn without discontinuing their work or studies at high schools and universities. Each of the four principal courses in the program is 14-16 weeks long.

Other arrangements for similar programs are also quite feasible - for instance, classes may be held in daytime on weekdays only. The specific arrangement depends exclusively on local conditions and requirements and in no way on the design and structure of the program.

All the content matter to be taught was divided into two broad categories defined by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998).

1. *Carrier-content* is the subject matter of everything students read, listen to, say, and write in English in the process of their communicative and learning activities. In that respect there is a difference between the SECBO and the other three courses of Business English proper. For instance, the CEBTN includes those business issues that are the principal subject matter of talks between business people from different countries (e.g., conditions and terms of contracts, organizing cooperation and joint ventures, sales and purchases, prices and costs). In courses of BER and BEW the content is quite similar but presented in written papers and documents with the aim of learning to read, understand, and write these texts. The texts used relate to themes such as *coming to an agreement, making a deal, signing a contract, and planning a joint project or venture.* In the CEBTN, students learn how to participate in business

talks devoted to discussing contracts, deals, and joint projects. In the BER course, they read different business contracts and agreements. Finally, in the BEW course they learn how to write or edit the texts of such contracts or agreements. Therefore, the content in these three courses is directly interrelated and interconnected because it concentrates on practically the same themes.

In the SECBO, which is the first in the program, the carrier-content is indirectly connected to the following courses. It concentrates on the performance area of socializing, as well as on providing for personal needs when on business trips. Ellis and Johnson (1994) consider this area an integral one to learning Business English. Starting a Business English program with learning to socialize in business relations is a logical preliminary to learning how to conduct business talks and negotiations (indirect connection in the generally sustained content).

2. *Real content* is defined by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) as language content (including linguistic and communicative skills) of students' communicative and learning activities. This content is called *real* because, however carrier-content-based a course of English may be, the primary goal of any language program is teaching the language. In the program under discussion that language content is sustained in the same manner as the carrier-content because language items and skills required for socializing in business relations (the SECBO) are logically linked to the language and skills for conducting business talks (the CEBTN). The latter kind of skills, in their turn, leads to the language and skills necessary for business reading and writing (the courses of BER and BEW). For instance, an important theme in the SECBO is *Meeting people*. It is aimed at students' acquiring those language functions that are required for introductions to people in different situations, for making some inquiries and responding to some personal inquiries, for stating purposes and intentions, for inquiring about the purposes and intentions of others. The real content of one of the themes in the CEBTN, *Starting a business contact and stating purposes*, focuses on practically the same language functions. But the language is used in situations when business relations are being established and business talks and negotiations are at their initial stage. In the courses of BER and BEW there is a new return to those language functions, but they are used for understanding or creating written Business English texts (e.g., different written inquiries and responses to inquiries).

As it can be seen from above, there are clear-cut logical connections between parts and items, gradual progression from one part and item to the following ones. But the carrier-content is made the focal point while real content is introduced following carrier-content requirements. It gives an opportunity of achieving the integration of particular content with language teaching aims, so that carrier-content dictates the selection and sequence of language to be learned by students (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989).

Selecting Sustained Content

An important question for developing Business English programs of the type considered in this paper is how to select the content for learning. Naturally, content for the program has to be selected on the basis of learners' needs analysis since it is Business English, and any ESP course, including Business English, is designed with the primary purpose of meeting particular learners' needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). On the other hand, interviewing and questioning potential learners on their needs can focus only on carrier-content because students cannot define their requirements as to real content. Therefore, learners' needs-based selection of carrier-content is the foundation of the content-selection procedure for whatever specific conditions the program is developed. In the specific conditions for which the particular program under discussion was developed, this procedure consisted of two parts.

The first one had only potential learners' needs as a source of selection and laid the basis of carrier-content in the form of a general checklist of themes. There was also a separate checklist with some of the themes from the first list connected to situations of oral communication for SECBO and CEBTN. The first part of the content-selection procedure included:

- Selection of themes that potential learners indicated.
- Selection of situations where potential learners felt they would need to speak English while on business trips to other countries (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

To select themes and situations of communication, one hundred people from the city of Dnipropetrovsk who made frequent foreign trips on business were interviewed during 1991-1992. They were asked to choose from the suggested list of themes and situations those ones that they believed to be the most important for such trips and to cross out those that could safely be excluded from instruction. They were also asked to add themes and situations of their own to the list if they chose. As a result, ten themes and situations (believed to be the most vital by 80% of all the interviewees) were selected for the Course of English for Business Talks and Negotiations:

Themes	*Situations*
1. Getting to know the structure of a firm or company	Business interviewing
2. Getting information about the management in a firm or company and hierarchy in its governing bodies	Business interviewing
3. Getting information about firm's or company's production processes and goods manufactured	Business interviewing, touring a factory
4. Making inquiries and arranging appointments	Business telephoning

5. Starting a business contact and stating purposes	Business negotiations
6. Getting and handling business information	Business negotiations
7. Coming to an agreement, making a deal, signing a contract, planning a joint project or venture	Business negotiations
8. Discussing projects, budget and finances	Business discussions
9. Discussing business strategy, business results, and competition	Business discussions
10. Discussing sales results and sales targets	Business discussions

The second part of the selection procedure included:

- Selecting from written and oral sources (as authentic as possible) and compiling models of discourse in written and oral communication characteristic of the selected themes and situations. Such models were constructed using: 1)samples of business letters, contracts, and other business documents taken from different sources (for example, authentic business letters, contracts, and agreements, annual reports of corporations, etc.); 2)samples of tape-recorded presentations and discussions on business topics; 3)tape-recorded samples of socializing. The samples were mostly collected by the program designer during his stay in the USA.
- Compiling from the models a checklist of key language functions and language items (grammar, vocabulary) to be included in the real content of the program.
- Compiling from the above sources a checklist of language and communicative skills that learners needed to develop (e.g., skills of referring actions to the future or past, skills of apologizing or expressing gratitude, skills required for making a short presentation on business topics, skills of skimming and scanning when reading business texts and documents, skills of writing letters of inquiry).
- Distributing all the selected material between separate courses in the program in accordance with the goals of each course and themes (carrier-content) chosen for it.
- Selecting and developing the sets of teaching materials for every course in the program.

As a result of this selection and development procedure, the teaching materials for both mandatory oral communication courses in the program were developed by the author of this article (printed materials, audio materials, computer software for training grammatical skills). These materials are still in use. But a lot of existing teaching materials are also used in those courses as supplements (e.g., some parts of the *Matters* series, by Bell and Gower, 1999, for the Survival English Course with Business Orientation or some parts of

New Insights into Business, by Tullis & Trappe, 2000, in the Course of English for Business Talks and Negotiations). The optional courses of Business English Reading and Business English Writing are based on the integrated-skills approach (Oxford, 2001). When teaching them only existing and well-known teaching materials that fully meet the requirements set at the stage of selection are used. (Until 2002 those were, for instance, *English for Business Studies* by Mackenzie, 1997, *English Business Letters* by King & Ann Cree, 1997, and a lot of others. Since 2002 a transition is gradually being made to the newly published coursebook *Business Projects* developed by a team of authors headed by the author of this article).

This selection procedure was designed to ensure the sustained nature of content-based instruction. It went top-down - from themes and carrier-content to the elements of other kinds of content. Carrier-content in its logical progression was governing and organizing the selection and distribution of real content.

The suggested procedure (scheme) may be considered as useful and realistic when structuring contents for whatever programs where students need to focus on survival and business *oral* communication as their primary goal while reading and writing are the goals of secondary importance. The procedure allows to select and structure the content matter constantly keeping in mind the themes and situations of communication most required and probable to occur when pursuing professional activities. That makes the procedure, though certainly not universal, at least applicable for different conditions of teaching Business English.

As to the suggested list of themes and situations to concentrate on in teaching, it may seem to be of local interest only because the list was compiled by way of analyzing the needs of potential Ukrainian students exclusively. But on the other hand, if that list is compared to the list of themes and situations introduced into any Business English coursebook used internationally, an almost complete match may be seen. Such coursebooks (like *New Insights into Business* by Tullis & Trappe, 2000) are written on the basis of international students' needs analysis, and that means the choices of Ukrainian students match the requirements of students from other countries. This, in its turn, signifies that the suggested list of topics and situations reflects not only local and national but international and general tendencies as well. So it may be of interest and help to designers of Business English programs in different countries.

Organizing Principle of Teaching and Learning Activities

The learning activities in the program were designed so as to ensure theme-centered interaction (Legutke & Thomas, 1991) of students throughout all the courses in the program. Those activities were developed as continuous role-plays for the SECBO and continuous simulations for all the other courses (Tarnopolsky, 2000a). In short, such a simulation is always implemented along the following guidelines.

As soon as in the Course of English for Business Talks and Negotiations the structure and management hierarchy of a typical firm or company have been analyzed and discussed, the teacher suggests that his or her students organize their own "company". Learners decide what it will do, what kind of business it will be (a partnership or a corporation), what its structure and management hierarchy will be, in what country or countries the company will operate. Next students organize elections electing people to the Executive Board after discussing their professional qualities and suitability for a certain job. The Executive Board makes nominations and appointments of people to different managerial positions. That is followed by recruitment of employees (job interviewing, etc.). Finally, the day to day functioning of the firm starts - e.g., business meetings, discussions, negotiations, getting loans, and promotion campaigns. Students play different roles in the process of continuous simulation having at the same time one principal role for each of them (e.g., the Senior Vice-President, the Vice-President for Finance and Administration, the Production Director, the Personnel Officer). At the start of continuous simulation a lot of points has to be suggested by the teacher, but step-by-step all the initiative is transferred to the students who should become (and do become, as the practice has shown) quite autonomous in organizing and implementing the simulation. The teacher only sets the direction of talks and discussions when introducing new themes and materials and renders all assistance that students may require. Therefore, it may be said that, in its essence, a continuous business simulation is a specific kind of learning activity that makes students themselves organize in their classes of Business English an imaginary firm or company, so that every class turns into a simulation of that firm's functioning. Students talk over and solve problems and issues concerning financing, manufacturing, costs, prices, cooperation, joint ventures, sales targets and results, advertising, competition, and contracts.

An identical approach is followed for the courses of BER and BEW, but in them some information essential for the functioning of the "firm" is collected from various business texts. That information is discussed, decisions are made, and some written business documents (letters, contracts, agreements) for planned "activities" are compiled. Thus, it may be said that the continuous business simulation goes non-stop through three courses.

Even in the SECBO learning activities are organized in a similar manner - as continuous role-playing with a single "plot" developed from class to class. In this "plot" a group of businessmen and businesswomen come to an English-speaking country on a business trip. During their stay there they go through the situations of an actual business trip, such as meeting and socializing with their partners and providing for their own everyday needs.

Thus, the learning process is sustained in the task-based approach (Skehan, 2002) for the duration of the program because, through continuous role-plays and simulations, learners enact tasks from the real world. Moreover, this task-based approach is inseparably linked to project work since every simulation or role-play culminates in a project. For instance, in the CEBTN the project is developing a prospectus of the imaginary firm created by students.

This approach was developed as applicable to different circumstances of teaching Business English when the goal of developing students' creativity and autonomy in communication was set. So it can be used by program designers who consider the approach as matching their specific conditions – no matter if Business English is taught as a foreign or a second language.

Testing the Effectiveness of the Program

Testing the developed program was organized to verify the effectiveness of the two mandatory courses - Survival English with Business Orientation and English for Business Talks and Negotiations. Verifying the effectiveness was done in two ways: a)testing students' oral communication skills after each of the two courses; b)eliciting (by using questionnaires and interviews) learners' opinions about the effectiveness of the courses and their satisfaction with them. Testing and interviewing started in 1993 and went through 1997. After that testing was not repeated so that today the program continues its functioning in the final form which it acquired in 1997.

During the period of 1993-1997 ninety five students participated in testing after finishing the SECBO and eighty eight of those learners participated after the CEBTN. In those four consecutive academic years the number of students tested after finishing each of the two courses was as follows: 1993-1994 academic year – 34 students after SECBO and 27 students after CEBTN; 1994-1995 academic year – 20 students after both courses; 1995-1996 academic year – 21 student after both courses; 1996-1997 academic year – 20 students after both courses.

The tests were organized for testing students' speaking and listening skills. The first was a speaking test. In the Survival Course (SECBO) every student talked to another one in front of two independent assessors. The subject matter of the conversation was determined by the speaking task (chosen at random from a list of sixteen options) which outlined the situation and the roles of interlocutors in it. Communicative situations, topics, and roles related to the carrier-content of the Survival Course (for instance, students had to book tickets for a flight, or meet somebody for the first time and get acquainted, or reserve hotel accommodations). To get more accurate data, every examinee was asked to take part in five such conversations with different interlocutors so that they conversed in different communicative situations on different topics. The first test after the course on Business Talks (CEBTN) was organized identically, but the subject matter of all conversations reflected the carrier-content of that course (e.g., a telephone conversation for making a business appointment, discussing some points of a planned contract, or discussing the production process). But after the course on Business Talks, one more speaking test (speaking test 2) was designed. It tested the learners' ability to make short presentations in English on different business topics related to the carrier-content of the course. Every student was given a card with some initial information that was to be used in her/his presentation. For instance, it could be information, figures, and graphs showing the sales results of some company in the current year. On the basis of such information, every examinee had to make a short report to the "Executive Board", represented by assessors, or to do some other similar assignment.

Every assessor evaluated students' speaking skills independently and at the end of the test negotiated his/her evaluation with that of his/her partner to decide upon the final score for each student. In the speaking test for the Survival Course and speaking test 1 for the course on Business Talks, evaluation was to be made according to eight pre-set criteria. The criterion system was designed to make clear different aspect of learners' speaking skills development. To evaluate those aspects, the assessors were supplied with a fixed scale of points (up to ten points for each of the first six criteria and up to twenty points for criteria 7 and 8). The criteria were: 1)relevance of what was said to the topic, communicative situation, and prescribed roles; 2)accuracy and adequacy in what concerns pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary used; 3)volume of speaking (number of utterances) and active participation in talking/conversing; 5)fluency; 6)cohesion and coherence of speech; 6)variety of grammatical structures and vocabulary used by the speaker; 7)the initiative character of speech as an indicator of speaker's ability to stimulate and encourage the communicative exchange; 8)unhindered comprehension of what the interlocutors' were saying. The first six of the above criteria were also used for evaluating students' speaking (presentations) in speaking test 2 after the course on Business Talks.

An examinee could score up to 100 points for participation in one conversation. A 500-point maximum could be scored in the Survival Course speaking test and in speaking test 1 for the course on Business Talks (five conversations in every test). In speaking test 2 for the course on Business Talks an examinee could score not more than 60 points (one presentation).

The second test for the Survival Course and the third one for the course on Business Talks were listening tests. In the former course, students listened to some recorded talks from the area of socializing. In the latter, they listened to recorded presentations and talks on business matters proper. Listening was followed by comprehension tasks. If all examinee's answers were correct, he or she could score 70 points in the Survival Course listening test and 100 points in the other test.

The testing results (mean scores for all the students tested) are shown in Table 1. The presented results are divided according to years when students were tested with indication of the number of students tested in each of the four consecutive academic years (1993-1994, 1994-1995, 1995-1996, 1996-1997).

TABLE 1
Mean scores of students in the SECBO and the CEBTN from 1993-1994 to 1996-97

	Survival English Course with Business Orientation (SECBO)			Course of English for Business Talks and Negotiations (CEBTN)			
Year	Number tested	Speaking Mean Points Out of 500	Listening-Mean Points Out of 70	Number tested	Speaking 1 Mean Points Out of 500	Speaking 2 Mean Points Out of 60	Listening-Mean Points Out of 100
1993-94	34	468.7	62.5	27	480.5	57.8	97.4
1994-95	20	472.4	63.5	20	472.7	58.2	96.7
1995-96	21	479.0	65.0	21	481.6	58.0	96.9
1996-97	20	479.8	66.5	20	479.2	57.5	97.2

As it can be seen from the table above, in each year from 1993-94 to 1996-97 students' mean scores indicated that they were completing approximately 93% to 96% of the test items correctly. Variations in the mean each year were small and ranged from 1 to 2% higher. Student achievement was, on average, quite high. No individual differences that could be attributed to factors like age or occupations were observed. While there were no pre-semester scores available for comparison, these measures obtained after the end of the semester, when combined with the student interview data that will be discussed in following paragraphs, seem to indicate that the two principal courses were effective. Taking into account the range of criteria used for evaluating students' performance in tests, the courses appeared to provide the acquisition of communicative competence to the majority of learners in accordance with their personal and professional needs.

It was the stability of learning outcomes, which appeared to be quite high during the four consecutive years that gave an opportunity to discontinuing testing aimed at checking the efficiency of the program. As it has already been mentioned, since 1997 the program continues to function in the form arrived at by the end of 1997. Some improvements, developments, and corrections are being made, but they are mostly minor and do not change the fundamental characteristics of courses.

The data collected from questionnaires, which students completed anonymously, and information obtained while interviewing each of them personally confirmed the conclusions made above. The same students who took part in testing during the four consecutive years completed the questionnaires and were interviewed after testing. Learners' reactions were practically unanimous and highly positive. They demonstrated students' complete satisfaction with the program, courses in it, their content, and the learning results in relation to personal and professional requirements.

The assessment data along with the questionnaire and interview data seem to indicate that the program was successful. Programs designed with a similar process, even if they are in other countries, may reasonably be expected to be just as successful.

Conclusion

This Business English program is a model for an instructional framework and an organizational structure supporting sustained content for language learning. It may be argued that the success of the program was achieved due to the fact that the principle of sustainment was implemented on all levels - selecting, structuring, and distributing content, as well as organizing learning activities on the basis of that content. Learners felt all their needs covered seeing the clear connections between the English used in the classroom and that required of them in their personal and professional lives. It met their expectations because the needs analysis had demonstrated that, in a number of cases, students of Business English not only required a variety of courses, but expected all that variety to be integrated within one program that could cater to their needs completely. This, in its turn, necessitates the internal unity of the program where one course logically follows another and makes a foundation for the next one. It should be stressed that learners of Business English as a rule do not have access to such programs. Most Business English programs the world over have either only one type of a course or a collection of courses loosely connected to each other or not connected at all. That makes the issue of developing *integrated* Business English programs of several courses a current and topical one. The approach suggested in this article demonstrates how to create such *integrated* programs for different countries where Business English is taught either as a foreign or a second language.

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Addressing cultural and linguistic diversity in the classroom: Becoming culturally competent

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An earlier version of this paper was given as a keynote address at a conference on college ESL students, held in January, 2002, at the University of St. Thomas in St. Paul, Minnesota. The conference, Breaking Barriers: Meeting Classroom and Campus Needs of College ESL Students, was the first in the area to bring together ESL faculty, faculty from across the disciplines, and staff from various academic and student support services, to discuss the academic, social, and co-curricular needs of the immigrant student at the college-level. This paper addresses some of the linguistic and cultural issues that play a role in the academic success of immigrant students in college, as well as ways faculty can create a supportive environment for culturally and linguistically diverse students in their classrooms, so all students have the opportunity to develop fully their academic potential.

At international student orientation this past Fall I asked the incoming international students to write down a response to the question: "What is a good student?" The staff members that were present and myself, the lone faculty member, dutifully wrote down a response, as well. Although I didn't save the individual responses, I distinctly remember three very different types. Many of the international students referred to the responsibilities of students in classes that are lecture-based: A good student listens carefully to lectures, takes good notes, and memorizes well for tests. Many of the comments from staff regarded teacher expectations: A good student attends class regularly, completes assignments on time, and asks professors for assistance when she doesn't understand. My response reflected my status as a writing instructor: A good student thinks critically and creatively and expresses her ideas clearly and in academically appropriate ways; a good student also works hard, revises her papers multiple times, and learns from the instructor's feedback—in short, all the things writing instructors hope their students learn how to do in their classes.

This simple exercise provided the perfect segue into a discussion of the teaching/learning process and teacher/student expectations at the College of St. Catherine, with, of course, plenty of variation across disciplines and individual classrooms. We touched on the importance of class participation, group work, discussion, papers, projects, journals, and critical thinking. We used a syllabus from one of my courses to demonstrate where and how some of these practices and expectations are made clear. What we were doing in that orientation session is essentially the task that all faculty in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms must engage in: first, recognize that students' assumptions, expectations, and experiences with the educational process may not be the same as ours; second, make the assumptions and expectations of our classrooms explicit; and three, provide an accessible, reasonable, and sometimes negotiable, process through which students can become familiar with and proficient at accomplishing the tasks we set forth for them to do.

The good news is that all of this is do-able; you can teach ESL* students what it is you want them to be able to do. Chances are they may not know at the beginning, but they are very motivated and hard-working students and given the right support, they can learn it. The other good news is that all students benefit from expectations being made more explicit. Not all students who are native speakers of English come to college knowing what to do and how to do it. When you provide clearer and more detailed instructions, all students will have a better idea what you want them to do. Good ESL pedagogy is good pedagogy all around.

Furthermore, those of us in ESL have realizedd for some time now that the work that is done through ESL coursework is just the beginning, especially for the student who is not yet fully proficient in academic English. For students to be truly successful at the post-secondary level, staff and faculty from across the disciplines need to be aware of the linguistic, cultural, educational, and literacy issues, not to mention the social, psychological, and financial issues, that ESL college students face, and all of us have to develop a repertoire of strategies for responding to those issues. There are no easy or quick-fix answers, but with an awareness of the complexity of the issues involved and a strong commitment, both institutional and professional, to developing the necessary resources and expertise, considerable progress can be made in helping ESL college students be successful academically, personally, and professionally.

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*ESL in this paper, and at the conference, was used to refer to students whose native language is not English, regardless of their level of proficiency. It was not used to refer specifically to students who are enrolled in ESL classes.

Defining the college ESL student

Who are college ESL students and how has that population changed over the years? Until quite recently, research and publications on ESL students in higher education focused almost exclusively on the teaching of international students in intensive pre-academic ESL programs at universities around the country. With the arrival of refugees from Southeast Asia, beginning in the mid-to-late 1970's, ESL courses for adults were developed, but with a focus on "survival ESL," not college preparation. It was not until the sons and daughters of those refugees began to graduate in significant numbers from high schools in the U.S. that post-secondary institutions began to take note of a new kind of student in their classes. In more recent years, the term Generation 1.5 has been used to refer to long-term immigrants - students who were born outside the U.S., but who have gone through the U.S. school system for most of their formal education (Harklau, Losey & Siegal, 1999), in contrast to more recent immigrants who either completed high school in their native countries or who have spent just a few years in the U.S. school system.

Immigrant students, especially Generation 1.5, are usually quite fluent in spoken English and relatively familiar with U.S. culture, but they are not necessarily proficient in written academic English. Depending on the circumstances of their departure and on their age of arrival, they may have also experienced interruption in their schooling and may have taken a relatively small number of academic content courses, especially in language-intensive subjects such as social studies and science (Bosher & Rowekamp, 1998). In contrast to international students who have been a presence across Minnesota for many years, immigrant students are relatively new to our campuses. Furthermore, we have not always known what to do with them. Our ambivalence towards this population is perhaps best reflected in the numerous labels we have assigned them, including immigrant students, immigrant/refugee students, domestic applicants, U.S.-educated learners of English, Generation 1.5., and permanent residents or U.S. citizens whose native language is not English.

Although the population in Minnesota has changed over the years to include a greater diversity of immigrant students, most notably from African countries, and more and more students now have gone through the U.S. school system in its entirety, many of the issues have not changed. Fortunately, in recent years, there have been a plethora of books and articles published about the immigrant student in higher education (Bosher, 1997; Bosher, 1998; Bosher & Rowekamp, 1998; Harklau, Losey, & Siegel, 1999; Lee, 1997; Murray, 1992; Sternglass, 1997; Zamel, 1995; Zamel & Spack, 1998) and about the needs of immigrant ESL students outside of ESL courses and ESL sections of freshman composition, for example, in nursing programs (Abriam-Yago, Yoder, & Kataoka-Yahiro, 1999; Bosher, 2001b; Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002; Kataoka-Yahiro & Abriam-Yago, 1997).

The relative obscurity of the immigrant student in the literature has been exacerbated over the years by a situation of benign, or perhaps not so benign, neglect at the administrative level. In contrast to international students, whose application forms are processed in a very conscious way to accommodate student visa requirements, colleges and universities have not always had a mechanism in place for identifying who of their domestic applicants are non-native speakers of English. Most international applicants, with the exception of students from English-speaking countries, are required to take the TOEFL (or Test of English as a Foreign Language) as part of the application process. Issues of language proficiency are addressed by either rejecting applicants who fall below a designated cut-off score or by referring them to an intensive pre-academic program that is affiliated with, but administratively and financially separate from, the actual university itself.

In contrast, for domestic students, if there is not a question on the application form asking about the native or primary language of the applicant, language proficiency may not factor into the admission decision and the student may not be assessed for language proficiency and placed into ESL coursework, if needed. This is especially true with transfer students, who may not be required to submit ACT scores, which at least when the English and Reading part scores fall substantially below that of native speakers, especially in contrast to higher Math and Scientific Reasoning scores, may indicate issues with language proficiency or academic literacy. Thus, many immigrant students may not be getting the help they need through ESL courses to succeed, at least initially, at the post-secondary level.

To complicate matters, many of these students do not seek out assistance for a variety of reasons and may initially resent any ESL courses they are placed into. And, if completion of ESL is not required for students placed into these courses, there are many ways students will find to avoid taking ESL, especially if such courses eat up financial aid and do not carry credit or count towards graduation.

Why is placement into ESL classes so problematic for some immigrant students? Why are there such mixed emotions and attitudes around ESL issues? To answer these questions, we must first look closely and with a critical eye at the very label "ESL."

Deconstructing the label ESL

At first glance, the label "ESL" seems fairly straightforward. ESL stands for English as a Second Language. ESL students are students whose native language is not English; they are non-native speakers of English. For many Generation 1.5 and increasingly 2nd generation immigrant students, however, the distinction is blurry between what is their **native** (or **first** or **primary** or **home**) language vs. all other languages they may be proficient in. For example, for

Hmong-American students, their **first** language may have been Hmong and the language they speak with their parents and elders in the home may continue to be Hmong, but they may increasingly use English or both English and Hmong with their siblings, peers, and co-workers, and their language of **schooling**, since pre-school, has probably always been English. Claiming Hmong as their **native** language may be just as much an identity marker as it is their **primary** (or **dominant**) language. Some immigrant students may even have decided that their **dominant** language is English and put English down as their **native** language on college application forms. For students who are proficient in more than two languages, English may not be their **second** language, but rather their **third** or **fourth**... Or, if they have grown up speaking two (or more) languages and are fully and equally proficient in both, **bilingual** would be the more accurate label, but most bilinguals are not equally proficient in both languages; rather, they use different languages for different purposes and functions, resulting in varying degrees of proficiency in each. The secondary school system a number of years ago changed the label for students from **ESL** to **LEP** (for Limited English Proficient) and then to reflect a more positive attitude towards ESL students and to acknowledge the dynamic process of second language acquisition, they changed the label from LEP to **ELL** for English Language Learners in grades K-12. The professional organization in the field of ESL uses the acronym TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of **Other** Languages). So, the label ESL is not as straightforward as one might think. There are subtle, yet sometimes powerful differences between **first, second, native, non-native, other, home, primary, dominant**, and **bilingual**. And, there are other caveats, as well.

The use of the term ESL does **not** reflect proficiency in English, that is, not all ESL students need ESL coursework, although that is the usual assumption. On the St. Paul campus of the College of St. Catherine, we had a total of 88 international students registered for coursework in Fall, 2001. Only 26 of them (or 30%) took ESL classes that year. That Fall, we also had our largest number of incoming Asian-Americans ever, 44 students. Only 9 of them (or 20%) took ESL in Fall or Winter semester.

Furthermore, an accent is **not** a good indicator of a student's level of proficiency in English, that is, a student with a non-American English accent may or may not be a fluent speaker of English. We have many international students at St. Kate's from countries where English is an official language. These students have gone through English-medium schooling in their home countries. Though their accents are decidedly not American and there may be differences in lexical choices and grammatical constructions, they are often far more sophisticated and articulate in their usage of English than some native speakers of American English who were born and raised in the U.S.

In addition, there are varieties of English spoken throughout the world, for example, in Liberia, Nigeria, India, and Singapore, which differ from standard American English, but are still English. Some of these varieties are spoken as native languages, some as non-native languages. Students who speak a variety of English other than standard American English may or may not need ESL coursework. Occasionally, their spoken English may be quite fluent, but their writing sample may indicate the need for an ESL or developmental writing course.

In sum, the issues involved are quite complex. There is not one type of ESL student, but many. And because language is so intimately connected with ethnic, indeed personal identity, issues of labeling students in one way or another are often emotionally and politically charged. ESL itself is a stigmatizing label, especially for immigrant students who have gone through the U.S. school system and were mainstreamed a long time ago. All too often students, and sometimes faculty, equate a student's academic potential or even their intelligence with their current level of proficiency in English; unfortunately, the label ESL is sometimes used to legitimize such discriminatory attitudes.

As a result, students, especially long-term immigrants, are often unhappy about being placed into ESL courses. There are ways, however, to try and de-stigmatize ESL. Several years ago at the College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, the course designator for ESL courses was changed from ESL to ENGL, so students would have English courses on their transcripts, not ESL courses. Although our ESL courses have always carried college credit and counted towards graduation, we increased the number of courses that fulfill other requirements. For example, the immigrant literature course now fulfills the general education literature requirement. A new course for ESL pre-nursing majors, English for Cross-Cultural Nursing, counts as one of four writing-intensive courses students must take to graduate. The research-based writing course also fulfills a writing-intensive course requirement. Although negative attitudes persist to some extent, students placed into ESL courses do not complain anywhere near as much as they used to, according to our Academic Advising office.

Preparing for academic success: ESL coursework

While taking ESL classes certainly does not guarantee academic success, there have been several studies that indicate that students who do take ESL succeed at rates comparable to other students on campus, especially in comparison with ESL students who do not take ESL. For example, data gathered at the College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, on 191 degree-seeking students who took one or more ESL classes between 1985-1999 showed a 46.1% graduation rate with a cumulative GPA of 2.99. When the cohort was divided into international and immigrant students, statistically significant differences emerged between the two groups: international students had a higher graduation rate and GPA than immigrant students, a 52.2% graduation rate compared to 37.2%, and a GPA of 3.21 compared to 2.60. It is ironic that in many institutions, ESL courses are intended primarily for international students, who seem to have a higher success rate academically than immigrant students. Mechanisms for assessing and placing immigrant students into ESL have not yet been put into place.

A number of years ago, I also looked at the success rate of immigrant students in the Commanding English program at General College, the open-admissions college at the University of Minnesota, and found that they transferred into degree-granting programs at the University at a rate higher than any other group in the College, including Caucasian students. This finding still holds true today.

A recent MnSCU study of ESL students at Minneapolis Technical and Community College and Century College (Evens, 2000) is especially interesting because it compared ESL students who took ESL with ESL students who did not. ESL completers and partial completers outperformed non-takers on all four academic success criteria, many at statistically significant levels: 1st to 2nd Fall retention rates, mainstream credits earned, cumulative GPA, and low course withdrawal rate.

Clearly something is working right at institutions that provide their second-language students with ESL coursework that develops their academic literacy skills. But not all students end up in ESL. Some may place out of it; transfer students may have completed equivalent coursework at previous institutions; others may figure out a way to avoid it partially or completely. And, some, depending on their incoming level of proficiency or the nature of ESL coursework they have taken, may still not be where they need to be after successfully completing their ESL classes. Whatever the situation, staff and faculty across the curriculum need to know more about this population of ESL students so that they can help facilitate their success.

Developing academic literacy

In addition to assumptions that are often made about an ESL student's overall proficiency in English, there are other assumptions that are often made on the basis of proficiency in spoken English. People often confuse someone's ability to speak English fluently with their ability to read and write academic English. Spoken and written proficiency, in fact, are often quite different. For someone without any background in English, it takes at least 2-3 years of living in the U.S. to be able to use the language with ease and confidence for everyday communication. The ability to read and write English for academic purposes, however, can take anywhere from 5-10 years to develop, depending on many factors such as years of schooling in native language and age on arrival in the U.S. (Collier, 1989; Cummins, 1981).

Contrary to popular opinion, recently arrived international students are often better prepared for college-level work in English than immigrant students who have gone through the U.S. educational system, in part because international students have developed a high degree of academic literacy in their native language. They may also be more favorably situated socio-economically, and they may have fewer family and work responsibilities than immigrant students, which might also factor into differences in academic success between the two populations of students.

Academic literacy, as measured by years of schooling in one's native country, is also a significant predictor of academic success among immigrant students, as well. In a study a number of years ago of immigrant/refugee students enrolled in the Commanding English Program at General College, University of Minnesota (Bosher & Rowekamp, 1998), the most important predictor of GPA was number of years of schooling completed in the student's native country, followed by the student's score on a standardized language proficiency test. In contrast, there was a significant negative correlation between years of schooling in the U.S. and GPA. In other words, the longer a student had been in the U.S. educational system, the lower their GPA!

Well-developed academic skills in a student's native language greatly facilitate the development of academic skills in a second language. Immigrant students may still need ESL at the post-secondary level to help develop academic literacy in English that they either never developed in their native language or never fully developed in English. In contrast, international students, who are usually well-educated in their native language, often need ESL classes for linguistic and cultural reasons. They need ESL to help develop their fluency and accuracy in the language, as well as to help them adjust to the academic demands and expectations of a different educational system. In short, fluency in spoken English actually reveals little about ESL students' overall academic ability or preparedness for college-level work. Additionally, proficiency in academic English does not guarantee academic success in college; on the other hand, without it, academic success is much less likely (Johnson, 1988).

People also assume that after one or two courses in ESL, students will be, or at least should be, producing near flawless English. Not so. Acquiring full academic proficiency in a second language can take 8-10 years and even then, residual errors may remain. For many adult learners proficiency in a second language may never fully come. There is general consensus in the field of second language acquisition that after puberty, it is usually impossible to achieve native-like proficiency in a second language, especially with regards to accent (Ioup, 2003). Indeed, while accents in spoken English seem to be fairly well-tolerated in society today, foreign "accents" in written English are much less so.

Furthermore, most ESL classes are geared towards general academic literacy and are taken the first year students are in college. These courses are intended to prepare students for academic success in their content courses, but, ESL issues often surface again when students are taking upper-division courses in their major, for example, in nursing, education, and business. There may be discipline-specific skills and procedures that ESL students have difficulty with their junior and senior years that were not addressed in ESL courses that focused on general academic literacy their freshman year (Bosher, 2001a).

Addressing linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom: Beyond ESL

What are some of the cultural and linguistic issues that play a role in the academic success of immigrant students in college? What are some of the ways in which faculty can create a supportive environment in their classrooms for linguistically and culturally diverse students? To begin with, there are a host of cultural issues that international students and more recently arrived immigrant students struggle with in adjusting to a college or university in the U.S., issues that go way beyond the linguistic concerns of reading, writing, speaking, and listening with fluency and accuracy in a second language. Different countries have educational systems that vary not only in terms of what is taught, but also how it is taught and how students are expected to learn and demonstrate their understanding of course material (Wurzel & Fischman, 1995).

These different ways of teaching and learning reflect vastly different cultural values, which cut to the core of individual and collective identity. In some cultures, for example, it is unthinkable to express your own ideas before you have memorized the ideas of the masters; indeed, students will sometimes mask their originality of thought by attributing their ideas to someone else (Shen, 1985), in an interesting variation on the notion of plagiarism. Contrast such beliefs and practices with the emphasis on self-expression and originality of thought in the U.S., where students are taught they should have their own opinion and express it, even if it is contrary to what the experts say. This is not to say that international students and recent immigrants do not have their own opinion and do not know how to think critically; quite to the contrary, they may have strong opinions, but they have not necessarily been encouraged to articulate them in the classroom.

As a result, participation in class may be difficult for some students. They may have grown up in cultures where student participation was not encouraged, perhaps even discouraged. In a transmission model of education, the teacher is the sole expert in the classroom; students who speak up may be perceived as disrespectful of the teacher and of the other students. And even if students want to participate, if they are not fluent in spoken English, it will take them longer to express themselves than a fluent speaker, and they may feel embarrassed about making mistakes or not being understood if they were to speak up. Or, if some students aren't familiar with or comfortable with the fast pace of discourse in the classroom - how to gain and keep the floor, for example - they may never find the right moment to jump in (Sakamoto, 1995). Sometimes, too, if discussion is focused on personal experiences, the life experiences of students from mainstream U.S. culture may be so foreign to students from other cultural backgrounds that international and immigrant students may feel like they do not have anything to contribute.

Students who might not participate in large class discussions might be much more willing to participate in small group discussions (Peirce, 1995), especially if students are grouped by communicative style, in other words, with the more talkative and less talkative students grouped separately. Alternating between class and small group discussions is an additional possibility. Some students prefer one format, other students the other format. By varying the format, more students will be given the opportunity to participate in ways that are comfortable for them.

Some students may be unfamiliar with or uncomfortable with group work. They are used to teachers being the sole transmitters of knowledge and may resist learning from their peers. Although it can take time, all students can eventually learn to contribute to group work in productive, meaningful ways. They may need time and modeling to learn how to do it, however. Reflecting on the experience may help. One of the early journal assignments in my second semester writing class is to have returning students write a letter of advice to new students in the class, telling them how they can get the most out of group work, specifically the process of giving and receiving feedback about the rough drafts of papers. Through this exercise some students begin to express an understanding of the principles behind group work and start to feel a sense of ownership over the results of the process.

Professors can also help create an atmosphere in class in which students can feel more comfortable participating in class discussions. For example, an ESL student can be asked to serve as the recorder of a group discussion and then report to the class on material that was discussed in the group. Or, an ESL student can be asked to comment or elaborate on something another student has already said, thus reducing the anxiety of being the first to say something about a new topic. Increasing the opportunities for ESL students to participate in comfortable ways in class will increase their self-confidence and the likelihood of their contributing again, perhaps the next time on their own.

When a student who is not fluent in English does contribute to the discussion, professors can help facilitate, as well as validate their contribution. For example, I will often paraphrase a comment that was difficult to understand so that the whole class can benefit from an ESL student's contribution. Or, if a student is struggling to find a word, I might try and help out. Positive feedback and follow-up questions will not only encourage the student to contribute again, but will make it clear to the rest of the class that the ESL student's contribution is valued. These simple techniques help to create a supportive environment through which less proficient students can feel safe participating in the classroom.

Assignments that include a cultural component or that require interaction across cultures will help to create a positive atmosphere towards cultural diversity. They give international and immigrant students the chance to be experts on a topic and to feel valued and accepted by other students in the classroom. In addition, such assignments allow U.S.-born students the opportunity to learn more about other cultures, to develop relationships with students from other cultural backgrounds, and to acquire facility in cross-cultural communication. Service-learning projects that provide opportunities for students from all backgrounds to work with and get to know immigrant communities are another way to validate and support cultural diversity in the classroom.

In addition to class participation, another issue that tends to come up is that ESL students who are having difficulty with a course, or with a type of assignment, may not come forward and ask for help from the instructor. Some may be reluctant to show they do not understand because asking questions might indicate that the teacher had not explained well enough. Other students may simply be too shy or fearful to tell the teacher that they don't understand. Professors should not wait for students who are having difficulty to come forward. They should initiate contact with a student they are concerned about and arrange to have the student see them after class or during office hours to go over an assignment or to clarify difficult concepts discussed in class. Instructors at St. Kate's who report success with ESL students emphasize the importance of regular one-on-one interaction.

It may also be appropriate to refer the student to a learning center on campus, especially for assistance with writing. Indeed as our campuses become more diverse, it is essential that learning centers be prepared to work with ESL students. Every Fall I provide in-service training for the writing assistants in the O'Neill Center for Academic Development at the College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, and for the past several years, either the Director or Associate Director has had a background in ESL. Learning Centers should be, if they are not already, an important resource for ESL students. On the St. Paul campus, a total of 245 visits by 78 ESL students was recorded at the O'Neill Center during Fall semester, 2001; that was 46% or almost half of the total number of visits!

But, often a referral is not enough. Taking the student or calling to arrange an appointment not only legitimizes the learning center and emphasizes its importance, but it also ensures that initial contact is made. Follow-up with the student and with the center is also helpful and is sometimes necessary to make sure the student is continuing to seek the help she or he needs. Every semester, I require students in my writing classes to work on the rough draft of a paper with a writing assistant and to write a journal entry afterwards evaluating the usefulness of this experience. For many students it is the first time they have gone to the center and for a few, it marks the beginning of a helpful and productive relationship that will endure long after the student has completed her ESL coursework with me.

A student may also have difficulty in a course because he or she is unfamiliar with or inexperienced with specific types of assignments. It is essential to make expectations explicit for the benefit of all students, and allow students the opportunity to acquire the specific skills that are important over time. For example, in my immigrant literature course, students are asked to keep a reading journal. The Reading Journal is a place where students can explore ideas and themes from the readings. I ask students to select some aspect of the reading - a character, an event, a quote, briefly summarize that aspect of the reading, and then go beyond the text in some way, by analyzing it, reflecting upon the significance of it, relating it or making a connection with another reading or the student's own experience. I specifically tell students not simply to record what happened in the reading. I also specifically tell them not just to write a personal response to the reading. And, invariably I get both kinds of responses to the assignment at the beginning of the semester.

What matters here is not what students are able to do at the beginning of the course, but by the end. I have students turn in their first journal entry immediately, after the first reading assignment, so that I can check what they have done. The next class period, I read samples of a couple of entries where students got it right and a couple where they did not. I discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each entry, making explicit my expectations for the assignment. Students are also given written feedback about the quality of their entries each time they are turned in, and grading for the journal entries is weighted, so that the latter two sets count more than the first two sets. So, if a student has never done this kind of reflective writing before, they are given the opportunity to develop this skill over time and with feedback that will guide them in their efforts.

In addition to cultural considerations, language proficiency is a real issue for some ESL students. Listening and speaking will be difficult for newly arrived international students, especially those who learned English through a grammar-based approach. They may benefit from being able to audiotape lectures or borrow a classmate's notes to fill in what they missed during lectures. Because it takes ESL students so much longer to process text in a second language (Donin & Silva, 1993), they should be given the option of taking tests in a learning center for time and a half. This option is offered to ESL students in our nursing program, which now also reviews their multiple-choice tests for linguistic and cultural bias. Otherwise, poor performance on a test might reflect culturally specific content or a lack of clarity in the wording of test items rather than a student's mastery of course material (Bosher, 2003). Study groups can also be an important resource for ESL students, though some students have reported difficulty when trying to join a study group with native speakers; most report greater success forming a study group with other ESL students, but the teacher could at least encourage, perhaps facilitate, the setting up of such groups.

Responding to ESL writing issues

Perhaps the biggest source of concern with ESL students is writing issues. A computer science faculty member contacted me this Fall, concerned about having short answer and essay questions on her mid-term and final exams. She did not want to have only "fact-based" questions that required students just to regurgitate factual information they had memorized, but questions that required higher order thinking skills: analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and so forth. But, she was concerned about putting the ESL students in her class at a disadvantage. I told her that I had heard over and over again from ESL students in the nursing program that even if writing is difficult for them, they felt they could better demonstrate their mastery of course content by writing short answers to open-ended questions in a case-study format, than through multiple-choice tests. Furthermore, writing is such an important skill, not only for college, but for the work place, that all students need to be given the opportunity to develop their writing skills. Finally, writing helps clarify our thinking; it is an important tool for learning. As this same professor stated, "the process required to prepare a paper helps formulate the problem and solution more clearly" (Y. Ng, personal communication, January 14, 2001). The professor ended up having both "fact-based" and "essay-based" questions on the exams; she posted a set of 10 possible essay questions on the Internet the week before the exam, allowing all students the opportunity to prepare in advance.

Another issue for ESL students, especially those with strong literacy backgrounds in their native language, is the different ways of organizing and presenting ideas in written discourse. For example, to state your point directly at the beginning of your essay in some cultures would be considered an affront to your reader, for whom a proper foundation for one's thesis must first be laid, and the topic approached in a gradual and systematic way instead of abruptly, much like the peeling of an onion: the layers are removed one by one until the reader finally arrives at the core (Shen, 1985). In contrast, an essential rule in English composition is the thesis statement, which, according to Fan Shen, author of "The Classroom and the Wider Culture: Identity as a Key to Learning English Composition," reflects "the values of a busy people in an industrialized society, rushing to get things done, hoping to attract and satisfy the busy reader very quickly." For many international and immigrant students the conflict they experience in learning to write well in English is deeply personal. As Fan Shen explains: "In order to write good English, I knew that I had to be myself [advice that more than one composition instruction had given him], which actually meant not to be my Chinese self. It meant that I had to create an English self and be *that* self. And to be that English self... I had to accept the way a Westerner sees himself in relation to the universe and society."

The process of learning to write acceptable academic prose in a U.S. college setting is, in fact, a process of creating a new identity, all the while balancing it with the old, a process that goes way beyond simply becoming proficient in another linguistic system. This process can be greatly facilitated if cultural differences are made a subject of discussion in the classroom and the cultural and ideological values and assumptions implicit in preferred ways of writing, as well as teaching and learning, are made explicit and compared and contrasted across cultures. For example, I have students in my second semester writing course read the Shen article quoted above, written by a Chinese scholar who went to graduate school in the U.S. and now teaches writing in New York. We talk about the ideas in the article, and then for one of their assignments, students are asked to summarize and critique it.

Finally, it is important to realize that errors are a natural part of the language-acquisition process and that completely error-free writing may not be a realistic expectation for many second-language learners. Questions to consider are: How serious are the errors? Do they interfere with the student's meaning? Or are the errors relatively minor surface-level errors, such as inconsistent use of past tense and subject/verb agreement errors, that can be easily corrected once the student has been made aware of them and taught how to correct them?

Papers that are difficult to read and understand because of grammatical errors should be returned to the student for careful editing. In the evaluation of a paper, fewer points could be assigned at the beginning of the semester, and more points later on for grammatical accuracy, to encourage the student to take seriously the need to edit carefully his or her papers for errors. It is important for students to be held accountable for the language-related errors in their writing, but not at the expense of content and organization (Bosher, 1990). Too often errors have been overlooked, perhaps because they were too much work, a practice that was encouraged in composition studies that showed that a focus on errors could prevent the student from focusing on more important issues in their writing and from research that showed that error correction did not necessarily improve student's accuracy, at least not right away. On the other hand, students do not always realize they make the errors they do and should be given the opportunity to become more consciously aware of the errors they make and be given strategies for editing their papers for those errors. Such attention to errors, however, should be addressed during the final stages of the writing process or handled separately from the writing process through an editing course or tutorials in a learning center.

Becoming culturally competent

Over the past four years I've been fortunate to have had conversations with colleagues from a variety of departments at St. Kate's: economics, computer science, nursing, philosophy, theology, biology, occupational therapy, education, English, psychology, and sociology. I have come to view the faculty development work that I do at St. Kate's as being just as important as the ESL and English department courses that I teach. I so enjoy those opportunities for cross-disciplinary exchanges and I am often humbled by the extraordinary commitment of my colleagues at St. Kate's towards ESL students. Without their commitment to the success of these students, I fully realize how much less useful my work would be. And without their realization of the importance that diversity brings to the classroom for the benefit of all students, the education that all students receive at our colleges and universities would be much less meaningful. As one Theology professor so aptly stated:

> Most of all, I think, experience in teaching ESL students has taught me about the challenges and wonders of learning, of really learning... My Muslim student from Saudi Arabia this fall... taught me things I didn't even know I didn't know. Learning for me, and for my students, is like learning 'a second first language,' and it is so often ESL... students who help me see this. Those students help me and native English speakers break through our over-familiarity with words, an over-familiarity that gets in the way of our learning... My ESL students... are more open to finding the meanings contained in words. They are more open to learning that there is something deep in a text which they need to find. ESL students are not the ones who tell me 'Everything is just a matter of someone's opinion.' They look more deeply for meaning. (W. McDonough, personal communication, January 15, 2001)

For all of our students to benefit from diversity in the classroom, however, curricular, pedagogical, and co-curricular changes are necessary at our institutions. As a colleague from the English department put it:

> I think that all ESL students—international students and immigrant students—would benefit from strategies/requirements/ programs/ classes that help native speakers better understand and appreciate other cultures, languages, and ways of seeing the world. Most ESL students in college try to accommodate native-speakers' needs and meet their expectations; they are practiced in trying to 'fit in'. Native speakers, especially those from privileged races and social backgrounds, are the ones who need to learn to appreciate and accommodate others... Encouraging a greater understanding and appreciation of diversity... involving curricular, structural, and social changes, would be a service to all of our students, non-native speakers and speakers alike. (S. Tennery, personal communication, January 17, 2001)

The more experience faculty members have with ESL students, the more they seem to reject a deficit model. While we all realize there are challenges to be met with diversity, we also realize the tremendous contributions that culturally and linguistically diverse students bring to our classrooms and our professional programs because of their life experiences, perspectives on issues, knowledge about other languages and cultures, and their inner strength and resources. If we work together, across disciplines and faculty/staff divides, we can create an environment that is open, accepting, and supportive, an environment in which all students are given the opportunity to develop to their fullest. Our world is a changed world, even before, but especially after September 11th. We all need to be able to participate in an environment that is reflective of the multicultural and international world around us; we need to know more about one another, to recognize the commonalities across cultures and peoples, as well as appreciate the different ways in which the human experience can be expressed socially, culturally, spiritually, as well as individually. We need to develop the skills and strategies to cross barriers and create bridges on campuses and help all of our students learn how to do the same, so that they can take their education out into the world to make it a more socially responsible and just world for all members of society. In other words, all of us - faculty, staff, and students of all cultural backgrounds - need to become culturally competent, and practice it in every aspect of our lives, including the classroom.

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REVIEWS

Silence from the journal "Paj Ntaub Voice: A Journal Giving Expression to Hmoob Voices Moua," (2001)(Volume 7, No. 2) edited by Mai Neng.

Silence is one addition of the journal *Paj Ntaub Voice: A Journal Giving Expression to Hmoob Voices*. *Silence* is comprised of works by Hmong writers and artists and is devoted to giving Hmong people an opportunity to express themselves. This journal sheds light on the troubles and triumphs of the Hmong people in America. Many of the stories and poems are presented to the reader in English, but almost an equal number are presented in Hmong.

In traditional Hmong society Hmong women played a subservient role. They had no choice but to follow the beliefs of their husbands. In America, most Hmong women still feel pressure to play the traditional role. This journal gives Hmong women a chance to show their intelligence and to show how they feel about their role in the Hmong and mainstream societies. *Silence* also features works by Hmong males. These works express the confusion and grief that comes from trying to adapt and fit into American culture.

Following are a few highlights of the stories and poems that I found to be exceptionally-informative and thought provoking. One essay written by a man named Bee Cha titled "Being Hmong is Not Enough..." describes his bitterness about being a minority. He frequently speaks about missed opportunities and feelings of confused identity. He writes, "With my talents, experience, and confidence, even God could not dispute my qualifications. But I was *hmong*. I was cursed. It was as if I was held, tied, and pulled back by these ancient 'threads of customs.' " Bee Cha claims that in America "Hmong" means not being free. Finally, he talks about the fact that at times he is ashamed that he left his family and culture behind in order to succeed. What makes his essay noteworthy is his brutal honesty. (pp. 8-11)

"Girl in a Box" is a poem written by a woman named Sue Vang. It expresses the tragedy of being a Hmong woman without a "voice." The poem begins with the author stating the fact that she does not know if she is a gift or a prisoner, but she is definitely trapped. She expresses how horrible and confusing it was for her mother not to stand up for her. When she stood up for herself, she only felt pain, so she stopped fighting back. She learned to obey, much like her mother had learned. Now she has stopped wondering about things. She simply remains silent in her box filled with tears. (p. 20)

The final piece that I would like to highlight was written by Pacyinz Lyfoung, a woman working for an Asian battered women's organization. In her story "A Battered Woman's Advocate Speaks," she recalls a horrible ordeal that she faced while trying to help a battered Hmong woman. The author points out why many law enforcement agencies do not have the cultural understanding to help battered Hmong women. They do not understand that Hmong women have an extremely strong sense of commitment to their families. Many Hmong women refuse to ever leave their husbands, and almost all refuse to be separated from their children for even one night. Most serious domestic abuse that occurs in Hmong families is not reported. This is partially because the women feel that the abuse is their fault, and partially because of language barriers. (pp. 28-29)

Additional stories in this book show Hmong people who feel that they have found a "voice" and effective ways to balance their Hmong culture and tradition with American norms. *Silence* provides a nice cross section of stories on the lives of Hmong people and is a good way to gain an understanding of their culture.

If you are interested in reading additional stories, essays, and poems written by the Hmong, Mai Neng Moua has recently edited and published *Bamboo Among the Oaks: Contemporary Writing by Hmong Americans.* This book features some of the material found in *Silence*, but it also features a lot of new material.

REVIEWER

Amy Hubers is a student in the elementary education and ESL programs at the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh.

Dual Language Instruction - a Handbook for Enriched Education by Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan

Dual Language Instruction—a Handbook for Enriched Education by Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan is a comprehensive guide to establishing, implementing, and evaluating a dual language bilingual program (one which develops proficiency in two languages). The handbook begins in Part I with an introductory look at the foundations of a dual language program—definitions, philosophies, benefits, and characteristics—and suggestions for development and implementation. Outlined here are nine critical features of an effective program: (1) parent involvement, (2) high standards, (3) strong leadership, (4) developmental nature, (5) student-centered instruction, (6) integrated language and academic instruction, (7) reflective teachers, (8) program integration within the school and community, and (9) additive bilingualism.

Part II describes several key components of instruction and how to structure them appropriately in order to uphold these nine critical features. In its own chapter, each component of instruction, including oral language development, bi-literacy, content areas, and assessment, considers philosophy, objectives, instructional strategies, activities, and resources. These criteria are illustrated through examples, checklists, frequently asked questions, and vignettes by teachers in the field. Each chapter concludes with a checklist to ensure that each component of instruction sustains the original nine critical features of an effective dual language program.

Part III portrays model lessons with their corresponding objectives, resources, procedures, and assessment options. The final chapter of the text addresses issues of advocacy and concerns for all stakeholders involved, especially students, parents, teachers, and community members.

The text is an excellent resource for any and all teachers of second language learners, but particularly for those implementing a dual language program, such as immersion, developmental bilingual, or two-way bilingual. Although some of the authors' suggestions reflect best practices for ESL and bilingual education that should be used in all language programs, the bi-literacy focus and pragmatic, step-by-step procedures for implementation address issues raised specifically in a dual language setting. In each area of the curriculum and with the nine critical features in mind, a dual language educator must consider philosophy, objectives, instructional strategies, activities, and resources. The text provides valuable direction.

The philosophical discussion and framework presented is comprehensive. The authors not only provide their recommendations on each subject but also back them up with evidence and research from the field. They explain why each of their suggestions is essential for the success of the program and for second language learners. This is imperative if the reader is to accept their ideology as his/her own and conduct choices in program implementation and day-to-day instruction accordingly. Similarly, as bilingual teachers, we are often called to defend our actions, our instructional strategies, and our curriculum choices. The philosophical groundwork of this text provides the teacher with a basis to do so. Lastly, the authors present their opinions and recommendations without appearing as the know-all, end-all in the field. They acknowledge that other models are sometimes used and used successfully. For example, although they suggest that literacy instruction be taught first in the minority language to all students, they present opposing viewpoints as well, including excerpts from the field. They recommend a 90-10 (90% Spanish instruction, 10% English) model but acknowledge that some programs incorporate the 50-50 model with almost as much success. Thus, the authors provide direction while still leaving the teacher with enough comfortable space to make his/her own decisions.

Once a dual language educator's philosophy is clarified, teaching and learning objectives must be established. The authors clearly define how to select objectives in each component of instruction—language development, literacy, and content areas—and how the instructor can integrate them together throughout the school day. For instance, each content area lesson should include content objectives (i.e. knowledge of), language goals (i.e. linguistic development), and general skills goals (i.e. learning strategies). Every lesson should contain a preview phase, where prior knowledge is activated and the lesson introduced; a focused learning phase, where new material is taught and practiced; and an extension phase, where new learning is applied and assessed. Included in the section on oral language development are the TESOL standards for second language learners in grades PK-12.

Tied to the teaching and learning objectives are the instructional strategies a teacher employs. The authors include strategies for language, literacy, and content area instruction. For instance, in literacy, teachers should explicitly teach students to skim, to use context clues, to use the illustrations, and to use phonemic awareness in their reading. In the content areas, teachers should make lessons more comprehensible by using cognates and controlled vocabulary, by reinforcing key ideas, by pacing instruction appropriately, by using visuals, and by giving students increased wait time. This element of the text, in particular, can be applied beyond the dual language classroom to all language learners and all program models.

The authors then offer possible activities for achieving the established objectives in each area of the curriculum. In literacy instruction, they categorize recommended activities by developmental stage of the student. Certain activities, such as language experience stories, are more appropriate for emergent readers whereas others, such as research projects, are only appropriate for fluent readers. In relation to the content areas, they suggest task demands appropriate to each stage of language proficiency. For example, students in the pre-production stage can listen, point, draw, act, and find. Students in the speech emergence stage can recall, retell, describe, contrast, and explain. Task demands use increasingly more language skills as students develop in proficiency. This is important because a teacher must be able to select activities and tasks that correspond to the developmental levels of language and literacy of his/her students in order to scaffold learning and foster student success.

Finally, the authors address the need for effective materials and resources in achieving the designated learning objectives, and thus, in creating a successful dual language program. In Chapter Five, they present a checklist describing how to recognize if bi-literacy materials meet six essential criteria: proficiency demands, contextual support, language authenticity, intended audience, cultural features, and intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional satisfaction. In the content areas, a second checklist helps the teacher to choose materials that have no cultural bias, useful illustrations and graphics, an inviting layout, and limited, straightforward text. Like instructional strategies, suggestions for materials are valid for language learners regardless of program model.

In conclusion, *Dual Language Instruction—a Handbook for Enriched Education* compellingly suggests that there are nine critical features in any effective dual language program and clearly portrays how they should be upheld within each component of instruction. This provides a valuable framework for anyone establishing a new program or evaluating a current one. Although targeted at the dual language setting, elements of the text apply to all program models. The authors have successfully written a thorough, essential guide for second language instruction.

REVIEWER

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