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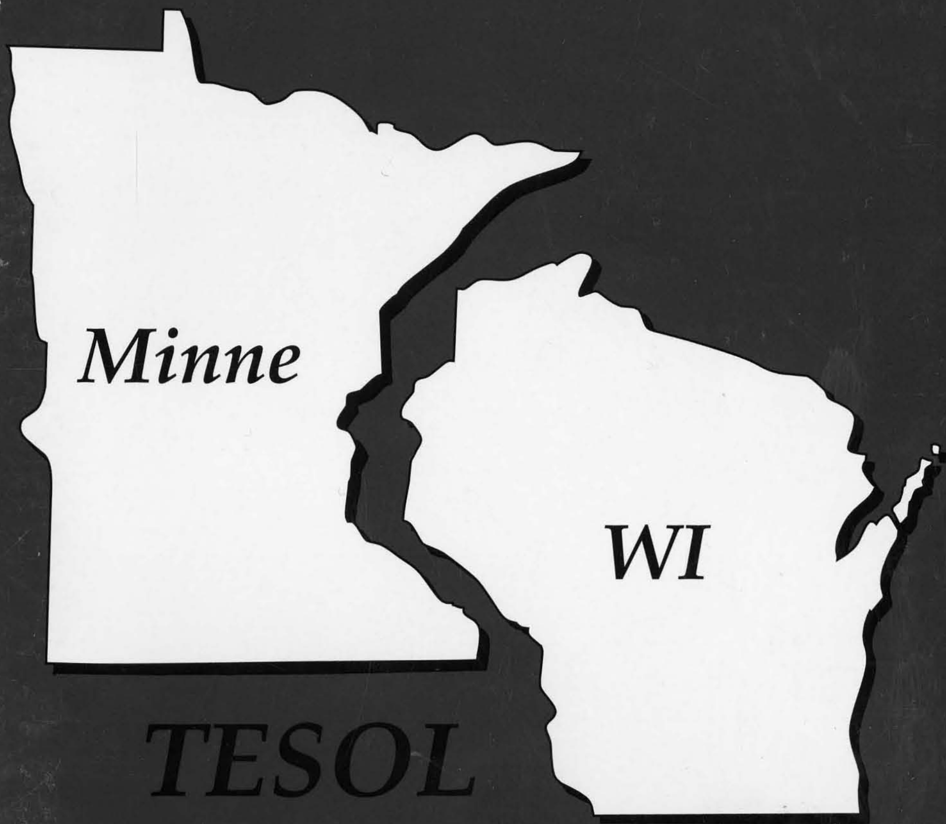
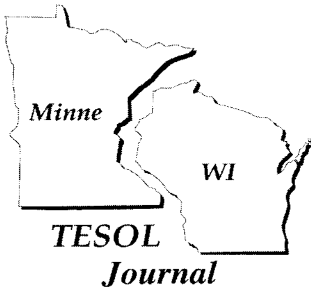
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages



MinneWITESOL Journal

Volume 23 2006



Volume 23, 2006

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

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CALL FOR PAPERS

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The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* seeks contributions for Volume 24 to be published summer of 2007. Submissions of the following type will be considered:

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ande1819@umn.edu

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INTRODUCTION

We are pleased to bring to you the twenty-third volume of the MinneTESOL/ WITESOL Journal, and mark the eleventh year of collaboration between Minnesota and Wisconsin TESOL affiliates. The articles and reviews in this volume examine sociolinguistic practices in immigrant communities, effective teaching strategies inside and outside of classrooms, assessment of English Language Learners (ELLs), and the ongoing need to understand issues faced by members of refugees and other minority groups as they accommodate to life in the United States.

Our first article, by Susan M. Burt, "'Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl': Orthographic Codeswitching in a Playscript,," offers an intriguing examination of codeswitching by young Hmong Americans, using as her source a play which has appeared in Mai Neng Moua's (editor), *Bamboo Among the Oaks*.

In our second article, Joe Betts explores assessment issues and effectiveness in "Tracking the Progress of Students Whose First Language is Not English Towards Proficiency: Using CBM with LEP Students."

In our third article, Rhoda Fagerland examines the effectiveness of music for language learning in "Can Music be Used Effectively to Teach Grammar?" Her study joins an interest in utilizing the arts in teaching with an effective strategy for measuring results.

Our fourth article, by Susan Ranney and Tina Edstam, is "Tutoring Programs for ELLs: Moving Beyond the Classroom to Support Academic Achievement." The authors highlight the many ways that instructional support outside of the classroom can enhance student learning.

Finally, Volume 23 of our journal concludes with a poem and six book reviews. Diane Pecararo shares her poem, "ESL Class: Grammar Lesson." Anita Dualeh reviews *A Gift for Sadia.* Debra Leach reviews *Essential Academic Vocabulary: Mastering the Complete Academic Word List.* Christine Liptak reviews *College to Careers: Listening in the Real World.* Charlotte Martin reviews *World Link: Developing English Fluency.* Julia Tabbut reviews *Targeting Pronunciation: Communicating clearly in English. 2nd Ed.* Shervun Xiong reviews *"My name is ... ": Stories and Art by Young Refugees.*

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.

Donald F. Hones
University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh

Kristi Kline Liu
University of Minnesota

Marguerite Parks
University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh

Nima Salehi
Minnesota Literacy Council

"Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl": Orthographic Codeswitching in a Playscript

Susan M. Burt

In the play-script, "Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl," recently published in the collection of Hmong-American literature in English, Bamboo Among the Oaks, author Va-Megn Thoj alternates representing Hmong names in the Romanized Popular Alphabet or RPA ("Hmoob") and using spelling conventions more readable by English-speakers ("Hmong"). Thoj presents codeswitched Hmong words of the young Hmong-American male character in RPA, and those of the woman in more conventional Anglicized spelling. These two characters quarrel openly about their relationship in the situation of changing gender expectations in the Hmong-American community. The two available spelling systems serve to index their identity positions along a scale of acculturation.

Presenting basics on how to read RPA, this paper shows how the script can be read as an orthographic and cultural in-joke, deriving humor from switching between spelling conventions; that switching itself delineates the reader-audience for the script—biliterate young Hmong-Americans who negotiate dual and changing identities in a situation of changing cultural expectations. The humor derived from the unique cultural, indeed intercultural position of Hmong immigrants makes this play a good choice for reading with adult and young adult Hmong learners of English.

Introduction

Kramsch (1993: 7) has noted that teachers of language may hesitate to use literature in their teaching; indeed the academic separation of language and literature may lead language specialists to feel unqualified to do so. In the case of "hybrid" literatures, language teachers may hesitate still further if they are not members of the cultural group, or if they lack linguistic or cultural knowledge of the relevant language or culture. The goal of this paper is to let readers in on the various kinds of background knowledge—specifically, orthographic and cultural background knowledge—that readers must possess and activate in order to understand the humor in a playscript by a Hmong-American author. In doing so, I hope to show how language teachers who want to make use of culturally appropriate "hybrid" literatures in English instruction can use—indeed, must use—cultural information and pragmatics to elucidate these texts.

Bamboo Among the Oaks, edited by Mai Neng Moua, is a collection of writings in English by first- and second-generation Hmong Americans which contains the play-script "Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl." In this short play, author Va-Megn Thoj alternates the presentation of Hmong names between use of the Romanized Popular Alphabet or RPA ("Hmoob") and spelling conventions more representative of the sound if letters are assigned European phonetic values ("Hmong"). Thoj presents codeswitched Hmong words of the male character, a young Hmong-American man who meets a young Hmong-American woman at a party, in RPA, and the corresponding words of the woman in more conventional Anglicized spelling. The two characters quarrel openly about their positions in the situation of changing gender expectations in the Hmong-American community, with the two available spelling systems serving to index identity positions along a scale of acculturation—until they discover that they have the same clan name, and so are not possible date or marriage partners.

The section below will discuss the RPA, one of several writing systems that have been developed for the Hmong language. The paper then contrasts the social associations of the RPA in the minds of some

Hmong-Americans with the associations it has for characters in the play. In the final section, the Markedness Model of Carol Myers-Scotton is then used to explicate the characters' orthographic preferences in the playscript.

Understanding the RPA

The RPA is the product of collaboration between Western missionary linguists who worked with the Hmong in Laos in the 1950's. To understand how the RPA works to represent the sounds of Hmong, it is important to know that the language is relatively strict in its syllable structure, and that structure is (C)V+tone(N). A syllable consists of at least a vowel, which carries one of eight possible tones. But vowel-initial syllables are relatively few in number; most morphemes begin with one of the 57 possible consonants that are shown in Table 3. In addition, a syllable may end with the velar nasal; however, this has been analyzed, not as a final consonant, but as a nasalized vowel, and this analysis is crucial to understanding the construction of the RPA.

Vowels, Tones and Spelling

Hmong has thirteen (or fourteen, depending on dialect) vowels, six simple vowels, five diphthongs, and two or three nasalized vowels. Table 1 lists these with examples of lexical items with each vowel:

The first column in Table 1 shows the phonetic representation of the vowel segments, including the three nasalized vowels, which are nasalized in that a velar nasal consonant [ŋ] follows the vowel. These nasalized vowels, shown in part (c) of Table 1, constitute the only possible exception to seeing the syllable structure as strictly CV. Notice, however, that the nasalized vowels are not represented in RPA as having any nasal quality whatsoever: the orthographic signal for nasalization is a doubling of the vowel symbol. Thus, orthographic ee represents [eŋ], and orthographic oo represents [ɔŋ]. For example, the Hmong adjective meaning 'good' is pronounced [ʒɔŋ] and spelled zoo in RPA. From the point of view of an English speaker, this is somewhat odd, having a vowel symbol represent a consonantal feature, nasalization, but it works well for the strict phonotactics of Hmong.

(a) six simple vowels:

[i]	miv	'cat'
[e]	tsev	'house'
[a]	pam	'blanket'
[ɔ]	cov	plural classifier
[u]	hnub	'sun, day'
[ɨ]	nws	third person singular pronoun,'s/he'

(b) five diphthongs:

[ia]	siab	'liver'
[ua]	npua	'pig'
[ai]	hais	'to speak'
[au]	plaub	'four'
[ɔɨ]	fawm	'noodles'

(c) two or three nasalized vowels:

[ɛŋ]	heev	'very'
[ɔŋ]	Hmoob	'Hmong'
[aŋ]	'Vaaj'	'king, Lord' (Green Hmong only)

Table 1 : Vowels in Hmong

However, readers may also notice that there seem to be exceptions to the phonotactic rule against syllable-final consonants among the words in the second column of Table 1, which lists lexical items in RPA orthography. All of these words, except npua, 'pig,' are spelled with final consonant letters. These consonant letters, however, have been chosen to represent not genuine consonants at all, but tones. To approximate the tone values these letters represent, imagine a musical scale with five tones: tone 1 is a very low tone, while tone 5 represents a high pitch. Hmong has eight tones that can be described as shown on Table 2:

tone pattern	tone description	RPA symbol	example	gloss
55	high tone	-b	pob	'ball'
52	high falling tone	-j	poj	'female'
24	rising tone	-v	pov	'to throw'
33	mid tone	--	po	'pancreas'
22	low tone	-s	pos	'thorn'
31	low falling	-m	pom	'to see'
42	breathy falling tone	-g	pog	'grandmother'
213	low rising	-d	pod	'up there'

Table 2: Tones in Hmong (adapted from Smalley et al. 1990, p. 42, Jaisser 1995, pp. 5-6)

These examples make it clear that the consonant symbols at the end of so many words do not represent real consonants at all; indeed, it is the impossibility of having any pronounced consonant but [ŋ] at the end of a Hmong syllable that allows the use of consonant symbols at the end of syllables to represent the tone. [1]

The Representation of Hmong Consonants in the RPA.

Fuller (1988), Jaisser (1995), and Smalley et al. (1990) offer analyses of the complexities of Hmong consonants. Fifty-seven consonants (for White Hmong) may be articulated at the lips, teeth, front palate, back palate, uvula or vocal cords (Smalley et al. 1990, p. 47). Stop and affricate consonants (including nasal stops) produced at these posi-

tions may be further differentiated by secondary articulations such as pre-aspiration, post-aspiration, pre-nasalization or release as a lateral; the RPA representations, as in Table 3, indicate these secondary articulation features. Table 3, from Smalley et al. (1990, p. 47) shows the representation of Hmong consonants in the RPA:

Despite the phonetic complexity of these consonants, they seem to act as single phoneme sounds in Hmong (Smalley et al. 1990, p. 46). [2]

The social position of the RPA

The Hmong language in the United States, including Wisconsin and Minnesota, is a minority language, spoken by immigrants from Laos who became refugees from the war in Southeast Asia, the largest influx of refugees beginning thirty years ago, when the United States withdrew from that war. Traditional Hmong culture in Laos did not include a widespread literacy tradition, although Smalley, Vang and Yang (1990, p. 49) claim that fourteen different attempts have been made to create a system for writing the language. The RPA seems to be the most successful of these attempts: two Protestant missionary linguists, Linwood Barney and William Smalley, and one Catholic missionary linguist, Yves Bertrais, collaborated in Laos in the 1950's to create this writing system. Bertrais then began to teach it systematically, despite the objections of the Laotian government, and the use of the system spread to speakers of Hmong in Thailand. With the Hmong now in diaspora, users of the RPA can now be found in France and Australia as well as the United States (Smalley et al. 1990, pp. 153-154).

Since the RPA can be written with a typewriter, and without diacritical marks, it would seem to be a highly practical writing system. However, the RPA competes, in the minds of some Hmong, with the Pahawh Hmong, a syllabic system invented by an indigenous Hmong linguistic genius, Shong Lue Yang. Since Shong Lue was Hmong, and the inventors of the RPA were all Westerners, some older Hmong prefer the Pahawh syllabary, despite the fact that it is extremely difficult to adapt to typewriters or word processors (Smalley et al. 1990, chapters 8 and 9). [3] Eira (1998) tells of one diasporic Hmong community in Australia that has decided to use the Pahawh in all its documents rather than the RPA. Smalley et al. (1990, pp. 161-3) claim that both systems are

Lips			Teeth			Front Palate		Back Palate	Uvula	Glottis
p	pl	t	d	tx	r	c	ts	k	q	?
ph	plh	th	dh	txh	rh	ch	tsh	kh	qh	
np	npl	nt	[ndl]	ntx	nr	nc	nts	nk	nq	
nph	nplh	nth	[ndlh]	ntxh	nrh	nch	ntsh	nkh	nqh	
m	nl	n				ny		g		
hm	hnl	hn				hny				
f		x			s	xy				h
v		l			z	y				
		hl								

Table 3: Hmong consonants in RPA (from Smalley et al. 1990, p. 47)

capable of representing the language with reasonable faithfulness, and that it is issues of identity that drive the association of the Pahawh with traditional Hmong values and the association of the RPA with modernization.

The RPA within the play

This association is reversed, however, when the RPA is set against European-based roman-alphabet representations of the language; in this comparison, the RPA becomes associated with traditional Hmongness, and anglicized spellings come to represent modernity and Western values. It is these associations that the playwright Thoj plays on in "Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl."

Here the male character's name is represented as Tooj ('Tong' with high falling tone) while the female character's name is Jennifer. Tooj asks Jennifer to dance, and when she ignores him, tries to explain his motivation for doing so, in the line given as (1) below:

(1) Tooj: I thought since we're the only Hmoob at this party.... (Thoj 2002, p. 104)

Jennifer replies, using the Anglicized spelling, with the line given in (2):

(2) Jennifer: What makes you think I'm Hmong? (Thoj 2002, p. 105)

While readers or actors can attempt to pronounce the two spellings differently by putting a highly deliberate high tone on the RPA version, this is the only way to differentiate the two spellings, which otherwise should be equivalent. It is far from clear that actually performing this playlet would convey the contrast adequately. The joke seems to be orthographic and visual rather than audible.

The playwright uses the same device again as the quarrel between the two characters escalates, when Jennifer challenges Tooj:

(3) Jennifer; Oh, and I guess just 'cause your name is Tong, you're so Hmong, huh? (Thoj 2002, p. 106)

The male character, who got into the quarrel about naming when he criticized Jennifer's first name as un-Hmong, replies:

(4) Tooj: More Hmoob than you. And it's not Tong. It's Tooj. (Thoj 2002, p. 106)

Again, it is hard to imagine saying this line in a way that effectively communicates the contrast between the two orthographic representations of the name; this too is much more effective as a visual and orthographic joke than as an audible one.

What these orthographic switches signal: a cultural-pragmatic interpretation.

Why are these orthographic changes funny at all? Young Hmong-Americans find themselves in the position of Generation One and a Half—they still speak some Hmong, and have grandmothers and in some cases, grandfathers to speak it with, but English is the language of schooling, of most extra-familial interactions, and typically, of literacy. Literacy in Hmong, on the other hand, if available at all, is usually available only through Hmong community organizations, such as all-Hmong church congregations. Thus, young Hmong-Americans divide their linguistic efforts between a strong language of wider communication and a community-based minority language, each with its own writing system.

Along with language shift, immigration to the United States has brought enormous cultural changes to the Hmong community, not the least of which have been changes in gender roles. Donnelly's (1994) excellent ethnography of Hmong women in the United States shows this: in Laos, women had much lower status than men. Courtship was typically initiated by men; marriage was typically negotiated by clan elders and a bride-price was involved, although elopement, presumably by mutual consent, was also an option, as was a ritualized form of marriage-by-capture. Donnelly describes women's life options in Laos as much more highly constrained than they are in the United States. Symonds's (2004) ethnography of a Hmong village in Thailand shows similar constraints on women's life choices. Meredith and Rowe (1986) show that attitudes towards gender roles had already undergone a significant shift towards greater egalitarianism a mere ten years into the acculturation period. With this shift, Hmong-American women clearly have more to gain than Hmong-American men in subscribing to Western values, Western names, and perhaps, even Western spelling conventions—an association the Jennifer character plays on.

On the other hand, Hmong-American men may have less to lose in the acculturation process by constructing a more traditional self, including a more traditional name, spelled in RPA, which, in contrast to Anglicized spelling, seems more traditionally Hmong. The Tooj character clearly plays on these associations. Jennifer's preference for Western

names and spellings places her further along the scale of acculturation, specifically, Westernization, and indicates that she sees this as a preferable position for a woman, while Tooj's naming and spelling preferences position him as closer to the traditional Hmong end of the scale.

The Markedness Model (or MM) of Carol Myers-Scotton (1993, 1998) gives us a structure within which to understand the signaling role played by orthographic codeswitching in this playscript. The MM is described as a 'rational actor' model, a model which takes into account possible motivations agents may have for the moves they make (Myers-Scotton and Bolonyai 2001). Myers-Scotton locates motivations for code choice (and in this case, spelling choice) in a series of maxims that assume a connection between language varieties and sets of Rights and Obligations, or, as Myers-Scotton puts it, RO sets. As a rational actor, an agent or speaker will seek to have in force an RO set that is most favorable to her, and will signal that with a language choice associated with that RO set. To give a non-Hmong example, Myers-Scotton (1993: 144-145) records a dialogue between a Kenyan grocery-shop owner and his sister. The dialogue takes place in Lwidakho, the siblings' home language, until the sister indicates that she has no money, and wants free groceries. At this point, the brother switches to Swahili, the language of commerce, thus, conveying to his sister that he sees the transaction as commercial, not familial! In other words, the sister chooses the language associated with the RO set of family, hoping to exploit the familial RO to her advantage, while the brother switches to the language associated with the RO set of commerce, precisely because operating as family in that situation is disadvantageous to him.

Thus, a Hmong-American woman may theoretically decide she prefers English, even if she speaks Hmong well, because the RO set for women associated with English, including Anglicized spelling and English names, is more advantageous. A Hmong-American man, on the other hand, may decide he prefers Hmong, including Hmong names and RPA spelling, because the traditional Hmong RO set for males is more advantageous. The characters Jennifer and Tooj certainly make clear that these are their preferences in the content of their lines, as Jennifer states that she never dates Hmong men, and mocks the inequality of the traditional Hmong gender roles:

(5) Jennifer: Hmong man, you are my master. I'm just a lowly servant, bought and paid for. My life belongs to you. (Thoj 2002, p. 107)

Tooj, on the other hand, pushed further along the continuum towards the traditional Hmong pole, attacks Jennifer's name preferences by claiming that she has probably changed her last name to a non-Hmong name as well as her first name. At this point, Jennifer replies that she has kept her clan name, Lee. Tooj is taken aback—his last name and clan name is also Lee. As Hmong clans are strictly exogamous, Jennifer and Tooj are not possible date or marriage partners, anyway, and they realize that their flaming quarrel about naming and gender roles has been utterly pointless.

Pointless, except for the fact that the play has dramatized the continuing conflicts about gender roles, tradition, and language that instantiate identity issues in the Hmong-American community, as in many other immigrant communities. In "Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl," the spelling alternations add to the schismogenesis the play dramatizes; indeed, I think anthropologist Gregory Bateson (1958) would enjoy this example of complementary schismogenesis, the self-perpetuating process of social schism or division. Jennifer and Tooj push each other further towards opposite ends of the Hmong-to-Western continuum of identity; and the spelling alternations, like flags, show which direction each one is going.

"Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl" shows that a language shift situation, while it may deprive speakers and learners of some parts of the traditional linguistic repertoire, and thus, of access to certain kinds of sociopragmatic knowledge, also creates linguistic resources, such as the orthographic codeswitching made possible by the contrast between two spelling systems. Speakers and writers, who, as Weinstein-Shr (1994) argues, create their own uses for novel linguistic resources such as literacy, will exploit these resources for pragmatic and expressive purposes such as the humor and irony in this play.

TESOL instructors who work with Hmong adults may well find "Hmoob Boy Meets Hmong Girl" a culturally appropriate tool for English literacy instruction. An understanding of the cultural, orthographic

and pragmatic information integral to the humor of the play should serve to enrich their experience with it.

Notes:

1. I do not think that the creators of the RPA had humorous intent in creating this orthography. However, as an English reader approaching this orthography—and young Hmong-Americans are likely to learn to read in English before they learn to read in Hmong—I do perceive this orthography as funny, with a doubled vowel representing a consonantal feature, nasalization, and final consonant symbols representing tones on vowels. But that is not the joke the playwright has in mind.

2. The brackets enclose sounds found only in Green Hmong, one of two major dialects. Further detail on the pronunciation of Hmong can be found in Jaisser (1995), pp. 4-12.

3. See Smalley et al. (1990) or Ratliff (1996) to view the characters of the Pahawh Hmong.

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Author

Susan Meredith Burt is Associate Professor at Illinois State University, where she teaches Linguistics and the Cross-Cultural Aspects of TESOL. She has published in journals such as *Journal of Politeness Research, International Journal of Applied Linguistics, Journal of Pragmatics, Multilingua* and *Pragmatics and Language Learning.* She is working on a book about pragmatic change in Hmong.

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Tracking the Progress of Students Whose First Language is Not English towards English Proficiency: Using CBM with English Language Learners

Joseph Betts,
Paul Muyskens,
Doug Marston

This study provides evidence for the validity of Curriculum-based Measurement (CBM) as a formative assessment of English language skills for English Language Learners (ELLs) in a second grade sample. The research specifically investigated evidence for the validity of using CBM for the growth and prediction of later reading skills in ELLs. Hmong, Spanish and Somali-speaking ELLs participated in the research. Results indicated positive evidence for the validity of CBM as a concurrent and predictive measure of reading skills. However, CBM resulted in predictive bias of later reading skills with respect to a standardized measure of reading achievement. Findings showed that CBM was a potentially effective method of measuring reading progress of ELLs over time and provided strong evidence for the utility of CBM in monitoring progress goals for groups of ELLS.

Introduction

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) is the most recent reauthorization and extension of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This act required all states to implement accountability systems that measure the extent to which students and schools are making adequate yearly progress towards challenging academic standards. The

backbone of the NCLB accountability system is the use of statewide assessments in core academic content areas along with consequences for schools not making adequate yearly progress with all students. NCLB requires that certain subgroups of students must have their performance in the core academic content areas disaggregated and reported annually in an attempt to provide information on the changes in the achievement gap between these identifiable groups and other students. Students' with limited English proficiency are one of the identified subgroups.

Title III of NCLB recognizes the importance of ensuring that all students who have limited English proficiency, also referred to as English Language Learners (ELLs), develop appropriate English proficiency skills as well as core academic content skills. ELLs must eventually meet the same high achievement goals and academic standards as all other students in the core academic content areas. Section 3102 of NCLB outlines the necessity of establishing and achieving annual objectives related to improvements both in English language proficiency and with respect to core academic content standards related to the accountability sections of Title I.

NCLB states the necessity to annually measure "the English proficiency of limited English proficient children, so that such children served by the programs carried out under this part develop proficiency in English while meeting State academic content and student academic achievement standards as required by section 1111 (b) (1)" [Sec. 3116 (b) (3) (C)]. Thus, educators should be aware that NCLB identifies two areas of focus. These are the development of English proficiency of ELLs and developing proficiency in the core academic content areas of reading, mathematics and science. To measure and evaluate these two areas of focus, evaluation measures should assess the following three areas:

> "(1) The progress of children in attaining English proficiency, including a child's level of comprehension, speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills in English;
> (2) Student attainment of challenging state student academic achievement standards on assessments described in section 1111 (b) (3); and
> (3) Progress in meeting annual measurable achievement objectives described in section 3122" [Sec. 3121 (d)]

Therefore, the evaluation of student English language proficiency as defined in (1) is distinct from the accountability assessments defined in (2). However, there may be overlap in actual practice. This research will focus on evidence to support (1) with respect to comprehension and reading skills. While individual states develop their own tests to evaluate these areas, it is important for educators to have a variety of assessment tools at their disposal to reliably and validly measure student progress in attaining English proficiency. The importance of this is crucial, as it is a foundation to obtaining proficiency in the core academic subject areas.

For clarification, while LEP is the nomenclature used in the federal law, we will follow the more common vernacular within K12 education circles and use ELLs. Furthermore, we shall include only students who are presently eligible and provided English as a Second Language (ESL) services. In addition, this research will focus specifically on the context of improvements in English language proficiency for ELLs. However, research is presently being done with respect to predicting and identifying the future achievement of ELLs on state-mandated tests of accountability in core academic areas of reading (Marston, Betts, & Muyskens, 2006; Muyskens, Betts, Lau, & Marston, 2006).

While the state-mandated tests of accountability, for both academic content standards and English language proficiency, can be used to "determine the effectiveness of programs and activities in assisting children who are limited English proficient to attain English proficiency" (NCLB Sec. 3121 and Sec. 3122), this provides only a one shot assessment of program effectiveness. It also provides a measure of increases in proficiency with respect to two different groups of students. An increase in proficiency for ELLs in a grade is determined by comparing this year's students in that grade to a group of ELLs from the previous year in that same grade. This is an important comparison to make for accountability. However, it seems more useful to find a method of making formative evaluations of a program's effectiveness not only for the on-going assessment of program effects but also to provide a method of potentially identifying students early on who may need extra attention or differential instruction. NCLB addresses the need for yearly accountability standards. It does not address the practical need for formative evaluations to make decisions about individual student progress or to document

differential outcomes for students provided instructional interventions. For formative assessments to be useful they must be time efficient, provide valid information and be sensitive to actual changes in a student's skill level as they progress.

It is not only important to be able to measure the progress of ELLs, it is imperative to track the progress of these students as they develop proficiency in using and understanding the English language. While speaking, listening and writing are very important skills, this research focuses only on the skills of reading and comprehension. With a formative assessment approach, teachers can assess a student's skills frequently during the course of a school year and alter instruction, as appropriate. At the same time, formative assessment also provides a method of ensuring that the general programming approach is providing beneficial outcomes in the form of greater student gains. It should be noted that accountability here does not refer directly to a state's measures of accountability but rather to the local need of educators and administrators to evaluate the effectiveness of the programs and interventions they provide to particular student populations. This is good educational practice irrespective of the requirements of NCLB. In addition, within a formative assessment framework, one is able to make predictions about a student's future status. Predicting is not possible within a once a year, state-mandated test of accountability system. One approach that may be helpful for tracking the progress of ELLs and evaluating programming effects is a formative evaluation method called Curriculum-Based Measurement or CBM (Deno, 1985).

The work of many researchers has shown CBM to be an efficient, effective, reliable and valid method for measuring the general reading skills of students (Deno, Mirkin & Chiang, 1982; Deno, Marston, Shinn & Tindal, 1982; Fuchs & Deno, 1981; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1999; Fuchs, Fuchs & Maxwell, 1988; Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp & Jenkins, 2001; Marston, 1989; Shinn, Good, Knutson, Tilly & Collins, 1992). For the purposes of this research study, CBM is defined as a general set of practices where a student is presented with three grade-level passages. The student is then given one-minute to read a passage. After one minute, the student's performance is computed by determining the number of correctly read words within the one-minute time limit. The same process is

followed with the other two passages and the student's final performance score is the median score from the three passages. CBM results provide a general measure of students' reading fluency and they have a strong positive relationship with general reading comprehension (cf. Fuchs, Fuchs, & Maxwell, 1988; Shinn, Good, Knutson, Tilly, & Collins, 1992).

Over the past decade, research into the effectiveness of CBM has been very encouraging. Some researchers have focused on the use of CBM within the context of specific skills, such as reading comprehension across grades (Kranzler, Miller & Jordan, 1999; Shinn, et. al, 1992) or early literacy at the kindergarten age (Kaminski & Good, 1996). In addition, the use of CBM has spread to several student populations beyond special education (cf. Deno, Fuchs, Marston, & Shin, 2001; Espin & Tindal, 1998; McConnell, Priest, Davis & McEvoy, 2002). However, investigations of their use with ELL populations have been minimal (Baker & Good, 1995; Marston, Betts, & Muyskens, 2006; Muyskens, Betts, Lau, & Maston, 2006). It is important to understand if CBM functions similarly with ELLs as it does with other subgroups. It is also important to understand whether CBM functions similarly with ELLs from different language backgrounds.

CBM has been implemented successfully as a support for many educational practices. A variety of studies have found CBM useful both as a general screening tool (Marston & Magnusson, 1985) and a tool for supporting instructional decision-making (Fuchs, Deno & Mirkin, 1984). Fuchs and Fuchs (1986) showed positive empirical results when using CBM to monitor student progress, while Deno, Fuchs, Martin and Shin (2001) verified that CBM results could establish adequate educational growth standards. Marston, Lau, and Cantor (2002) found CBM to be an effective assessment approach to monitor student progress within the context of a problem-solving model. These types of studies provide useful evidence that CBM can inform both practice and instruction. The studies also indicate that CBM can be useful in providing formative evaluations of more general program outcomes. Therefore, CBM could be highly beneficial for ESL and bilingual educators because it can provide both a method of measuring program effects along with a way to better understand and monitor the growth of individual students as they progress towards English reading proficiency.

Given the potential usefulness of CBM, it is important to evaluate the validity associated with any inferences one might wish to make from the scores. This is the most fundamental aspect of evaluating measures for specific purposes (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999). One of the most important aspects of evaluating validity is exploring the extent to which the scores on one measure relate to the scores on another measure at some time point, either in the future for predictive types of inferences or within the same time period for concurrent type inferences (Crocker & Algina, 1986; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Validity should also be viewed as an ongoing process rather than a single, isolated event (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999; Messick, 1989). Therefore, the present article should be seen as a piece of evidence in the on-going investigation of the validity of using CBM with ELLs.

The purpose of this article is to investigate the use of English-language CBM as a predictor of later standardized reading test scores in English and to provide evidence of the usefulness of CBM as a progress-monitoring tool, or more generally, a formative evaluation of readings skills. This is important because educators and ESL programs are expected to provide educational interventions that help students progress towards English language proficiency. Therefore, it is important to endeavor to evaluate the extent to which CBM can be used both as a monitor of progress and a gauge of later reading skills. This type of information would be useful both to educators as a formative assessment tool and to administrators as an indicator of program effectiveness.

Method

Our investigation focused on providing validity evidence for the use of CBM in English to evaluate the progress of ELLs in reading achievement. To this end, we obtained second grade student scores on CBM probes during the fall, winter and spring quarters of the 2003-2004 school year. At the end of the second grade, a standardized test of reading was administered to all students.

This design provided an opportunity to assess both concurrent and predictive validity along with any predictive bias that may be present

when using CBM to predict later standardized reading test outcomes for ELLs from different native language backgrounds. We will examine the concurrent validity by investigating the relationship between the end of year CBM taken during the spring and the standardized reading test given around the same time. To evaluate the evidence of predictive validity, we will evaluate the relationship between the beginning of the year CBM results obtained during the fall and the end of the year standardized reading test scores. While investigating the predictive validity, we will also explore the extent to which making predictions of end-of-year standardized reading outcomes based on beginning-of-the-year CBM results is biased for the three language groups in this study. We will also provide an analysis of second grade student growth to document the usefulness of CBM for tracking student progress and its sensitivity to changes in performance over a single school year.

Participants

The sample of students used in this analysis was a subset of all second graders enrolled in a large Midwestern, urban school district during the 2003-2004 school year. All students were expected to participate in three CBMs and a standardized reading test at the end of the year. We chose our participants according to a set of predetermined criteria. First, all students being served in any special education program were excluded. Second, only students being served in an ESL program were included. Third, only those ELLs whose native language was Spanish, Hmong or Somali were included. The reason to retain only these language groups was that there were not enough students in any of the other language groups to constitute a separate group. Furthermore, the remaining groups appeared to have such different language backgrounds, from Arabic to Mandarin, that grouping them together seemed tenuous.

Following our decision rules resulted in a sample of 254 students. The demographic make-up of the sample was approximately 47% males and 53% females. Almost 89% of the students were eligible for free or reduced-price lunches. Fifty-six percent of the students spoke Hmong as their first language, 30% spoke Spanish and approximately 14% spoke Somali.

One problem associated with longitudinal designs is the potential for missing data. Therefore, it is important to analyze the extent to which

data are missing and the potential effect on analytical outcomes. It was found that about 14 students, or 6% of the total number, were missing fall CBM scores. About 8% were missing winter CBM scores, about 9% were missing spring CBM scores, and about 8% were missing NALT reading scores. It was believed that the data were missing completely at random (Little & Rubin, 1987) because all students were expected to participate in the assessments. To evaluate the extent to which the data were missing completely at random Little's test for missing completely at random (Little, 1988) was employed. The results indicated that the data were probably missing completely at random, ˜2 (20) = 27.33, $p > 0.10$. Therefore, excluding missing values from analysis would potentially have little biasing effect on the statistical estimates (Little & Rubin, 1987). Only students with complete data at all time points were used in the longitudinal aspects of the analysis. Students with data on the fall CBM and spring standardized reading test were used in the predictive study, and all students with spring CBM and spring standardized reading test results were used in the concurrent study.

Measures

Curriculum-Based Measures (CBM). The procedures outlined by Deno (1985) and Marston and Magnusson (1988) were used for the CBM. Each fall, winter, and spring students read three grade level passages from the district's adopted reading series, Invitations to Literacy (Houghton-Mifflin, 1999). The number of words read correctly in one minute (WPM) was observed for each passage and the median score of the three passages was used as the indicator of student performance.

To provide a quantitative estimate of the difficulty level of the passages an appropriate readability index was computed. Spache (1953) devised a readability formula, which is appropriate for evaluating the readability of passages around the second grade level. The Spache (1953) readability index is computed as a linear composite of the average sentence length and the percent of difficult words within the passage is defined by words not found in the Spache Revised Word List (Spache, 1974). The readability indices of 2.8, 2.8, and 3.3 indicated that the passages were appropriate for the end of second grade to the beginning of the third grade.

Northwest Achievement Levels Test (NALT). The NALT (Northwest Evaluation Association, 2002) is a standardized, norm-referenced measure of student reading skills. Aspects of the test development and implementation process demonstrate the reliability and validity of the NALT with second grade students. The scale was constructed using modern test theory and each student's score was accompanied by a standard error. The standard error of student scores can vary along the score scale. Therefore, to get an estimate of the consistency of scores in the sample, we took an average of all the standard errors. This resulted in an average standard error of measurement to be about 3.7 scale score units, which indicated high reliability.

Procedures

CBM data were collected over a one-year period spanning the 2003-2004 school years. The students were observed three times: Once during the fall (October), once in winter (January), and once in spring (April). All data were collected following the standardized procedures outlined in the district procedure manual. Each student was presented with three reading prompts and given one minute to read as much of the passage as possible. The total number of words read correctly during the time limit was recorded. At the end of the three passages, the student's final score was determined by calculating the median number of words read correctly on the three passages. Second grade students took the NALT in March. All teachers followed a common standardized approach to administering the test to students and the tests were computer scored. Resulting scale score estimates of the student's reading ability were given on a common scale ranging from 100 to 300.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and sample sizes for each CBM period (Fall, Winter, Spring) for the overall sample of students and for each subgroup are provided in Table 1. Performance is reported as the average of the median number of words read correctly per minute (WPM). NALT reading scale scores are also shown for the end of year assessment.

There was a gradual increase in student WPM across the grade level. It appeared that students increased their reading fluency by about 47 WPM from the beginning of the year to the end of the year. This finding provided evidence of the developmental validity of the scores because we would expect CBM scores to increase over time. On a ten-month school year calendar, it is possible to measure students on a monthly basis, and one could expect an increase in fluency of approximately four-to-five words per month. The trend appeared to be linear in nature since the difference between fall and winter was very similar to the difference between winter and spring. The pattern for each of the subgroups appeared to be similar as well. A similar pattern shows that using CBM to monitor student progress on the developmental aspect of reading skills over time appears valid. Further analysis of this is found below.

The correlations between the CBM scores and the NALT score for the overall group and each subgroup are reported in Table 2. All correlations were positive and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). The magnitude of the correlations were considered large (cf. Cohen, 1988). There appears to be a strong linear relationship among the CBM scores and between CBM scores and the NALT. Correlations between the CBM measures are all quite large indicating stability of measurement over time.

Concurrent Validity of CBM

Since the time of administration of the spring CBM fell approximately two weeks after the administration of the NALT, it is possible to evaluate the concurrent validity between the spring CBM and the spring NALT. Validity coefficients are found in Table 2. These results suggest a statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) level of linear relationship between the CBM scores and the NALT scores. This relationship not only holds for the overall sample, but also for each of the subgroups. The data provide strong evidence for concurrent validity.

Predictive Validity and Predictive Bias of CBM

We also examined the predictive validity of the CBM scores from an administration at the beginning of the school year. Specifically, we

wanted to know if CBM scores obtained at the beginning of the school year during the fall provided a useful way of predicting later reading outcomes. These correlation coefficients, which are presented in Table 2, were also statistically significant ($p < 0.01$), but they were found to be of a low to moderate magnitude.

Along with assessing predictive validity, it was also important to investigate any predictive bias that might be associated with using CBM scores to predict later standardized reading test outcomes. It is important to remember that predictive bias does not tell us whether the test used as a predictor is biased (Jenson, 1980; Reynolds, 1982). Predictive bias is a measure of whether a predictor variable (CBM), predicts a criterion variable (reading skill as measured by the NALT), similarly for subgroups within a population of individuals.

In this situation, we are referring to all ELLs whose first language is Hmong, Spanish or Somali as the population from which our sample is drawn and we would like to know if CBM is a biased predictor of later reading skills for any of the language groups. Usually, predictive bias studies look at the difference between some type of majority and minority grouping. However, in this present research we would like to analyze whether or not CBM is a valid predictor for all three of the main language groups using a single common regression line. If the CBM scores show predictive bias towards a group, then it may be reasonable to either construct separate predictive equations or find another prediction method to use with the specific group for which there is the most bias.

The main method of investigating predictive bias is through the evaluation of any systematic errors associated with prediction (Cleary, 1968; Jenson, 1980; Reynolds, 1982). To determine whether bias exists, the common regression analysis is run on the complete sample. Standardized residuals are computed for each student. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows the differences in standardized residuals between the three language groups (Hmong, Somali, and Spanish). If no predictive bias exists, then there will not be a significant difference between the groups on their standardized residuals.

Results indicated a significant omnibus test of differences between groups on standardized residuals, $F (2,217) = 6.54$, $p < 0.01$, ˜2 = 0.06. Follow up tests of group differences indicated that the Somali

group had significantly larger standardized residuals than both the Spanish and Hmong groups. The Spanish and Hmong groups both had similar and non-significant differences in residuals. This finding suggested that if a common predictive equation were to be used for the three groups, the Somali group would be consistently under predicted while the Spanish and Hmong groups would be consistently over predicted on later reading skills.

To visualize the predictive bias we can graph the different regression lines for the different language groups and the common regression line (see Figure 1). The differences in lengths of lines along the CBM axis indicate the lowest and highest score within a particular group. For instance, the Spanish students score across the range of CBM scores while the Somali students score in the lower end. The implications of the ANOVA results are clear in this visualization. We can see the prediction line for the Somali group lies above the common regression line while the others are below the line for most of the range of CBM scores.

To evaluate the growth over time on the CBM measures a box plot was used to visualize the average scores for each group at each time point within the school year (see Figure 2). The box plots show a consistent increase in median CBM scores as measured in correct words per minute (WPM) across the three measurement points during the school year. The results also suggest that, on average, the groups increase similarly across the year when measured on CBM.

To further evaluate the growth over time a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for repeated-measures was used (Howell, 2002; O'Brien & Kaiser, 1985) with fall, winter and spring CBM scores as the within subject factor and language groups as the between group factor. Results indicated that the observed covariance matrices of the groups was not significantly different, Box's M = 16.87, $F(12, 42{,}401) = 1.37$, $p > 0.10$. The pattern of covariances across the time points was similar for all three groups.

The repeated measures time factor for the CBM scores over time was significant, Wilks' = 0.154, Pillai's Trace = 0.846, $F(2{,}213) = 585.77$, $p < 0.001$, 2 = 0.85. These data indicated that the grand mean of the change score over time was significantly different from zero and provided evidence to support the assertion that CBM is sensitive to

change in reading skills over time. The time by language group within subject factor was not significant, Wilks' = 0.986, $F(4, 428) = 0.733$, $p > 0.5$, $2 = 0.007$. Each group appeared to change over time in a similar manner.

Furthermore, the data described above showed that each group made as much growth over time as the other groups. This result provided further evidence to support the conclusion that there is a lack of predictive bias with respect to the slope parameter of the bias model. Follow up analysis resulted in significant differences between all three time points. The presence of significant differences indicated that, while growth over time was statistically significant between each subsequent measurement time (fall, winter and spring), the mean growth over time between the three groups was not significantly different. Groups appear to grow at a similar rate across the year while the measurements taken in the fall, winter and spring increase at a significant rate. Therefore, CBM appears to be sensitive to changes in language acquisition at the intervals used in this study.

The average CBM score over all time points was not statistically significantly different between the language groups, $F(2, 214) = 0.697$, $p > 0.1$, $2 = 0.006$. This finding indicated that the average score of all three CBM time points for each of the language groups was not significantly different. In addition, equality of error variances were found to be non-significant at all time points between the groups, $FFall(2,214) = 0.364$, $p > 0.5$, $FWinter(2,214) = 1.402$, $p > 0.2$, and $FSpring(2,214) = 0.900$, $p > 0.4$. This indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances appeared to hold. Overall, these results indicated that the average CBM score for the three language groups over time were probably no different.

Discussion

In the present era of educational accountability, educators and administrators must find ways to measure student progress towards educational outcomes. This is especially important for students whose first language is not English and specifically for students being served in ESL programs. These students are expected to make annual gains in acquiring English proficiency at the same time that they meet the standards set

out for the core academic areas on the state accountability tests. Therefore, teachers must have a viable method of measuring a student's progress in the acquisition of English reading proficiency. In addition, administrators may be interested in evaluating whether the programs they have established for ELLs are enabling students to make an appropriate amount of gain in English proficiency.

The data reported here appear to show that the scores obtained by CBM in reading, using English language text, can be used as valid indicators of standardized reading test performance for ELLs. This research may also be expanded to students whose native language is not English but who do not meet the requirements for ESL services. The validity research presented is both concurrent and predictive. Results of this research study can be used to justify inferences about standardized, norm-referenced reading test outcomes that are made based on CBM scores. The validity evidence indicates that CBMs are a moderate to highly useful way of measuring reading skills of ELLs and predicting their future reading outcomes.

The results of this research also provide evidence that CBMs can be used to monitor the progress of ELLs over the course of a school year. Results were consistent for all three language groups in that they showed increasing scores over time and had high correlations between the three time points during the year. The three groups also had similar covariance matrices. This finding provides initial evidence of measurement invariance across the groups. The data also suggest that CBM is measuring reading skills similarly within each group. The CBM scores were found to be moderately correlated with the scores on a standardized test of reading achievement. Taken together, this type of evidence is also quite positive with respect to the use of CBM as a formative assessment measure that can provide information on program effectiveness along with individual student progress monitoring.

Using CBM data, we were able to document that the language groups grew at a similar pace and had a similar rate of change across the school year. This finding supports the usefulness of CBM in measuring student progress. Based on our findings, we believe that educators can feel confident in using CBM to track ELLs' growth in reading outcomes across a school year. CBM can also be used to set benchmark criteria for later reading outcomes.

Predictive bias was found when using CBM to predict later reading skills of ELLs on a standardized, norm-referenced test. The only area of predictive bias was found in the differences in the intercept factor. The data indicate that the regression lines for each group were probably parallel. However, the Somali group's prediction line was translated higher than the lines of the Spanish and Hmong ELLs were. This finding suggests that if prediction of later reading skills is important, it might be more reliable to estimate each group individually rather than pooling all the groups together. If the common regression line were used, then Somali students may be predicted to achieve at a lower level on a standardized reading test while Hmong and Spanish speaking students at the same CBM score as a Somali student may be predicted to achieve at a higher level than they really would. Biased predictions can have direct implications when CBM data are used to identify placement criteria or determining which students will have access to specific programming.

Some important future considerations of this research would be to see if these types of results hold with other language groups or at different grade levels. The results of this research apply to students in the second grade and may not hold with students at a higher-grade level. Additional work must be done before generalizations to other age groups are made. It is also necessary to explore the relationship between the amount of time students are in an ESL program and the usefulness of CBM scores as predictors of later English reading achievement. Results may look different for students just entering the country as opposed to a student who has been provided two complete school years of ESL services.

Another area of future research would be to incorporate CBM procedures into formative assessments in ESL programs. Doing so would provide a set of case studies and practical examples of how to implement a formative assessment procedure in real-life situations. It might also be of value to incorporate CBM into the assessment methods used in ESL and bilingual research lines. Incorporating CBM would provide additional validity evidence and would explore how sensitive CBM is to changes in student achievement with respect to different interventions or programming models. Results of this research study appear to indicate that the measures could be sensitive to monthly changes in reading per-

formance. It also appears that CBM could be used as a quick, efficient and valid measure of students' general reading ability and to document different levels of outcomes for various interventions.

We believe that this study provides strong data to support the use of English language CBM with ELLs. According to our findings, CBM scores appear to validly estimate and predict general English reading skills. This study also found evidence to support using CBM as a tool for progress monitoring or for gauging a student's response to different types of interventions. Future research should attempt to extend the research beyond a single grade level and expand the number of languages used for analysis. Investigations of other important variables such as time in American schools or objective measures of formal English language instruction would also be valuable.

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Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for each CBM Time Point and End-of-Year Reading Score

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Fall CBM			
Overall	240	42.46	24.65
Hmong	135	43.04	24.69
Spanish	69	41.07	26.70
Somali	36	42.94	20.62
Winter CBM			
Overall	235	68.78	31.86
Hmong	131	68.97	31.99
Spanish	71	67.11	31.19
Somali	33	71.61	33.53
Spring CBM			
Overall	232	90.36	33.74
Hmong	129	91.57	33.73
Spanish	70	86.20	32.34
Somali	33	94.45	36.74
NALT Reading			
Overall	233	185.65	10.61
Hmong	129	184.78	10.23
Spanish	72	184.86	10.42
Somali	32	190.94	11.34

Table 2 Correlations* between CBM and NALT Reading

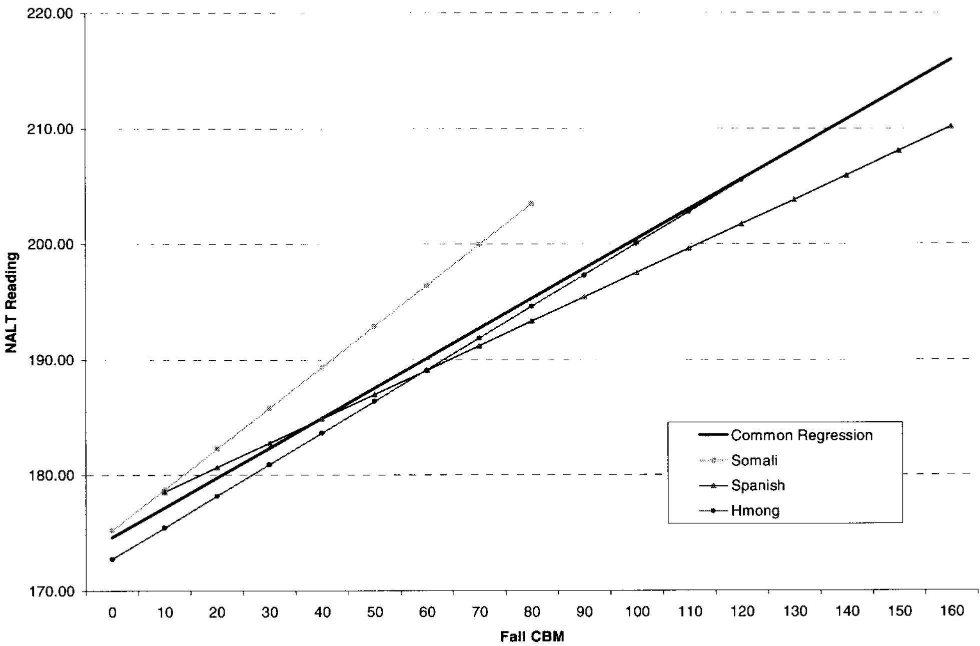
		Winter CBM	Spring CBM	NALT Reading
	Overall	.89	.86	.60
	Hmong	.90	.86	.65
Fall CBM	Spanish	.92	.86	.55
	Somali	.84	.86	.61
	Overall		.92	.66
Winter CBM	Hmong		.92	.72
	Spanish		.91	.58
	Somali		.92	.64
	Overall			.69
Spring CBM	Hmong			.73
	Spanish			.64
	Somali			.69

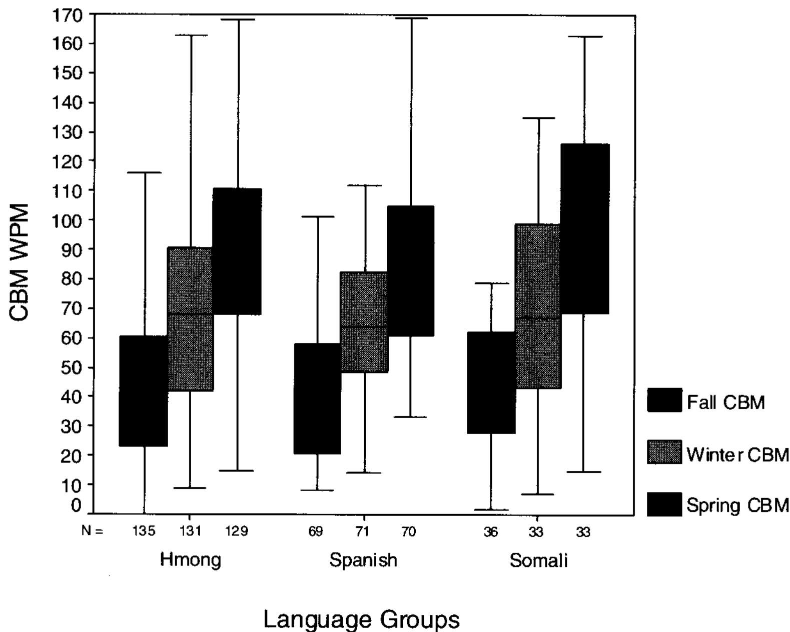
* All correlations are significant ($p < 0.0$

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Common regression line and the individual group regressions

Figure 2. Box plots of CBM scores for each group for the three measurement points





Authors

Joseph Betts, MMIS, PhD is a school psychologist and measurement statistician. His research interests include effects of computer information systems in education, indicators of early verbal and quantitative literacy development, latent growth curve models, and methods of formative assessment in education for diverse student groups.

Paul Muyskens, PhD, NCSP is a school psychologist on special assignment for Minneapolis Public Schools. He works on projects including CBM support, alternate assessment, early measures and program evaluation.

Doug Marston, PhD is a Special Education Administrator in the Minneapolis Public Schools. His research interests include monitoring student progress, academic and behavioral interventions to accelerate student achievement, and Response to Intervention models.

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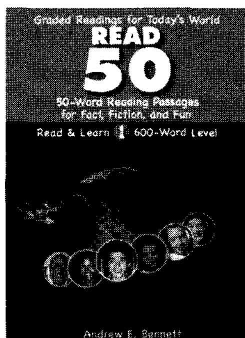

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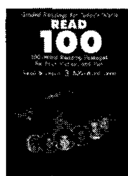

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Can Music Be Used Effectively To Teach Grammar?

Rhoda Fagerland

Can music be an effective tool for teaching grammar to ESL students? While some believe that grammar should not be approached through music, since the two are processed in opposite hemispheres of the brain, a review of literature on neural processing suggests that a normal brain readily transfers information between hemispheres via the corpus callosum, a broad thick band of nerve fibers, and such transfer is facilitated by repetition. If an ESL student learns a song that correctly places certain grammatical forms in context, the student should be able to transfer those patterns correctly to speech, especially if the music imitates natural spoken intonation, rhythm, and emotion.

A study conducted with over 100 first- through fourth-grade ESL students examines the correlation between learning and the use or non-use of music to teach four grammar structures: reflexive pronouns; there is/there are; (another) and I; and plurals ending with "s." The control group subjects were taught without music, while the test group subjects were taught with music written by the researcher specifically for this project. A pre-test and a post-test were used to determine gains in learning and to make comparisons between groups.

Music appears to have given the test group only a slight edge over the control group in most aspects evaluated. Further analysis of the data when research subjects were grouped by moderator variables reveals that test fourth graders and test subjects with tonal home languages made substantial gains, not

only beyond their counterparts in the control group, but also beyond test group subjects of other ages or with atonal home languages.

The Power of Music

We are well aware of the power of music in our lives. We hear a song, we listen to the words – within a very short time of hearing the song, we may become aware of it playing endlessly through our minds, or we may catch ourselves humming it in the course of the day. We realize that we didn't make an effort to memorize it: it just stuck.

Music is "a universal medium of expression for the deepest feelings and aspirations that belong to all humanity" (Dobbs, 1983, cited in Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992). It is no wonder, then, that words set to music tend to remain in a listener's mind long after spoken words have faded from memory.

Robert Lado (1988) explains how the English language corresponds to traditional Western patterns of music. He says:

> English rhythm is characterized as stress-timed because it is primarily concerned by phrases rather than by syllables. Each phrase typically has one primary stress and tends toward uniform duration between primary stresses with consequent stretching of those with few syllables and compressing of those with many. (p. 126)

My Marvelous Brain
(with apologies to Dr. Seuss)

Oh, the marvelous things
 that my brain can do!
It can picture a cow,
 It can hear it moo.

It can smell the wet grass,
 It can feel the breeze,
It can taste the sweet clover
 And make me sneeze.

It can think, "How lovely,
 This soft summer day!
Forget that it's winter!"
 My memory can play!

My brain knows the cadence
 Of drums beating time;
It senses the poetic
 Rhythm and rhyme.

It sorts out the colors
 Of rainbows and dirt;
It buttons the buttons
 That march down my shirt.

It matches the voices
 Of family and friends;

This is in contrast to many other languages "whose flow of speech is largely determined by the number of syllables in phrases rather than by the number of phrases in discourse" (p. ix).

It jumps for my starts
And wraps up my ends.

My brain lets me know
When to laugh or to cry;
My brain can distinguish
Between "tall" and
"high".

But of all my brain does,
My favorite thing
Is when it makes music
And asks me to sing.

Music in ESL

Can the powerful correlation between music and language be put to work in teaching ESL?

Obviously, music *is* used in teaching ESL, as it is used in many areas of teaching. But, while most people would agree that music is a powerful and appealing means of communication that can, on occasion, be employed by the creative teacher, few take a systematic or serious approach to its use in the classroom. Music tends to be viewed as a nonessential supplement, a diversion, or simply a recreational activity. For instance, Lado (1988), writing in *Teaching English Across Cultures: An Introduction for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages,* says, "... group singing ... overcomes tensions and subconscious fears and encourages communication, [and] can be used as a supplement or complement with any method" (pp. 37-38). David Vale (1995) agrees that there is value in the "vast amount of language, rhythm, intonation, and stress 'practice' that is imbedded within traditional songs and rhymes," yet goes on to say, "It is certainly possible to demotivate children by turning this form of communication into language structure and vocabulary exercises." Marianne Celce-Murcia (ed., 1991) stresses the recreational benefits of music, but does not seem to regard music as a serious teaching tool when she writes, "Songs, like games, selected for popularity at particular age levels can be very appropriate. For elementary students, songs with accompanying body movements can be especially fun."

Other writers suggest using music as a backdrop for the main teaching focus. In *Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students*, Gail Heald-Taylor (1991) explains methods of using background music for stories

by creating sounds for characters, choosing music to match the mood of the story, or setting an entire story to music. Sarah Phillips (1993) concurs, "You can also use songs as background music . . . [I]t is surprising how much they absorb unconsciously."

Some, however, recognize music as much too powerful a medium to be relegated to a background position. Says Carolyn Graham (1992), that modern magician of music for the second language classroom, "Music opens doors, giving language students a greater awareness of the new culture to which they are being exposed and a sense of feeling more at home with the sounds and rhythms of the language they are hearing." Adds Sarah Philips (1993) in *Young Learners*, one in a series of *Resource Books for Teachers*:

> We have all experienced songs we just can't get out of our heads. Music and rhythm make it much easier to imitate and remember language than words which are 'just spoken'. If you teach children a song, it somehow 'sticks'. . . . Music and rhythm are an essential part of language learning for young learners. Children really enjoy learning and singing songs, and older learners find working with current or well-known pop songs highly motivating. (p. 100)

If music is indeed an effective teaching tool, what language functions can it be used to teach? Is music applied in the classroom merely because it is interesting and fun for both teacher and students, or is there research to suggest that it truly enhances the learning process?

In fact, I could find very little research to lend substance to any point of view. Without the benefit of research to support their opinions, a variety of writers listed a variety of language aspects that could be effectively taught through song. According to Phillips (1993), "you can use songs and chants to teach children the sounds and rhythm of English, to reinforce structures and vocabulary, or as Total Physical Response activities" (p. 100). To this list Graham (1992) adds vocabulary, specific sounds, stress, and intonation patterns. A quick read through a list of five well-known children's songs brings six different teaching targets to mind: counting, left and right, giving and following instructions, body parts, spelling, and greetings. Michael Hauber (unpublished), who uses

popular songs with older learners, explains exercises with music that teach students to listen and guess meaning; to deduce certain grammatical structures; or to find lyrics with a common theme, such as problems in society, things that are possible in a fantasy land, the times when one person speaks to another, things that the singer says about her/himself, places that are named, words or phrases that refer to personal appearance, or time expressions. Lado (1988) cautioned that music should not be used to teach grammar or formal pronunciation.

Why not?

Lado believes that songs can be used in the ESL classroom to motivate students and to help them learn words and context. "However," he cautions, "learning a language is more complex than merely learning songs. Singing represents partial linguistic performance with fixed texts. It does not involve the usual processing of language to refer to thinking as it evolves intentionally in communicative encounters" (pp. 37-38).

Research Questions

Is it reasonable to assume that children learning English as a Second Language (or third, or fourth) will more readily grasp structural aspects of English if those structures are wrapped in a tune than if the structures are practiced without music? Will they be able to correctly transfer grammatical patterns from songs to spoken language?

An elementary understanding of the brain at first seems to lend substance to the arguments of those who oppose using music to teach grammar. Whereas the left temporal lobe of the brain's cerebrum is primarily responsible for language functions, the processing of music generally takes place in the right hemisphere. Presumably, words and patterns that are learned as lyrics in a song will not be accessible to speech. Furthermore, the brain seems to consist of multiple storage areas, each of which specializes in processing one specific category of information. Functions are compartmentalized and organized according to very fine distinctions.

Yet, the fact that certain functions take place in different compartments or on opposite sides of the brain by no means negates the possi-

bility of their working together. The corpus callosum, a pencil-shaped bundle of nerves about four inches long and a quarter-inch thick (Restak, 1984), is the conduit for high-speed transmission of information between hemispheres. Explains neuropsychiatrist Richard Restak (1991),

> The brain always works as a unit. . . . The *whole brain* . . . is involved in creativity, the two hemispheres communicating with each other over eight hundred million neurofibers. The vast network of the human brain contains two hundred billion neural cells, each connected with anywhere from one thousand to ten thousand other cells, creating the potential for any one cell to influence a distant other through any number of intervening connections. (pp. 38-39)

Alphonso Caramazza believes, ". . . Cognitive abilities such as language are the result of the concerted activity of many simple processing mechanisms distributed in many different regions of the brain" (in Restak, 1994, p. 66). Adds neurobiologist Roger Sperry:

> It is important to remember that the two hemispheres in the normal brain tend regularly to function closely together as a unit and that different states of mind are apt to involve different hierarchical and organizational levels or front-back and other differentiations as well as differences in laterality. (in Restak, 1994, p. 126)

Another encouraging voice – not just for music in the classroom, but for arts in general – is Eric Jensen (1998), an advocate of multiple intelligence learning and enriched environment in education. Believing that music "can actually prime the brain's neural pathways" (p. 37), he suggests that it

> works to aid our memory because the beat, the melody, and the harmonies serve as 'carriers' for the semantic content. That's why it's easier to recall the words to a song than a conversation. Put key words to music, and you will typically get better recall. (2001, pp. 41-42)

Research shows that the corpus callosum can be "as much as 15% larger in musicians compared to non-musicians" (Schlaug, Jancke, Huang, Staiger, & Steinmetz, 1995a, in Jensen, 2001, p. 18). A larger corpus callosum in turn facilitates easier transfer of information between hemispheres.

What additional factors might influence a learner's ability to transfer sung lyrics to spoken conversation? Could emotional involvement while learning, repetition, age, gender, and even a learner's home language make a difference? Tadanobu Tsunoda, a specialist in speech and hearing disorders at Tokyo Medical and Dental University, discovered that Japanese people, whose language contains many meaningful isolated vowel sounds, process such sounds in the left hemisphere along with language. All non-Japanese adults in the study who either did not know Japanese or had learned it beyond childhood, processed these sounds in the right hemisphere. Non-Japanese who had been raised in Japan from an early age and thus had a fluent grasp of the language, processed isolated vowel sounds in the left hemisphere, the same as native speakers of Japanese. Not only that, but the Japanese left hemisphere handles "intuition, indirection, creative use of space and sound" and emotion, all functions processed in the right hemisphere of non-Japanese. Tsunoda believes that language actually determines the organization of the brain, patterns of thinking, and ultimately culture. "The stimulus for the relegation to one hemisphere or the other, according to Tsunoda, is nothing other than language itself" (Restak, 1984, pp. 266-267).

Building upon this theory, might speakers of tonal languages such as Chinese process tones, or even music in general, on the left side of the brain with language, rather than on the right side where music is generally processed? Even though tonal languages do not represent music in the strictest sense, they are musical. The tone gives meaning to the word with which it is spoken, just as the tone gives meaning to music. If this theory is correct, language instruction that incorporates music should have enormous benefit for people whose home language is tonal. At the very least, their strong sense of tone should allow them to more easily transfer musical lyrics to spoken language.

Designing the Study

The best way to answer my questions was to go directly to the students who needed to learn. Instruction revolved around four specific grammar structures that are difficult for elementary age ELLs: reflexive pronouns, both singular and plural; marking existence by prefacing singular or plural nouns with "there is" or there are"; naming another person before oneself in the nominative case (referred to in the study as "(another) and I"); and the use of plural "s". Each of these structures was incorporated into one or two age-appropriate songs written by the researcher. A half-hour lesson plan, including grammar instruction and activities, was also written for each structure. These lessons were presented to approximately 100 ESL students in grades 1 to 4 who were members of pull-out ESL classes in seven different schools. Their English abilities ranged from entry level to fully conversant and functioning with some difficulty at grade level. About half of the students received instruction with music (test group) and half were instructed without music (control group). After deleting data of students who were not given a pre-test, failed to return a *Parental Consent Form* (approved by the Internal Review Board of St. Cloud State University), withdrew from the study, or did not take a post-test, the test group and control group each consisted of a total of 36 subjects (Table 1). Variations in subject numbers between grammatical structures reflect absenteeism on the days those structures were presented.

Results of post-tests were measured against those of pre-tests to determine gains and make comparisons between the groups. In addition, the effects of age, gender, and home language were evaluated.

Pre-Tests and Post-Tests

In order to determine subjects' understanding of the target grammatical structures before instruction, and to compare that with their understanding after instruction, a pre-test and a post-test were designed to elicit each of four target structures multiple times from each subject. The tests consisted of questions about separate sets of 10 pictures, each chosen with a specific structure or structures in mind. For example, one picture in the post-test showed a skinned knee. The question, "Who

Table 1
Demographic Information for Research Groups

Control Group	Total	Reflexive Pronouns	There is/are	(Another) and I	Plural "s"
Grade Level					
1	4	4	4	4	4
2	6	6	6	5	6
3	9	9	9	5	9
4	17	17	14	17	17
Gender					
Male	20	20	17	18	20
Female	16	16	16	13	16
Home Language					
Tonal					
Vietnamese	7	7	7	7	7
Lao	5	5	5	5	5
Chinese	2	2	2	2	2
Atonal					
Somali	14	14	12	10	14
Spanish	3	3	2	3	3
Romanian	2	2	2	2	2
Russian	2	2	2	1	2
Korean	1	1	1	1	1
Test Group					
Grade Level					
1	10	10	10	10	10
2	7	7	6	7	7
3	13	13	13	12	13
4	6	4	6	6	6
Gender					
Male	19	18	18	19	19
Female	17	16	17	16	17
Home Language					
Tonal					
Vietnamese	9	9	8	9	9
Cambodian	2	2	2	2	2
Lao	3	3	3	3	3
Tamil	1	1	1	1	1
Atonal					
Spanish	18	16	18	18	18
Russian	2	2	2	2	2
	1	1	1	0	1
(Unspecified)					

did she hurt?" was intended to elicit a response incorporating the reflexive pronoun, "Herself."

Subjects were tested one at a time, with each administration requiring about five minutes. I asked a question or question about each picture and marked each response on a report form, indicating whether the target structure had been used correctly, used incorrectly, avoided, or answered only in response to a prompt by the tester. If a response was of particular interest, I jotted it down.

Designing the Music

I believed from the start that the success of the study would depend to a large degree on the music that was used. Many existing songs, while rich in language and culture, can, as Phillips (1993) observes, "contain obscure or out-of-date language which may outweigh their usefulness . . ." (p. 100). Graham (1992) concurs:

> There are obviously some strong advantages to using authentic materials, but there are also a few problems. The original lyrics for a folk song may be charming but too convoluted to be of any possible use in acquiring useful patterns of spoken English. Pity the poor ESL student who has to tangle with "light she was and like a fairy and her shoes were number nine. Herring boxes without topses sandals were for Clementine."
>
> The language in some modern popular songs presents an ESL teacher with other problems. While the songs themselves may be superb, the lyrics can be so agrammatical that they would only add to the confusion of the new language learner – for example, "I ain't gonna work on Maggie's farm no more." (p. 43)

Graham proposes to remedy this situation by creating lyrics of her own and setting them to traditional melodies. She encourages other ESL teachers to do the same, beginning with a particular structure in mind and writing chants. "The rhythm, stress, and intonation pattern of the chant should be an exact replica of what the student would hear from a native speaker in natural conversation" (p. 3). When these chants are

transferred to music, she advises, "Ideally, the students should be able to practice singing the lines using the exact stress patterns they would use if they were speaking rather than singing" (p. 44).

This becomes highly challenging if the lyrics must fit into an existing melody, as Graham suggests. While the tune may reinforce spoken rhythm and stress patterns, it will rarely imitate spoken intonation.

Of the seven songs I wrote for the research, only two use traditional tunes. I consider only one of these to be a truly good match of lyrics and melody. The tune is "Are You Sleeping?" The lyrics incorporating the structure "there is/there are" are appropriately elementary:

> There is one fish, There are two fish,
> There are three, There are four.
> Oh, you must be kidding! I think you are kidding!
> There are more, many more.

In any case, using traditional melodies is certainly more for the benefit of the teacher than the ESL students, whose cultural music patterns would reflect the patterns and tonalities of their home languages rather than English. They may have never heard tunes like "Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star," or "Row, Row, Row Your Boat," so familiar to Westerners.

The solution, then, is to choose grammatical structures to be taught, write them into a lyrical context, and wrap original music around them, duplicating the natural spoken intonation as accurately as possible, while still maintaining musical integrity. This I did, creating one song to specifically demonstrate reflexive pronouns, three songs for "there is/there are," one song for "(another) and I," one song for plural "s", and one song which was used in the teaching of both reflexive pronouns and plural "s". Five of the tunes were original; two tunes were borrowed from public domain.

Duration of the Study

The study took place over five weeks in each classroom, one day each week (except for the fifth week), and one half hour for each class session. The first week was devoted to administering a pre-test to each student. A different grammar structure was taught in each of the next four weeks. A post-test was administered to each subject the day after final instruction.

Testing and instruction of subjects in the seven participating schools spanned nearly six months.

Instruction

Instruction of the test group involved teaching students one, two, or three songs containing the target structure of the day. All of the songs contained original lyrics; five of the seven songs were set to original tunes. Picture cards with illustrations created by my friend Peg Wesenberg corresponded to each song and enabled the students to visualize any vocabulary that may have been new to them.

Each lesson for the test group began with an introduction linking the target structure to a picture from the pre-test. I asked questions about the picture, allowed students to respond, and briefly explained use of the target structure. I then introduced a song and sang it for them, accompanying myself with an autoharp. The students could join in whenever they wished, and we would all sing together a second time. I asked questions about the song to elicit and reinforce the target structure. This strategy was repeated with each song in the lesson. An activity corresponding to the target structure rounded out the lesson time.

The control group was instructed using the same pictures and activities, but without the music. Occasionally this resulted in extra minutes to fill at the end of the lesson. Usually we used the extra time to extend the activity or review a previous lesson. This may have contributed additional reinforcement, and may have given students in the control group a small advantage over those in the test group.

Findings

Changes in scores from pre-test to post-test were calculated for the test group and the control group within each target grammar structure, as well as for all structures combined. In addition, scores of subjects who responded with an accuracy rate of 50% or less on the pre-test were calculated separately from those who responded accurately to 50% or more of the pre-test opportunities.

During the pre-test, I noted that many subjects failed to answer some questions, or provided irrelevant answers. These "avoidance responses" proved to be as significant in the findings as the responses that

were clearly accurate or inaccurate, as they often provided a better indication of the subjects' failure to understand the target structure. For example, during pre-testing 25.0 % of control group subjects avoided using reflexive pronouns; 41.2 % of test group subjects avoided them. On the post-test, avoidance rates dropped to 11.1 % of the control group and only 14.7 % of the test group. Clearly, test group subjects made greater gains in their understanding of reflexive pronouns than did those in the control group (Table 2).

Table 2
Avoidance Tendencies for Reflexive Pronouns

	Control Group		Test Group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
No. of responses of all types	119	109	104	103
No. (%) of avoidance responses	15 (12.6)	5 (4.6)	17 (16.3)	7 (6.8)
Change		-8 pp		-9.5 pp
No (%) of Ss using avoidance	9 (25.0)	4 (11.1)	14 (41.2)	5 (14.7)
Change		-5 (-13.9 pp)		-9 (-26.5 pp)

In three of the four structures tested, the test group made greater overall gains than did the control group. Only in the use of plural "s" did the control group improve more than the test group (14.20 percentage points, compared to 7.91 percentage points). In the other three structures, average test group improvement was approximately 5 percentage points (pp) greater than that of the control group. Among subjects who scored 50% or less on the pre-test, test group subjects made greater average improvement than control group subjects in every structure except plural "s". The use of avoidance responses dropped more in the test group than in the control group for all structures except "there is/ there are".

When scores of all structures were combined, test group subjects improved an average of 14.01 pp, compared to an 11.86 pp improvement for control group subjects. Considering only those subjects who scored with 50% or less accuracy on the pre-test, test group subjects improved by an average of 18.80 pp, while the control group averaged 14.85 pp of improvement (Table 3).

Table 3
Efficacy of Instruction in Combined Structures

	Control Group	Test Group
Whole group		
Average Change	11.86 pp	14.01 pp
Limited Group: Ss who scored ≤ 50% on pre-test	88 Ss	95 Ss
Average Change	14.85 pp	18.80 pp
No. (%) of Ss whose score changed	37 (42.0)	53 (55.79)
No. (%) of Ss with negative change	5 (5.68)	8 (8.42)
No. (%) of Ss with no change	51 (57.95)	42 (44.21)
No. (%) of Ss with positive change	32 (36.36)	45 (47.37)
Avg. change of Ss who improved	44.75 pp	43.04 pp

Results in all the structures combined were also compared between grade levels, genders, and subjects whose home languages are tonal versus those with atonal home languages (Table 4).

Table 4
Average Change of Ss Categorized by Age, Gender, and Language

	Number of Subjects		Average Change	
Age Factor	# Ss Control Group	# Ss Test Group	Control Group	Test Group
Grade 1	13	40	0.85	10.2
Grade 2	26	27	12.23	17.22
Grade 3	32	51	9.22	8.9
Grade 4	65	22	15.22	28.82
Gender Factor				
Male	75	74	11.83	13.79
Female	61	66	11.90	14.95
Language Factor				
Tonal Languages	56	58	13.34	21.38
Atonal Languages	80	82	10.83	8.79

In the age variable, music had the greatest impact on test fourth graders and first graders, who improved by averages of 13.6 pp and 9.35 pp, respectively, more than their counterparts in the control group. Test second graders surpassed control subjects in the same grade by almost 5 pp; test and control third graders' results were nearly even.

Both gender groups of test subjects improved more than the corresponding control subjects; music had slightly more impact on females than on males.

The most interesting finding regards the impact of music on test group subjects whose first language is tonal. They did indeed seem more able to transfer musical lyrics to spoken language than their counterparts with atonal first languages. Their average improvement was better than the tonal control group by 8.04 pp, and surpassed the atonal test group by 12.59 pp. The fact that the tonal control group improved more than the atonal test group suggests that, even without the aid of music in language instruction, the tonality of a first language enhances the speaker's ability to process other languages.

Discussion

In this study, test group subjects made greater gains than control group subjects in most categories examined. Among structure categories, music appears to have had the greatest effect in teaching reflexive pronouns and "(another) and I." An evaluation of the music for these two forms reveals possible causes. The song for singular reflexive pronouns very closely imitates the natural spoken intonation of the lyrics. In addition, each verse is devoted to one pronoun, which is repeated three times, in three lines, with three different verbs. The song for "(another) and I" also mirrors spoken intonation, and incorporates even more repetition, as the title phrase is repeated in every line, alternating between the starting and ending positions. Given the same lyrics in spoken form, the control group also improved their scores, but not as much as the test group.

The use of emotion in music and lyrics was effective, though not to the extent of repetition and natural intonation. "There is a Tiger in a Tree" captured the attention of the students, but the emotion may have made an impact that overpowered the linguistic pattern. Again, when the lyrics were modified slightly and spoken to the control group with equal emotion, control group subjects also improved in their use of the structure.

Control group subjects made greater gains than test group subjects in the use of plural "s," leading to the conclusion that the music for

this structure lacked effectiveness. An evaluation of the two key songs suggests reasons for this. By definition, plural "s" is at the end of words where it is less likely to be noticed. In "The Flea Song" the ending "s" is nearly lost amid the quantity of words, including new vocabulary, complicated sentence structure, quotations of speech, and a complete short story. In addition, the borrowed tune does not mimic spoken intonation. Even though the song had been used in a previous lesson, children could not be expected to memorize the lyrics to the extent that they would pay attention to a final "s" on words. Plural "s" is slightly more noticeable in "The Fruit Salad Song," since most of the pluralized words are at the beginning rather than the end of lines. But in first position the words were followed so quickly by adjoining words that the "s" may have been perceived as beginning, not ending, a word. In addition, students' attention may have been more directed by their response to pictures of food than to the words they were hearing.

The category of greatest gain was among test group subjects in fourth grade. They also had the highest percentage point gain over their control group counterparts. The reason for this is uncertain, but it could be conjectured that these subjects have spent a longer time in an English speaking environment and thus their minds were prepared to assimilate English rhythms, musical patterns, and lyrical structures before research testing and instruction began.

For Further Research

This was a highly enjoyable but complex study that begs for duplication. Additional groups of students should be tested, both in the age range of those in this study and in younger and older age ranges. A small sample of native speakers in ages corresponding to those in the research groups should be tested to determine what types of responses are age-related. Test questions should avoid assuming knowledge of vocabulary. The order in which structures are taught should be revised. Some of the music should be modified and improved. More time needs to be allotted for teaching and reviewing the songs. Additional music should be written for the grammar structures in this study and for additional structures. A system for more accurately recording and evaluating test responses should be devised. Statistics should be verified.

The huge variance between gains made by test group subjects

with tonal first languages and those with atonal first languages suggests an ability to use neural pathways pre-established to process language tones for the additional function of processing language structures presented musically. Further research in this area is needed to establish a definite correlation.

Did music prove to be effective in teaching grammar to young ESL students? I believe it did. Though the overall effect is slight, the gains among certain groups are impressive. Further studies are needed to verify the efficacy for these specific groups.

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Author

Rhoda Fagerland taught EFL in Asia for ten years before returning to the U.S. and beginning graduate studies in TESL at St. Cloud State University, where she currently teaches. This article is a condensation of her master's thesis, Sing a Song o' Syntax, completed in 2005.

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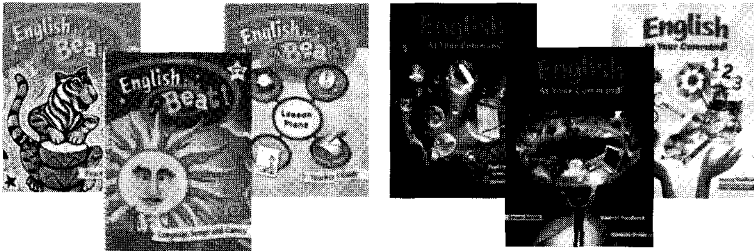

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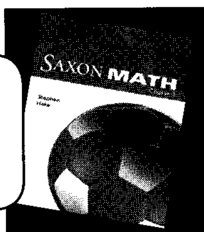

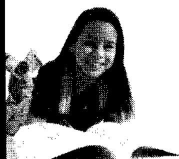

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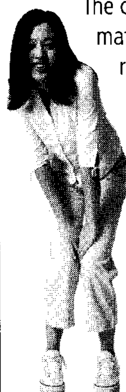

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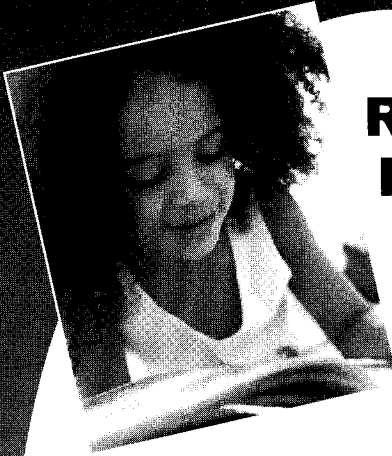
Her thin wrist is poised over the page,
with painstaking attention to the words,
meaning and sound
of the discordant new language
practiced with the person in the next seat
from another color and country
whose skin exudes unfamiliar spices.

He used to be a teacher
in what used to be Russia
She used to have a farm
in Cambodia before she came
carrying only an iron tea kettle.
Those two over there—
neighbors in the same town
of the so-called "former" Yugoslavia.

This is a classroom filled with used-to-be's,
a hard concept to teach in English.
They need it though
to explain who they once were.

A Somali woman veiled head to shoe
asks a question, pronounces "used to"
with three syllables instead of two.
As he shifts in his chair to attend,
the Buddhist monk forms a fluid arc of saffron.
His robes hang out below the frayed wool coat
he wears during this hard winter.
On his feet hiking boots, laces open,
chafe rough against bare legs.



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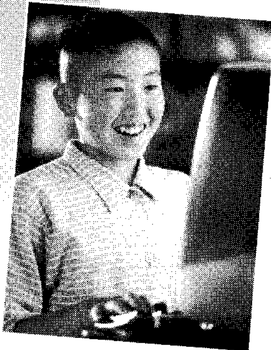

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Tutoring Programs for ELLs: Moving Beyond the Classroom to Support Academic Achievement

Susan Ranney
Tina Edstam

This article reports on a study that was funded by the Office of Refugee Resettlement under the Refugee Children School Impact Grant: 2002-2005 through the Minnesota Department of Education. We review research on tutoring in both ESL and general K-12 contexts and report on our findings from interviews with participants in several tutoring programs for English language learners in Minnesota. The varied experiences in these programs suggest that a wide range of tutoring scenarios provide benefits for both tutors and tutees. Organization of a tutoring program requires leadership and resources but offers expanded opportunities beyond the classroom to support academic achievement and address social, cultural and affective needs of English language learners.

Introduction

English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers are acutely aware of the significant challenges faced by English language learners (ELLs) in acquiring both the level of English proficiency and the academic content needed to successfully pursue an American education. These challenges are particularly steep for late-entrant students with limited or interrupted schooling and little facility accessing school content through English (Walqui, 2000). The struggles faced by these students, though predominantly of an academic nature, are exacerbated by social and cultural issues such as the realities of adolescent development, the stu-

dents' lack of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986), and inadequate instructional responses by some of their classroom teachers. ELLs need to learn both language and content at a faster pace than their mainstream peers to close the ever-widening achievement gap (Collier & Thomas, 1999). One way in which the need for additional time can be addressed on a school-wide basis is through in-school, extended day, or summer tutoring programs offering further language development and course content.

ESL teachers often find themselves trying to address the academic challenges of ELLs single-handedly in the limited time they spend with students in class. Although some teachers have attempted to offer individual tutoring to students on a random basis, the needs are clearly greater than can be met by a teacher working alone. Tutoring programs can expand on classroom instruction and increase the time available for developing academic and language competence even if resources are limited (Medina & Wenzell, 1996).

Research on the benefits of Tutoring

Peer tutoring has been widely used and researched for literacy development as well as general academic goals among many ages and types of learners. Studies conducted over the last 25 years have shown that one-to-one tutoring by trained community volunteers or college students was highly effective in improving reading skills of elementary children who were considered at risk for academic failure (Elbaum et al., 2000). Peer and cross-age tutoring have been shown to offer benefits to both the tutor and the tutee in academic development and in the growth of self-esteem (Samway & Syvanen, 1999; Pugh, 2000). Other benefits include a sense of community, awareness of the strengths and unique qualities of both tutors and tutees, increased competence in academic subjects as well as social skills, and increased responsibility (Foster-Harrison, 1997).

Research supports the value of tutoring for students of all backgrounds in developing their literacy skills. In a review of research on peer and cross-age tutoring, Rekrut (1994) found that one-on-one tutoring was an effective approach that spanned content areas, various elements of reading skills, cognitive and affective skills, and ages of stu-

dents. Juel (1996) explains the success of tutoring as due to the increased engagement of learners in tutoring as opposed to the classroom setting, and the fact that individualized immediate feedback in tutoring guides readers toward productive strategies and away from non-productive ones.

For struggling ELLs, tutoring can improve academic performance and, perhaps even more importantly, can bring about positive attitudes towards school. One program for Hispanic students combined instruction in judo, community organization, and parent training with academic tutoring (Fleisher et al., 1995). Research on this program documented improvement in academic performance and behavior among third through sixth grade participants who were considered at risk for delinquency and dropping out of school. Students were enthusiastic about attending the program and their teachers noticed that students showed more interest in school and less disruptive behavior after they began participating in it.

Tutoring programs can make a dramatic impact on ELLs' ability to complete homework, which is crucial to academic achievement (Aspiazu, Bauer, & Spillett, 1998). In a community-based after-school tutoring program for Hispanic students, the researchers found, "Discipline at home and at school improved because by completing homework assignments, students felt good about themselves and they wanted to go to school" (p. 143). In addition, ELLs may learn basic academic practices such as using a rubric to self-monitor, organizing a binder to access information, and using a dictionary (Donahue, 2002).

Research on Benefits to Tutors

While the intended goal of tutoring is the tutees' academic development, tutors themselves often benefit as well (Gaustad, 1993; Samway & Syvanen, 1999). The common wisdom that one learns best through the process of teaching has been supported by research (Rekrut, 1994; Juel, 1996; Nevi, 1983). Cross-age tutors gain through increased time on task, awareness and control of the learning process, relearning, and increased self-esteem (Nevi, 1983). The act of tutoring itself can be empowering, especially when tutors are less successful academically (Pugh, 2005). Teachers can also learn through tutoring. Donahue's

(2002) experience as a teacher-turned-tutor gave her an awareness of one of her ESL student's academic gaps and lack of comprehension on a more profound level than she had when teaching her in a large classroom setting. Teachers can, therefore, gain insights into their teaching practice by reflecting on their tutoring.

The benefits of tutoring programs go beyond the academic growth of participants to broader social effects. Rekrut (1994) found that in a tutoring program involving high school and college tutors with African-American elementary students, "The common bond of the tutoring experience empowered the students to erase the educational, racial, and gender boundaries that existed at the beginning of the program" (p. 135), with the program helping build a whole community of students, families and staff.

Research on Elements of Effective Tutoring Programs

Foster-Harrison (1997, pp. 13-16) identifies five elements that are key to the success of program development: specified goals, structured program design, adequate training for tutors, well-matched tutors and tutees, and regular supervision and support. She recommends that teachers plan for recruiting and training tutors, funding the program, identifying tutoring sites, and scheduling. She also recommends planning for both formative and summative program evaluation, and for public relations to encourage participation and maintain funding. Tutors need extended training and ongoing supervision that includes observation, suggestion, demonstration and modeling. It takes a commitment of time, organization, and resources to have an effective tutoring program, but the benefits are well worth the investment (Foster-Harrison, 1997).

Research has demonstrated that any level achiever can serve as a literacy tutor, and that the ability to tutor without making value judgments is more important than achievement level (Rekrut, 1994). Indeed, sometimes low achievers have the advantage of having first-hand insights into the difficulties that struggling readers face (Juel, 1996; Samway & Syvanen, 1999). A consistent theme in the literature is that tutors need training (Al Otaiba & Pappamihiel, 2005; Foster-Harrison, 1997; Juel, 1996; Rekrut, 1994). Rekrut (1994, p. 359) recommends that training should include interpersonal, management, and content skills,

while Alexandrowicz (2002, pp. 73-74) identifies five areas in which tutors of ELLs should develop awareness: 1) an understanding that many physical, social and cultural factors influence academic achievement, 2) an awareness of tutees' native language features to help tutors understand and respond to errors, 3) the concept of individuality among ethnic groups in order to prevent stereotypes, 4) the understanding that tutors should use this type of awareness to build rapport with tutees, and 5) knowledge of how to validate tutees' language and culture.

Once a program has found and trained tutors, some other elements are necessary for program success. For example, establishing a regular time and location is an important operational goal (Pugh, 2005). In working with elementary age students, the use of same-sex tutor/tutee partners was found to be important (Rekrut, 1994). Alexandrowicz (2002) stresses the need for initial and ongoing assessment of the tutees and for developing an instructional plan based on that assessment. Leto (1995, p. 135) proposes a 'recipe' for a successful after-school tutoring program as having the ingredients of funding, a community of learners, common goals, energized participants, a home for the program, an understanding of literacy, supportive institutions, supportive parents, a safe environment, and a structured program format. In addition, she calls for active listening, open communication, positive rapport, genuine caring, and a flexible spirit.

Research Questions

Three research questions were the starting point of the grant-funded study. They are as follows:

1. *Do ELLs believe that tutoring supports their academic achievement?*
2. *What factors encourage or discourage ELLs from enrolling in tutoring programs?*
3. *Are there positive factors of tutoring programs which are not directly related to student academic achievement?*

In our goal of discovering what makes tutoring programs effective, additional themes emerged such as the variety of tutoring contexts, the

strengths that different types of tutors brought into the tutoring process, and the organizational aspects of setting up a tutoring program which incorporate such aspects as program leadership, tutor recruitment, tutor training, and personal benefits to the tutors themselves.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected through focus group interviews with participants in tutoring programs, which included ELLs, peer tutors, and adult tutors.1 The programs were visited while they were in session and tutees and tutors were invited to participate in separate focus group sessions which lasted about 30 minutes each. The interviews were conducted in separate rooms, with one researcher interviewing tutors while the other interviewed tutees. The sessions were audio tape-recorded and the tapes were transcribed for coding purposes. In one case, interviews were conducted with the ESL teachers, who worked one-on-one with ESL students in study labs in a tutorial fashion. We also collected information from coordinators about the organization of the programs.

The programs we visited included summer programs where tutors worked alongside mainstream teachers or in pull-out sessions with students, an after-school program operating during the academic year with peer tutors, and a study lab program led by ESL teachers which took place during the school day throughout the academic year. There were a total of seven schools visited, including four high schools and three middle schools. We interviewed 20 tutors and 50 tutees. In addition, we held informal conversations with ESL teachers at two other middle schools about their experiences with after-school peer tutoring programs which had taken place in the previous year. Some of the tutors we interviewed in the summer programs had experience in study hall peer tutoring programs during the academic year, so we were able to gather some information about that type of program as well. It should be noted that we did not have access to ELLs who chose not to participate, so that our data about obstacles to participation were limited to indirect sources such as comments from administrators and participating ELLs.

After the interviews were transcribed, the transcripts were coded by categories relating to our research questions. We performed an interrater reliability check and resolved all differences through discus-

sion. We then identified additional themes in the data that related to our research goal and coded the transcripts for those themes. Selected quotes will be presented to illustrate typical comments that related to the questions and themes.

Research question #1: Do ELLs believe that tutoring supports their academic achievement?

Tutees' perspectives:

In response to research question #1, ELLs overwhelmingly asserted that the tutoring supported their academic achievement. There were no negative responses and students described several specific ways in which the tutoring was beneficial for their learning. These specific benefits included getting explanations that were easier for them to understand, helping them with difficult classes, preparing them for future schoolwork, helping them to work more quickly and complete more homework, answering questions they had about vocabulary, and helping them understand written texts. In addition, students reported that tutors helped teach them academic skills such as good time management and the use of resources such as libraries to extend their learning.

A common observation among ELLs was that tutors used language in ways that made it easier for them to understand than regular classroom instruction. For example, they said tutors used more comprehensible language, concrete examples, as well as repeated explanations. Tutees were also aware that the one-on-one interaction with their tutors was beneficial, as in this observation: "We're doing like one-on-one so we can understand more. If we do it in a group in class, it might be hard."

Tutors' perspectives:

The reported perceptions of academic gains by tutees were echoed and expanded upon in interviews with tutors. Tutors noted several academic benefits for ELLs: progress in their academic work; successful completion of tests; and improved grades. Specific support that tutors reported providing was with reading comprehension, writing assignments, and understanding word problems in math.

Tutors observed student progress in the work they did with them, noting student improvement in the speed and accuracy of their work. In the study lab context with ESL teachers as tutors, the tutoring enabled ELLs to complete assignments such as posters and article summaries that they would have been unequipped to do on their own. In addition, one of the ESL teachers noted that the one-on-one interaction helped students develop academic language: "Now in a classroom situation if one kid asks one question the whole hour, that might . . . might be pretty good for that particular group. But if you are tutoring with one-on-one, that kid can ask a series of questions and follow up . . . and that's really important academic language to acquire."

Research question #2: What factors encourage or discourage ELLs from enrolling in tutoring programs?

We discovered there was a wide range of program types for tutoring and also a range in the degree of effort required for ELLs to participate in them. In programs that were designed as part of the school day during the academic year or summer program, participation would not require extra effort to enroll, but would be based on class scheduling or participation in the general summer program. On the other hand, a program which runs after school as a voluntary addition to the school day requires effort and commitment on the part of the ELLs. These after-school programs also depend on the availability of bus transportation after school. For the programs operating during the school day, participation would depend on the organizational features of scheduling to make it possible for students to receive tutoring during their classes or study halls (S. Endo, personal communication, January 8, 2006).

In voluntary after-school programs, the motivation to spend the extra time in school was associated with a desire for better grades and the need to pass the Basic Standards Tests. Tutees stated that their parents supported their participation and were happy they were getting needed help. Commenting on the decisions of non-participating ELLs, tutees reported that the perception of a limited availability of tutors was one determining factor for some ELLs in their decision not to enroll.

Research Question # 3: Are there positive factors of tutoring programs which are not directly related to student academic achievement?

There were many positive factors of tutoring programs not directly related to student academic achievement but cited by both tutors and tutees as distinct social, cultural, or affective benefits. On a social level, tutees noted how the tutoring program created a connection for them to mainstream students in their school. Beyond the confines of the tutoring sites, by talking in the halls, at pep fests, and at lunch, tutees and peer tutors began to see themselves as school friends. Peer tutors at one site also encouraged some tutees to join them in one school's diversity club where they made further links to other students. General conversational practice outside of the academic sphere was also noted as a benefit, allowing tutees to use their English to talk about non-academic but age-appropriate topics such as future careers, hobbies, sports, and leisure time activities. Some adult tutors commented on the growth of tutee social skills throughout the tutoring experience as well as the mutual mentoring that they observed among the tutees themselves. Thus, tutees from diverse backgrounds and languages were serving as mentors and support for each other within the tutoring program, connecting with other second language learners and creating friendship groups. A middle school adult tutor pointed out that she often focused on helping tutees learn to treat each other better in terms of adolescent behavior.

On a cultural level, adult and peer tutors commented on teacher expectations related to course projects and school supplies unfamiliar to some ELLs such as glue sticks, markers, and poster board. The ESL teachers who provided one-on-one help with poster assignments noted that ELLs are often at a loss to complete these types of required tasks on their own. Many aspects of U.S. schools are unfamiliar and challenging: school lockers, buying lunch tickets, finding bathrooms, and remembering schedules (Morse, 1997). One ELL noted, "they [tutors] teach you like what's your locker, how to open the lockers and get you ready for the school year." An adult tutor addressed the cultural norms of middle school expected in and out of the classroom such as "raising one's hand, not interrupting when others speak, walking – not running –

in the hallway." Thus the cultural expectations of school itself were explained and examined during tutoring sessions. Since many students leave school because of affective rather than academic issues, (Johnson, et al., 1986), teaching about school cultural norms and making students more comfortable there are important goals that can be achieved through tutoring.

Conversations between tutors and tutees often gave both an opportunity to explore cultural misunderstandings. One peer tutor thought the tutees learned more about American culture from talking to the tutors. An adult tutor took the opportunity to explain why something would be perceived as rude in American culture that might not be so in the tutee's culture.

On an affective level, adult tutors felt that their tutees often responded well to them because the tutors truly cared and offered "a friendly face and a pat on the back and somebody who says you're okay." An adult middle school tutor thought a tutor needed to be extremely patient and compassionate "to help the tutees deal with their frustrations in a constructive manner." A peer tutor felt that talking about something personal rather than academic at the start of each tutoring session made it go more smoothly. Peer tutors said that being the same age served to make the tutees more at ease and comfortable. Tutoring sessions appear to have provided tutees with social, cultural, and affective benefits that added to their overall tutoring experience.

Variety of Tutoring Contexts

Our study reflects data gathered from interviews with tutors and tutees from seven different sites: three middle school sites and four high school sites. In addition, there were informal conversations with ESL teachers from two middle schools, which had offered after-school peer tutoring programs the previous year. The programs we observed included three different tutoring contexts: after-school programs, summer school programs, and study lab programs. All three types of settings were used at the high school level. The after-school program and summer school program were used at the middle school level.

The high school after-school program was made available to tutees three times weekly, though they could attend once, twice, or three times

a week. The participants included 19 tutees and 9 peer tutors, with some tutors working with tutees individually or in small groups, depending on the numbers of tutees attending and on the subject need. It should be noted that all nine tutors might not have been present at each tutoring session. The program took place for an hour and fifteen minutes after school on three weekdays during the school year. A small cafeteria was used for tutoring and a school snack was also provided.

The middle and high school summer program had a total of 100 students and 35 adult tutors in the district, with individual school sites allotted a specified number of tutors based on need. Summer school ran daily for a month in June for middle school students and for a month in July for high school students, with most classes being held during the morning hours. Adult tutors (recent high school graduates as well as mature adults) for these programs worked with the students during the class time in the classroom or computer lab, or outside the classroom at a central location when students were able to leave the classroom for tutoring at certain junctures, depending on the classroom teachers' flow of activities. The ratio was two adult tutors to sixteen refugee student tutees in this setting. It should be noted that the recent high school graduates were more similar to peer tutors in their interaction with tutees than to the adult tutors.

The study lab program consisted of three ESL teacher tutors. This program had originally been a peer-tutoring program for the prior two years, when scheduling with other classes allowed for peer tutor participation. After schedules changed, the program became an adjunct of a general study hall held during school hours, with ELLs placed in a separate study lab during that period of the day where they received one-on-one assistance from an ESL teacher tutor in a separate classroom setting. These study labs, held in regular classrooms, were scheduled daily during a regular school period and had five to six tutees in each.

Strengths of Different Types of Tutors

The programs we observed used three different types of tutors: peer tutors, adult tutors who were not licensed teachers, and adult tutors who were licensed ESL teachers. Each type brought different strengths to the tutoring experience. One advantage shared by all tutors

is the relaxed one-on-one interaction, as reflected in the following quote: "This is the best situation for teaching because you don't have to test them. . . and you can work with them on a one-to-one basis or whatever. You don't have to go by all the rules." However, the different types of tutors varied in their particular strengths.

Peer tutors brought an instant familiarity with the subject matter and requirements, having taken the same class, and having recently studied the same content with the same textbook and in some cases the same teachers as their tutees. As one peer tutor noted about tutees, they could relate to each other more as equals because "it's not that different of a relationship" as it would be with an adult. Peer tutors also brought a positive attitude, a desire to be of help, and an attitude of fun. They served as good language role models and culture brokers, exhibiting typical adolescent behavior and values. Many were particularly interested in knowing students from other cultures and thus brought an attitude of curiosity and delight, which helped establish a constructive basis upon which to relate to their tutees. Several tutors who were themselves second language learners but had become academically competent and linguistically proficient brought to the tutoring session a personal understanding of their tutees' challenges and often the native language with which to explain concepts and translate words.

Based on our informal conversations with ESL teachers who had supervised peer tutoring programs in the middle schools, it appears that adult tutors may be more effective than peer tutors in terms of instruction at the middle school level. If the goal is to improve ELLs' ability to complete homework, adults offer a more focused and task-based tutoring experience. However, the use of middle school peer tutors, though challenging, might still work satisfactorily if sufficient supervisory guidelines are put in place. Also, the peer tutoring programs in the middle schools seem to have served a purpose in giving ELLs a place to do homework which had advantages over doing it at home, and in offering them an after-school activity and chance to socialize, which might otherwise be lacking.

Adult tutors are often able to meet with classroom teachers on a more equal basis and ask for specific directions about the ways in which

they can address the course material with their tutees. They are also more apt to advocate for the students in a fairly assertive fashion, in contrast to the recent high school graduate tutors, who reported some challenges in working with teachers and taking on a more assertive role. Adult tutors are also willing to 'think outside the box' as one described her desire to not replicate the traditional classroom lecture mode which proved difficult for her tutees to follow. Other strengths of the adult tutor are the awareness that some ELLs might be reticent about seeking help and the ability to create conditions that would encourage these students to do so. And on a final note, adult tutors often offer a level of caring and nonjudgmental concern that resonates with their ELL.

Licensed ESL teachers whose jobs required them to oversee study hall periods created their own ESL study labs for their ELLs that allowed them to work one-on-one with tutees and offer them direct assistance with their language development as well as with content area material. As teachers, they had access to resources that could be used effectively with their tutees. Thus, these ESL teacher-tutors were intimately involved in the schoolwork of their students in this study lab setting that went beyond the parameters of an ESL classroom but encompassed the supervision of schoolwork as a whole, much like an involved parent might do. The teacher-tutors also nurtured a cooperative learning environment within the study lab, encouraging their tutees to help "each other find things on the internet or print things out" or to "offer each other a lot of tech as well as researching support or language support too." The idea of peer tutoring among the tutees was reinforced, making the group more cohesive and more trusting of each other.

Using their ESL expertise, the teacher-tutors were able to help tutees organize their schoolwork in a more productive manner. These ESL teachers were also able to negotiate directly with classroom teachers to allow the former to give tutees missed exams during the study labs, rather than requiring them to take the make-up exams scheduled after school since they lacked after-school transportation. ESL teachers serving as tutors therefore became very instrumental as 'loco parentis' mediators in helping their ELLs navigate the academic waters of their school setting.

Organization of tutoring programs

Leadership

In our visits to the programs, it became clear that strong leadership and supervision contributed to their productiveness and sustainability. In addition to the tutors in the after-school program, there were at least two adults on staff: an ESL teacher and a parent liaison. The ESL teacher guided the tutors to initiate informal conversations with the ELLs, giving them discussion topics to break the ice, and organized the students into groups to work efficiently on different subjects. She also took attendance and administered bus passes. The tutors found her to be an excellent resource who made herself available to them all the time and knew the ELLs. This teacher also was in charge of selecting tutors based on their applications, providing training for them, and conducting mid-year evaluations of tutors. This type of leadership was seen as essential to the program.

In other types of programs as well, leadership is crucial to making the tutoring effective. For example, in discussing the study hall program they had participated in during the academic year, high school tutors told us that it had been organized so that tutors were assigned to specific subjects and that it worked to effectively help ELLs get subject specific help. All of the scheduling and organization requires adults who are actively involved in the program.

Recruiting and training tutors

Qualities considered important for tutors included openness to people from different countries, intelligence, patience, and compassion. In some cases, tutors were former ESL students themselves, and their personal experience was an advantage. ELLs appreciated their tutors' patience and concern, saying, "If we don't understand, they keep trying and trying without getting frustrated."

Tutors were recruited in several ways. The summer school program hired tutors who were either recent high school graduates or paraprofessionals in the schools. Some of the high school graduates came to the program through contacts developed during the academic year tutoring program. An ESL teacher who recruited mainstream students as peer tutors recommended an active campaign to advertise the program

and find tutors, using flyers, posters in high traffic areas in the school, email, and networking with other teachers. Recommendations from current tutors to their friends provided another avenue to attract new tutors.

Tutors were motivated by both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. The tutors at the summer school and after-school programs in the high school were paid an hourly wage. For programs that took place during the school day in the academic year, credit for a service-learning course or a world language credit were the extrinsic rewards. In addition, tutors described many intrinsic rewards and they were enthusiastic about the intangible benefits they received. A frequent refrain was that they liked helping people. They described tutoring as fun, and found the combination of pay and the intrinsic rewards attractive: "so I thought it would be good, make some money and help kids at the same time." The tutoring job was also seen as a beneficial job experience for high school students to use on college applications. One other potential motivation is the opportunity for developing foreign language skills. One teacher reported having a tutor who was studying Spanish and who tutored a Hispanic student as a way of practicing the language. Overall, peer tutors seemed to recognize that tutoring was a beneficial opportunity and a positive experience.

Scheduling was an important issue with high school tutors, who often have other activities and sports commitments as well as their own schoolwork. Yet for the peer tutors in the after-school program, this job was seen as relaxing in contrast to other stressful activities, and it was feasible because it did not require transportation. For the programs set up to take place during the regular school day in study halls and the middle school after-school programs, peer tutors were often motivated by the need to do community service for a service learning or social studies course. In addition, ESL teachers were able to find some tutors who were willing to help even without the extrinsic rewards of fulfilling credit obligations or earning money. Teachers reported that higher-level ESL students sometimes simply wanted to help others work through challenges that they had faced themselves. However, being a tutor means sacrificing one's study hall or after school time, so it was difficult to find enough willing tutors without offering them compensation or credit.

All the programs we visited reported having some kind of orientation for the tutors, as was emphasized in the research literature on tutoring. The most extensive of these was a two-day training session for the summer program. Tutors reported learning about strategies for teaching reading such as activating background knowledge and guiding students to make predictions based on pictures; they found it helpful that leaders demonstrated strategies in the orientation. It was important for tutors to learn that ESL students do not lack intelligence but may lack background knowledge and academic skills. Another lesson they took from orientation was how to make personal connections, especially when working with newcomers who have little if any knowledge of English. Making personal connections is an important topic for orientation because, beyond particular skills and knowledge, the compassion that tutors bring was the most important quality to the students that we interviewed.

Benefits to Tutors and to the Wider Community

In our interviews with the tutors, it became apparent the benefits went beyond the original factors that motivated them to do the tutoring. For high school tutors, the job helped them organize their time and become disciplined when they otherwise might procrastinate. They also reported that tutoring had a positive effect on their own academic work because it helped them review a number of subjects. They learned more about the English language through working with English language learners. Other skills that tutors gained were the ability to communicate with speakers of other languages and the patience to overcome communication difficulties, which are important skills in a global economy.

In addition to academic benefits, tutors seemed to gain a broader understanding of the world in ways that are similar to those afforded by travel or study abroad. They talked about learning about different cultures and gaining new perspectives on ideas related to government through their discussions with ELLs. As representatives of U.S. culture, they developed insights into their own culture as well. The cultural information they gained ranged from finding out about the best ethnic restaurants in the area to learning about the international conflicts that drove refugees to Minnesota.

Both adult and peer tutors said they were happy to have made a connection with ELLs. They talked about the rewards of seeing their

tutees make progress or seeing 'the light bulb moment.' The reward of knowing they were making a difference was gratifying, as stated by one adult tutor, "I believe that change starts, you know, by just one kid, one person, making a difference to one person." Tutors saw the positive side of ELLs, as one tutor noted: "The ESL kids . . . are just so eager to learn." These insights on the part of adult tutors are encouraging, especially since these tutors worked in the schools as paraprofessionals during the year. The presence of adult staff members with personal connections to ESL students and insights about their strengths and challenges is potentially extremely beneficial for the school environment.

Discussion

Similar to research findings on tutoring in other contexts (Aspiazu, et al, 1998; Donahue, 2002; Fleisher, 1995; Morse, 1997; Samway & Syvanen, 1999), our study confirmed the value of tutoring. Tutee responses to the varied tutoring experiences were overwhelmingly positive, with a clear desire to have even more tutoring time and more tutors available. Regardless of the type of tutor (peer, adult, or teacher), all tutees were pleased with those who tutored them. While our study lacked quantitative data to demonstrate academic gains, interviews showed that both tutors and tutees perceived that the programs supported academic achievement, and both groups reported deriving social, cultural, and affective benefits from the tutoring experience. These findings suggest that setting up tutoring programs is a valuable tool in addressing the pressing needs of ELLs in our K-12 schools.

Decisions about the type of program to choose and the type of tutors to select will depend on factors related to individual schools and districts such as the availability of after-school transportation, the possibility of academic credit for peer tutors, and scheduling issues. Based on the repeated request for more tutors and more time in the tutoring programs, one consideration might be to maximize the tutor to tutee ratio to allow the most one-on-one interaction possible. In recruiting tutors, the external rewards must be present, but it may also be helpful to make people aware of the many other benefits they may gain through tutoring. It should also be noted that tutors need supervision and leadership, so programs should plan for adequate participation of adult leaders.

In a general climate that is sometimes hostile to newcomers, the development of intercultural skills and positive attitudes can benefit the community. Tutors developed a respect and appreciation of the ELLs through their interaction. Although it goes beyond the confines of our study, it is not hard to imagine that these tutors became advocates for immigrants and refugees in the broader community as well as in the schools. Thus the effect of tutoring programs can be described as a 'win/win/win' situation: the tutees gain academically and socially, the tutors gain personally, and the broader community may gain by having higher performing ESL students as well as community members with intercultural skills and understanding. In a social context where the ESL teacher is isolated and ELLs are marginalized (Edstam, 1998), organizing a tutoring program may be one way to broaden the base of support for ELLs in the school and community.

Conclusion

Tutoring programs demand teacher and administrator resources to fulfill critical organizational aspects such as program leadership, tutor recruitment, and tutor training and supervision. In order to have an effective tutoring program, the right people have to be in place, the tutoring schedule has to mesh with the realities of student life and school transportation, and training sessions must be offered for tutors. Yet our findings support previous research on tutoring that indicates that the investment is worthwhile. Tutoring provides ELLs with much needed additional time and direct assistance so crucial to closing the achievement gap. ESL teachers cannot take on this challenge on their own, but may be able to greatly expand school support for their students by organizing a tutoring program that fits their particular context.

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Footnotes

1. We only interviewed students who returned completed parental consent forms and who chose to participate in the interviews, although these criteria excluded only a few students. The ELLs had limited English abilities but were able to understand the questions and provide answers.

Authors

Susan Ranney, Ph.D., works in teacher education in the Program in Second Languages and Cultures Education at the University of Minnesota. Her areas of interest are the preparation of ESL and mainstream teachers for working with English language learners, the integration of language and content in language teaching, and sociolinguistics.

Tina Edstam, Ph.D., is the coordinator of a teacher development grant at the University of Minnesota, focusing on long-term collaborative processes for serving English language learners. Her areas of interest include teacher professionalism, ESL practices and policies in the public schools, and the education of mainstream teachers about ESL issues.

Appendix

Research Protocol: Questions To Be Used In Focus Group Discussions

Focus group questions for tutees

1. General introductory questions for students to introduce themselves
2. Why did you decide to come to this program the first time? How did you learn about it? What were you hoping to get from it?
3. What is the best part of this tutoring session? What other aspects of tutoring do you enjoy? (i.e. reading, writing, speaking, listening)
4. What is the most difficult aspect of this tutoring?
5. Do you have friends who decided not to come to tutoring? Why do you think they don't?
6. Do you think it makes a difference in your classes? How?
7. Are you completing more of your homework because of the tutoring?
8. Is it easy to get to know your tutor? Does the tutor know how to explain things so that you can understand?
9. What are some of the things your tutor does to help you?
10. Are you making new friends through the tutoring program? (Are they other ESL students or tutors?)
11. What kinds of things do you talk with your tutor about?
12. What have you learned from your tutor about other Americans?
13. When you talk to your parents and friends about tutoring, what do you tell them? (Do you parents want you to attend tutoring? And why?)
14. Would you want to continue with tutoring next year? Why or why not?
15. Has the program changed the way you think about school? How?

16. If you could change anything about the program, what would you change?

Focus group questions for tutors

1. General introductory questions for students to introduce themselves.
2. Why did you decide to become a tutor? How did you learn about theprogram?
3. What aspect of tutoring do you like best? Other aspects you enjoy?
4. What is the most challenging part to tutoring?
5. Has tutoring had any effect (good or bad) on your own school work?
6. What have you learned from tutoring? What else do you gain from doing this?
7. Has tutoring helped you change the way you look at other people from other countries? Examples?
8. Have you interacted with the immigrant and refugee students outside of tutoring? Examples?
9. Have you made any friends through the tutoring program? (other tutors or tutees)
10. What do you talk with your tutee about?
11. Do you talk to your parents or friends about your tutoring experiences? If so, what do you tell them?
12. Would you want to continue tutoring next year? Why or why not?
13. If you could change anything about the program, what would you change?

Questions For Adult Participants

Please describe what you have done to recruit tutors and tutees.

1. Did you provide any orientation for the tutors?
2. Is there any compensation or incentive available for the tutors?
3. How regular is the attendance at the tutoring sessions?
4. What do you think motivates the tutors to participate?
5. What do you think motivates the tutees to participate?

6. Have you done anything in particular to create a sense of community?
7. What are your impressions of the interaction between the tutors and tutees?
8. What are your impressions of the impact that the tutoring has on the academic success of the tutees?
9. Do you see any other benefits to the program?
10. What are the main challenges that you face in making the program work?
11. How have you dealt with those challenges?
12. What advice would you give to other schools that want to establish tutoring programs?
13. Do you have any other ideas you would like to share with me?

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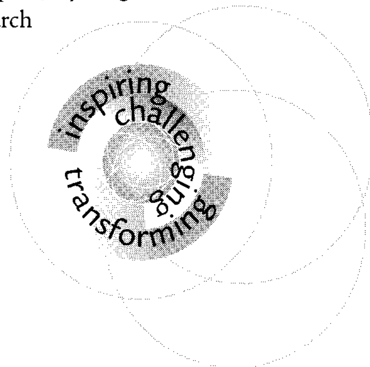

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Reviews

Fritz Perry, Marie (2004). *A Gift for Sadia.* Northfield, MN: Buttonweed Press, L.L.C.

A Gift for Sadia is a touching tale of a young Somali girl who has moved with her family to Rochester, Minnesota. This picture book, recommended for readers age five to nine, has a theme that appeals to a far broader audience. It recounts some of the challenges Sadia faces in learning a new language and adjusting to a new culture and climate.

During her first winter here, Sadia makes an unlikely friend—a wounded Canadian goose. She sneaks food out to the bird each evening, and while feeding it, pours her heart out to her captive audience. She shares the uncertainties and trials she encounters each day at school, which eases her loneliness a bit. In the end, the goose repays the favor in an unsuspecting way by leading a V of geese past her classroom window just as Sadia is trying to recall what letter comes after "u." (Oddly, she gets this correct, but then "w" seems to have been inadvertently left out of her recitation of the alphabet.)

The color pencil and oil pastel illustrations in the book appear somewhat child-like, even crudely drawn at times. One close up of the girl feeding the goose a bread crust, however, does a particularly good job of capturing the mood of each character as well as the beauty of their friendship.

For this story, writer and illustrator Marie Fritz Perry drew on her experience working with a class of English language learners while an artist-in-residence with Rochester public schools. Perry learned a great deal from the seven English language learners who wrote stories, drew pictures, and told her about their experiences immigrating to the U.S. Perry saw many similarities in their stories, and wanted to find a way to make that experience known to the general public. *A Gift for Sadia* is the result.

The story is one that English language learners probably easily identify with, while it gives English-only learners (and teachers) a glimpse

into the experiences of a newcomer that may leave them with a bit more empathy for a growing segment of the school population.

Reviewer

Anita Dualeh is an LEP assessment specialist at the Minnesota Department of Education. To continue teaching—and learning—she volunteers as a literacy instructor in her free time.

Huntley, Helen (2006). *Essential Academic Vocabulary: Mastering the Complete Academic Word List.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Looking for a way to help students master college-level vocabulary? *Essential Academic Vocabulary* offers a comprehensive approach for teaching the Academic Word List (AWL) – the 507 most frequently used words in the fields of arts, commerce, law and science. Designed for college prep, community college, and university classes, it will also help students studying for the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

The book promises to prepare students for academic success by helping them preview, learn, and practice the AWL in a real academic context. It keeps that promise by delivering a wide variety of academic tasks and communicative activities that promote deep processing of target words. Its greatest strength is giving students the tools to develop their own learning strategies.

The 507 word families are presented in 16 chapters to fit into a typical semester. Each chapter introduces 30 to 40 words. No meanings are explicitly provided. The words are highlighted in interesting and accessible readings adapted from current undergraduate textbooks. The complexity increases in each chapter. Topics range from U.S. business practices to how emotions are expressed in different cultures. A picture and preview questions activate schema. After reading, students choose the best meaning of a word based on context.

Each reading is followed by eight different exercises. Students are asked to use inferences, complete charts, and answer questions designed to assess comprehension. Activities based on word entries teach them how to use an English to English dictionary. The text also introduces word forms, collocations, and chapter-related affixes. There are typical academic tasks such as writing reports and reflective essays, as well as group speaking activities and role-plays. Extensive review exercises recycle target words after every four chapters.

Students are expected to prepare for class by creating detailed vocabulary cards or notebooks. The teacher's guide suggests having students check off target words they know, put questions marks by ones

they are unsure of, and create cards for ten to twelve words they don't know. Instructors can encourage compliance by letting students use their cards during class and on tests.

There is a wealth of support material. The appendices offer techniques for paraphrasing and summarizing, identifying word parts, reading dictionary entries, and preparing vocabulary cards. Student and instructor websites provide additional exercises and links to a vast amount of vocabulary information. The instructor site includes the teacher's guide, answer key, downloadable tests, and a sample syllabus. The book does not come with a CD, but vocabulary CD's can be purchased from the publisher.

One weakness is that even though the cover touts the use of visuals to introduce chapter themes, there are not many, they are all black and white, and the photo quality is modest. It is a minor point because the text is attractively laid out and easy to read.

I would recommend *Essential Academic Vocabulary* to anyone looking for a comprehensive vocabulary program that's contextual, varied, and grounded in current research. It is a valuable tool for the challenging task of teaching academic vocabulary.

Reviewer

Debra Leach has a TEFL certificate from Hamline University and is taking classes in the MAESL program at the University of Minnesota. She teaches ESL at Comunidades Latinas Unidas En Servicio (CLUES) in Minneapolis.

Bishop Petty, Angel and Engel, Robert (2006). *From College to Careers: Listening in the Real World.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

From College to Careers is a textbook built on the premise that "understanding a language is more than listening to audio segments". Written with the goal of holistically developing listening comprehension for high intermediate to advanced ESL students in a university setting, the theme of each chapter is based on an authentic listening segment that has been recorded onto CD. Native speakers, some with regional accents, as well as a few non-native speakers, address topics ranging from the college application process and becoming a doctor to cross-cultural faux pas and water rights. The recordings truly are authentic – with all of the false starts, filler words, and context-based intonation that are characteristic of "real" speech.

While these listening exercises are perhaps more difficult than the "doctored" recordings that often accompany ESL textbooks, learners are not presented with the segments without being prepared. Each chapter begins with multiple pre-listening activities that serve to connect the topic with what the students already know and introduce them to vocabulary items they will soon hear. Learners practice the new words in a variety of ways – by categorizing, making word associations, matching words to their definitions, guessing meaning from context, or using grammatical clues to complete sentences.

During listening activities learners focus on various aspects of the listening task, such as listening globally or listening for details. Exercises include multiple-choice questions, short-answer questions, and grids, filling in blanks, and taking notes. The post-listening sections provide opportunities for students to discuss and critically analyze the material presented. Discussion questions, role-plays and consensus activities, as well as a few grammar-based exercises, are among the suggestions offered by the textbook authors to enable students to process the information. Throughout the text the authors have included helpful notes that succinctly present relevant aspects of American culture and language to the students, and each chapter closes with ideas for further research and study, including interview questions and essay prompts. An easy-to-use

website offers additional activities for students (web-based research activities, vocabulary flashcards, and chapter quizzes), and a password-protected site contains valuable resources for instructors (chapter notes, word lists, answer keys, and a sample syllabus).

This book is one I would be glad to use in a college-level ESL class. The recordings correspond to the speech the learners hear outside of the classroom and the topics chosen are interesting and enjoyable. The subject matter is relevant to the intended audience, although I find some of the activities to be less so. At times, the role-plays and suggested scenarios do not mirror potential real-life situations for the learners. However, the number and variety of vocabulary-building exercises and thought-provoking discussion questions, as well as the frequent 'cultural notes', together with the refreshingly authentic listening portions, make this textbook a valuable resource for any college-level ESL teacher.

Reviewer

Christine Liptak is pursuing an M.A. in TESOL at the University of Minnesota and is currently involved in teaching ESP to international graduate students. She has experience tutoring adult Chinese immigrants in the U.S. as well as teaching EFL to high school students in Austria and college-age adults in France.

Stempleski, S., Douglas, N., & Morgan, J. R. (2005). *World Link: Developing English Fluency.* Boston: Thomson Heinle.

The goal of *World Link: Developing English Fluency* is to make learning English enjoyable for teenagers and adults. The books' fun and worthwhile exercises, done after learning about the featured topic as a class, accomplish this goal.

The books are constructed with four levels of English language learners (ELLs) in mind, ranging from a high-beginner to a low-advanced stage. Each book contains twelve units, which include vocabulary, speaking exercises, concise grammar lessons, listening activities and short dialogues. The order of the units follows a regular order of language acquisition. Convenient charts, displaying the language skills covered in each unit, are included, making lesson-planning easy. These language skills are taught within topics that students find interesting, such as introductions, countries, holidays, traveling, electronics, and even mysteries. All subject matter is presented in a culturally sensitive fashion, using names and examples from all over the world, yet still providing information pertaining to the United States.

World Link's linguistic emphasis is on communicative language, with vocabulary and grammar practice inserted into the unit where fitting. Challenging yet level-appropriate vocabulary is often introduced through a matching activity of words and their corresponding pictures. The vocabulary is then embedded within the following exercises. Grammar specifics are also explicitly practiced once within the unit and then found throughout the rest of the unit and the book. The grammar lessons relate well to the topics, unlike many language books. For example, one book teaches frequency adverbs during the lesson "Busy Schedules." While these grammar exercises are not thorough enough to be taught as the sole lesson, they are detailed enough for students to do individually after a full class lesson.

The communicative language emphasis is also found in *World Link's* great dialogues and partner work, which further students' oral usage of English. The dialogues consist of standard non-stilted English in conversations with which ELLs need to be familiar. Partner work takes the dialogues one step further by requiring students to replace specific words

within the original dialogue with other words. Through this activity, students see that such a conversation follows a basic pattern, though it may use many different words and have many different results. Another activity involves partners interviewing each other in order to discover answers. Standard ESL activities like these are worthwhile in *World Link.*

Chart reading and critical thinking, two skills commonly forgotten in ESL books, are a strength of *World Link.* Students gradually learn how to read charts, an activity in which many ELLs need practice, in order to answer questions. The stories and mysteries teach critical thinking skills in a fun helpful environment. While these two mental activities are bonus features, the *World Link* books are lacking in one standard activity – the reviews. The books have a review after three units, but they are so short that many language skills are not revisited.

These books thoroughly cover English content while making it attractive to students. The photographs and illustrations grab students' attention because they are colorful and modern. The durable cover will keep the books intact through the students' busy schedules. Overall, *World Link: Developing English Fluency* is an excellent tool for teachers to hold students' attention and yet reach their goal of teaching communicative English.

Reviewer

Charlotte Martin is a senior ESL Education major at Northwestern College in St. Paul, MN. She plans on teaching in the inner-city after graduating in May 2005.

Miller, Sue F. (2006). *Targeting Pronunciation: Communicating Clearly in English. 2nd Ed.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

As the title indicates, *Targeting Pronunciation: Communicating Clearly in English* helps students work through the full range of English pronunciation issues, with an eventual goal of unimpeded communication. At first glance, this book seems bland. However, there are enough clever quirks tucked in amongst the black and white pages and careful, professional recordings to keep it interesting. Those quirks, along with the thoroughness of the subject matter and range of activities, make the book worthwhile.

This book is extremely thorough. It begins by assessing student needs and abilities, and then delves into all the nuances of word and sentence stress, intonation and thought groups, individual vowels and consonants, and linking. All along it illustrates the misunderstandings that can be effected by the inaccurate use of these features. The final unit then reviews everything that preceded it.

In demonstrating the features of English pronunciation, the book employs a variety of methods for learners with all sorts of intelligences. For the visual learners there are intonation contours, arrows, and dancing stick figures; aural learners have all the listening and repetition they can handle; and kinesthetic learners are provided with an abundance of instructions for moving along with the language. Whatever their learning style, though, beginning students probably wouldn't get as much out of this book as would the intermediate and advanced students it's intended for, since a fairly broad vocabulary is necessary to understanding many of the concepts and exercises.

The exercises themselves involve a lot of listening and repeating. The subject matter lends itself to choral repetition and listening discrimination activities, and those are used heavily. There are also occasional information gap activities, which add a communicative element, but those activities can't be used effectively unless photocopied (and probably enlarged) and removed from the context of the book, since each one of them was printed in such a way that both sets of information are visible on the same page. The book also encourages students to expand their learning beyond the classroom by doing things like making small talk, emulating television personalities, and calling businesses for information.

Flipping through this book, one sees a lot of grey. After closer examination, though, small pictures appear. In one chapter, line drawings of elephants and mice illustrate the contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables. Elsewhere, carefully drawn mouths demonstrate the pronunciation of various vowel sounds. Best of all, the difference between stops and continuants is illustrated with windows (complete with airflow) in various states of openness.

The precise (and somewhat unnatural) audio on the five CD's that accompany this book follows along with the text quite closely. (The correspondence, however, between CD track numbers and page numbers can only be found within the audio and in the booklet that accompanies it; there are no track numbers referenced in the book.) The book's introduction boasts that the second edition has been improved by the inclusion of several authentic public service announcements, but they are the only significant departure from the professional narration (which does occasionally include "Sing Alongs"). Although the audio is less than authentic, the book makes up for that somewhat by encouraging students to practice listening and speaking in various real-life situations (though that is probably less effective in EFL contexts).

Overall, this book is exactly what it set out to be. It teaches students who are hindered by their speaking and listening skills to overcome those impediments, and it does so in enough different ways that everyone can enjoy it. Although its contexts are not always terribly realistic, it provides students with the impetus to find contexts that are realistic in which to develop the skills that the book sets out.

Reviewer

Julia Tabbut is working toward an M.A. in the University of Minnesota's Teaching ESL program. She has taught English both to young adults in Sri Lankan villages and to immigrants and refugees in Minneapolis.

My Name Is....Stories and Art by Young Refugees in Minnesota Schools. (2005) Minneapolis, Minnesota: Center for Victims of Torture.

On March 28, 1992, Adam Mohamud's life took a dramatic twist when a gunman entered his family's home, asked for money, and then shot Adam's father dead. A year later, Adam's family in Somalia split apart, with Adam moving to Kenya with his older brother to pursue an education. Later, Adam would continue his studies in the United States. His is just one of the stories in *My Name Is...* where students share their lives before war, during war, and their losses, and experiences in a new country.

These tragic stories written by Somalian and Hmong adolescents fill in a gap of understanding for those who read ***My Name Is****....Stories and Art by young refugees in Minnesota Schools* (Everson, 2005). For some readers, it is the first time they have heard about these horrible events, and for others, it brings back old memories. It is not only through the unraveling of these stories, but also the display of artwork that the emotions of these tales touch the lives of readers.

In one drawing, a brightly lit sun lights up a classroom of students being taught in a poorly built school which is under an aerial attack. The artist surrounds the school with barbed wire, a leafless tree, a dog wandering in front of the school, and a shadowy factory off in the distance. The most peculiar aspect of the drawing is the artist's placement of a boy, labeled with the word "school," climbing the barbed wire. Two hands reach out to him from beyond the fence. One reaches for his hand, just below the U.S. flag, while the other hand holds out a daisy. Above this drawing are the words "Communicate, Appreciate, and Celebrate." Accompanying this drawing is a story about the search for opportunity after combat. It seems clear that for this young artist/writer, the United States is seen as a land of opportunity and peace after escape from homelands that are troubled and violent.

One of the major contributions of this book is to show readers why the Somalian and Hmong people are in the United States. Both groups of students have had a history of war, pain, and life in a treacherous environment. These stories and works of art by young refugees in

Minnesota schools will help develop bonds, especially with young readers, and help create an understanding for all refugees who now call the United States home. Each story provides shocking, factual information about the dramatic changes each of the student writers face because of war.

In ***My Name Is****....Stories and Art by young refugees in Minnesota Schools* teachers, administrators and other members of the community will get a look at the history of two different refugee groups by reading the direct experiences of young people. The book will be ideal for young readers grade two and above. This set of stories will allow teachers to share perspectives written by young people of similar ages to those in their classrooms. Students are accustomed to reading books by authors three to four times their age. When being exposed to literature written by students around their age, they may be more willing to listen, develop an awareness, and reach a greater understanding of the experiences of diverse youth.

Reviewer

Shervun Xiong is a student at University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh with a major in elementary education and minors in ESL and bilingual education.

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