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ABSTRACT

This resource guide for educators of limited-English-proficient (LEP) migrant students targets survival English for adolescent and adult students. The initial section describes the adult migrant as student and discusses adult language acquisition, English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) teaching methods, principles of adult learning, and tips for new ESL teachers. The section on "Survival English" contains sample lessons taken from a variety of survival English texts at various difficulty levels. The lessons include reproducible worksheets. A section on teaching techniques includes specific instructional strategies, such as total physical response and whole language, that are particularly useful with LEP students. The assessment section contains examples of informal assessments for determining levels of English language proficiency. The culture section presents observations about the Mexican-American and Haitian cultures. The guide provides names, addresses, and telephone numbers of resource agencies that offer teaching services and materials for LEP students. A section titled "Dropouts: Ways to Retrieve and Help Them" includes strategies for finding this hard-to-reach population and recommendations for continuing their education. The guide also includes a short annotated bibliography and several additional readings. (KS)

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HELP! They Don't Speak English Starter Kit

for Teachers of Young Adults

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The HELP Starter Kit
is a
resource guide
for
educators of
limited English proficient migrant students

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HELP Starter Kit for Teachers of Young Adults

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INTRODUCTION

The HELP Starter Kit for Teachers of Young Adults is a resource targeted toward any student of adolescence or older who is not in public school. Its focus is on Survival English. Topics such as "Food" and "Clothing" have been chosen with ideas for lessons as well as sample activities for each.

Survival English includes lesson samples arranged alphabetically which come from a variety of survival English texts at various difficulty levels.

Teaching Techniques includes specific instructional strategies that are particularly useful with limited English proficient students.

The Assessment section contains some examples of assessments for determining levels of English language proficiency.

Culture presents some informed observations about the Mexican-American and Haitian cultures.

Resource Agencies provides names, addresses, and telephone numbers of agencies that offer teaching services and materials for limited English proficient students.

The Bibliography is an annotated list of texts available to supplement the HELP Starter Kit.

Dropouts: Ways to Retrieve and Help Them includes strategies for finding this hard-to-reach population and recommendations for continuing their education.

Additional Readings

This resource book should be used flexibly as you discover the needs and interests of your students. Topics are arranged alphabetically since we intend no specific order of lessons. However, we suggest that you introduce the lessons on "First Essential Phrases" and "Personal Information" while you and your students get acquainted.

Our intention in writing the HELP Starter Kit is to guide teachers with essential methods and materials. We have included some helpful tips based on teaching experience and a summary of adult second language acquisition.

THE ADULT MIGRANT AS STUDENT

Who are our students?

1. They are agricultural workers who may have spent the whole day engaged in strenuous physical activity. They may or may not have had time for a shower, or even their evening meal.
2. They are adults who have experience and knowledge. They have adult responsibilities and they have adult reasons for wanting to learn English. They are looking for the tools of independence in a new society.
3. Some are immigrants who have come to the United States to make a better life for themselves and their families. No doubt they have already encountered difficulty with the English language, and also with the American culture. We as teachers may be their only link to understanding Americans and the United States. We need to be aware that there are cultural differences in gestures, politeness, personal space, male/female roles and we must help our students become aware of those differences to avoid cultural miscommunications.
4. They are learners. They have discovered by experience that they need to learn English. Their levels of commitment to learning probably vary as do their levels of literacy in their native languages and their styles of learning. But all will learn best when their lessons are useful, meaningful and communicative. They will learn if they feel comfortable, relaxed, and confident that they can learn; and they will gain that confidence from their teacher's encouragement and respect.

Our respect for our students will be a prime motivation in their learning experience. If you as a teacher have ever had the experience of trying to "get along" in a foreign language/culture/country you probably are aware of the feelings of frustration, self-doubt, and even stupidity that they are struggling with. After all, many were functional citizens in their own country. We respect their desire to participate here as well.

Our best preparation as teachers is to be aware of our students. Why are they in class? How are they feeling physically, emotionally? What are their needs, and are we meeting those needs? Student feedback is essential to find out if we are on target, but may be very difficult to get because of cultural feelings regarding teacher respect, and/or language barriers.

We also need to be aware what we say is only a part of what we communicate to our students. Our tone of voice, our gestures and our body language reveal our feelings and also our culture as Americans. We need to be aware that gestures and body language vary from culture to culture and if we meet resistance or produce a reaction we don't expect, we may need to examine our cultural communication and/or get some feedback from a student or someone of the student's culture. (See "Culture" for cultural information)

ADULT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Why do people learn languages? TO COMMUNICATE That is the primary focus of Young Adult HELP, and the goal of young adult migrant ESL instruction.

How do people learn languages? Language Acquisition and Language Learning.

No one really knows how people learn languages. ESL research indicates adults can best learn a second language in the same way children acquire native language skills. Two separate and distinct approaches to learning a second language have been isolated:

Language Learning in the ESL classroom is a process of effortless internalization to gain particles of language. Oral language learning often starts with short phrases and works up to more complex sentences. Most vocabulary, conversations and dialogues are examples of language learning.

Language Acquisition is for the most part unconscious. When children learn language they aren't aware of grammar rules. They listen. Their attention is focused on trying to understand what is being said. They may not understand every word, but their skills increase as they strive to understand the general messages. They acquire grammar skills by being exposed to language in real communication situations.

The process of language acquisition for children shows us some routine, universal stages:

1. There is a silent period (which can last days, weeks or even months) before speaking.
2. Children choose when they will speak and they should receive ample praise for any attempt to communicate.
3. Parents (their language teachers) focus only on communication, not on form (grammar rules).
4. Errors are a natural part of language acquisition.
5. As children are exposed to more language they figure out the rules by themselves and produce increasingly complex and correct speech.

Some researchers suggest that adult language acquisition can and should contain these same elements. They call it "The Natural Approach to Language Learning." They recommend surrounding students with natural English in a meaningful context, focusing on communication rather than grammar rules. If the general meaning is clear, adults will internalize the language, discover the rules for themselves, and produce the new language with increasing degrees of complexity and correctness. Researchers also suggest that acquisition is much faster than learning.

There are two important elements at work in the Natural Approach to Language Learning:

Comprehensible Input. Communication means that what is said is comprehensible and has some new material in it. When we expose students to natural English settings, we must be sure what we say is both understandable and challenging.

Affective Filter. Students learn language more quickly in a low stress environment. The words "affective filter" describe the effects of stress on a student's performance. When the students feel nervous or threatened they are less able to soak up new language. Stress filters out comprehensible input. When the students are relaxed and secure their "affective filtration" is low and they can absorb language and learn faster.

Application to the Adult ESL Class

Though the silent period may not be as long for adults as for children, adults can benefit from the natural approach as much as children and can be expected to progress through much the same process. However, many language "bits" are worth learning through gentle "internalization." In our classes we can use both learning and acquisition:

- use learning to teach useful words and phrases students need today.
- use acquisition to increase listening comprehension and build a foundation for future communication skills.

In all lessons we need to:

- focus on communication
- create an environment using real objects and situations to make meaning clear
- select a small amount of useful language to learn
- expose students to natural English spoken at normal speed, but controlled for vocabulary and grammar complexity
- create a comfortable, non-threatening learning environment in which students and teacher can relax and enjoy the learning process.

ESL TEACHING METHODS

Listening, speaking, reading, writing - which ones and how much?

The first decision regarding how to teach will be what to teach. Ask your students what they want to learn!

Input from students will define which of the four skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing to include, and the teacher will decide how much emphasis to place on each in lesson planning. Students' immediate needs may be listening and speaking with reading and writing to come later, or the majority of students may want all four areas. To decide the balance of skills to teach:

- assess student skills and needs (See "ASSESSMENTS" Section)
- get feedback from students regarding your decisions
- plan each lesson with a clear focus on skills according to needs assessed
- be prepared to adjust as student needs evolve.

Guidelines for lesson planning

1. Decide the goal of the lesson based on student need, considering levels, content area, and skills to be taught.
2. Choose the key vocabulary and phrases or sentences, by levels, needed for the tasks of the content area.
3. Write down the exact vocabulary to be used in class and internalized by students.
4. Re-evaluate after class to see if all needs have been met, if further class time is necessary for the next session, or if focus needs to be re-defined.

Learning Styles:

You may already be aware that there are different styles of learning for different people, just as there are different styles of teaching. Some people learn best by hearing information - they are oral/aural learners; some need to see information before then can absorb it - they are visual learners. Some need lots of structure, some need freedom in learning situations to "do their own thing." Being aware of these differences helps us realize that our styles need to reach all kinds of learners, so we must be sure to vary the tasks and situations to suit a variety of learning needs.

Use: Small group learning for: problem-solving, producing a group product, (sketch, play, student-made games, etc.) discussions of either facts or opinions, interviews or dialogue practices

Individual seat work for: reinforcing, following directions, writing practice

Large group for: oral repetitions of dialogues, presentation of new material, presentation of new material, presentation of previously practiced role plays

All kinds of groups for: games

What do our students want and need to learn?

Pre-testing will provide us with a few indicators of literacy and language levels. The units provided in Young Adult HELP may become the core of your lessons, but ultimately student needs are our primary concern - ask them what they want and need to study and go by that. Pre-test for each unit to see what your students already know so their time is valuably spent. Get feedback to find out what kinds of activities they prefer, which exercises helped most, and find out their specific needs: Do they need to tell the time in English, or just understand what someone else says? Do they need to fill out a form themselves or just answer the questions while someone else writes the information down. The more exactly you determine the vocabulary and structures needed to accomplish their goals, the more likely it is that your students will retain and use them.

(See "ASSESSMENTS" Section for test samples and names of recommended published tests.)

Language Learning and Language Acquisition in the Classroom

Language Learning

Both language learning and language acquisition have a role to play in the Adult ESL classroom, but are used for different purposes. Polite phrases, personal identification, content vocabulary, a conversation requesting and giving directions, question words and danger warnings are examples of language worth learning. They will help students in immediate situations to communicate in English. These are the language particles students will take home with them, practice among themselves and feel successful mastering and using.

These kinds of activities will probably take up a major portion of class time. They are structured and group oriented so they provide an opportunity to speak up without being heard, a chance to make mistakes that don't count.

It is as important in language learning as in language acquisition to keep the learning environment relaxed and non-threatening.

Language Acquisition in the Classroom

When planning the balance of time allotted to skills in each lesson, some time should be devoted to providing comprehensible input to students - natural language, in a context in which they can understand what's being said, but in which they won't be asked to reproduce the language.

Listening activities with no request for speech production allow the students to internalize new language. New language presented several times in successive classes prepares students for future reproduction, and future demonstration of understanding.

Classroom language--"Open the door," "Turn on the light,"--are simple ways, with actions to reinforce them, we can begin to present natural language in a context easily understood. We are also telling students that learning English is useful and that we think they can learn it. It's very important even if you speak their language, that you use English with them on every possible occasion, including informal discussions before and after class. "That's a pretty dress," with the appropriate gestures sets the stage for future compliments on the part of the students.

In future lessons you may want to "check" comprehension of classroom language by demonstration of an action - "I'm turning on the light," --your action could be followed by "Did I turn on the light?" and students answering "yes" by nodding their heads, and then when they are ready, asking, "Juan, please turn on the light," followed by Juan's action to show he understood.

Comprehension should not be checked by asking "Do you understand?". Inevitably the student will nod his head to show he heard you, but may not know what you said. (Please see "TEACHING TECHNIQUES" for an article on "The Natural Approach in the Classroom").

Presenting and Practicing English

The words you present in class must have meaning that is easily understood in context. Here are a few techniques to help both in listening comprehension settings (acquisition) and in language modeling settings where students are going to reproduce the language immediately (learning):

Total Physical Response or TPR - uses commands and physical movements to acquire language. James Asher who developed this technique, believes that students learn faster when they move their bodies in response to the language they are hearing. They remember new language more easily and retain it longer when they are actively responding to it. Students seem to really like this technique, as it provides lots of good comprehension practice within the security of the group. (See "TEACHING TECHNIQUES" for "Suggested Methods in Teaching Through Total Physical Responses.")

Realia - In order to establish meaning, it is often helpful to bring everyday items into the classroom. The direct experience allows students to handle the objects - get more involved with them.

Pictures - can provide a very meaningful context for a lesson. Pictures of a doctor's office and examination room could start off a lesson about health. Sources of pictures are everywhere, but they take time to gather, so be on the lookout constantly for the pictures worth a thousand words. Also, don't be afraid to use your own drawings, even if you're not an "artist." Students can laugh with you and appreciate your efforts to give them understanding.

Games - a wide variety of games can be used to learn vocabulary such as picture bingo, picture cards for "go fish" in small groups, or create your own games: put content area objects in the center of a circle of students, then have them close their eyes while you remove one or more of the objects. See if they can name the missing object(s). Language learning can and should be relaxed and fun.

Communication is our goal. We want students to be able to use English. Students need a chance to practice expressing their own ideas in a safe environment. Some students will naturally try to speak out, others will hang back. By using some simple techniques you'll make sure everyone gets a chance to speak out in a sheltered environment, or in a creative way, using skills they've learned. These techniques are listed in order from a very narrow focus, to a less controlled setting.

Drills are narrowly focused fragments of language practice primarily with the intention to internalize the phrases. "How are you today?" "Fine, thank you." is an example of a drill if used over and over until it comes out easily. Drills are often used as precursors to dialogues.

Dialogues build on an initial set of vocabulary. They contain structured sentence patterns in usable conversation form. They are easily learned in a short time, but can be applicable to many situations students encounter. (See "TEACHING TECHNIQUES" for Dialogues.)

Exercises primarily focus on communication rather than on form. Students are encouraged to talk about an idea in whatever way they can. Some examples are:

Focused topic: The teacher introduces topic and some key vocabulary and sentence structures, then asks students to tell about a part of the topic. If the section on personal information is being used for a focused topic, the teacher could start by telling the class about his/her family while pointing to the picture of the family provided in "PERSONAL INFORMATION." "I have a son and a daughter. I have a mother and a father. My father's name is Joe," etc. Then pass the picture to a student and have them tell about their family.

Information gap: Like 20 questions, students seek to find out some piece of information by asking questions.

Role plays: These are the least controlled of all language exercises, so they are often used as the last step in a particular lesson. Role plays most closely parallel the real world. An example might be, "Pretend you are in the grocery store. You want some milk, but you can't find it. Ask the clerk."

Errors

Errors are part of language acquisition. When students make an error, the teacher must decide whether to correct it, then decide how to correct it. Regarding whether to correct, ask yourself if the error interfered with communication, and then how the student will react to correction. No error is important enough to sacrifice self-confidence. If a student is trying, praise whatever comes out. The best way to reduce errors is to build self-confidence. If you decide to correct, you can rephrase the sentence correctly or make a mental note of the error and plan a lesson around it later.

Questions

When you ask the class a question, give plenty of time for students to answer. If no one answers, rephrase the question. When someone makes an attempt, help him feel successful even if he doesn't have the right answer. But be sure you ask the class questions you know they can answer.

One listening technique that has proven effective for many teachers is known as "active listening." When listening to a student, occasionally restate or summarize what you think he or she is saying. This allows you to check to see if you are following him/her. It also provides feedback for the student on whether his/her message is coming across. Finally, it tells the student that you are truly listening and trying to understand.

Pronunciation

If accent doesn't interfere with communication don't spend time on pronunciation. If it does interfere, see if students can hear the sound they are having trouble with. Show them where the tongue is placed when making the sound. Model the sound and have them repeat it. Also, listen to see if the sound is a problem in other parts of words, - at the beginning, in the middle or at the end.

Language Acquisition as a Spiral

After exposure to a particular chunk of language, students digest it and are able to use a small portion. As they gain confidence and are re-exposed, the useable portion grows. Re-expose them to important language structures often and they'll carry more away with them each time.

Make It Real

Our students live and work in the real world. They need to learn in the real world too. The more real our lessons are the more easily students will be motivated to learn and ask questions. A trip to a nearby corner grocery or supermarket will bring up the need for vocabulary for many tasks and objects. Buy something and then stroll around naming things, discussing packaging, price per pound or bag, or ask for an item and then follow the grocer's directions to find it. When preparing a lesson on clothing bring in items of clothing to discuss, to try on, to feel. Shirts and pants will be too big, too tight, too short, skirts and blouses can be the wrong color, too cool or too dark; the motivation for learning will come from the items and students will become actively involved. Teaching ESL takes lots of preparation and creativity and space in your home or car for the accumulation of teacher "realia." When discussing tools, bring some to class and talk about what they are, what they're used for, made of, etc. If you teach in the camp there will probably be a washing machine available. Talk about different methods of clothing care at the machine and point out the cycles. Use someone's car to talk about parts of the car or driving skills. Use your creativity, your humor and your common sense.

To Read/Write?

If reading and writing are to be included in your class focus, base it on the oral language presented. We suggest the Language Experience Approach in which students volunteer thoughts and the teacher/facilitator writes down exactly what they say, even if it has some errors. As the teacher reads the text aloud, checking with students to see if what is written is what they intended, students can self correct. Run your finger under the words as you read at a natural speed to facilitate "reading along." This material will already be familiar, practical language, to students and can be used as a reading and writing text. A sight word list might include words from pay stubs, drivers license, alien registration card, food packages, etc. (See "TEACHING TECHNIQUES" for article on Language Experience Approach).

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LAWS and PRINCIPLES of ADULT LEARNING

A number of basic psychological laws control and affect adult students in the learning process. The teacher of adults should understand these laws if he is to make learning experiences effective, lasting, and enjoyable for his/her students:

The law of effect - People tend to accept and repeat those responses which are pleasant and satisfying and to avoid those which are annoying...in short, "nothing succeeds like success." Students should experience personal satisfaction from each learning activity and should achieve some success in each class period by mastering some new idea or operation.

The law of primacy - First impressions are the most lasting. This means that those first classes are all important. The teacher should arouse interest, create a sense of need for the subject matter, and ensure that the students learn it right the first time.

The law of exercise - The more often an act is repeated, the more quickly a habit is established. Practice makes perfect -- if the practice is the right kind....

The law of disuse - A skill not practiced or a knowledge not used will be largely lost or forgotten. The teacher should recognize the value of repetition in the classroom for reinforcing newly-gained knowledge or skills....

The law of intensity - A vivid, dramatic, or exciting learning experience is more likely to be remembered than a routine or boring experience....

Some of the principles considered essential to effective learning are:

- The adult learner must see immediate benefits to himself.
- The adult must want the instruction; he must be motivated.
- The adult wants specific, concrete, practical, lifelike situations.
- The adult requires participation in classroom activities.
- The adult has experiences and interests to which new material should be related.
- The adult requires subject matter adapted to his individual objectives, needs, and capabilities.
- The adult must enjoy the instruction.
- The adult learns best when the teacher shows a personal interest in him.
- The adult learns best when several senses are involved. A teacher should choose methods that make a special contribution to the learning process.
- The adult learns best in a favorable physical and social environment.

The Nature of the Adult Learner

- The adult is a voluntary student.
- S/he is usually a part-time student.
- S/he may differ widely in age, ability, job experience, education, and goals from other students in his/her group.
- S/he may have been away from school for some period of time, and, upon returning, may feel embarrassed or insecure.
- S/he may have had little or no formal schooling.
- S/he may have a deep-seated fear of, suspicion of, or contempt for schools.
- S/he may wonder if s/he can still learn.
- S/he may have to overcome feelings of insecurity and fear of competition with younger people.
- S/he may have responsibilities that interfere with his/her attendance and study.
- His/her previous school record may affect his/her thinking regarding his/her present abilities.
- S/he does not leave his/her personal problems, concerns, feelings, and desires outside the classroom.
- Regardless of the impression s/he may give, the adult student believes that s/he has made an important decision in going back to school.
- Regardless of the type of course s/he chooses, s/he believes it will help him/her.
- S/he has many other demands on his/her time, so it is imperative that his/her education be carefully planned.
- His/her frame of reference is not the school; it is his/her job, his/her neighborhood, or his/her family.

Physiological and Psychological Changes

- Maximum visual acuity is attained at about eighteen years of age and declines continuously thereafter.
- After the age of thirty-five, people generally show a preference for a bright light for reading. This tendency is especially marked in persons between the ages of thirty-five and fifty, probably because their eyes begin to lose the ability to refract light during this period. Changes in visual acuity can be so rapid during this period that they may need to change corrective lenses often.
- Maximum auditory acuity is attained at about fourteen years of age, after which it declines at a slow rate. Many people find it difficult to follow rapid speech, even though they have experienced little or no hearing loss. As some individuals age, they may suffer marked hearing loss, develop feelings of insecurity and fear, and consequently lose some of their ability to learn.
- Persons generally reach their peak of physical ability somewhere between the ages of twenty and twenty-five.
- Motor reactions begin to decline after a certain age, but verbal reactions do not change significantly with age.
- The age at which eminent people do their best work does not coincide with their physiological prime. This fact indicates that the human organism, consciously or unconsciously, adjusts to physiological change. Perhaps one of the more subtle adaptations to physiological change is the slowdown in work tempo, which has many implications for adult teachers.

The Nature of the Adult Learner (cont.)

- The power to learn is substantially retained, but the rate of learning slows down.
- Vocabulary increases with age if new words are put into use.
- Being more concerned than children with accuracy, adults take more time on tests, and therefore may make lower scores on timed tests.
- The interests of adults do not tend to change, but the value or depth in interests may vary.
- Adults seem to surpass children in their capacity to memorize immediately. However, within a few weeks after the original learning, memory of it declines. Memory is selective even though the ability to remember declines. Those things are remembered which are presented with the greatest intensity.
- The wide range in age, ability, previous education, experience, and interests emphasizes the important role played in adult education by individual differences.
- The most effective learning occurs when adults have sufficient experience and mentality to cope with the subject.
- Adults do well with problems that have no one "correct" answer.
- Intelligence does not decrease because of aging. A decrease in intelligence quotient (IQ) is, rather, the result of disuse of knowledge at any age.

TIPS FOR NEW ESL TEACHERS

One of the best ways to become acclimated to a new position is to find persons who do it well, watch them, and ask questions. If you can observe several other adult ESL teachers, take advantage of the opportunity. This section provides another way for you to benefit from the expertise of experienced ESL teachers. A group of highly successful ESL teachers and teacher supervisors were asked what tips they would give to a new ESL teacher. These tips represent a combined total of several hundred years of ESL teaching. With an introduction like that, they had better be good!

Tips for the first day include:

1. Learn the students' names and how to pronounce them. Use nametags if possible, to help students learn each other's names as well.
2. Find out something about your students' backgrounds if possible.
3. Create a comfortable, non-threatening atmosphere.
4. Find out students' needs in the four skill areas: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Note: This doesn't mean you must administer a formalized test on the first day. (See "ASSESSMENTS" for some ideas.)
5. Determine some short term goals.
6. Set up a clear system of signals so that the students know when you want them to repeat what you have said.

Other tips include:

1. Speak in a natural tone of voice. Use normal intonation, rhythm, pace, and volume.
2. Teach by topic, situation, or competency (teach for a purpose).
3. Make sure that your subject matter is relevant. Your students should leave class every day with language they can use.
4. Limit your language in quantity and complexity.
5. Proceed SLOWLY. Don't feel pressured to run through a text.
6. Review every day.
7. Vary activities frequently.
8. Care about your students' lives and show it.

9. Start learning a new language yourself, to see how challenging it is!
10. Give your learners a chance to learn - don't teach everything.
11. Don't correct every error when students begin to speak.
12. Remember: there is no perfect text.
13. Help students to set small goals.
14. Be flexible. The best language lesson may grow from a student's shared experience (an accident, a wedding, anything that is important to the students).
15. Don't allow yourself to be threatened by anything you don't know. As Winston Churchill once said, "It is better to do something than to do nothing while waiting to do everything!" There is a vast array of methods and approaches in ESL. This vast reservoir of possibilities sometimes intimidates new ESL teachers; but if you are committed to helping your students learn English (and you are, or you wouldn't be reading this guide), you will soon develop an approach that works well for you and your students.
16. Make a commitment to growth, both as a person and as a teacher. Trade in "being" for "becoming." What a lively and satisfying way to go!

SUGGESTIONS FOR INSTRUCTION

Opportunities for oral language development are interwoven throughout all academic areas. The key to successful oral language programs is to recognize those opportunities and immediately provide activities or thoughts that will nurture the natural flow of language development.

Reading readiness skills of visual discrimination and auditory discrimination could be readily incorporated into English language activities. Likewise group language experience stories would not only give the student opportunity to learn letter form and copying skills, but provide an opportunity for creative oral and written expression.

What follows is a list of general areas of instruction to use in developing some verbal skills. The areas are listed in a recommended sequence of introduction.

people/family	food/meats--desserts--other
school/items in classroom	people/occupations
colors	clothing shapes
body parts/major	transportation time
numbers/1-20	calendar/days of week
survival information/name	animals/zoo
phone--address--school	numbers/ordinal
animal/pets	house/parts
alphabet	body parts/detail
people/relatives	numbers/100
animals/farm	money
toys--games--sports	house/household/items
food/meals	tools
food/fruits	number/20-100
food/vegetables	

SURVIVAL ENGLISH

**(TOPICS PRESENTED IN
ALPHABETICAL ORDER)**

Introduction to Survival English

The Survival English section of Adult Help is a guide for the teacher in the task of selecting subject matter for lessons. Once proficiency level has been established and student interest indicated regarding subject matter, the teacher's job is to narrow the focus of a subject area to specific goals, vocabulary, and methods of instruction. A number of common "Survival English" topics have been chosen and are presented in alphabetical order (not in order of priority). Each of the topics have suggestions for goals, but the task of deciding the level of difficulty appropriate to the student(s) will be an individual decision on the part of the teacher and would be difficult to include in this resource. However, sample lessons have been included at various levels of difficulty to guide the teacher's thoughts when selecting lesson materials and specific teaching methods.

Young Adult HELP is not intended as a course text. It is meant to be used as a core to the Survival English subject matter of a Migrant ESL program, and should be supplemented by various texts or teacher made materials as student needs warrant.

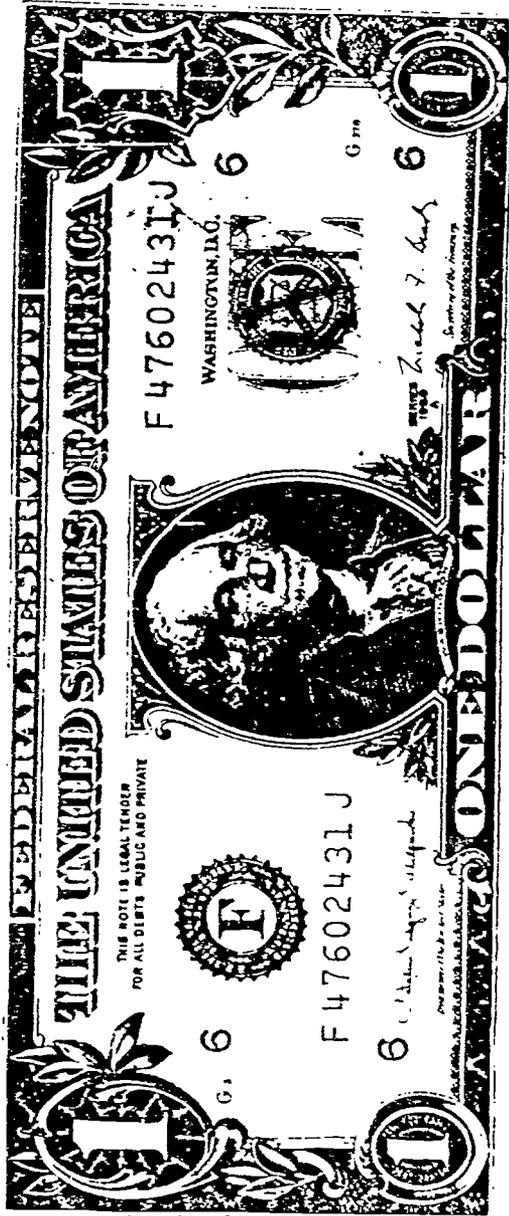
Banking

Goals:

- o How to cash a check
- o Understand bank services available in local area (checking, savings, etc.)
- o Understand service charges
- o How to write a check
- o How to keep a check book
- o How to read a statement
- o How to purchase travelers checks, money orders, etc.
- o How to ask for and use notary services
- o How to make deposits and withdrawals
- o To know hours of bank operation
- o To know what "walk-in" and "drive-thru"

Activity Ideas

- o Writing a sample check and keeping a sample check record might be an appropriate lesson.
- o Set up "Bank" in the classroom.
Have hours of operation posted.
- o Use drills to asks for services. (See Presenting and Practicing English.)
- o Use dialogues to practice using services.
- o Role play and take turns being teller and customer pretending to need and provide various services.



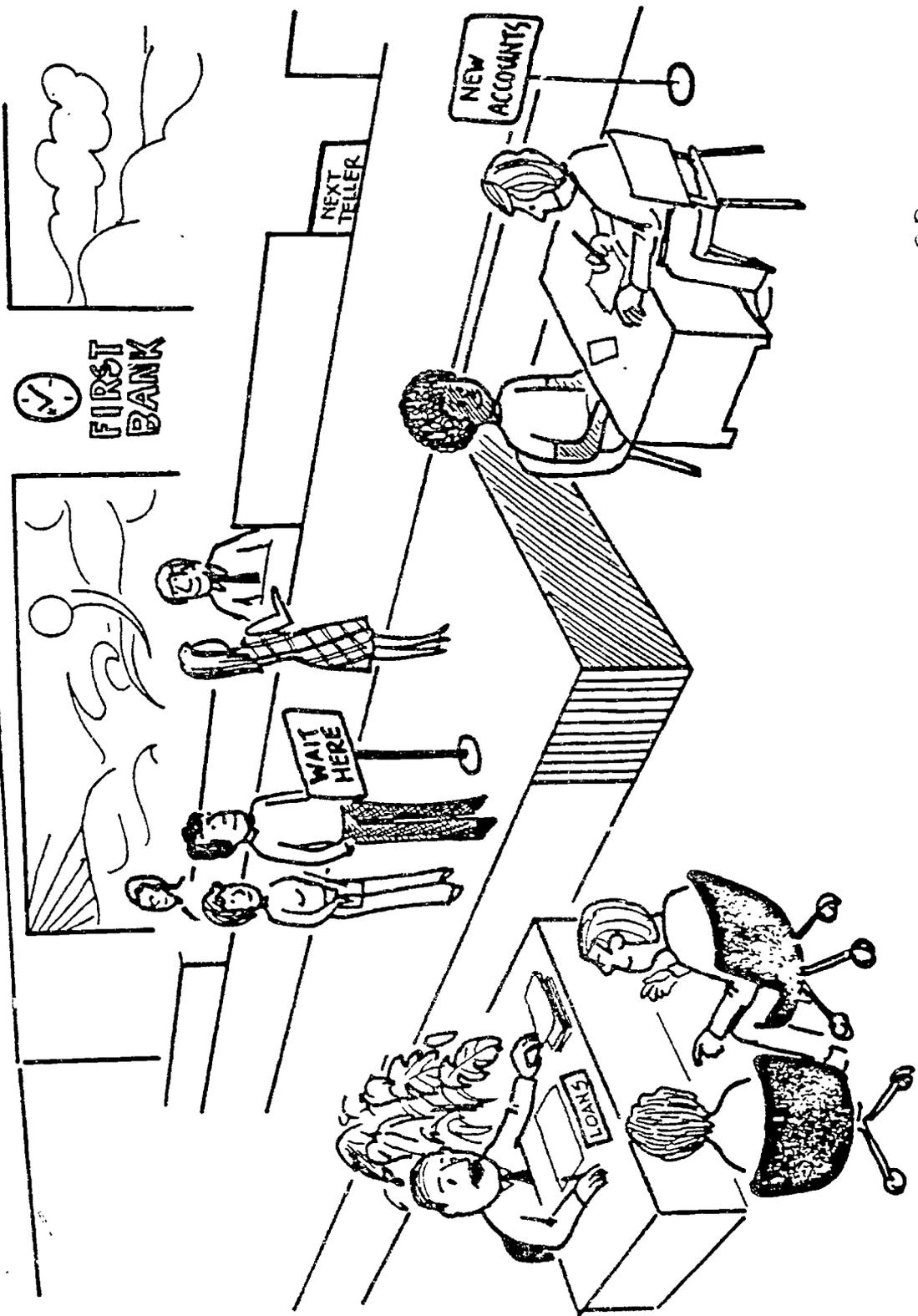
20

26



25

THE BANK



Checking Or Savings?

- A. I'd like to open an account, please.
B. Checking or savings?
A. What's the difference?
B. In a checking account you deposit money and write checks to pay bills.
A. I see . . . and what's a savings account?
B. You deposit money and leave it there to earn interest. You withdraw it only for an emergency.



PRACTICE

You deposit money.
put in
withdraw
take out

Put the cash in.
money
deposit
check

Take the cash out.
money
deposit
check

You withdraw money for an emergency.
special purchases.

Put in the cash.
money.
deposit.
check.

Take out the cash.
money.
deposit.
check.

Opening A Checking Account

- A. I'd like to open a checking account, please.
- B. The minimum deposit is \$100. How much would you like to deposit today?
 - A. \$150.00
 - B. Fill out this form and I'll give you some temporary checks. You'll receive your personalized checks in the mail.
- A. Thank you.



PRACTICE

The minimum is \$100.00.
maximum

You'll receive your personalized checks.
stationery.
license plates.

<p>FOR DEPOSIT TO THE ACCOUNT OF</p> <p>JOHN R. SMITH ROSE A. SMITH 736 Pine St. 492-7770 San Diego, Calif. 92110</p> <p>DATE _____ 19____</p> <p>SIGN HERE FOR CASH IN TELLER'S PRESENCE</p> <p>FIRST WORLD BANK 2200 Main Street San Diego, Calif. 92111</p> <p>⑆ 1 2 2 2 1 5 2 2 3 ⑆ 0 1 1 1 3 0 2 4 4 4 ⑆ 5 4 7 1</p>	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">CASH</td> <td style="width: 50%;">CURRENCY</td> </tr> <tr> <td> </td> <td> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>TOTAL FROM OTHER SIDE</td> <td> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>TOTAL</td> <td> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>NET DEPOSIT</td> <td> </td> </tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right; font-size: 1.2em;">5 4 7 1</p> <p style="text-align: right; font-size: 0.8em;">90-1522 1222</p> <p style="font-size: 0.8em;">USE OTHER SIDE FOR ADDITIONAL LISTING</p> <p style="font-size: 0.8em;">BE SURE EACH ITEM IS PROPERLY ENDORSED</p>	CASH	CURRENCY											TOTAL FROM OTHER SIDE		TOTAL		NET DEPOSIT	
CASH	CURRENCY																		
TOTAL FROM OTHER SIDE																			
TOTAL																			
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Clothing

Goals:

- o To be able to ask for items of clothing in a store, give sizes and colors
- o To be able to read and understand care instructions

Activity Ideas

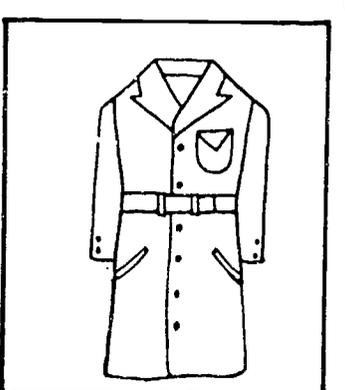
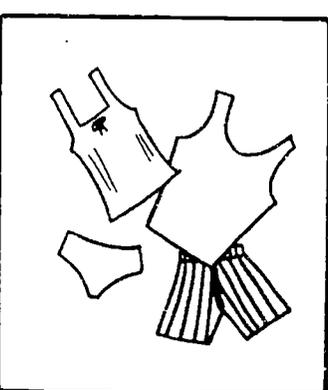
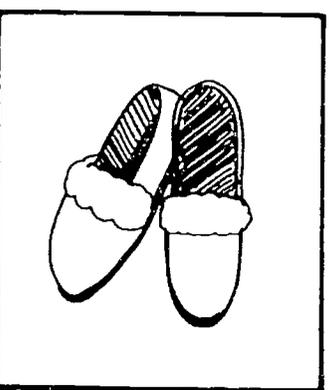
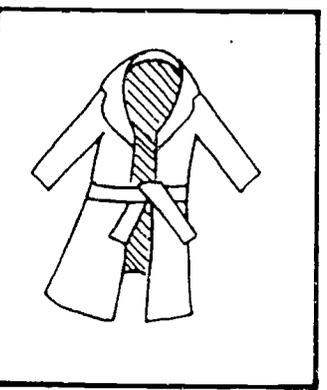
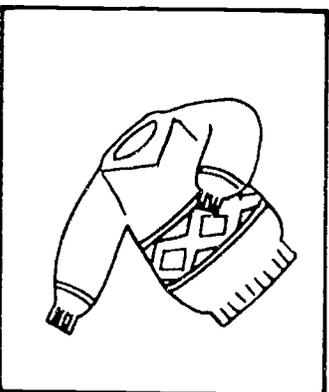
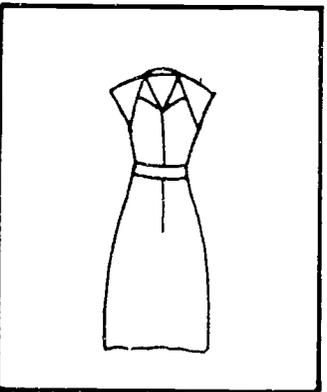
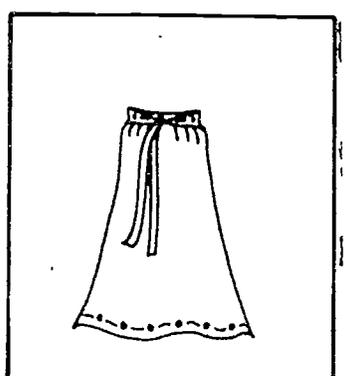
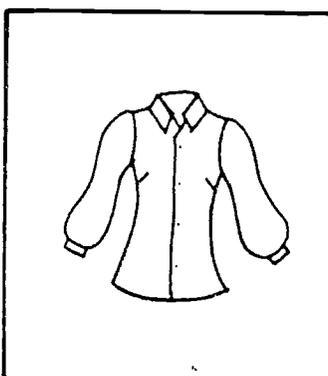
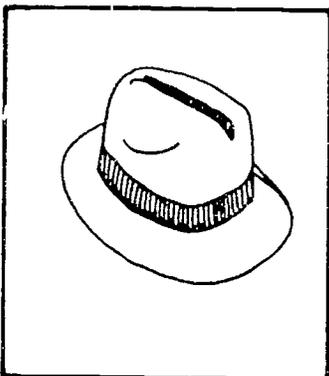
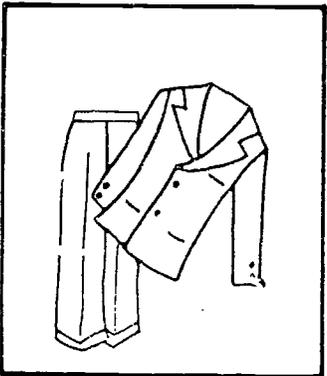
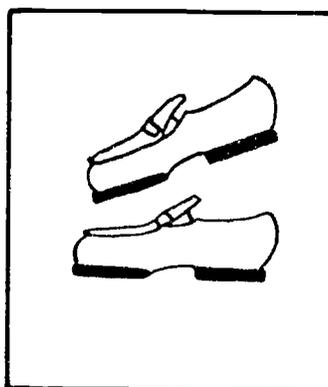
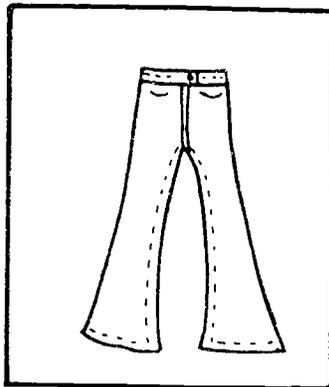
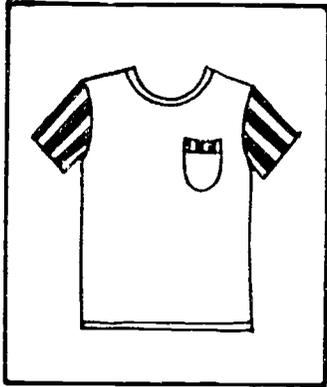
- o A clothing Bingo game can be made from pictures in the texts, or student-made, using cut-outs from old magazines. You can move from a simple game to more complex linguistic demands by using real items the first time, then pictures and finally, just the names of the items. Don't forget accessories such as belt, socks, etc.
- o Use role plays for shopping. Some students may discover they want more specific vocabulary for prints, stripes, plaids, etc.

2. Clothing

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____

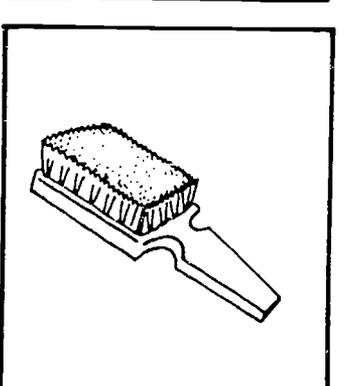
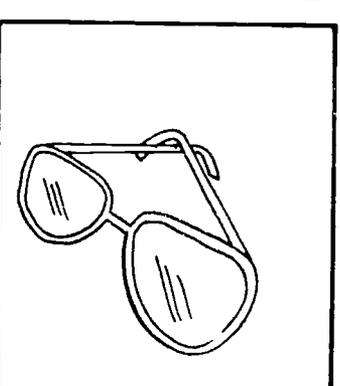
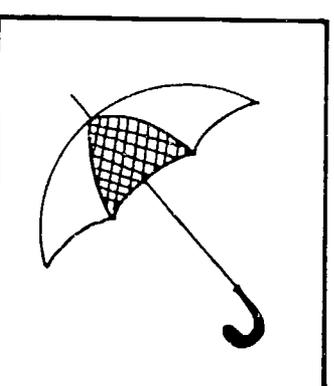
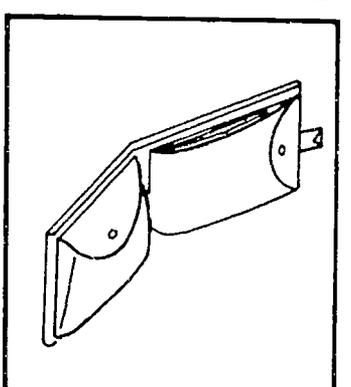
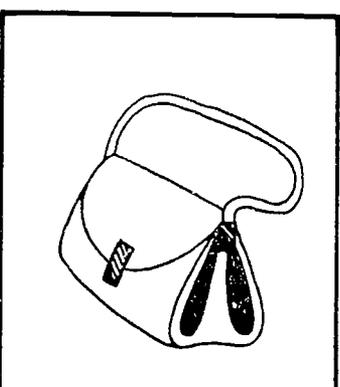
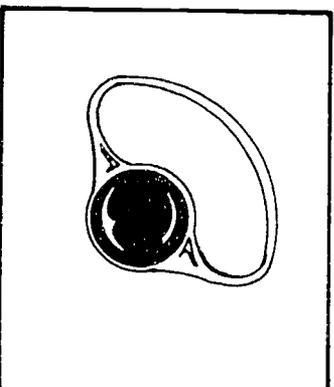
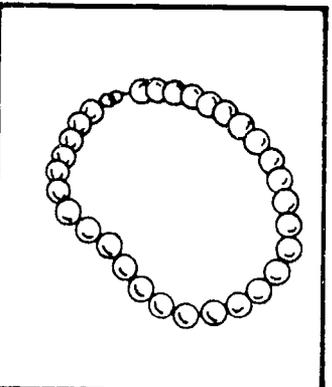
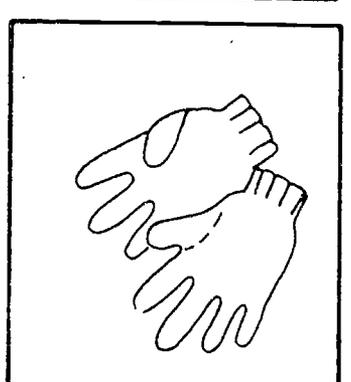
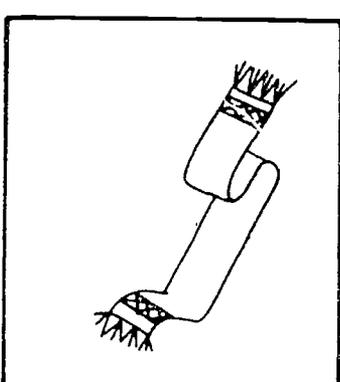
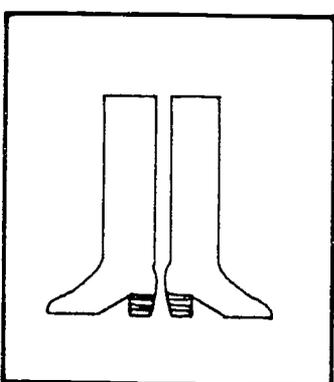
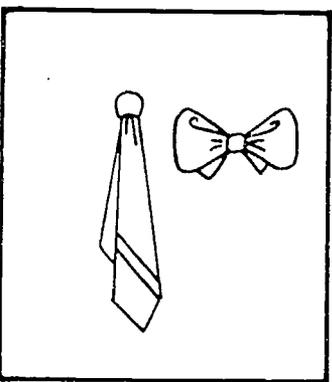
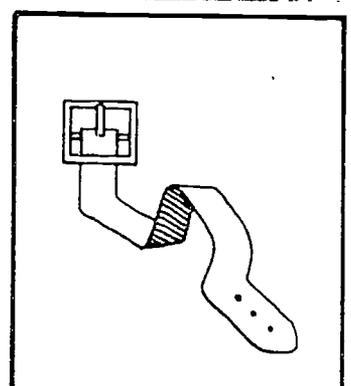
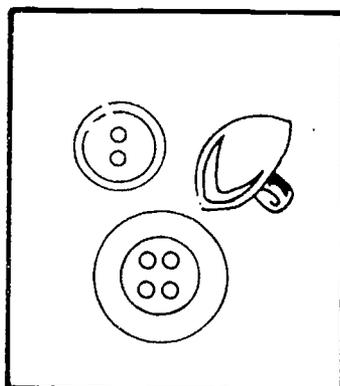
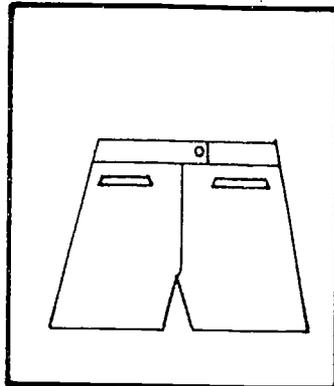
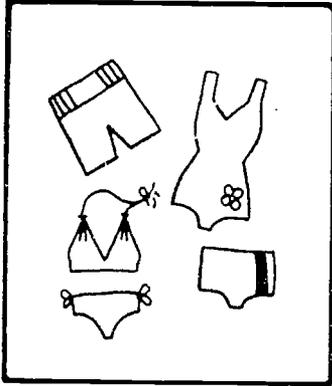


3. Accessories

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



11

Clothing

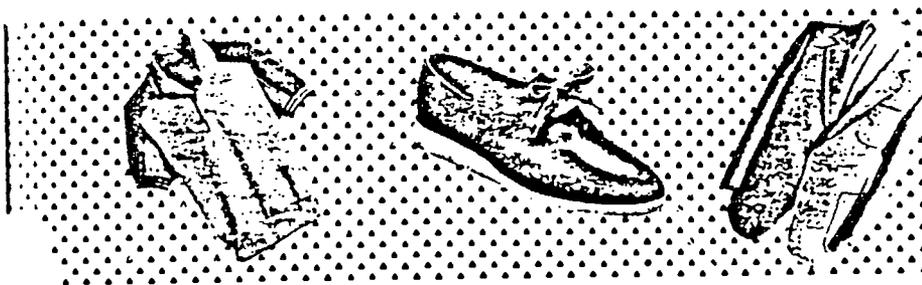
Asking for items in a clothing store
Giving sizes



Listen, read and say

Salesperson: Can I help you?
Chin: Yes. I'm looking for a shirt.
Salesperson: What size are you?
Chin: Size 15-33.

Salesperson: Can I help you?
Chin: No, thanks. I'm just looking.



Practice this model with the items of clothing below.

PRACTICE PRACTICE

A: Can I help you?
B: Yes. I'm looking for a _____.



1. blouse



2. shirt



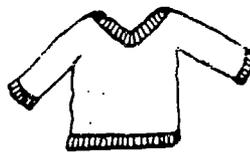
3. dress



4. hat



5. tie



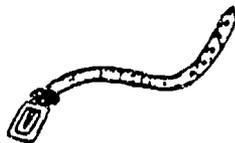
6. sweater



7. jacket



8. skirt



9. belt



10. bathing suit



11. coat



12. suit

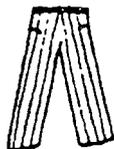
Lifelines I

PRACTICE PRACTICE

Practice this model with the items of clothing below.

Pronunciation: a pair_of pants
paira

A: Can I help you?
B: Yes. I'm looking for a pair of _____.



1. pants



2. pajamas



3. shoes



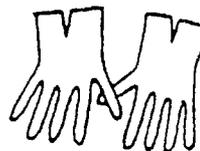
4. jeans



5. socks



6. sneakers



7. gloves



8. boots

CONCENTRATION

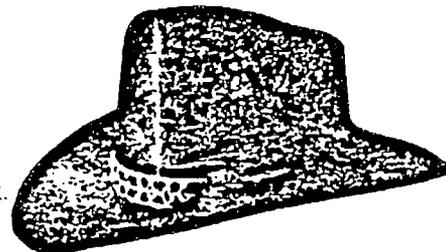
Cut out and play the Concentration Game on page 59. Match each clothing picture with the correct sentence.



Partner Exercise

Practice this conversation.

Student 1: Can I help you?
Student 2: Yes. I'm looking for a hat.
Student 3: Help students 1 and 2.



Student 1 and Student 2

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1.  | 2.  |
| 3.  | 4.  |
| 5.  | 6.  |
| 7.  | 8.  |
| 9.  | 10.  |

Fold here

Student 3

1. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a hat.
2. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a skirt.
3. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a pair of pants.
4. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a jacket.
5. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a pair of gloves.
6. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a bathing suit.
7. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a dress.
8. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a pair of shoes.
9. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a pair of boots.
10. Can I help you?
Yes. I'm looking for a suit.

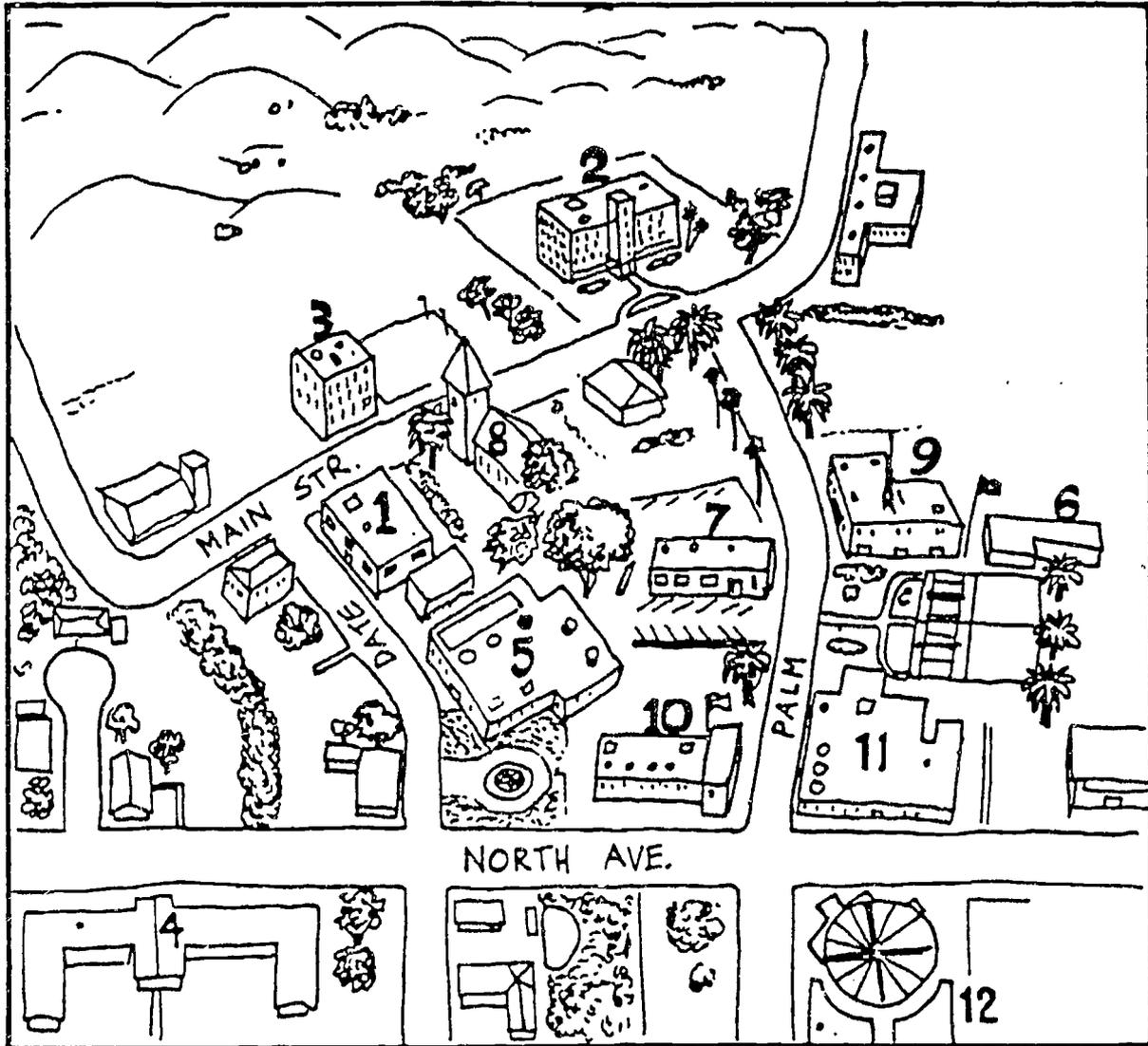
Directions, Maps

Goals:

- o To be able to read road signs
- o To be able to follow directions
- o To know and understand numbers
- o To know the vocabulary for directions and distances
- o To know the names of local landmarks (K-Mart, Kroger, etc.)
- o To be able to ask for directions using vocabulary such as "Where is, How far is," etc.

Activity Ideas

- o A simple map of the local area could be studied that would allow for rapid learning. A field trip of the local area is a good idea if possible.
- o Play "Mother May I" using actual N, S, E, W directions. Vary it by saying, "Turn right, go 4 steps, etc."
- o Using magic markers, draw a mural to include pictures of local landmarks.
- o Blindfold a player, then have him/her locate an object in the room by asking direction questions and listening to answers.



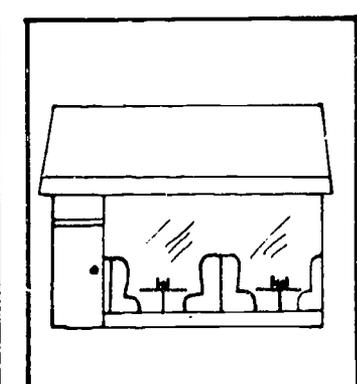
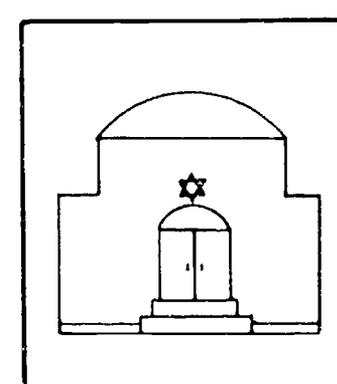
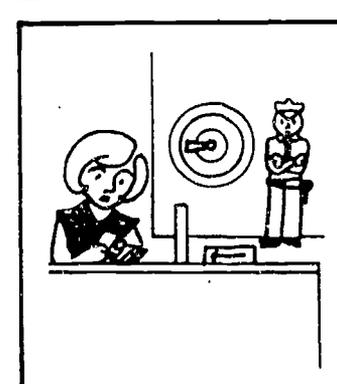
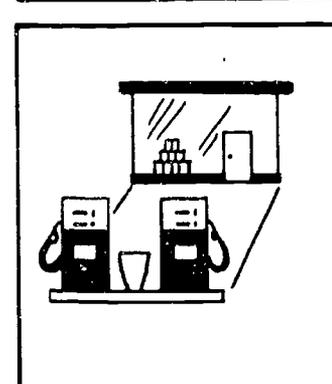
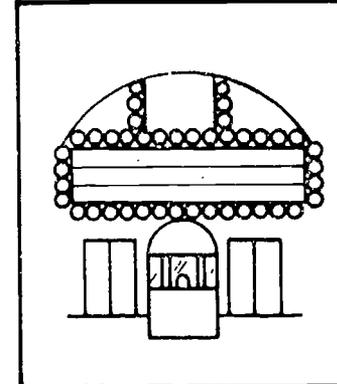
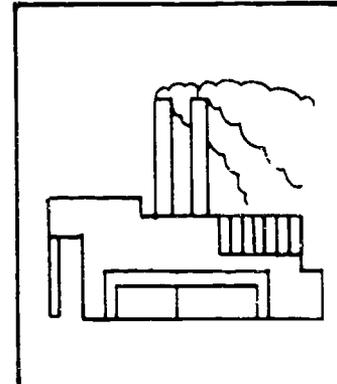
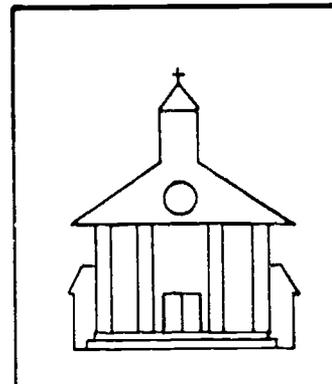
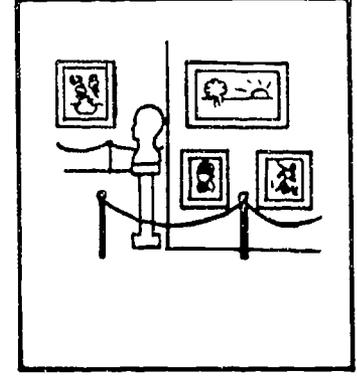
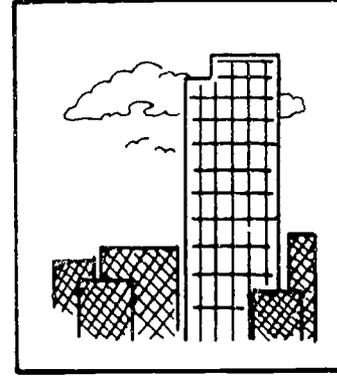
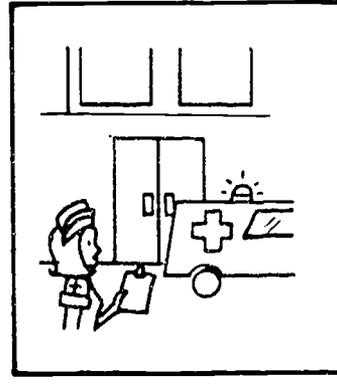
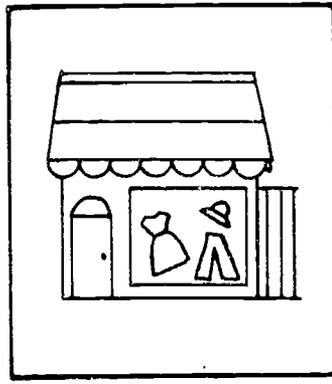
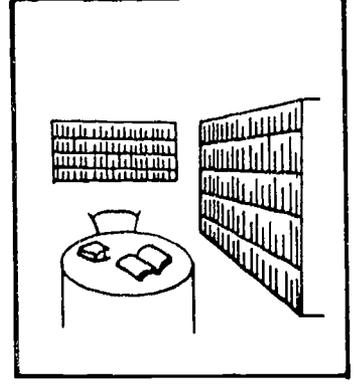
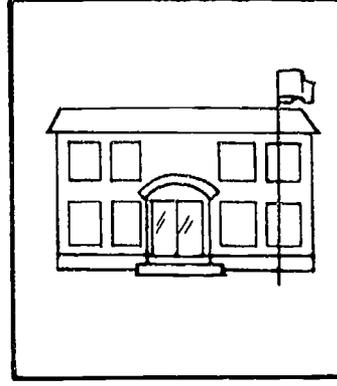
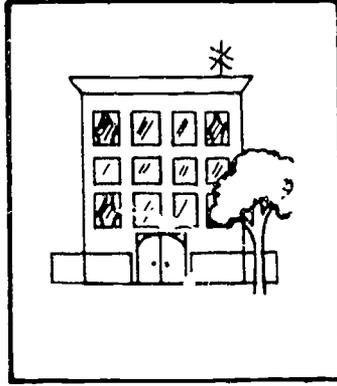
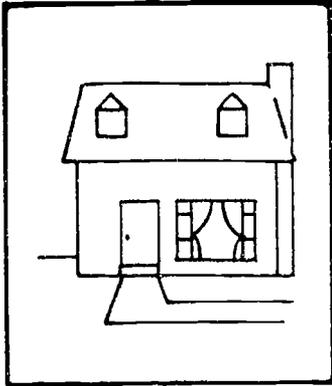
- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. LEGAL AID CLINIC | 7. DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES |
| 2. HOSPITAL | 8. CHURCH |
| 3. SOCIAL SECURITY OFFICE | 9. FIRE STATION |
| 4. WELFARE DEPARTMENT | 10. POLICE STATION |
| 5. PUBLIC LIBRARY | 11. EMPLOYMENT OFFICE |
| 6. RECREATION CENTER | 12. SYNAGOGUE |

21. Buildings

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____

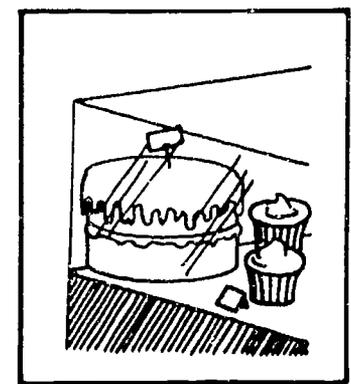
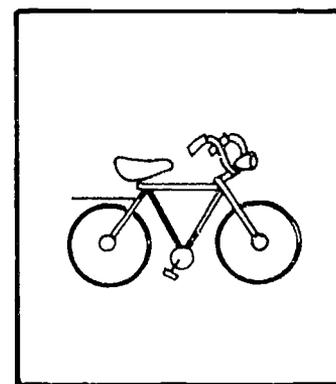
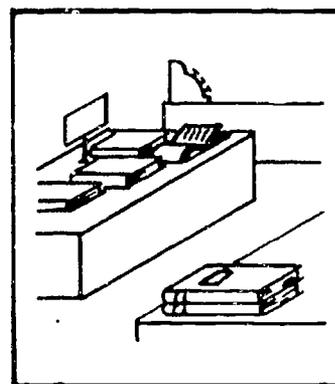
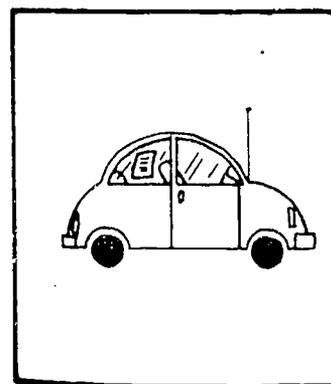
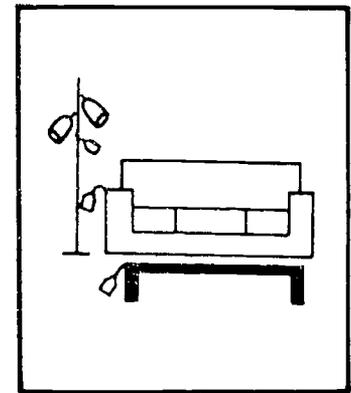
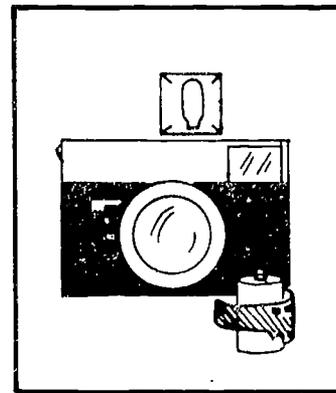
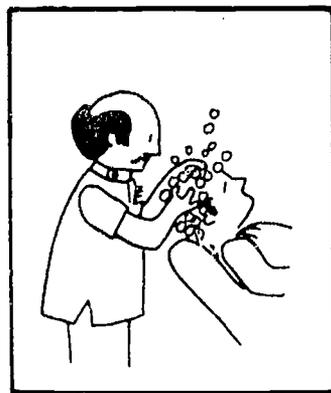
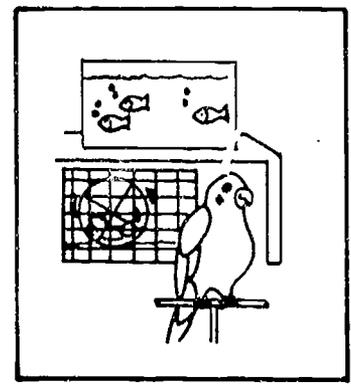
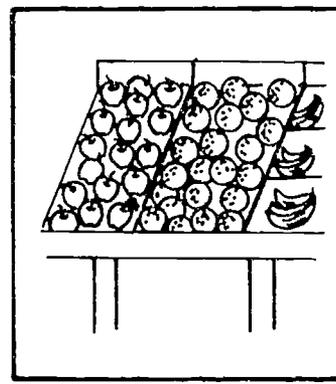
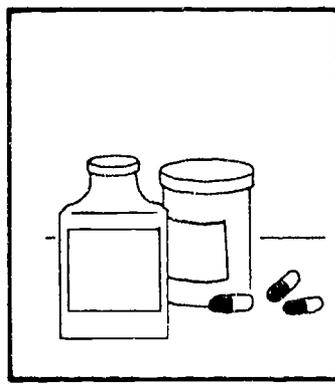
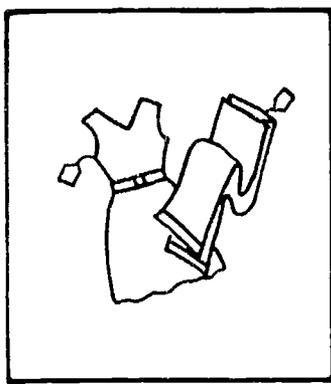
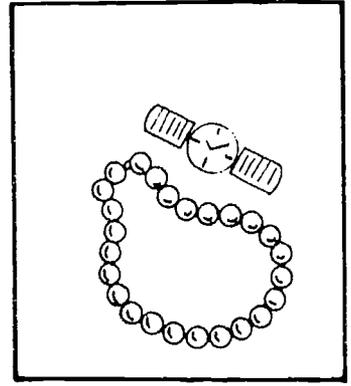
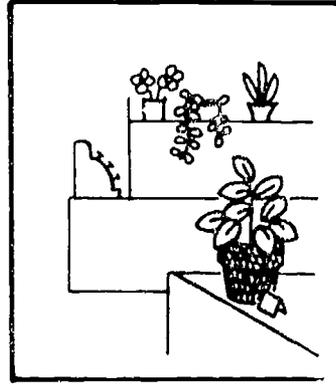
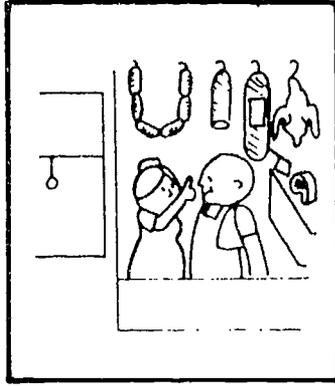


22. Shops and Stores

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



Emergency

Goals:

- o To be able to ask for emergency help
- o To be able to report a fire, accident, illness, burglary etc., give location information, address, descriptions of people, cars
- o To know the emergency telephone numbers in the area

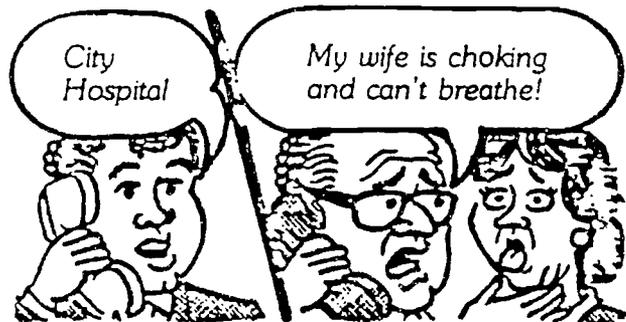
Activity Ideas

- o Practice dialing 911 on the telephone and giving emergency information.
- o Students can copy emergency telephone numbers to be posted in their homes.

INTERCHANGE

I Want to Report an Emergency!

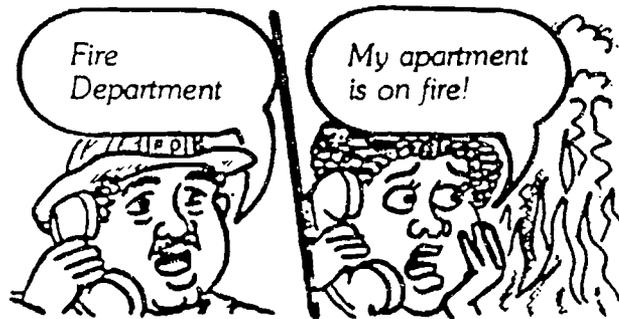
- A. Police.
 B. I want to report an emergency!
 A. Yes?
 B. I think my father is having a heart attack!
 A. What's your name?
 B. Diane Perkins.
 A. And the address?
 B. 76 Lake Street.
 A. Telephone number?
 B. 293-7637.
 A. All right. We'll be there right away.
 B. Thank you.



1. Neal Stockman
 193 Davis Avenue
 458-9313



2. Janet Brown
 17 Park Road
 963-2475



3. Carol Weaver
 1440 Lexington Boulevard
 354-6260



4. Henry Stewart
 5 Linden Lane
 723-0980

You're reporting an emergency. Create an original conversation.

Employment

Goals:

- o To define the language necessary to the individual job
- o To be able to talk to the employer or other supervisors regarding wages, hours, job safety and benefits
- o To know how to find a job: newspaper, Employment office, posted want-ads
- o To be able to fill out a job application, talk about skills, previous employment
- o To define entry level jobs in the particular area requiring low level English, or job specific English that might be taught on an individual basis

Job-specific language needs to be ascertained on an individual basis at the work place or obtained from the employer.

Activity Ideas

- o Practice filling out enclosed application forms or use actual forms obtained locally.
- o Using local newspaper, survey and talk about jobs. To begin, cut out one simple help wanted ad and discuss it, noting the form ads take and some commonly used vocabulary.
- o Practice job interviews.

FILL OUT THE FORM 2

NAME _____			
LAST		FIRST	
ADDRESS _____			

CITY	STATE	ZIP CODE	SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

TELEPHONE		BIRTHDATE	PLACE OF BIRTH

PRACTICE

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. NAME | 1. Telephone |
| 2. ADDRESS | 2. State |
| 3. TELEPHONE | 3. Zip Code |
| 4. CITY | 4. Place of Birth |
| 5. STATE | 5. Name |
| 6. DATE OF BIRTH | 6. Area Code |
| 7. PLACE OF BIRTH | 7. Social Security No. |
| 8. ZIP CODE | 8. Address |
| 9. SOCIAL SECURITY NO. | 9. Date of Birth |
| 10. AREA CODE | 10. Age |
| 11. AGE | 11. City |

JOB APPLICATION

Name: _____
Last name First name

Address: _____
Number Street City

_____ () _____
State Zip code Telephone

_____ _____
Date of birth Social security number

Birthplace: _____

Education: What schools have you attended?

Elementary school yes

no

High school yes

no

College yes

no

Job training program yes

no

Job experience yes

no

What was your job? _____ How long? _____

Signature _____ Date _____

SOCIAL SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

Application for a Social Security Card

Form Approved
OMB No. 0988-0001

INSTRUCTIONS

- Please read "How To Complete This Form" on page 2.
- Print or type using black or blue ink. **DO NOT USE PENCIL.**
- After you complete this form, take or mail it along with the required documents to your nearest Social Security office.
- If you are completing this form for someone else, answer the questions as they apply to that person. Then, sign your name in question 16.

1 NAME

To Be Shown On Card

FIRST _____ FULL MIDDLE NAME _____ LAST _____

FULL NAME AT BIRTH IF OTHER THAN ABOVE

FIRST _____ FULL MIDDLE NAME _____ LAST _____

OTHER NAMES USED _____

2 MAILING ADDRESS

Do Not Abbreviate

STREET ADDRESS, APT. NO., PO BOX, RURAL ROUTE NO _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP CODE _____

3 CITIZENSHIP

(Check One)

U.S. Citizen Legal Alien Allowed To Work Legal Alien Not Allowed To Work Foreign Student Allowed Restricted Employment Conditionally Legalized Alien Allowed To Work Other (See Instructions On Page 2)

4 SEX

Male Female

5 RACE/ETHNIC DESCRIPTION

(Check One Only - Voluntary)

Asian, Asian-American Or Pacific Islander Hispanic Black (Not Hispanic) North American Indian Or Alaskan Native White (Not Hispanic)

6 DATE OF BIRTH

MONTH DAY YEAR _____

7 PLACE OF BIRTH

(Do Not Abbreviate)

CITY _____ STATE OR FOREIGN COUNTRY _____ FCI _____ Office Use Only

8 MOTHER'S MAIDEN NAME

FIRST _____ FULL MIDDLE NAME _____ LAST NAME AT HER BIRTH _____

9 FATHER'S NAME

FIRST _____ FULL MIDDLE NAME _____ LAST _____

10 Has the person in item 1 ever received a Social Security number before?

Yes (If "yes", answer questions 11-13) No (If "no", go on to question 14) Don't Know (If "don't know", go on to question 14)

11 Enter the Social Security number previously assigned to the person listed in item 1.

- -

12 Enter the name shown on the most recent Social Security card issued for the person listed in item 1.

FIRST _____ MIDDLE _____ LAST _____

13 Enter any different date of birth if used on an earlier application for a card.

MONTH DAY YEAR _____

14 TODAY'S DATE

MONTH DAY YEAR _____

15 DAYTIME PHONE NUMBER

() _____ AREA CODE _____

DELIBERATELY FURNISHING (OR CAUSING TO BE FURNISHED) FALSE INFORMATION ON THIS APPLICATION IS A CRIME PUNISHABLE BY FINE OR IMPRISONMENT, OR BOTH

16 YOUR SIGNATURE

17 YOUR RELATIONSHIP TO THE PERSON IN ITEM 1 IS:

Self Natural Or Adoptive Parent Legal Guardian Other (Specify) _____

DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE (FOR SSA USE ONLY)										
NPN			DOC		NTI		CAN		ITV	
PBC		EVI	EVA	EVC	PRA		NWR	DNR	UNIT	
EVIDENCE SUBMITTED							SIGNATURE AND TITLE OF EMPLOYEE(S) REVIEWING EVIDENCE AND/OR CONDUCTING INTERVIEW			
							DATE			
							DATE			

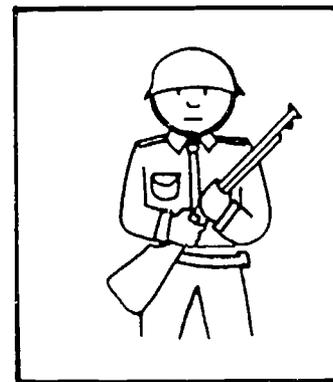
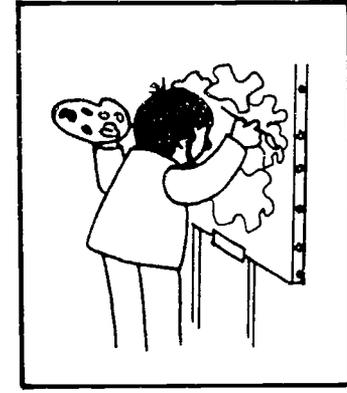
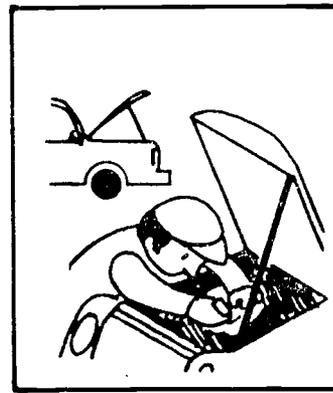
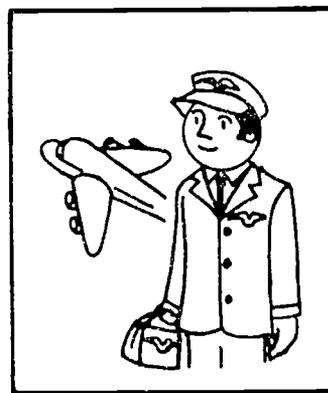
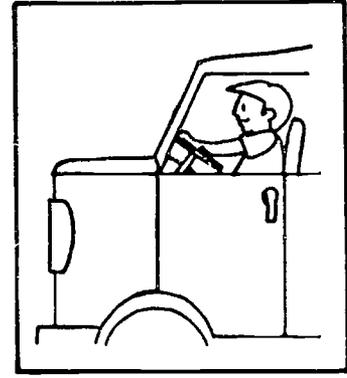
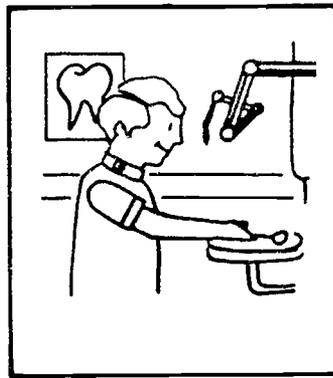
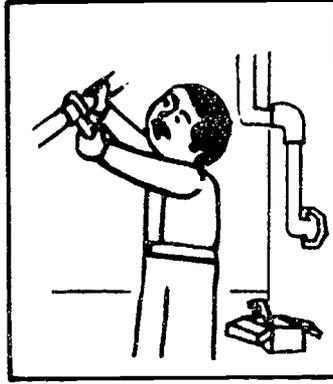


23. Occupations and Profession.

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



First Essential Phrases and Courtesies

Goals:

- o To be able to make personal introductions, etc.
- o To be able to ask for help: "help me, show me, repeat, how much does it cost," "where is" (restroom, bank, hospital), "I don't speak English."
- o To learn alphabet and numbers
- o To be able to use common courtesies: "excuse me, please, thank you, just a moment please", how Americans shake hands, being on time
- o To learn days of the week and months
- o To be able to read dates (i.e. 1/9/89 and know that it means the ninth day of January), and tell time

Activity Ideas

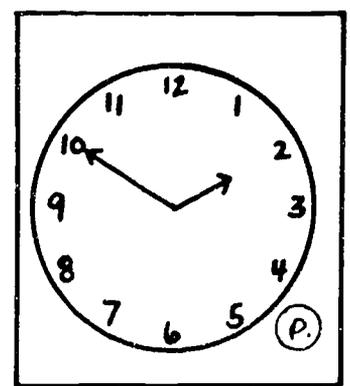
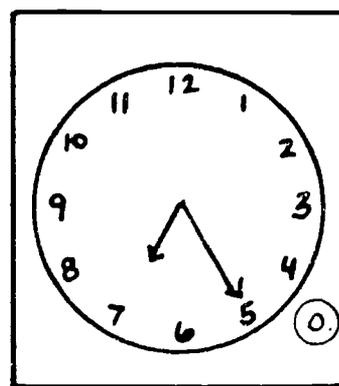
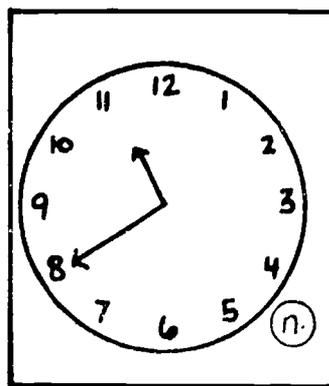
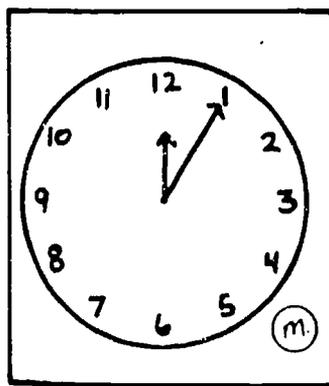
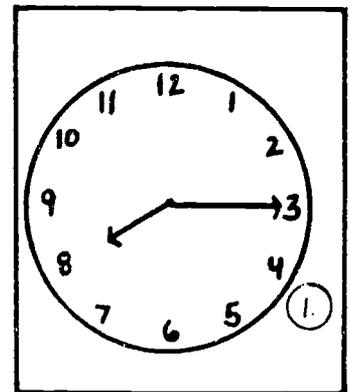
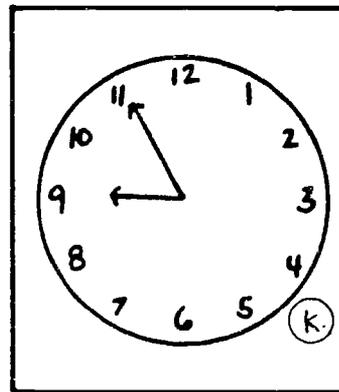
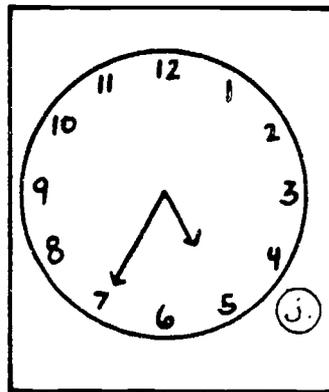
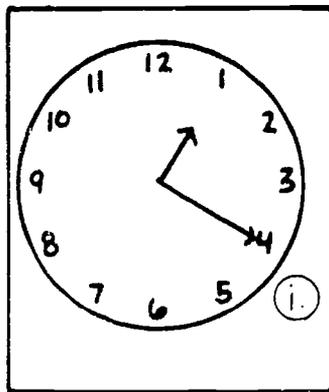
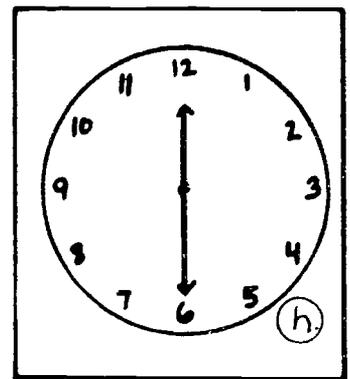
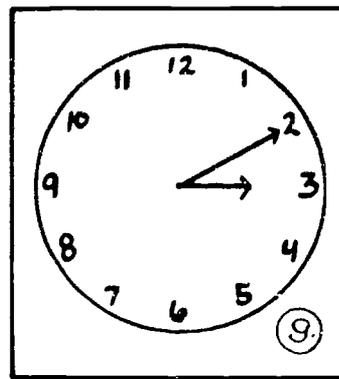
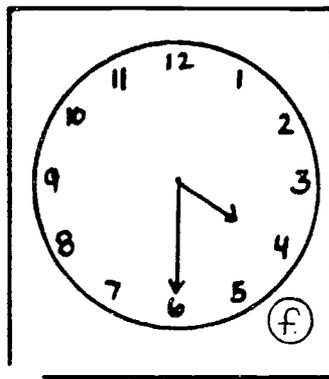
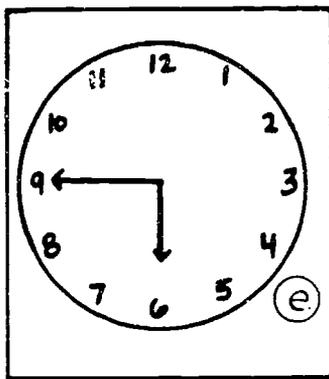
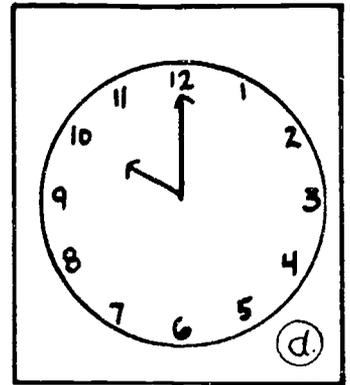
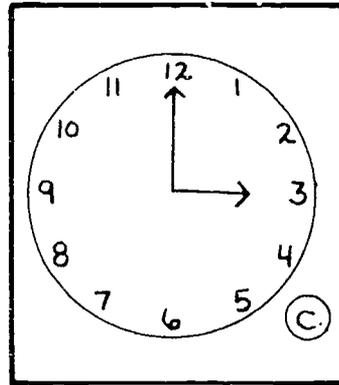
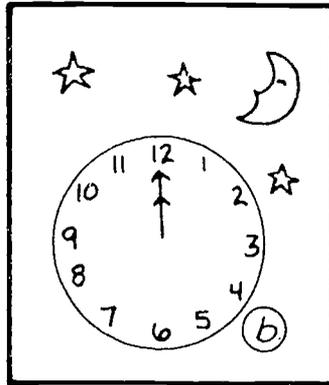
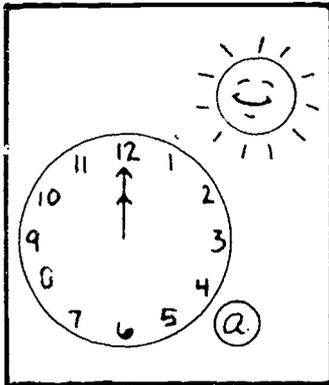
- o Bring a puppet to class. Introduce yourself to the puppet, then the puppet to the class. Shake hands with the puppet, then have the puppet shake hands with individual students as you introduce it to them.
- o Role play introductions: have students introduce themselves, then a friend to someone else.
- o Role play requesting information.
- o Bring an alarm clock to class that has a large face on it and moveable hands. Practice telling time using the clock or a diagram, then set the alarm occasionally during lessons and allow the class as a whole to determine the time as a reinforcement.
- o Play a birthday game. Ask for and visibly list months and dates of student birthdays, divide the class into teams and ask for dates of student birthdays by name - students give month and date, or numbers only (i.e. 9/17).
- o A few minutes before the end of class, the teacher describes a pretend social situation to the students: "You are leaving a party at my house". Discuss the setting and what they might say. At the end of class, the teacher stands by the door as students leave and students use one of the expressions, but not the same one as the person before them. If a student has trouble, have them wait by the teacher and listen to others.

14. Telling Time

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



Food

Goals:

- o Know food names
- o Know units of measure
- o Know pricing information.
- o Discuss coupons, rebates, and their vocabulary.
- o How to order in restaurants
- o Ask for information in a supermarket
- o Understand location in a supermarket
- o Know animal names and what they are called in the meat departments
- o Identification of stores in the area that carry products most often used by the migrant population, but which are difficult to find in many areas, such as masa harina, pinto beans, picantes, etc.

Activity Ideas

- o Play "20 questions", putting a food item in a brown paper bag.
- o Using a kitchen or "weight watchers" scale, weigh various foods.
- o Bring a sack of groceries with actual prices on them. Locate and discuss weight, price, and label information.
- o Bring in a restaurant menu, discuss it. Role play ordering and paying. Discuss tips.
- o Make a picture of the actual shelf label. Discuss comparative pricing.

Food

Activity Ideas

- Supermarket field trip. As a final activity, prepare and give students a map by departments of a supermarket to be visited. Review: names of departments, names of categories (fruit, vegetables, meats, canned goods), the store directory and how to use it, shopping vocabulary (size, contents, quantity, aisle, cheaper, more expensive). At the market, give a brief tour, reviewing departments. Pass out a sheet of questions to be answered in the market, such as:

What's the price? price quantity

tomatoes		
carrots		
green beans		

Where's the salad dressing? On aisle _____.

	Cheaper brand name	price	Expensive brand name	price
Canned tuna: 6 1/2 oz.				
Tortillas: 1 doz. corn				
Laundry detergent: 24 oz.				

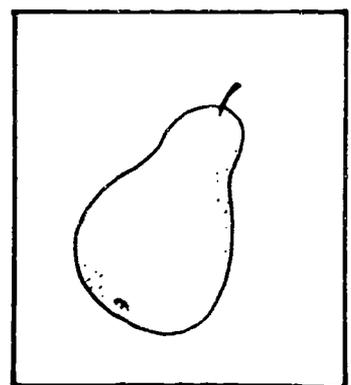
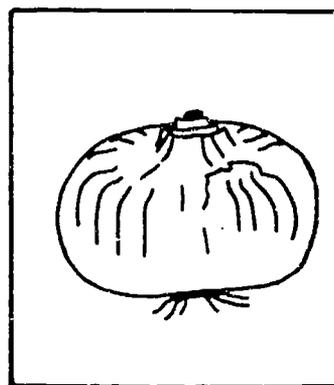
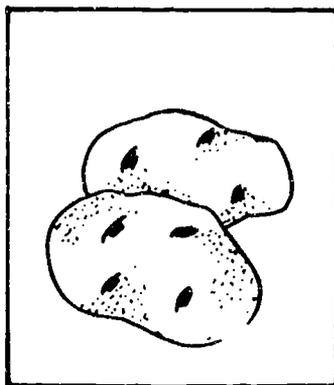
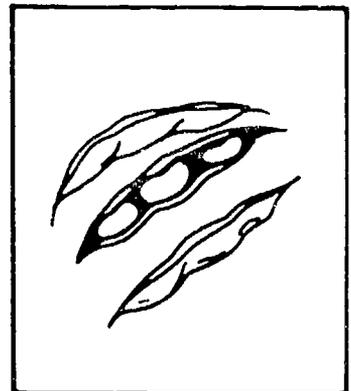
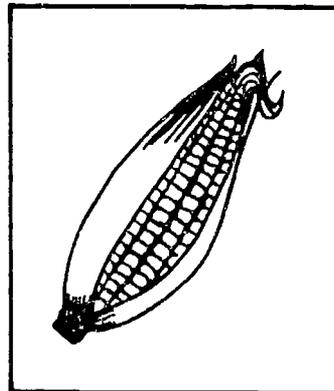
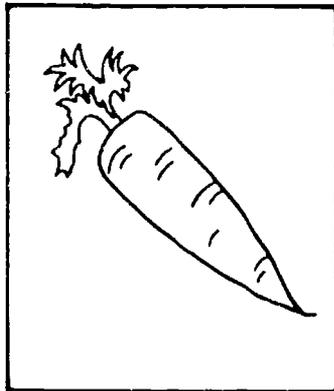
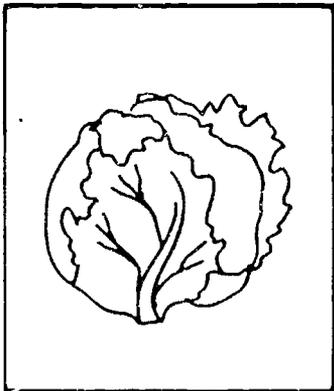
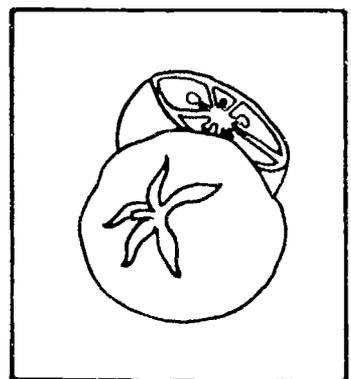
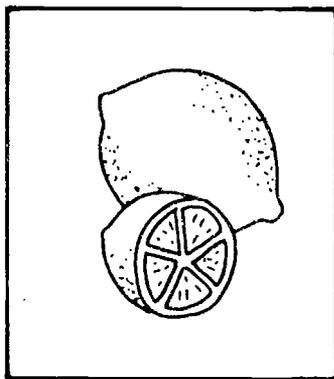
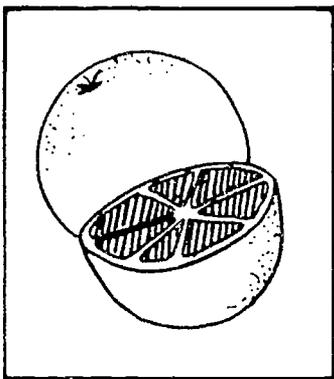
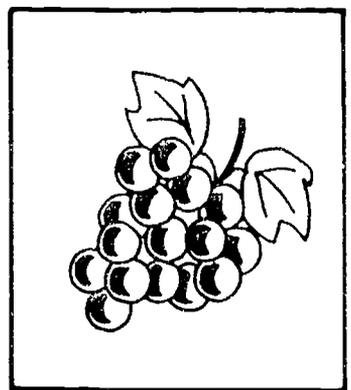
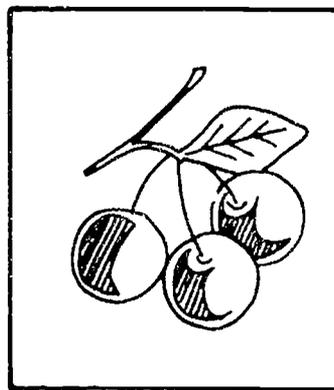
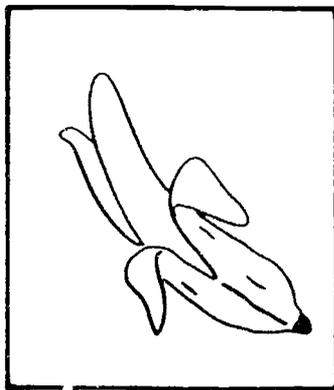
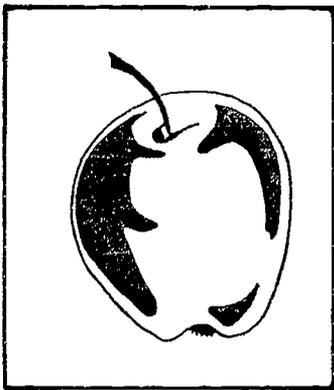
How much are whole fryer chickens per pound? _____.

4. Fruits and Vegetables

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____

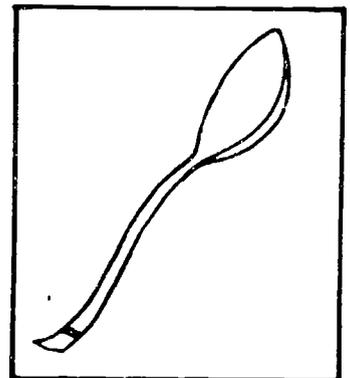
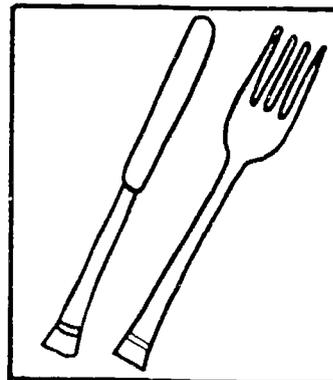
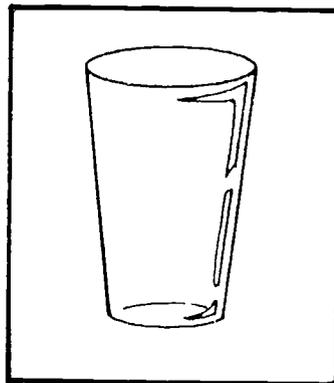
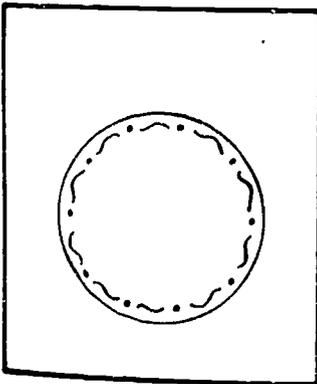
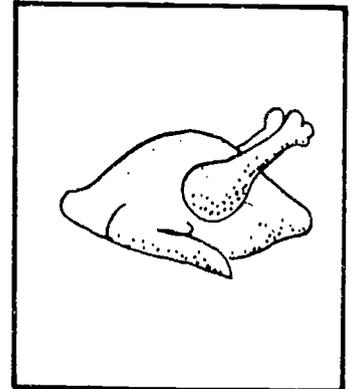
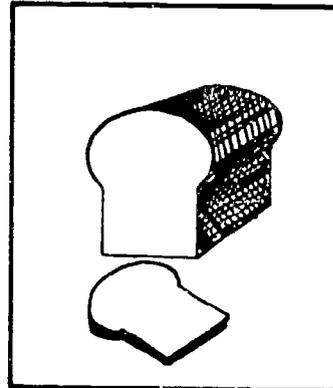
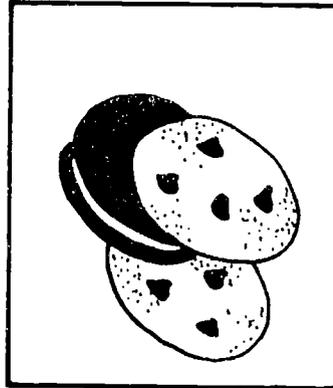
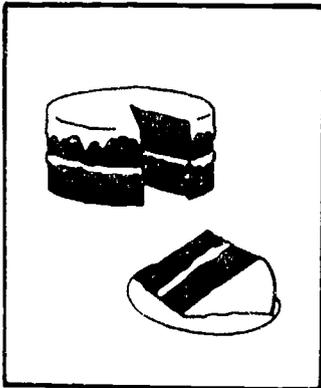
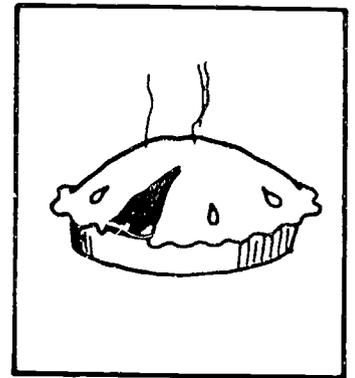
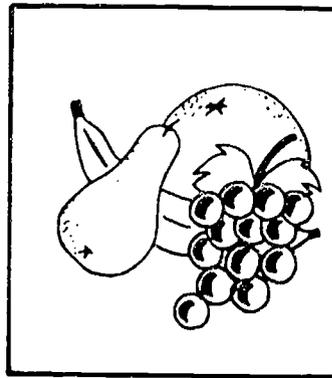
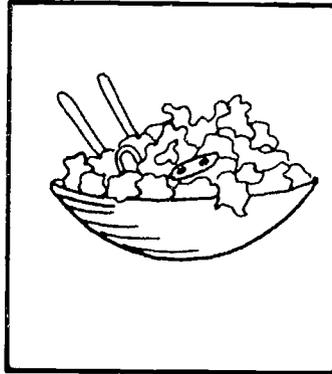
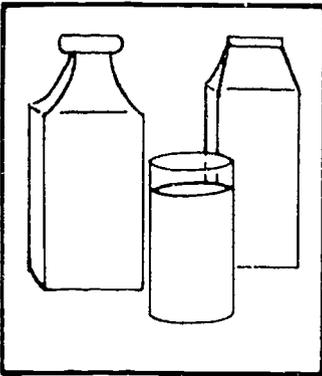
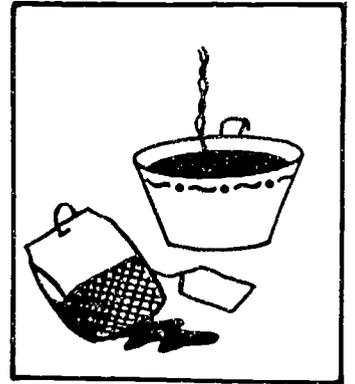
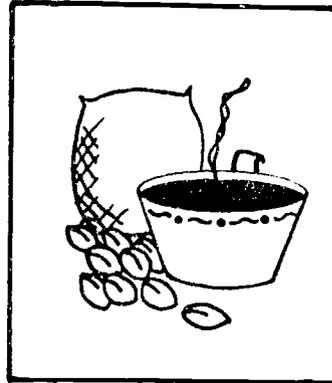
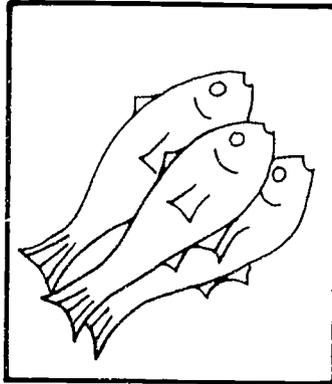


5. Food—A

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____

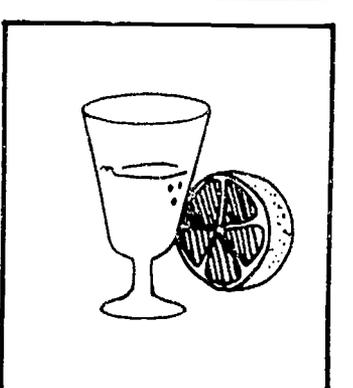
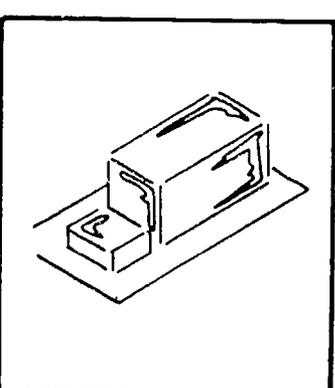
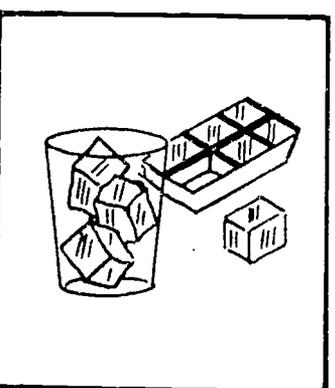
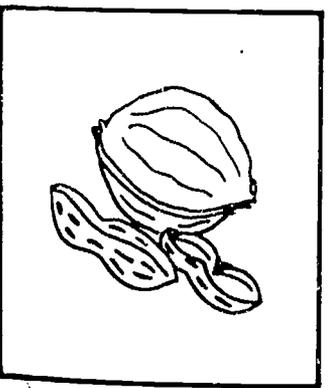
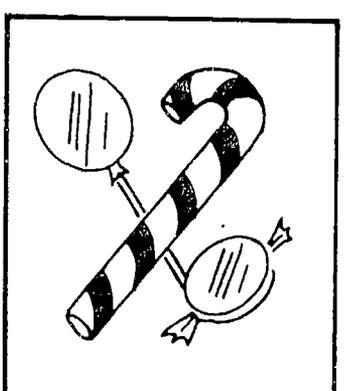
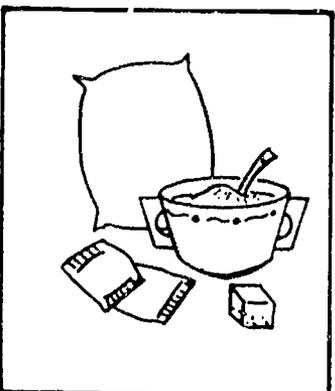
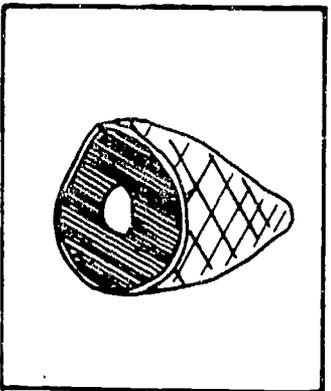
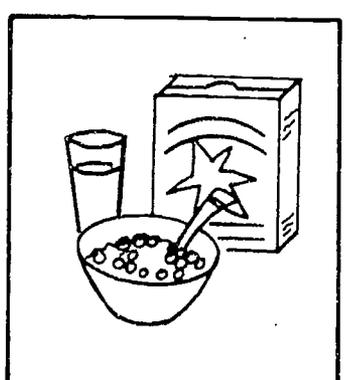
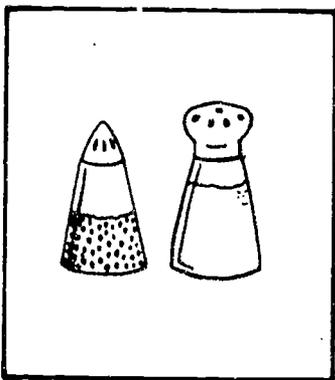
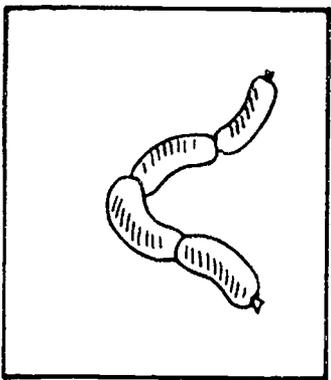
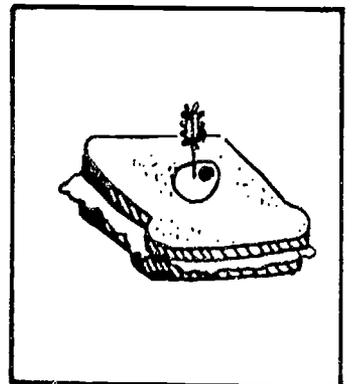
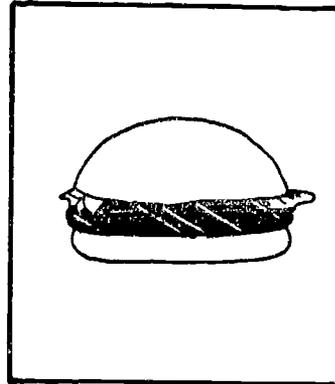
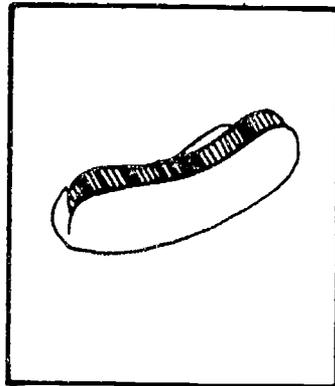
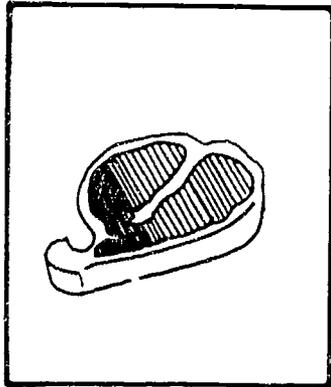


6. Food—B

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



1. flour / 3A / coffee
2. margarine / 1A / milk
3. grapes / over there / oranges
4. cake / 1B / bread
5. hot dogs / over there / sausage
6. sugar / 3A / rice
7. cereal / 3A / soup
8. frozen food / 1B / cheese
9. onions / over there / potatoes
10. soft drinks / over there / corn

7 Presentation

Expressing quantity; being general and specific

A



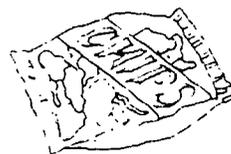
a bottle of ketchup

B



a can of beans

C



a bag of potato chips

D



a loaf of bread

E



five pounds of sugar

F



a quart of milk

G



a dozen eggs

H



a box of cereal

I



a package of hot dogs

J

- A: We need some bread.
 B: OK. How about two loaves of bread?
 A: That's fine. We also need some milk.
 B: OK. How about a quart of milk?
 A: No. We need a half gallon of milk.

Irregular plurals:

1 loaf → 2 loaves
 1 dozen → 2 dozen

2 pints (pt) = 1 quart (qt)

2 quarts = 1 half gallon

4 quarts = 1 gallon (gal)

16 ounces (oz) = 1 pound (lb)

Asking for help in locating food in the supermarket (text, page 70)

- C** Where's the rice? Look at the map. Practice questions and answers with a partner. Then write questions and answers. Use *across from*, *over there*, *next to*.

flour	aisle 1	aisle 2	rice	aisle 3	aisle 4	oranges	
sugar			spaghetti			cheese	potatoes
oil			oatmeal			milk	apples
coffee			beans			eggs	tomatoes
			bread				

Example

Where's the rice? It's in aisle 2, next to the spaghetti.

Questions

Answers

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

Expressing quantity; being general and specific (text, page 71)

- D** A bottle of ketchup. Write out things you buy at the store. Write more than one thing when you can.

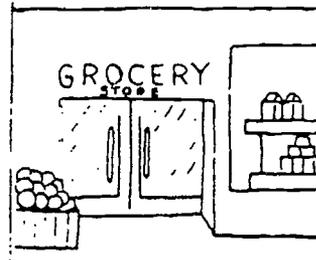
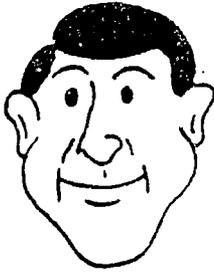
Example

(package) *a package of hot dogs*

1. (bottle) _____
2. (bag) _____
3. (quart) _____
4. (dozen) _____
5. (can) _____
6. (pound) _____
7. (box) _____
8. (loaf) _____

50

Keo is going to the grocery store. He needs eggs, rice, and oranges. He has bananas and milk.



1. Who's going to the grocery store?

2. Where's Keo going?

3. Is he going to the grocery store?

4. What does Keo need?

5. What does Keo have?

6. Does Keo need eggs?

7. Does Keo need rice?

8. Does Keo need milk?

9. Does Keo have bananas?

10. Does Keo have milk?

11. Does Keo need bananas?

FOOD 7

Age _____

- A. Next, please.
- B. I want two colas.
- A. Small, medium, or large?
- B. One small, one medium.
- A. Is that for here or to go?
- B. To go.
- A. That's \$1.00.



1. 45¢



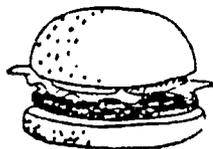
2. 55¢



3. 65¢



4. 65¢



5. 95¢



6. 60¢

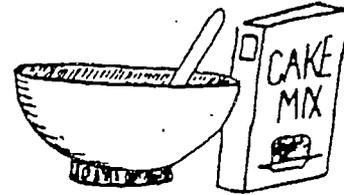


7. 90¢

FOOD 6

Birth date _____

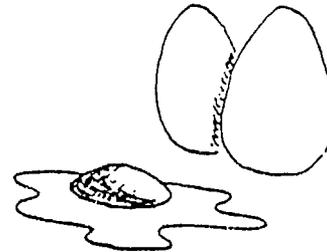
- A. I want to make a cake.
What do I need?



- B. You need a cake mix
1½ cups water
⅓ cup oil
and 3 eggs.



- A. Do you want to help?
B. Sure.



- A.
1. Turn on the oven to 350°.
 2. Grease the pan.
 3. Flour the pan.
 4. Put the mix in the bowl.
 5. Add the water.
 6. Add the eggs.
 7. Add the oil.
 8. Stir it up.
 9. Put the mix in the pan.
 10. Put the pan in the oven.
 11. Wait 35 minutes.

CATEGORIES

Name _____

Fruit

Vegetables

Other Food

celery
banana
carrot
peppers
hamburger
lemon
turnip
ice cream
beans
orange
eggs

papaya
pancakes
peach
cookies
cabbage
hot dog
raspberries
peas
bread
pear
asparagus

soup
pie
watermelon
cake
potato
apple
onions
pizza
cantaloupe
beets
pineapple

Grandma's Going to the Grocery Store

Grandma's going to the grocery store.
One, two, three, four.

Grandma's going to the grocery store.
One, two, three, four.

Who's going?
Grandma's going.

Who's going?
Grandma's going.

Where's she going?
To the grocery store.
One, two, three, four.

When's she going?
At a quarter after four.
One, two, three, four.

What's she going to buy at the grocery store?
One, two, three, four.

What's she going to buy at the grocery store?
One, two, three, four.

A loaf of bread,
a bottle of milk,
a big bag of cookies
and a little can of peas.
A loaf of bread,
a bottle of milk,
a big bag of cookies
and a little can of peas.

Grandma's going to the grocery store.
One, two, three, four.

Grandma's going to the grocery store.
One, two, three, four.

Health

Goals:

- o To be able to name body parts, internal organs, and to express illness and pain
- o To give a medical history, immunization information and report allergies
- o To make doctor or dental appointments, and give insurance information
- o To understand and be able to follow prescription instructions and measurements
- o To know what to expect in a medical check-up and the instructions "cough, take a deep breath, open your mouth," etc.
- o To know the names of common ailments
- o To be able to ask a pharmacist for over the counter remedies for common ailments

Activity Ideas

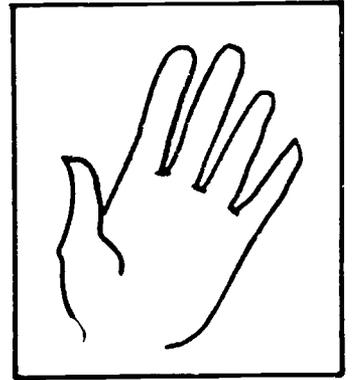
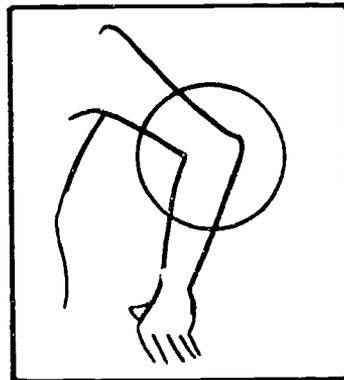
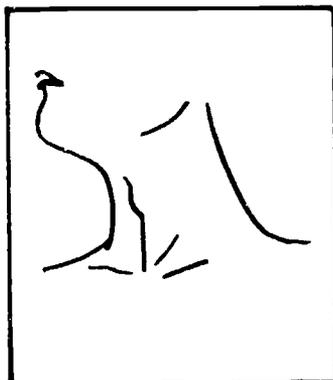
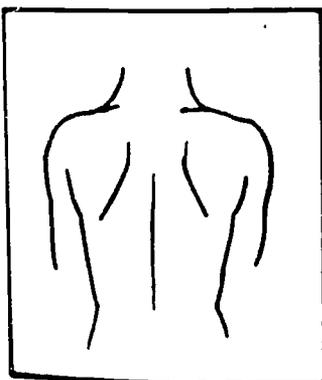
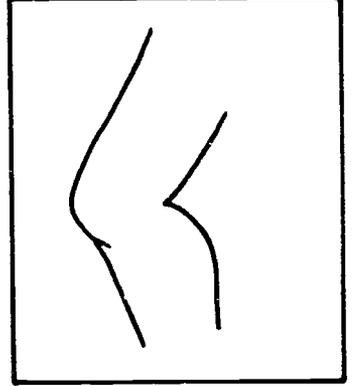
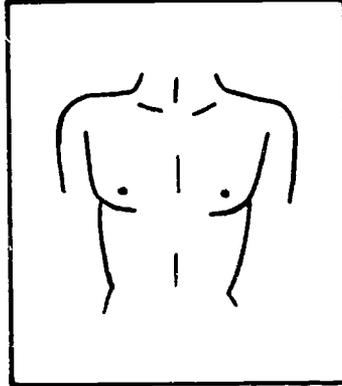
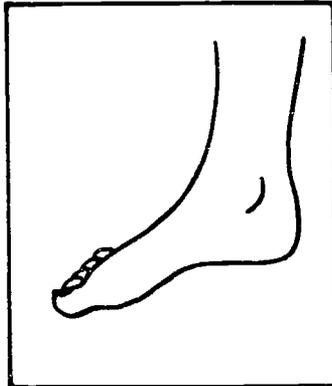
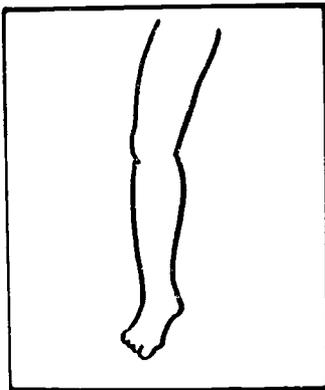
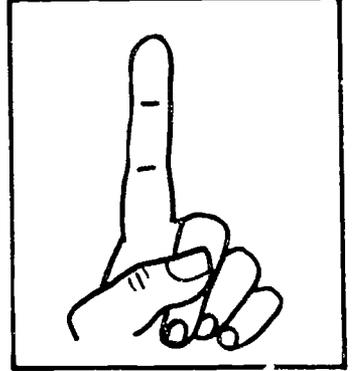
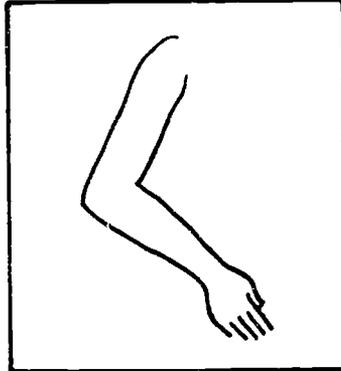
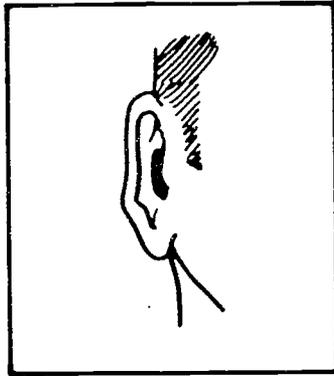
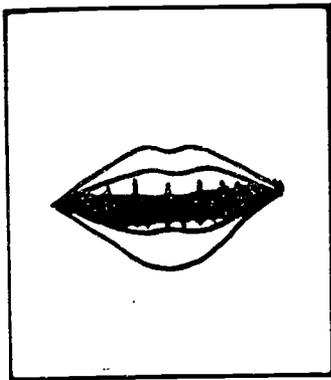
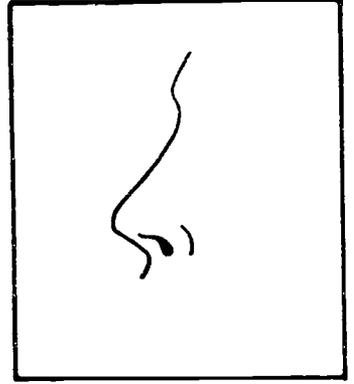
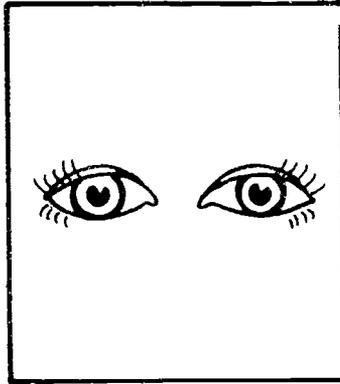
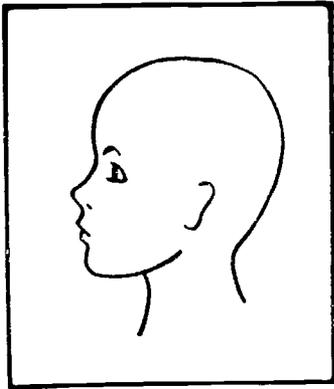
- o Play "Hokey Pokey" to learn names of body parts.
- o Get a doctor kit and role play playing doctor.
- o Ask a real doctor to come to class and conduct a simple exam in a low-key, well-patient checkup environment.
- o Take a field trip to the health department.

7. Parts of the Body

Name _____

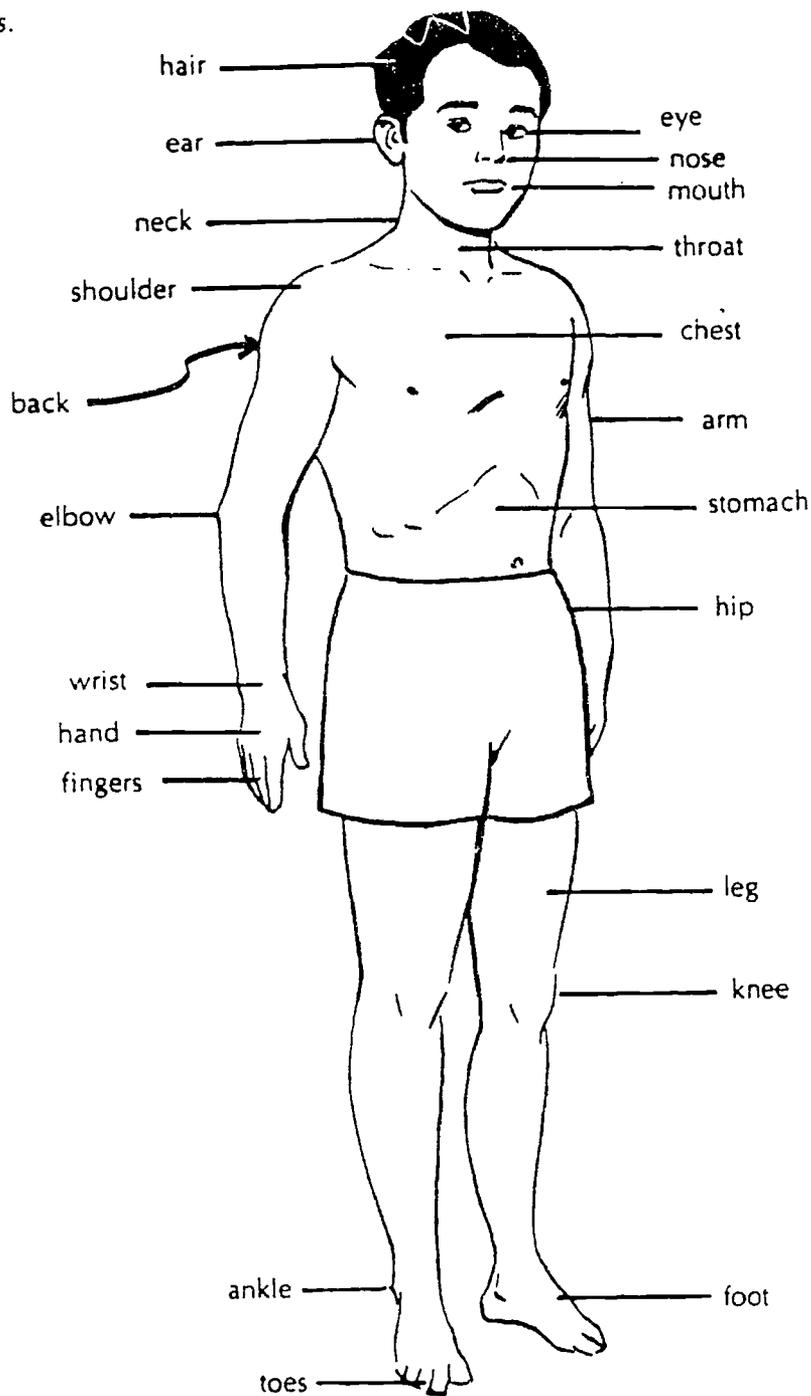
Date _____

Teacher _____



THE BODY

Study these words.



Practice, with different parts of the body.

1. a. My _____ hurts.



b. My _____ hurt.



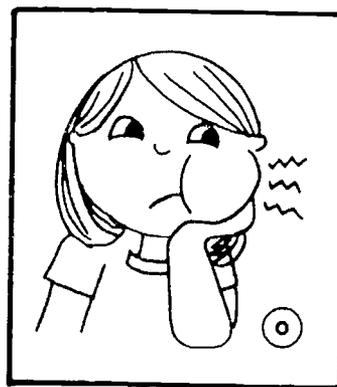
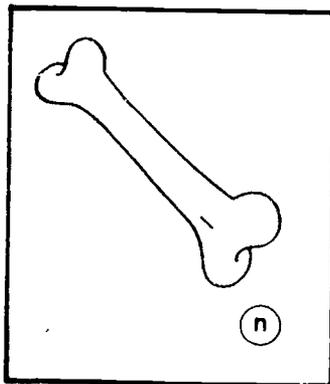
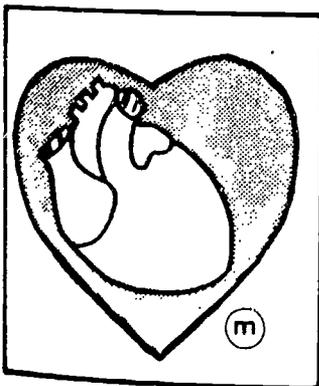
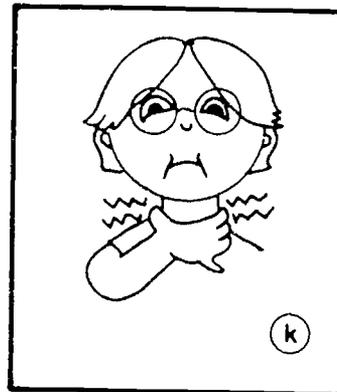
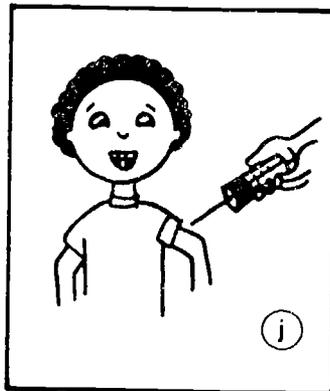
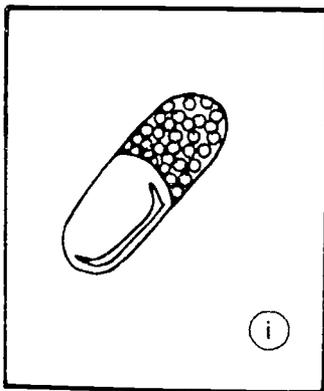
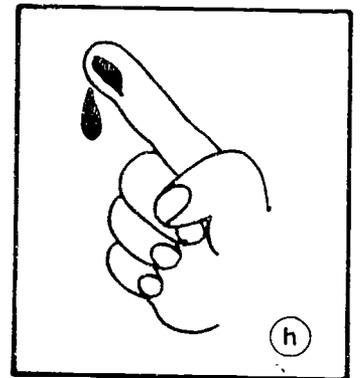
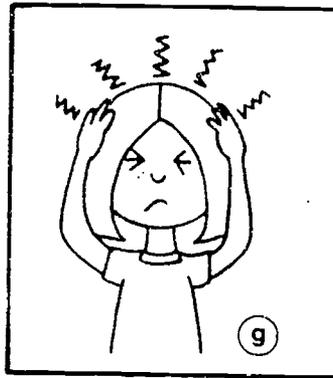
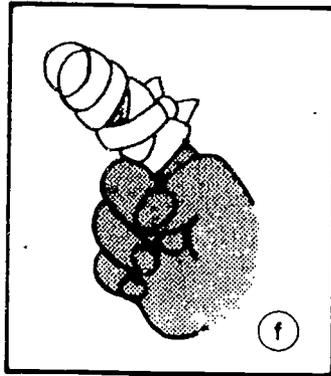
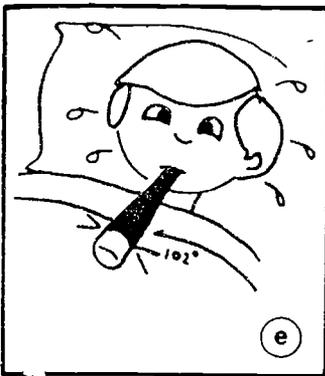
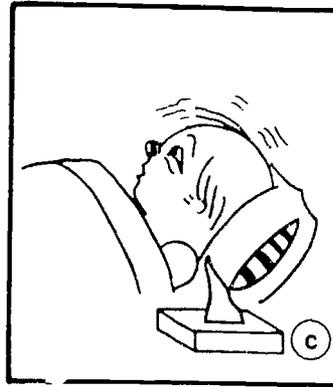
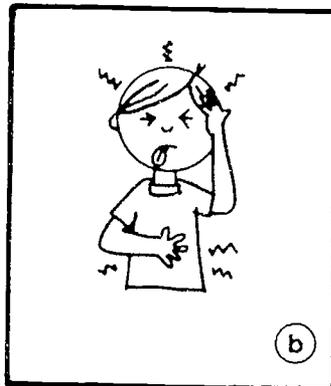
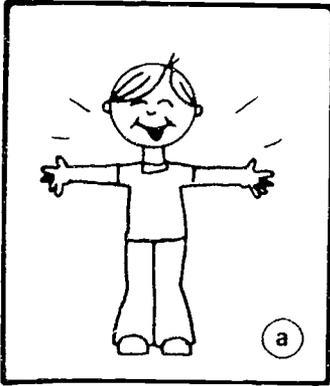
2. I hurt my _____.

10. Health

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



WHAT'S THE MATTER?



ENGLISH FOR ADULT COMPETENCY II

STANDARD HEALTH EXAMINATION RECORD

Date / / Name (last) (first) Age Sex
mo day year

Address Phone Birthdate

MEDICAL HISTORY

Have you had any problems with:
 (check ✓)

PAST ILLNESSES	DISEASES	IMMUNIZATIONS—TESTS
Frequent colds _____	Chicken pox _____	Diphtheria _____
Frequent sore throats _____	Measles _____	Whooping Cough _____
Bronchitis _____	Mumps _____	Poliomyelitis _____
Allergies _____	Scarlet Fever _____	Tetanus _____
Operations or serious injuries _____	Poliomyelitis _____	Smallpox _____
Stomach upsets _____	Whooping Cough _____	Typhoid _____
Kidney trouble _____	Other _____	Tuberculin _____
Convulsions _____		Other _____
Tuberculosis _____		
Diabetes _____		
Blood diseases (anemia, etc) _____		
High blood pressure _____		
Heart attacks _____		
Mental depression _____		
Bad headaches or migraines _____		
Liver trouble (hepatitis) _____		

SURGERIES	DATE
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

List of Medications You Are Now Taking

Allergies to Medications



AGE: _____ DATE OF BIRTH: _____ SEX: _____

PART III—HEALTH HISTORY

Please check Yes or No beside all of the following, for the person to be treated.

- 1. Are you in good health? Yes___ No___
If not, please explain _____
- 2. Are you taking any medication or drugs? Yes___ No___
If yes, what? _____
- 3. Have you ever had a reaction to a dental injection? Yes___ No___
- 4. Are you allergic to anything, including penicillin? Yes___ No___
- 5. Have you ever been told by a doctor that you should not take penicillin? Yes___ No___
- 6. Do you have a history of fainting? Yes___ No___
- 7. Are you presently on a diet? Yes___ No___
- 8. Have you ever had cancer, leukemia or an abnormal growth? Yes___ No___
- 9. Have you ever had radiation treatment? Yes___ No___
- 10. Do you have asthma or a respiratory condition? Yes___ No___
- 11. Are you pregnant? Yes___ No___
- 12. Are you now being treated by a physician for any condition? Yes___ No___
If yes, for what? _____

Doctor's Name: _____ Location: _____

- 13. Have you ever had or do you now have:
 - Heart Trouble Yes___ No___
 - Chest Pain during or after exercise Yes___ No___
 - Shortness of Breath Yes___ No___
 - High Blood Pressure Yes___ No___
 - Rheumatic Fever Yes___ No___
 - Rheumatism or Arthritis Yes___ No___
 - Anemia Yes___ No___
 - Easy bleeding or bleeding too long after a cut or extraction .. Yes___ No___
 - Goiter, Thyroid or Glandular problems Yes___ No___
 - Kidney problems Yes___ No___
 - Nervous or Mental Disorders Yes___ No___
 - Convulsions (Seizures or taking fits) Yes___ No___
 - Tuberculosis - T.B. Yes___ No___
 - Liver problems, Jaundice, Yellowing of skin, Hepatitis Yes___ No___
 - Sugar Diabetes (Sugar in blood or urine) Yes___ No___
 - Is there any sugar diabetes in your family? Yes___ No___
 - Venereal Disease Yes___ No___
- 14. Other conditions not listed above: _____
- 15. Date of last physical examination: _____

MEDICAL HISTORY UPDATE

	19	19	19	19	19	19
Date						
Signature						



Housing

Goals:

- o To describe an apartment or house
- o To read classified ads for housing
- o To understand utilities and how they are billed
- o To understand billing procedures and what they include
- o To know names of rooms, major appliances, and items of furniture
- o To be aware of and request a lease agreement
- o To know the difference between furnished and unfurnished housing

Housing Repairs

Goals:

- o To know the names of service people (electrician, plumber, etc.)
- o To name simple tools and where to find them

Activity Ideas

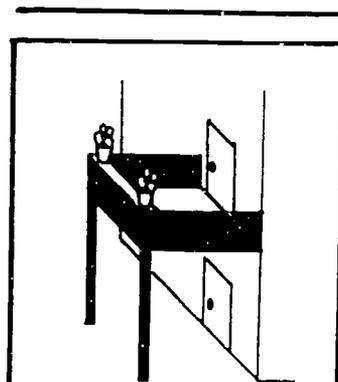
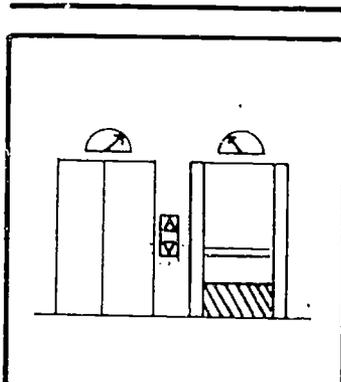
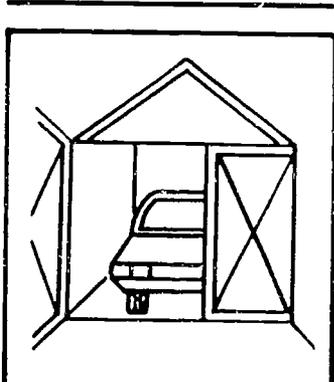
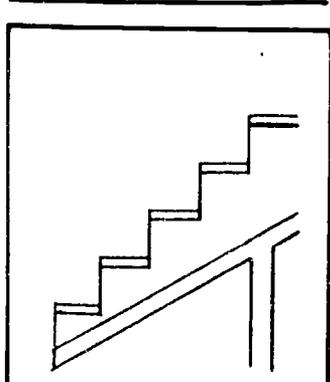
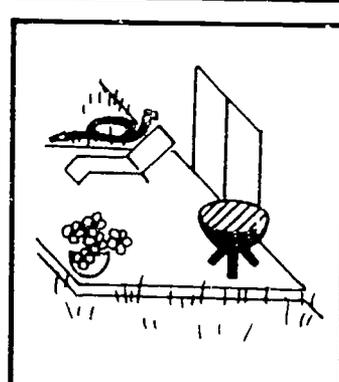
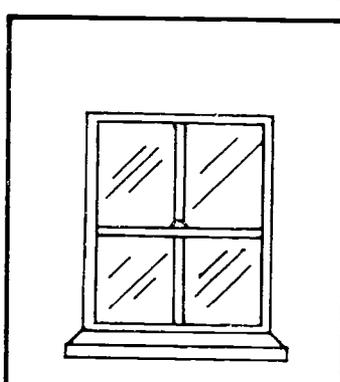
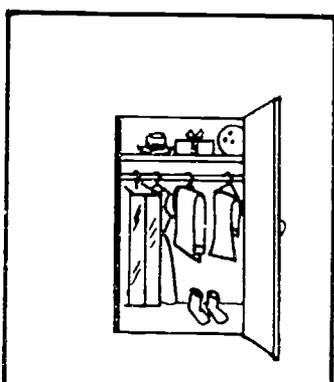
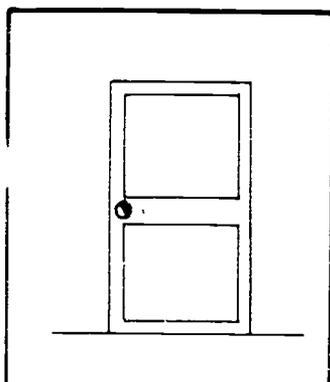
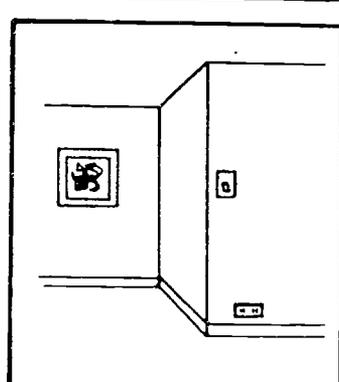
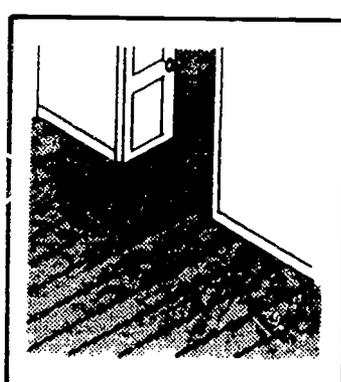
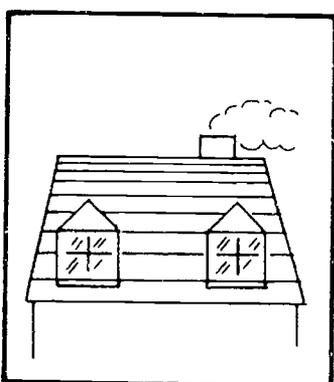
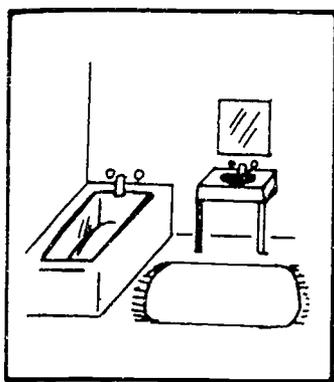
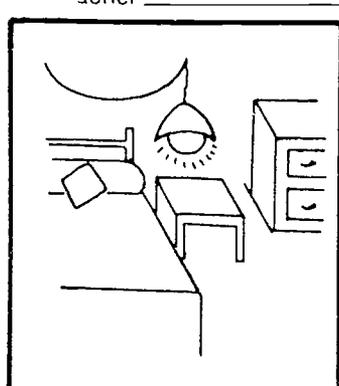
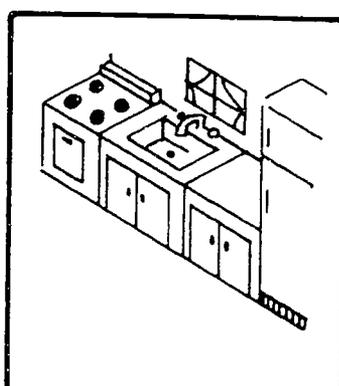
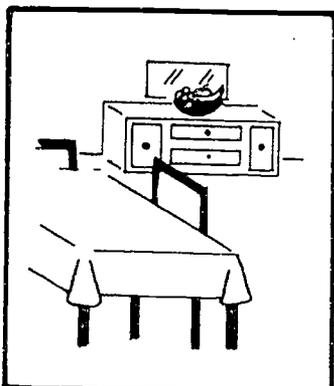
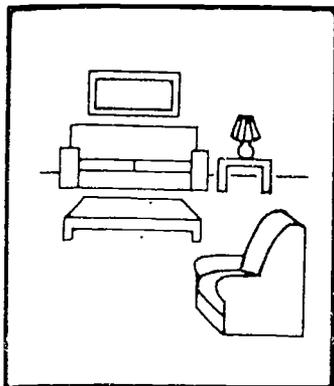
- o Study an actual utility bill.
- o Using an empty doll house, label the rooms and "furnish" them with the appropriate furniture. Make a game of naming each item, placing it into the correct room, and talking about its use. A less expensive way of doing this is to use a colorforms house purchased in a toy store.
- o Using a newspaper, discuss houses and apartments for rent.
- o Take a field trip to a local hardware store.

16. The House

Name _____

Date _____

acher _____

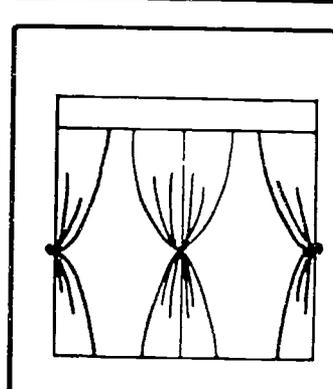
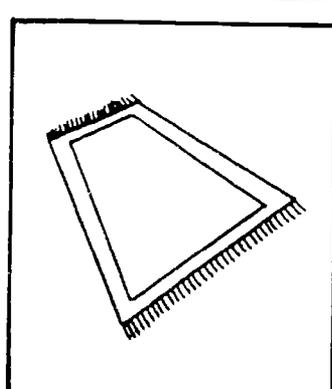
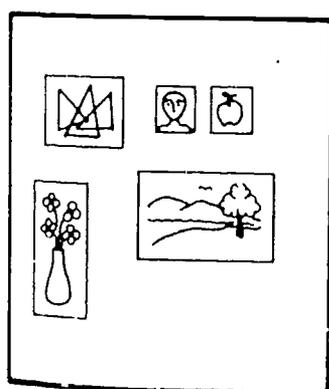
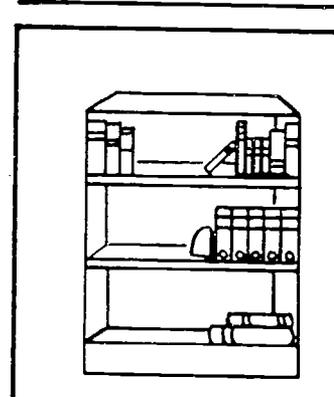
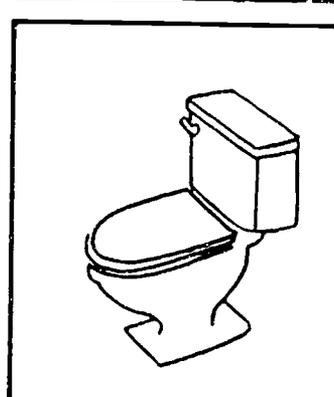
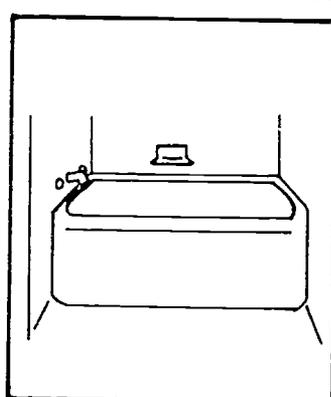
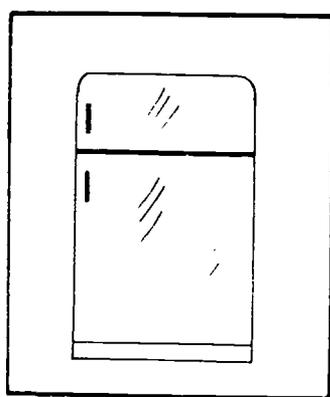
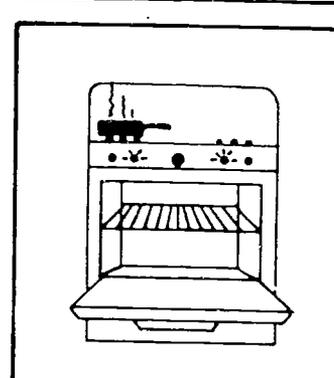
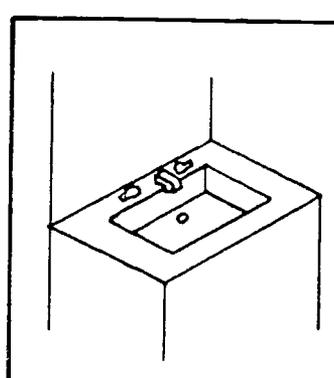
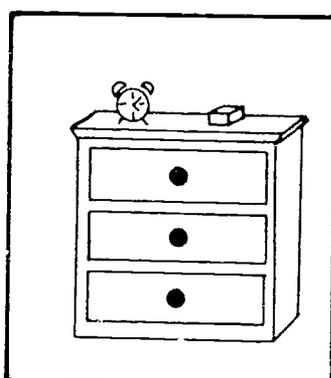
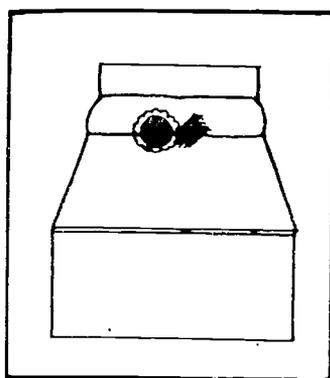
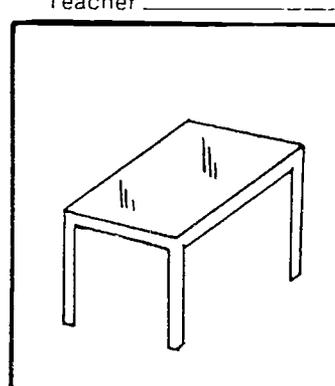
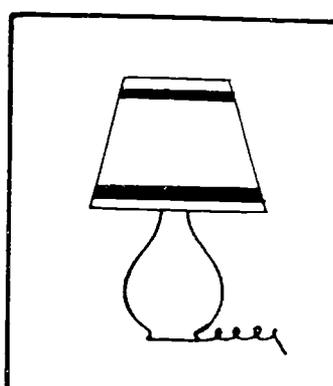
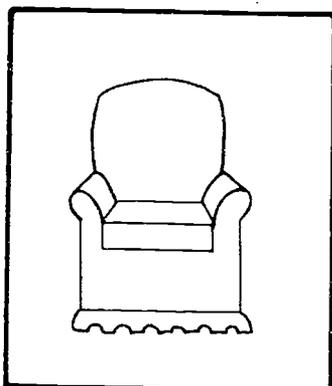
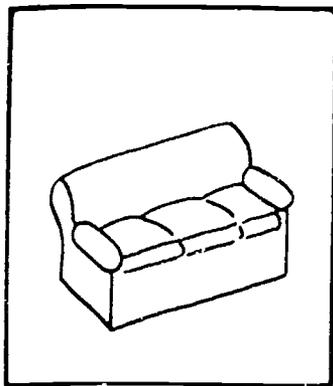


17. Furnishings

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____

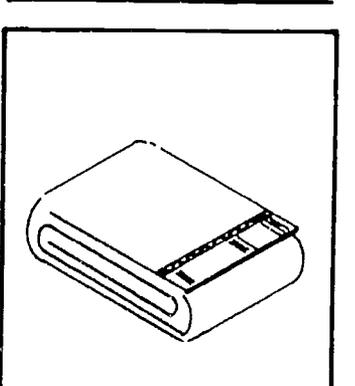
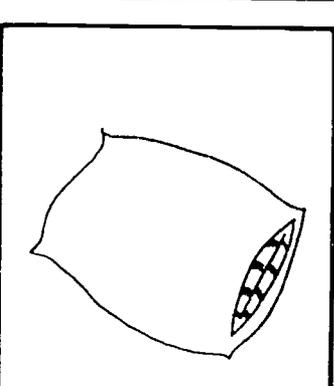
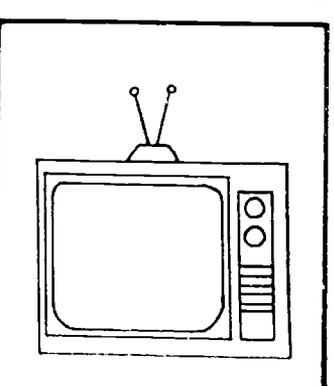
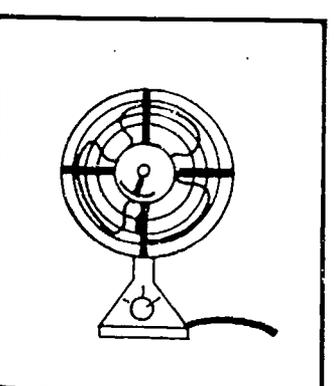
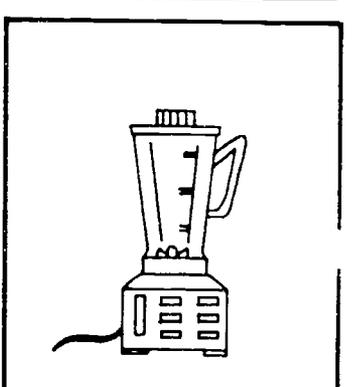
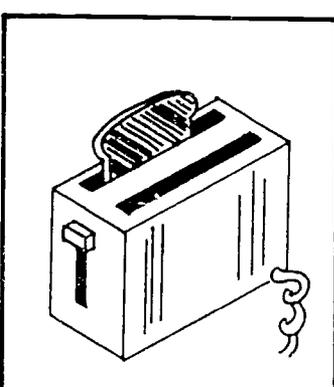
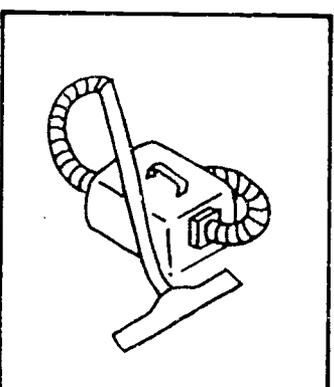
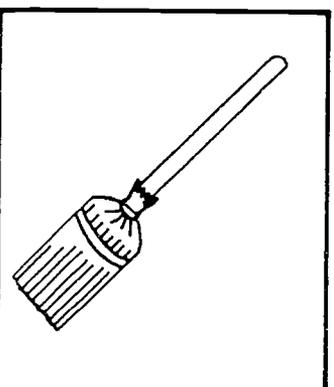
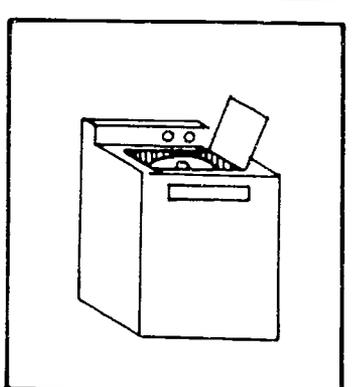
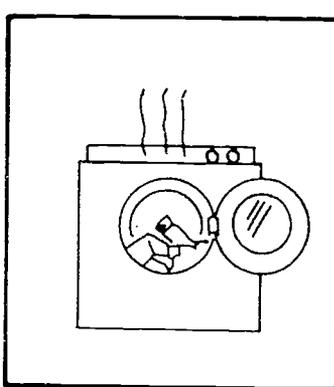
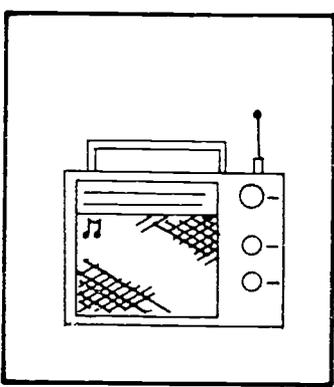
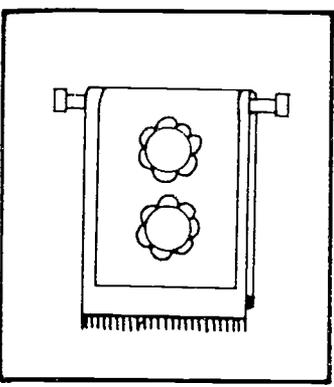
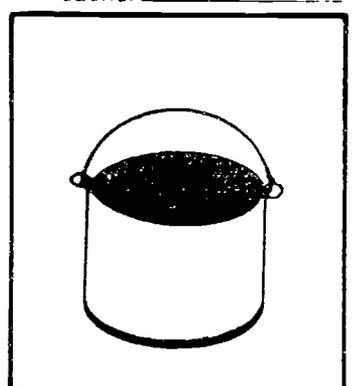
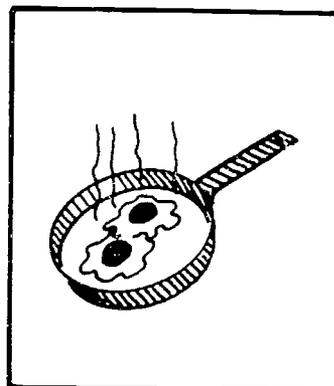
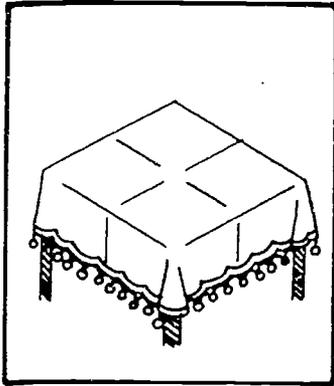


18. Household Items

Name _____

Date _____

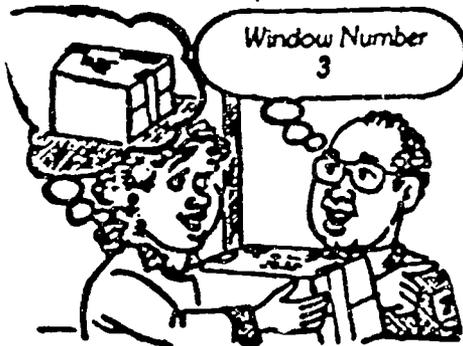
Teacher _____



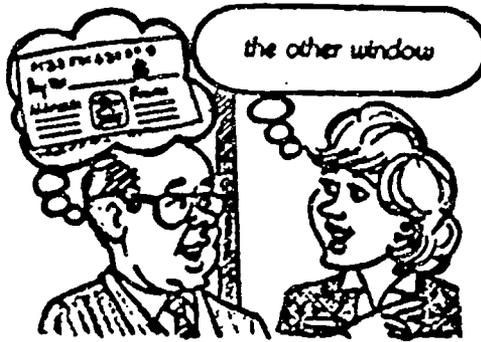
I Want to Buy Some Stamps, Please



- A. I want to buy some stamps, please.
- B. I'm sorry. You're at the wrong window. You can buy stamps at Window Number 2.
- A. Window Number 2?
- B. Yes.
- A. Thank you.



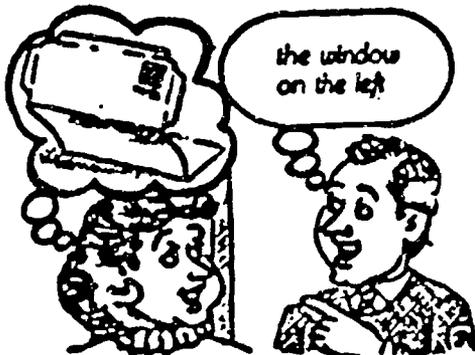
1. mail a package



2. buy a money order



3. send a registered letter



buy an aerogramme



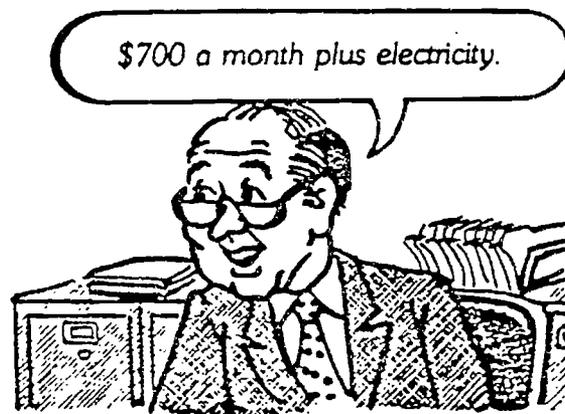
5. file a change of address form



Now present your own conversations.

72

How Much Is the Rent?



- A. How much is the rent?
B. \$700 a month plus electricity.
A. \$700 a month plus electricity?
B. That's right. Do you want to see the apartment?
A. Yes.



1.



2.



3.



4.

Orientation Notes: INFORMATION ABOUT RENTING

Read and discuss.

Rent

1. You have to pay the rent every month, usually on the first day of the month. Pay on time. Don't pay late.
2. Pay cash or pay by check or money order. Get a *receipt*.
3. The *landlord (manager)* can raise your rent. He has to tell you one month before.
4. Sometimes you have to pay more rent if a lot of people live in your apartment.
5. Most apartments are unfurnished, but they have a stove and a refrigerator. In a few apartments you have to buy or rent a stove and refrigerator. Furnished apartments have more furniture and you have to pay more rent.

Deposit

1. You have to pay a *deposit* before you move in.
2. The landlord gives you back your deposit when you move away.
3. The landlord can keep your deposit money if you move away and you don't pay the rent, or you break something, or your apartment is very dirty, or you don't tell the landlord 30 days before you move.

Utilities and telephone

1. *Utilities* are gas and electric service.
2. Sometimes the landlord pays the utilities; usually you have to pay.
3. When you move in, call the gas company and the electric company to turn on your service. You usually have to pay a deposit.
4. Go to the telephone company to get a telephone for your house or apartment. You usually have to pay a deposit.

Lease

1. Some apartments have a *lease*.
2. A lease is a paper you sign when you move in. You say you will stay for one year. If you move away before one year, you can lose your deposit.

Moving

1. Tell the landlord 30 days before you move.
2. Clean your apartment.
3. Ask the landlord to give you back your deposit.
4. Tell the gas company, the electric company, the telephone company, and the post office that you are moving.

"For Rent" Signs

Read these signs and answer the questions.



FOR RENT
1 Bedroom Apt.
\$ 195
Call 255-1276

How much is the rent?



APARTMENT
FOR RENT
1 Bedroom
\$ 220
NO CHILDREN - NO PETS
See Manager Apt. 1

Does the apartment take children?



FOR RENT
2BR APT.
\$325
CHILDREN OK
Call 565-3674

How many bedrooms
does the apartment have?



VACANCY
STUDIO APT.
FURNISHED
\$ 185
ADULTS ONLY
SEE MGR. APT. A

Who can I talk to
about this apartment?



FOR RENT
3BR HOUSE
\$ 550
AVAILABLE JULY 1
453-6117

When can I move in?



APARTMENT
FOR RENT
1 BEDROOM
INQUIRE #2

NO VACANCY

Is the apartment available now?

Rental Application

Sometimes when you want to move into an apartment, you have to fill out an application. Fill out this practice application.

APPLICATION TO RENT			
Name		Social Security No.	
Date of birth	Driver's License No.	State	Home phone
Present address		How long lived there	
Manager's name	Mgr. phone	Reason for moving	
Previous address (your address before)		How long lived there	
Manager's name	Mgr. phone	Reason for moving	
LIST OF OCCUPANTS (INCLUDE YOURSELF)			
Name	Age	Name	Age
EMPLOYMENT			
Present occupation		How long worked there	
Employer's name and address			
Previous occupation		How long worked there	
Employer's name and address			
Income	Name of your bank		
\$	week month	Address	Account No.
In case of emergency notify Name		Address	Phone Relationship
Date	Signature		

Money

Goals:

- o To know the name and value of basic denominations of paper bills and coins
- o To know the idiomatic words for these denominations (buck, quarter, dime, etc.)
- o To do basic addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of money

Activity Idea

- o Explain and demonstrate to the class the method used for counting back change after a purchase (i.e., say the price first, count change to the nearest dollar, count bills out to the amount tendered). Then play "store". Students can bring items from home with which to play. Have all students count mentally to "check" their change while the cashier counts aloud.
- o Play "The Price is Right" using pictures of objects from catalogues. The person guessing the closest amount without exceeding the price is the winner.

Talking about prices (text, page 100)

D Money! How do you say these amounts of money? Write the correct letter from column B next to the price in column A. If you're in class, practice saying the amounts with a partner.

- A
1. \$4.99 _____
 2. \$22.50 _____
 3. \$1.79 _____
 4. \$.65 _____
 5. \$17.99 _____
 6. \$2.25 _____
 7. \$14.09 _____
 8. \$.12 _____
 9. \$6.15 _____
 10. \$9.01 _____

- B
- a. "six fifteen"
 - b. "twelve cents"
 - c. "fourteen oh-nine"
 - d. "seventeen ninety-nine"
 - e. "two twenty-five"
 - f. "a dollar seventy-nine"
 - g. "nine oh-one"
 - h. "sixty-five cents"
 - i. "twenty-two fifty"
 - j. "four ninety-nine"

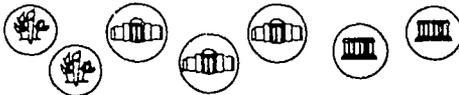
E Money, money, money! Look at the pictures and write how much money you see.

Example

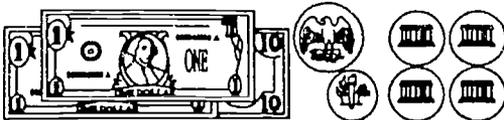


seventy-five cents (.75)

1.  _____

2.  _____

3.  _____

4.  _____

5.  _____

Newspaper

Goals

- o To be aware of sections of the newspaper that might be of use, such as the weather, classified and entertainment sections
- o To read entertainment schedules, weather information (equate F_o to C_o)
- o To read classified information on essential items such as housing

Activity Ideas

- o Ask your local newspaper to donate enough copies for each class member to have one. Keep them in the class and design many lessons around the paper. You can have lessons on many topics of SURVIVAL ENGLISH AND COMMUNITY ACCLIMATION/RESOURCES. Begin by locating various parts of the paper - news, classified ads, weather, sports, entertainment. One lesson might be built totally around the food section highlighting names of foods, prices, sizes, and playing store using actual money to "shop" for items.
- o Take a field trip to the newspaper.

JOB ADS IN NEWSPAPERS

LOOK AT THESE NEWSPAPER ADS.

Answer the questions. Write "That's right." or "That's wrong."

<p>CASHIER, EXPERIENCED Boutique. Full time. Call Mr. Johnson at 688-8836 wkdays aft 10.</p>	<p>DENTAL ASSISTANT Experienced x/rays, etc., part time Mon., Wed., & Thurs. 60's&5th Ave. Call 737-0630</p>
<p>CLERK H.S. Grad. good with figures. some office exp. necess. Miss White 354-4130.</p>	<p>DRIVER P/T or F/T To make morning deliveries w/station wagon & work behind counter in ice cream store afternoons. Call 10AM-4PM 766-9003.</p>
<p>COOK Upper westside restrnt needs exper'd nite cook, full or part time. Call bet 10am&12am: 799-5100</p>	<p>FILE CLERK No exp necessary Downtown Call Miss Diamond 425-8762.</p>
<p>DELIVERY PERSON Using small truck, covering metro area; 5dys. 8-5; 1 hr lunch. steady job. 691-3880.</p>	<p>TAILOR P/T, F/T. Dry Cleaning Store. Lynbrook Loc. Call (Eve Betw 7&9) 471-3115.</p>

- A. The cashier's job is full time. That's right.
- B. You need experience for the file clerk's job. _____
- C. You need a car to be a delivery person. _____
- D. You can call at 2 P.M. for the cook's job. _____
- E. You can call Mr. Johnson for the clerk's job. _____
- F. You can call on Saturday at 10 A.M. for the cashier's job. _____
- G. The tailor's job is two hours a day. _____
- H. You need a high school diploma for the clerk's job. _____
- I. The tailor's job is in a dry cleaning store. _____
- J. You need office experience for the clerk's job. _____

USED FURNITURE

A.

HOME 115 FURNISHINGS	120 HOME APPLIANCES	125 TV RADIO HI-FI
BED, double. Maple frame \$75. Good cond. Drssr. 6 drws. 479-2223. (\$65)	WSHR/DRYR. 2 yrs. gd cond. 744 6731 Eve.	T V Hitachi 19" port color w/stand \$295 749-0887
SOFABED. & chair \$200. Bkcase \$25. Tbl & 4 chrs \$80 Moving to Florida. Must sell 772-9763	SEW Mach Sing 774. Spec feat. \$250. Gd. Cond. 661-6766	REALISTIC Stereo good cond \$200 call 551-6644 Eves
BED. King. Make offer 323-4471	REFRIG Gen Elec no frost \$180. Washer G E \$80. 886-0900	21" color TV \$150 UHF old but top quality. 991-3345

B.

BED, double Maple frame
\$75 Good cond Drssr 6 drws
479 2223 (\$65)

How much is the double bed?

How much is the dresser?

Is the bed in good condition?

How many drawers are there in the dresser?

WORDWISE

cond. = condition

drssr. = dresser

drws. = drawers

C.

SEW Mach Sing 774 Spec
feat. \$250. Gd. Cond.
661-6766

What is the company name of this machine?

What is the model number?

Is the condition good?

How much is it?

What number do you call?

WORDWISE

Sew. = sewing
Mach. = machine

Sing. = Singer
744 model number

Spec. = special
Feat. = features

Gd. = good
Cond. = condition

D.

T V Hitachi 19" port color
w/stand \$295 749 0887

What is the name brand of the T.V.?

What size screen does it have?

Is it a color T.V.?

What comes with the set?

WORDWISE

port. = portable

w = with

Have students bring in actual ads from the classified section of the newspaper.

Paying Bills

Goals:

- o To read and understand bills
- o To understand ways of paying bills (by mail via check or money order or in person by cash, check, or money order)
- o To understand the consequences of not paying bills on time
- o To know locations for paying bills in person

Activity Ideas

- o Hands-on practice of reading actual bills is suggested.
- o Find locations for paying bills in person and talk about them in class.

COMMUNITY 14

State _____

Zip code _____

- A. Can I pay my gas and electric bill here?
B. Yes, you can.
A. How much is the service charge?
B. 50¢. Let me see your bill.
It's \$44.00. The total is \$44.50.

191567823001	7613 Main St.	Total \$39.28
Pirate Gas and Electric Co. Service from 7-28 to 8-28		
Gas 26 Therms		12.56
Elec. 258 KWHR		26.05
Gas Franchise Fee		.13
Elec. Franchise Fee		.54
Due Sept. 22, 1984		<u>Total \$39.28</u>

1. How much is the bill? _____
2. When is it due? _____
3. Who is it from? _____

Personal Information

Goals:

- o To recognize in English, in both spoken and written forms, the personal information words most commonly requested on school documents, driving documents, emergency forms, service contracts, etc.
- o To give the appropriate information in understandable English, and the correct spelling of important words such as the family name which will be used for all family members as U. S. tradition requires
- o To know vocabulary to describe family relationships

Activity Ideas

- o Divide students into small groups (3,4,5). Have them each be a family member. Take turns having one person in the "family" introduce his "family" to another group.
- o Have students interview each other for specific personal information, then share the information with the class.
- o Have students bring a picture of their family. Each one can tell about the people in the picture. Then make a family tree (teacher uses own pictures and family as an example) and tell name of relations. Use poster paper and felt pens to make it fun. This can be the beginning of a writing activity in which students can write about their families.

NAME ORDER DIFFERENCES

When working on personal information and filling out applications, it should be pointed out that last names are placed in a different order in the U.S. than they are in Spanish-speaking societies.

NAME ORDER IN THE U.S. :

JOE LOUIS
 middle name

<u>O'BRIEN</u> last name (father's)

NAME ORDER IN LATINO COUNTRIES:

JOSE LOPEZ
 last name
 (father's)

<u>HERNANDEZ</u> last name (mother's)

Remind them that the FATHER'S LAST NAME is the last name used in this country.

FOR WOMEN ONLY:

Latino women often keep their maiden names. If this is the case, they should be consistent when filling out forms in the U.S. They should be informed about the American custom of a wife changing her last name to that of her husband (ie. Juan Lopez and his wife Maria Lopez). Many Americans would assume that a wife who's filling out forms with her husband uses his last name as well, when this may not be the case.

Your students' documents can become hopelessly confused and inconsistent if they don't understand this basic difference in name order.

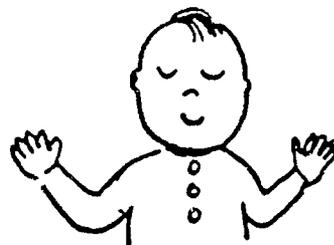
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FILL OUT THE FORM 1

NAME _____			
LAST		FIRST	
ADDRESS _____			
_____ () _____			
CITY	STATE	ZIP CODE	TELEPHONE
DATE OF BIRTH		PLACE OF BIRTH	

PRACTICE

1. ADDRESS
2. NAME
3. TELEPHONE
4. BIRTH DATE
5. ZIP CODE
6. AGE



1. His birthdate is May 5, 1945.
His date of birth is 5/5/45.
His age is _____.

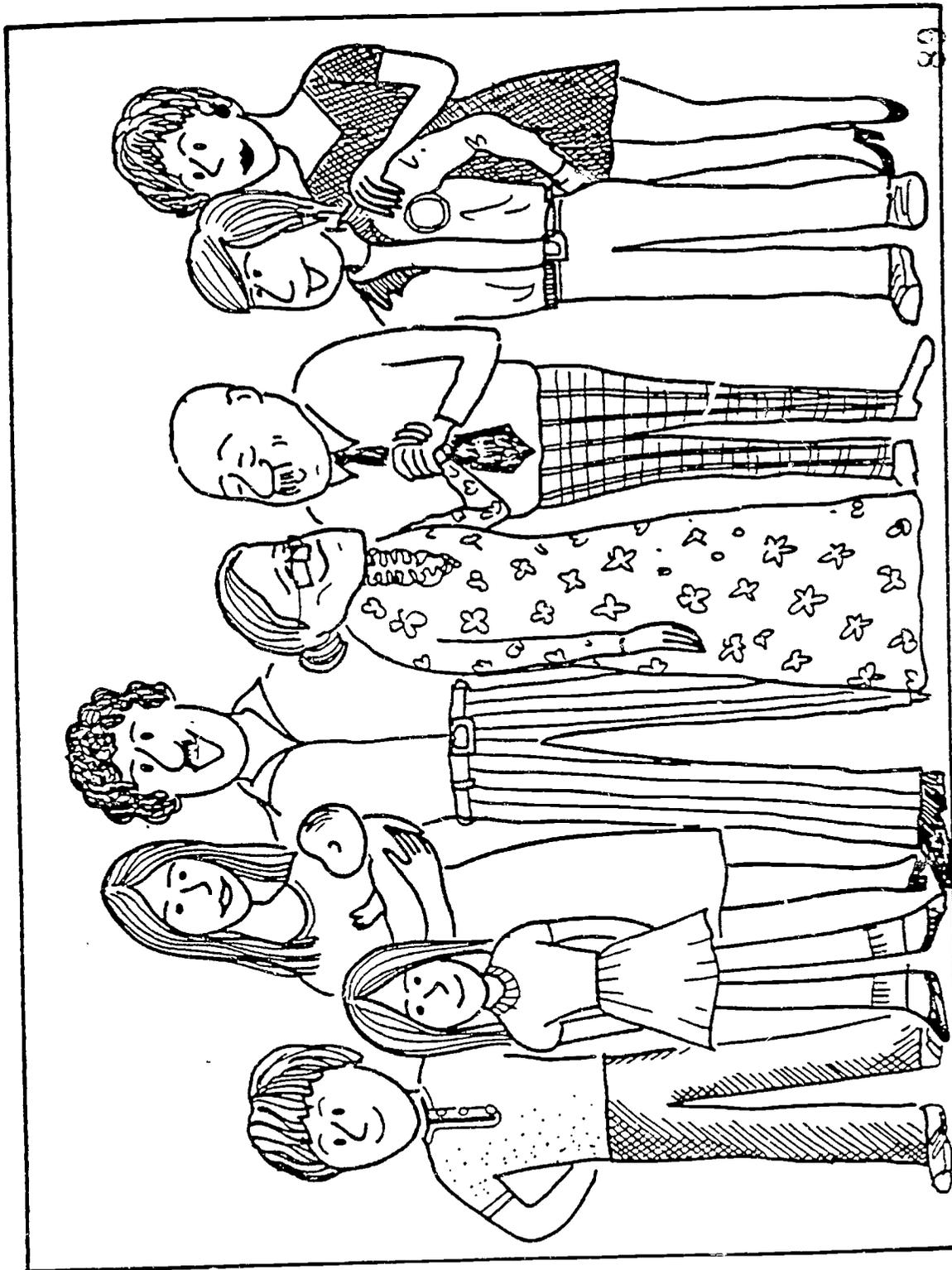
3. His birthdate is March 4, 1981.
His date of birth is 3/4/81.
His age is _____.

2. Her birthdate is June 9, 1948.
Her date of birth is 6/9/48.
Her age is _____.

My date of birth is _____.
My birthdate is _____.
My age is _____.

BIRTHDATE _____
DATE OF BIRTH _____
AGE _____

THE FAMILY



ENGLISH FOR ADULT COMPETENCY I

Post Office

Goals:

- o To know the location of the post office
- o To know the cost of a stamp
- o To know how to obtain a post office box
- o To know what general delivery means and that it is available
- o To know about rural route delivery
- o To know what other services of the Postal Service are available (Selective Service, mailing packages and mailing letters internationally, purchasing money orders, and how to solve mail problems)
- o To know hours of operation

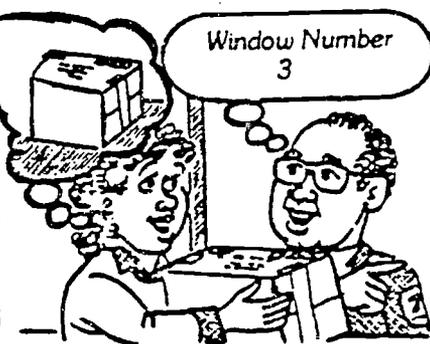
Activity Ideas

- o Using a scale, weigh paper, envelopes, etc.
- o Play post office. Purchase stamps, weigh letters and packages, determine needed postage.
- o Practice wrapping a package according to postal regulations.

I Want to Buy Some Stamps, Please



- A. I want to buy some stamps, please.
- B. I'm sorry. You're at the wrong window. You can buy stamps at Window Number 2.
- A. Window Number 2?
- B. Yes.
- A. Thank you.



1. mail a package



2. buy a money order



3. send a registered letter



buy an aerogramme



5. file a change of address form



Now present your own conversations.

INTERCHANGE

I'd Like to Mail This Package

- A. I'd like to mail this package.
B. Where's it going?
A. To Detroit.
B. How do you want to send it?
A. First class, please.
B. Do you want to insure it?
A. Hmm. I don't know.
B. Well, is it valuable?
A. Yes, it is. It's a camera I'm sending to my brother. Please insure it for fifty dollars (\$50).
B. All right. That's four dollars and thirty-seven cents (\$4.37), please.



- A. I'd like to mail this package.
B. Where's it going?
A. To _____.
B. How do you want to send it?
A. First class, please.
B. Do you want to insure it?
A. Hmm. I don't know.
B. Well, is it valuable?
A. Yes, it is. It's a _____ I'm sending to _____.
Please insure it for _____ dollars.
B. All right. That's _____ dollars and _____ cents, please.

You're mailing a package at the post office. Create an original conversation using the model dialog above as a guide. Feel free to adapt and expand the model any way you wish.

Telephone

Goals:

- o To give personal information over the phone
- o To ask for information and leave messages
- o To get information from the phone book
- o To ask for directory assistance
- o To use common greetings (telephone manners)
- o To use a pay phone
- o To understand a phone bill and the system of long distance carriers (Sprint, AT&T, etc.)
- o To know emergency numbers, and how to use them

Activity Ideas

- o A set of real phones may be available from the phone company to use for instruction, or make paper cup phones for fun.
- o Using a telephone book, discuss the various sections, how they are set up (alphabetical order, etc.). Have the students look up the number of a familiar person or place in the community.
- o Practice a conversation, set up phones in different rooms, have students practice the conversation over the phone.
- o Have students request information from each other over the phone.
- o Set up a person for your students to call for information.

Hello, It's For You

- A. Hello.
- B. Hello. This is Bill. Is Tom there?
- A. Yes. Just a minute, please.
Tom, it's for you.



PRACTICE

Just a minute, please.
moment
second

Tom, it's for you.
me.
him.
her.
us.
them.

Is Sue There?

- A. Hello.
- B. Hello. Is Sue there?
- A. No, she's not. May I take a message?
- B. Yes. This is Tom. Please tell her
I'll call later.
- A. All right, I will. Goodbye.



PRACTICE

Tell her I'll call later.
tomorrow.
next week.
back.

I'll call her next week.
You'll
He'll
She'll
They'll

ENGLISH FOR ADULT COMPETENCY I

I'm Sorry. You Have the Wrong Number



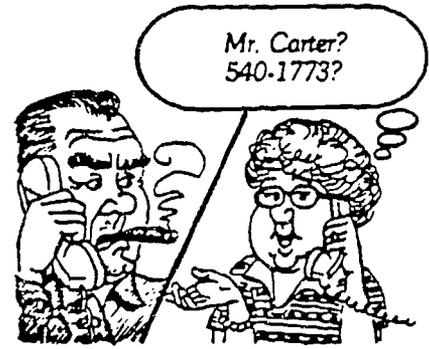
- A. Hello.
- B. Hello, Fred?
- A. I'm sorry. You have the wrong number.
- B. Is this 328-7178?
- A. No, it isn't.
- B. Oh. Sorry.



1.



2.



3.



4.



5.



Now present your own conversations.

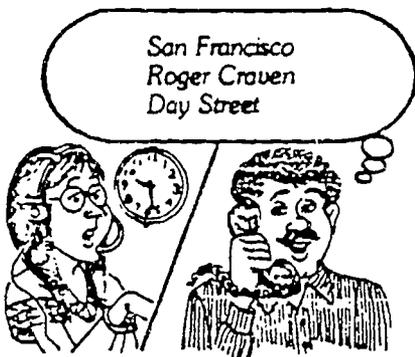
EXPRESSWAYS

I'd Like the Number of Mary Nielson



863-4227

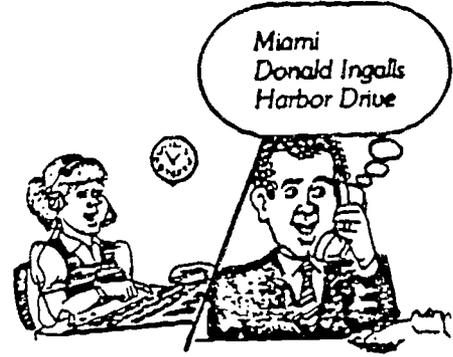
- A. Directory assistance. What city?
- B. Chicago. I'd like the number of Mary Nielson.
- A. How do you spell that?
- B. N-I-E-L-S-O-N.
- A. What street?
- B. Hudson Avenue.
- A. Just a moment . . . The number is 863-4227.



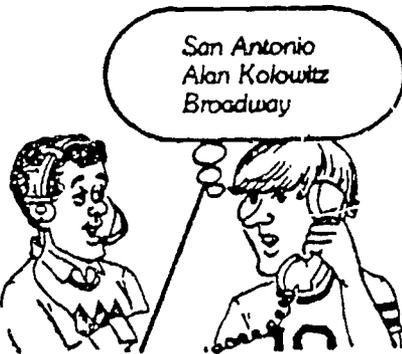
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2. 747-6360



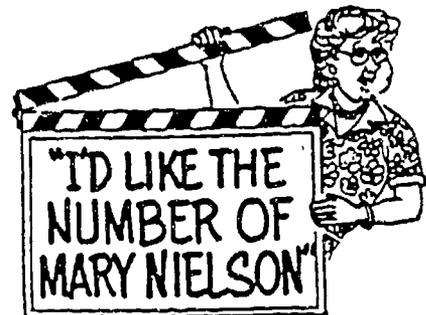
3. 237-8044



4. 328-1191



5. 623-7575



Now present your own conversations.

Transportation

Goals:

- o To learn basic vocabulary for transportation modes (bus, train, airplane)
- o To understanding tickets (one way, round trip)
- o To understanding cost of ticket (adult, minor, senior citizen)
- o To read a schedule
- o To know locations of stations, airports, bus stops
- o To understand time for departure and arrival
- o To know how to make a reservation/cancellation in advance
- o To know how to use a taxi and pay the fare

Activity Idea

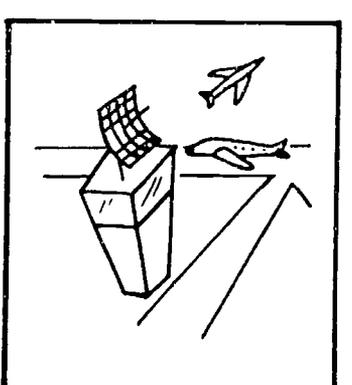
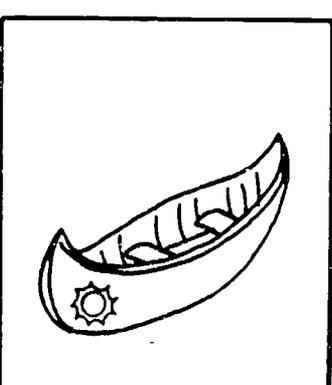
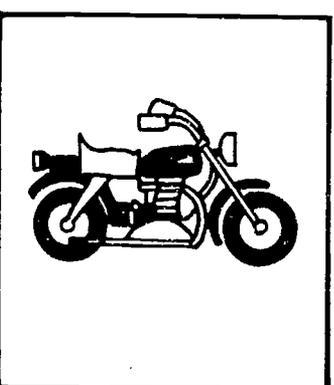
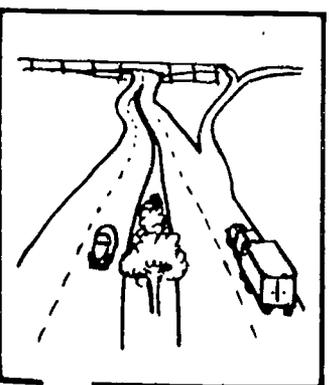
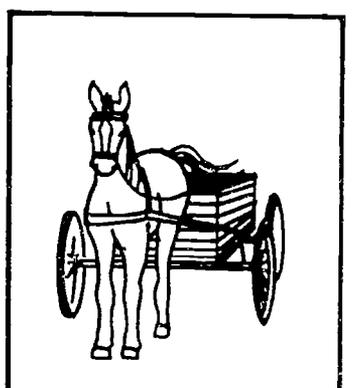
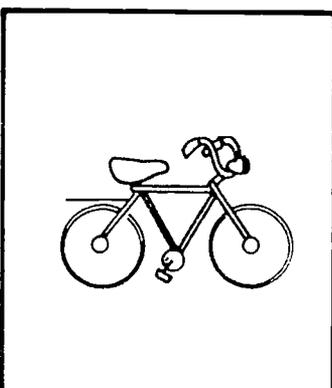
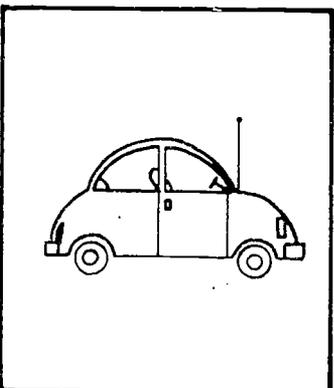
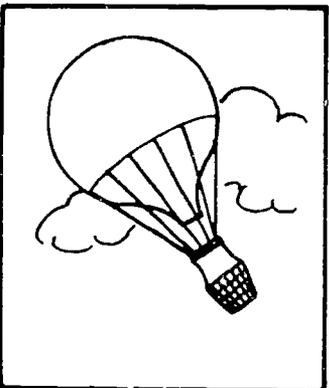
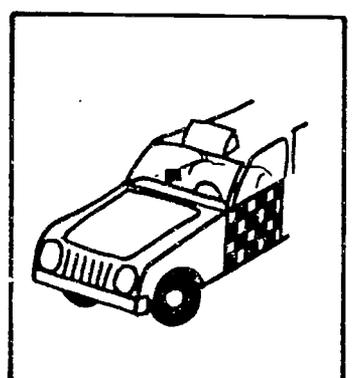
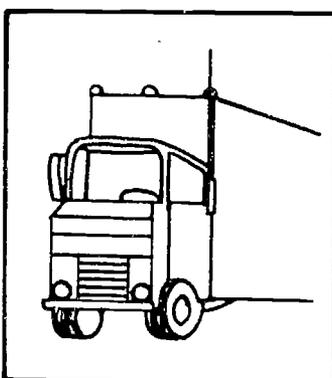
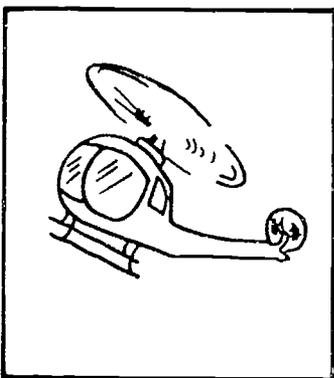
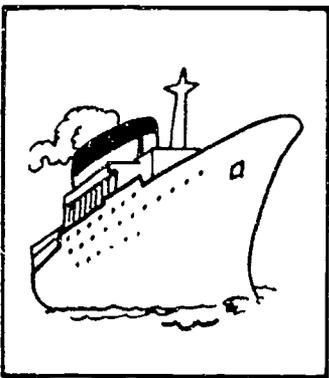
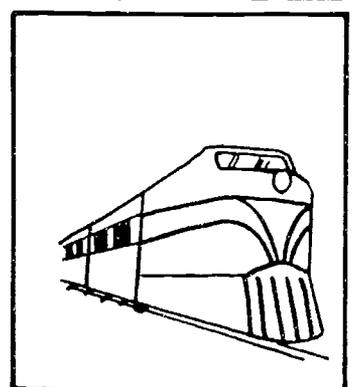
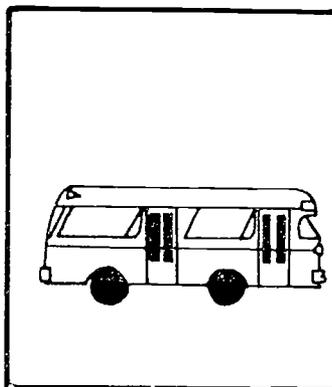
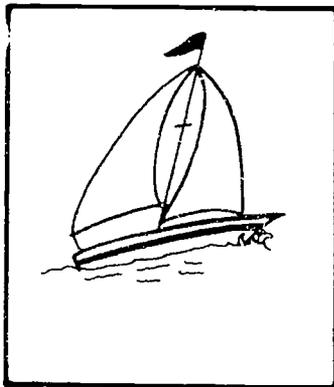
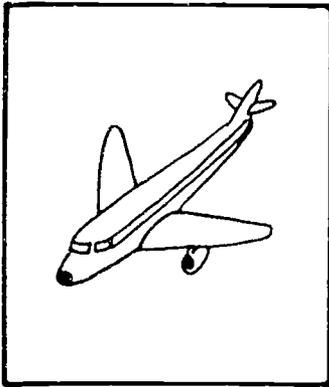
- o On a large flat surface, draw streets, bus stations, airports, highways, etc. for use by buses, cars, trains, trucks, airplanes. Use actual toys to "drive, fly, land, stop, go, etc." around the town. Play "transportation", buy tickets, pay fares, read a schedule, travel in and out, and around town.

19. Transportation

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



WHERE'S THE BUS STOP?

R ST.

SCHOOL

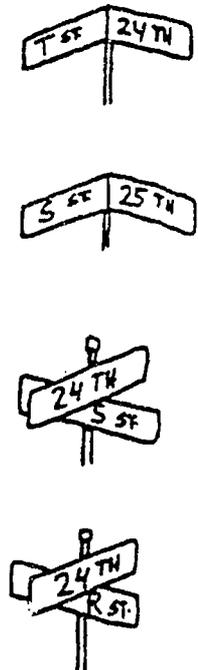
HOSPITAL

24TH ST.

25TH ST.

T ST.

PRACTICE



Gus Always Takes the Bus

Gus always takes the bus.

Why?

Gus always takes the bus.

Why?

Why does he take the bus?

Because he loves it.

He loves it.

Elaine always takes the plane.

Why?

Elaine always takes the plane.

Why?

Why does she take the plane?

Because she likes it.

She likes it.

Jane never takes the train.

Why not?

Jane never takes the train.

Why not?

Why doesn't she take the train?

Because she hates it.

She hates it.

Mike always rides his bike.

Why?

Mike always rides his bike.

Why?

Why does he ride his bike?

Because he loves it.

He loves it.

(FROM: Jazz Chants for Children by Carolyn Graham
Oxford University Press)

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

**"Tell me,
I forget.
Show me.
I remember.
Involve me.
I understand.**

Ancient Chinese Proverb

THE NATURAL APPROACH IN THE CLASSROOM

The Natural Approach is designed to develop basic communication skills. The developmental stages are: (1) Comprehension (preproduction), (2) Early Production, and (3) Speech Emergence. This approach to teaching language has been proven to be particularly effective with limited English proficient students.

STAGE I COMPREHENSION

In order to maximize opportunities for comprehension experiences, Natural Approach instructors (1) create activities designed to teach students to recognize the meaning of words used in meaningful contexts, and (2) teach students to guess at the meaning of phrases without knowing all of the words and structures of the sentences.

- a. ALWAYS USE VISUAL AIDS (pictures, realia, gestures).
- b. MODIFY YOUR SPEECH to aid comprehension, speak more slowly, emphasize key words, simplify vocabulary and grammar, use related ideas, do not talk out of context.
- c. DO NOT FORCE PRODUCTION. Students will use English when they are ready. They sometimes experience a "silent period" which can last days or weeks.
- d. FOCUS ATTENTION ON KEY VOCABULARY.

Teacher Activities in the Comprehension Stage.

- a. Total Physical Response (TPR). The teacher gives commands to which the students react with their bodies as well as their brains.
- b. Supplying meaningful input based on items in the classroom or brought to class. (Who has the _____? Who is wearing a _____?)
- c. Supplying meaningful input based on pictures.

Student Responses in the Comprehension Stage.

- a. An action (TPR).
- b. The name of a fellow student (from b., c. above)
- c. Gestures
- d. Students say yes/no in English.
- e. Students point to item or picture.
- f. Children do not initially make many attempts to communicate using words; rather they indicate their comprehension nonverbally.

THE NATURAL APPROACH IN THE CLASSROOMStage 2 EARLY SPEECH

In non-threatening environments, students move voluntarily into Stage 2. Stage 2 begins when students begin using English words to give:

- a. yes/no answers
- b. one-word answers
- c. lists of words
- d. two word strings and short phrases

The following are instructor question techniques to encourage the transition from Stage 1 to Stage 2.

- a. Yes/no questions (Is Jimmy wearing a sweater today?)
- b. Choice questions (Is this a pencil or an eraser?)
- c. Questions which can be answered with a single word. (What does the woman have in her hand? Book, Where, When, Who?)
- d. General questions which encourage lists of words. (What do we see on the table now?)
- e. Open sentence with pause for student response. (Mike is wearing a blue shirt, but Ron is wearing a _____ shirt.)

During the Early Speech Stage, the instructor must give meaningful and understandable input which will encourage the transition to Stage 3. Therefore all student responses should be expanded if possible. Here is a sample exchange between the teacher and the class:

Instructor: What do we see in this picture?

Class: Woman.

Instructor: Yes, there is a woman in this picture. Is there a man?

Class: Yes

Instructor: Yes, there is. There is a woman and a man. Where is the man?

Class: Car

Instructor: Yes, that's right. The man is in a car. Is he driving the car?

Class: Yes

Instructor: Yes, he is. He's driving the car.

Other sorts of activities which can be used in Early Speech Stage:

- a. open dialogues
- b. guided interviews
- c. open-ended sentences
- d. charts, tables, graphs
- e. newspaper ads

THE NATURAL APPROACH IN THE CLASSROOMStage 3 SPEECH EMERGENCE

In the Speech Emergence Stage, speech production will normally improve in both quantity and quality. The sentences that the students produce become longer, more complex and they use a wider range of vocabulary. Finally, the number of errors will slowly decrease.

Students need to be given the opportunity to use oral and written language whenever possible. When they reach the stage in which speech is emerging beyond the two-word stage, there are many sorts of activities which will foster more comprehension and speech. Some suggestions are:

- a. preference ranking
- b. games of all sorts
- c. problem-solving using charts, tables, graphs, maps
- d. advertisements and signs
- e. group discussion
- f. skits (finger plays, flannel boards, puppets)
- g. music, radio, television, film strips, slides
- h. writing exercises (especially Language Experience Approach)
- i. reading
- j. culture

In general, we may classify language acquisition activities as those in which the focus is on the message, i.e., meaning. These may be of four types:

1. content (culture, subject matter, new information, reading)
2. affective-humanistic (student's own ideas, opinions, experiences)
3. games (focus on using language to participate in the game)
4. problem-solving (focus on using language to locate information)

(From: T.D. Terrell, Department of Linguistics, University of California, San Diego)

Suggested Methods in Teaching Through
Total Physical Response

I. Orientation

To introduce and motivate the class you might:

- o have a translator briefly explain the theory behind the method
- o show a documentary film of students learning through TPR, or
- o say commands rapidly in English and announce in the student's language(s) that by the end of the class everyone will understand everything you just said.

II. Preparation

Before you begin each unit or lesson:

- o have a detailed outline or script of the elements you will teach, the various combinations and recombinations of elements, many commands, and a strategy for varying from individuals to small and large group involvement;
- o get props together and have them handy;
- o arrange the class so that there is a large space for the action and so that everyone can see (possibly a semi-circle).

III. Classroom Procedure

A. The Receptive Stage

1. The Method (taken from Teaching English Through Action)

- a. Demonstration - the students listen and respond to commands modeled by the instructor.
 - (1) Instructor commands and models with the entire group
 - (2) Instructor commands and models with 2-3 or 4-6 students
 - (3) Instructor commands and models with 1 student.
- b. Group responds to commands without instructor.
- c. Group of 3-5 students responds to commands without instructor.
- d. Individual student responds to commands without instructor.

- e. Instructor recombines old and new commands and models with the group.
 - (1) Group responds to recombined commands without instructor;
 - (2) 2-3 students respond to recombined commands:
 - without instructor modeling
 - without instructor.
2. Progression of Commands - The steps in the development of a unit look something like this...
 - a. Simple actions ("walk", "jump")
 - b. Simple actions involving objects and locations ("walk to the door")
 - c. Recombinations of actions and objects ("walk to the chair" "touch the chair")
 - d. Recombinations of actions and objects involving transferring meaning to a new situation ("shake your head" "shake my hand")
 - e. Chains of actions leading into an activity sequence ("Take the can", "Open the can", "Pour the water" ... "Drink the lemonade").
3. Some Pointers
 - a. Model 'clean' responses to commands so that students will not pick up extraneous gestures that are false to the meaning of the command. (For example, don't swivel your head and then turn around with the command "turn".)
 - b. Novel commands (new combinations of elements already mastered keep interest high and enhance self-confidence as students realize they have understood something never quite heard before.)
 - c. Introduce new vocabulary 3 items at a time and proceed only after students are responding confidently.
 - d. If students do not grasp a new item after a few trials, drop it until a future time. (For example, students may not be able to transfer from "point to the corner of your eye" to "walk to the corner of the room".)
 - e. When commanding individuals, call on confident students. Sometimes invite volunteers by saying "one student". A shy student may jump up and carry out a command because he or she was the first to understand it.
 - f. Keep varying who you call on by asking all the women, all the students on the right side, near the window, in row one, from Cuba. This keeps the students alert, never knowing who you will call on next.
 - g. Keep changing the order of commands to increase listening attention.

B. The Expressive Stage (Speaking)

1. After about 10 hours of TPR the students will begin to reveal a readiness to speak by mouthing or mumbling your commands out loud. At this point you can:
 - a. Invite the students to command the teacher, other students, or the whole group;
 - b. Ask questions that involve yes or no answers ("Look at the clock", "Is it 5 o'clock?");
 - c. Progress to questions involving one word answers ("Go home", "Where's he going?").
2. Students will begin to lengthen their answers as they hear and assimilate more. They will improve word order and pronunciation through closer and closer approximations of what they hear.
3. As students become more proficient, the instructor can add substitution drills, transformation drills, dialogues, and conversations.

C. The Expressive Stage (Written)

1. The instructor can give out study papers after a few lessons with the words used in class, demonstrating and saying each of the words. The students use the papers as they wish. This is good for those students who wish to have it "down".
2. For illiterate students or very basic beginners, numbers and simple words can be manipulated on cards ("put number 5 in front of number 2). Commands can also include blackboard tasks ("Circle the date" or "Write your name next to number 1").
3. Reading and Writing lessons can increase in complexity as the students progress.

UN Parts Of The Body

REVIEW: stand, sit, turn, jump, walk

PROPS: pictures, (B.P.Faces), SKELETON bandaids, aspirin, hyperdermic, BP cuff, mirror, stethoscope
medicine, ointment

Nouns	Verbs and Verb Phrases	Pronouns	Prepositions	Adjectives	Adverbs	Conjunctions	Interjection
head eye(s) mouth ear(s) nose chin cheek hair eyebrow(s) neck shoulder(s) arms(s) elbow(s) hand(s) finger(s) leg(s) knee(s) ankle(s) stomach chest back hips tongue throat bones wrists heart mirror fever flu cold bandage bandaid medicine shot cut temperature ache lip(s)	touch look rub scratch put shake raise step hurt draw pull cut wash bleed burn break take feel listen fall give squeeze stick out say kiss hold	yours my his her their yourself	on in over under behind in front of near next to with around	right left bad tired happy sick well find better good pregnant broken sore	gently carefully	and	Ah! Ouch!

Coordination with texts, filmstrips.....Hepburn and Cabrera filmstrip on Parts of the Body, Everyday English unit on Health

Grammar points.....Present continuous tense..."You're stepping on my foot".
Present tense..."I have a cold."
Past tense....."I cut my leg".

UNIT: Lesson on Following Directions - Drawing a Halloween Picture

REVIEW: All

PROPS: Paper and Pencils

Nouns	Verbs and Verb Phrases	Pronouns	Prepositions	Adjectives	Adverbs	Conjunctions	Interjections
moon stars witch broom sky ghost .cat fence pumpkin ground bottom paper seven anem left side) noun) with right side) modifier	riding draw write	your	on above on top of in front of in near at of under on the top of				

Coordination with texts, filmstrip

Grammar points.....

Dialogues

Role play activities

Field trips

Other extensions with games, stories, songs, drawings ...

Halloween Puzzle

Halloween Song

Written Exercises - Students write about story in present time

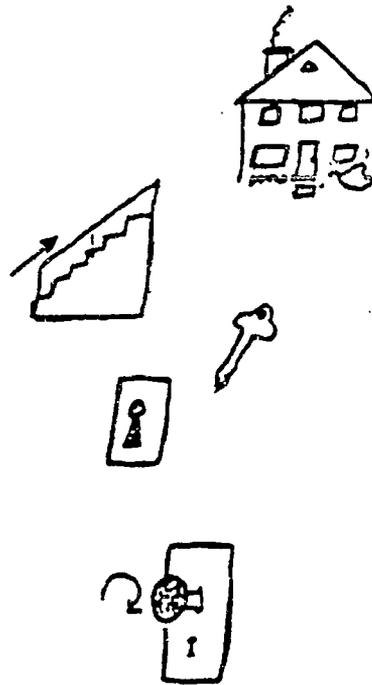
Steps in developing lesson

1. Draw a fence at the bottom of the paper.
2. Draw a cat on top of the fence.
3. Draw a pumpkin on the ground in front of the fence.
4. Draw a ghost above the fence.
5. Draw a moon at the top of the left side of the paper.
6. Draw a witch riding a broom in the sky near the moon.
7. Draw seven stars in the sky.
8. Write your name on the fence under the cat.

from Live Action English ...

GETTING HOME

1. Go home.
2. Walk upstairs.
3. Take out your key.
4. Put it in the keyhole.
5. Unlock the door.
6. Put the key away.
7. Turn the doorknob.
8. Open the door.
9. Go in.
10. Close the door.
11. Lock it.
12. Turn on the light.
13. Sit down and rest.



How to Use Dialogues or Conversations

For the non-English speaking migrant, we are teaching essential vocabulary necessary to function in the American setting with a minimum of language knowledge. A variety of presentation techniques are discussed in the introduction to Young Adult HELP. One of them is the use of dialogues. Dialogues are a very useful teaching technique once an initial set of vocabulary is understood. The purpose of using a dialogue is to present a situation of real language in which the student role plays in a safe environment before being met by the real thing. By using role-playing dialogues, the students come to own the language - to internalize the phrases used so they become a part of their repertoire of English. For this reason, dialogues should be performed with books closed allowing for the students' total attention to be focused on the oral language presented. They should be short, easily repeatable, and use everyday language with a wide application.

In many cases, migrant adults are illiterate in their own language so we can't depend on printed materials to initiate conversations. Create a "real" situation with "realia" or pictures to give all the contextual clues possible. Present important vocabulary first and then begin to introduce the conversation, keeping students' attention focused on the situation and oral language presented. Our goal in using "conversations" is for the student to be able to say each part of the conversation easily and without prompting. Many repetitions are necessary to do this. Repetitions must be fun, well-paced, varied and interesting. Each conversation should first be modeled by the teacher performing both (oral) parts of the conversation, but changing position or voice tone to indicate the different parts. (Puppets are helpful in these situations, or a simple costume such as a hat.)

Many repetitions while students listen are ideal for the very beginning student since they need to hear the sounds of English and the voice inflections several times before they can be expected to reproduce them. We want students to enjoy their lessons and to feel unthreatened by them, because in a comfortable setting they will learn more easily. Therefore, each new step should be non-threatening, and repeated sufficiently so everyone feels very comfortable before going on to a higher level of difficulty. Once the teacher has modeled 2-3 times, (or more if necessary), the students can begin to speak. Take each line or phrase one at a time and have the whole group repeat it together (3 times has been found to be about right for a fairly simple sentence). Then go on to the next line or person in the conversation and do the same, add the small parts together 3 times, etc. until you have gone through the whole conversation. Then repeat the whole conversation 3 times as a group. Move up the pace as it becomes more comfortable to keep it from getting dull.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH

1. The "experience" which will be written about may be a drawing, something the student brought from home, a group experience planned by the teacher (field trip, science experiment, film strip, party, etc.), or simply a topic to discuss.
2. The student is asked to tell about his/her experience.
3. The student then dictates his or her story or experience to the teacher, aide, volunteer, or to another student. The writer copies down the story exactly as it is dictated (do not correct the student's grammar while the story is being written down).
4. The teacher reads the story back, pointing to the words, with the student reading along. With young children at very beginning levels, it may be necessary to read back each sentence as it is dictated.
5. The student reads the story silently and/or aloud to other students or to the teacher.
6. The experience stories are saved and can be used for instruction in all types of reading skills.
7. When students are ready, they can begin to write their own experience stories. A good way to introduce this is to discuss the experience, write a group experience story, and then have students write their own stories.
8. Students can re-write their own previous stories as their language development progresses, and then illustrate them to make books for other students to read.

(From: New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education, Prepared by Suzanne Iruio.)

SHARED READING

1. Choose a text--a story, song, poem, or other reading.
2. Enlarge the text so all students can see it at once. This can be done by using commercial big books, making your own big books, copying the text on chart paper, or using an opaque projector or overhead projector.
3. Read the text to the students, pointing to each word as you read it.
4. Encourage prediction by covering words that are easy to predict (because of context, pictures, rhyme, etc.) and having students guess them.
5. Use masking devices to uncover parts of words, teaching students how to use phonics to confirm predictions.
6. Masking devices can also be used to show prefixes, suffixes and roots, or to fix attention on any words for whatever reason.
7. After students have heard the text several times, they join in while you are reading. Continue to point at each word as it is read.
8. Have individual students read and point.
9. Have small copies of the text available for students to take home and read to their parents.
10. Shared reading texts that are predictable can be used for patterned writing, in which students write their own variations on the patterns in the text.

(FROM: New England Multifunctional Resource Center for Language and Culture in Education, and prepared by Suzanne Iruio.)

KEY WORDS (adapted from Sylvia Ashton Warner)

1. Prepare cards to write the words on (approximately 3" x 8", heavy tag board, with a hole punched in one corner if they are to be kept on rings).
2. Each day, engage each student in conversation and get him/her to tell you a word that's very important to him or her that day.
3. Write the word on the card while the student is watching, sounding it out as you write and then repeating the word.
4. Give the card to the student and have him or her read the word.
5. The students keep their words in boxes, coffee cans, or on rings. They read all their words to you or to another student each day. Any words that they can't remember are discarded, explaining that the word must not have been important enough to remember.
6. Students can draw pictures of their words, try to find them in books, classify them according to meaning or sound, alphabetize them, write them in sand, spell them on flannel or magnetic boards, etc.
7. As students learn to read their friends' words, they make copies of them and add them to their pack.
8. When they have 8 - 10 words, they can begin writing stories using them.

Prepared by Suzanne Iruio
New England Multifunctional Resource Center
345 Blackstone Blvd.
Providence, R.I.

ERIC/CLL News Bulletin

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics

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Whole Language in Adult ESL Programs

by Pat Rigg

When I was asked to describe some Whole Language programs for adults learning English as a new language, I began scribbling notes on some of the programs I most admired: Elsa Auerbach's Family Literacy program in Boston; Gail Weinstein-Shr's Project LEIF (Learning English through Intergenerational Friendship) at Temple University in Philadelphia; and at the University of Pennsylvania, Susan Lytle's intake procedure for adult native speakers of English who want to become more literate. I soon realized that, instead of trying to describe vastly different programs, I should articulate the principles of Whole Language that underlie these programs, and show how those principles operate in one model program, specifically the one operating at Invergarry Learning Centre in Surrey, British Columbia.

What Is Whole Language?

The term "Whole Language" is becoming more and more popular, so much so that it has become a bandwagon term and is often associated with educational philosophies, programs, and materials that contradict everything the term has represented. For example, some publishers offer what they call "Whole Language" workbooks and phonics materials; none of these are consistent with Whole Language principles.

What does Whole Language mean to the people who first began applying it to education? The term comes

not from linguists, but from educators—people like Kenneth and Yetta Goodman, Jerome Harste, and Dorothy Watson—who used the term in their work in first language education. These educators focused on reading (and its connections to oral language), and on how children become readers. In using the term Whole Language, they made a number of assertions: (1) language is a whole (hence the name), and any attempt to fragment it into parts—whether the parts be grammatical patterns, vocabulary lists, or phonics "families"—destroys it; (2) language must be kept whole or it isn't language anymore; (3) language is not split into oral language (referred to in traditional ESL texts and courses as listening and speaking) and written language (writing and reading); and (4) in a literate society, the use of written language is as natural as the use of conversation; the uses of written language develop as naturally as do the uses of oral language. (For a full description of the principles of Whole Language, and how these principles relate to adult literacy education, see Kazemek, 1989.)

When researchers studying the first language writing of primary-school children (e.g., Graves, 1983) began to publish their findings, Whole Language proponents integrated those findings into their own work. The Whole Language researchers then expanded their view of literacy by moving away from the primary focus on reading to a new view in which writing and reading are equally important and integral to each other. (For a history of the Whole Language movement, see Y. Goodman, 1989.) Watson (1989) recalls her earlier definition of Whole Language as primarily linguistic, and notes how much that definition has expanded today: "Whole Language involves whole learners (with all their strengths and needs) who, when given real and continuous opportunities in safe and natural environments, can initiate learning, generate curriculum, direct their own behavior, and evaluate their own efforts" (1989, p. 133). Watson is referring to children, but

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About the Author

Dr. Pat Rigg has taught both first language and ESL literacy with adult students. She was Chair of International TESOL's Adult Education Interest Section 1988 and has authored several articles on adult literacy.

obviously these characteristics also apply to adults.

Kenneth Goodman, one of the chief proponents of Whole Language, identifies as a key characteristic of this approach a positive view of human learners. "Whole Language sees common strengths and universals in human learning, ... expects and recognizes differences among learners in culture, value systems, experience, needs, interest, and language.... Thus, teachers in Whole Language programs value differences among learners" (1989, p. 209). Obviously, Whole Language now refers to much more than keeping language whole.

Some terms used by Whole Language practitioners and theorists give a idea of how this philosophy translates into practice.

1) A class is a "community of learners." Whole Language teachers work to build a sense of community in the classroom, and they view themselves as co-learners with their students, instead of holding the traditional jug-and-mug view of teacher/student roles, with the teacher as a jug full of knowledge and the students as empty mugs waiting to be filled. Whole Language teachers encourage collaboration, and ask students to work together in a variety of ways. Students use both oral and written language as they cooperate to accomplish their own goals. Teachers work with their students and with their colleagues in similar ways.

Whole Language teachers tie the classroom community to the larger community outside the school building. Parents, grandparents, and other members of the community spend time in the classroom and work as experts on some topic, as storytellers, as observers, and as important contributors to the education of the community's children.

2) Teachers "issue invitations" to students. Choice is vital in a Whole Language class. Without the ability to select activities, materials, and conversational partners, students cannot use language for their own purposes. "Authenticity," as defined by Edelsky (1987), is necessary. The students' work, whether suggested by themselves or by the teacher, is for the students' own purposes. If students are writing letters, for example, it is because they want to communicate through writing with the people they are writing to; the letters will be mailed and (the writers hope) answered. Students are not writing imitation letters to practice the form of a friendly or business letter.

The most dramatic aspect of this is that the curriculum is negotiated. Most curricula in this country's schools are assembled and packaged by commercial publishers in the form of textbooks, workbooks, etc., to conform to curricular goals established by the state's department of education or by the state's legislature. In the Whole Language classroom, however, the basal readers, the workbooks, and the skill sheets are all put away. Teachers and students select the materials to be integrated into their curriculum.

3) Teachers are "kid-watchers" (Y. Goodman, 1985). Like students, teachers learn new things about study topics. At the same time, teachers continu-

ously learn about their students and about themselves. The Whole Language teacher is conspicuous in the teachers' lounge at lunch time: He or she is the one who tells "a language story" in which a student did something wonderful that taught the teacher "a literacy lesson" (Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984). Whole Language teachers learn from their students and celebrate their students' learning.

Assessment is done primarily through observation: Teachers keep narrative records and samples of student writing and reading. Standardized tests may be administered in Whole Language classrooms because they are required by state law, but Whole Language teachers find that those tests do not provide accurate descriptions of their students' abilities, nor do they predict their students' performance. Whole Language classrooms typically use student self-evaluation. Because students themselves establish their goals, they themselves monitor their progress. Writing conferences and writing folders, for example, help the student and teacher to keep track of the student's writing.

In short then, Whole Language is a view of language, of teaching, and of learning. It is not a method, nor is it a collection of strategies, techniques, or materials.

Whole Language In ESL

How does Whole Language apply to second language learning? The term Whole Language has seldom been used in ESL or bilingual contexts. Enright and McCloskey (1988) use an "integrative approach" as they focus on integrating all the elements of language with the various content areas of the elementary curriculum, merging such traditionally separate areas as math, science, language arts, and fine arts into thematic units. Enright and McCloskey advocate making a community of the classroom and including the larger community; they are also in favor of student choice and they note that the teacher learns from the students.

"Participatory" is the term used by some educators of adults who want their classroom to be a community of learners, and who believe that student choice, student input to curriculum, and self-evaluation are vital. Participatory teachers often cite the teachings of Paulo Freire, from whom they have learned that literacy is much more than decoding someone else's message. Literacy is "empowering" and "liberating" because it gives adult students ways to understand and to alter their worlds (Freire, 1970; Freire & Macedo, 1987). Excellent examples of participatory materials, such as, *The Women's Kit* (Auerbach, 1989) and *Voices Rising*, an international newsletter of women in adult programs, are published by the Participatory Resource Centre in Toronto (394 Euclid Ave. Suite 308, Toronto, Ont. M6G 2S9). In Australia, the term "learner-centered" (Nunan, 1988) in adult education refers to many concepts similar to those of Whole Language.

**A MODEL WHOLE LANGUAGE PROGRAM:
INVERGARRY LEARNING CENTRE AND VOICES**

What programs for adult students of English language and literacy demonstrate Whole Language views in practice? I will describe in detail one that models the Whole Language philosophy in practice (although the term is not much used there); this is the program that produces *VOICES, New Writers for New Readers*. *VOICES* is a magazine of adult student writing, but it is much more: It is a demonstration that the newly literate have a great deal to say and have the ability to say it, to write it, and to read it. Unlike many adult ESL programs, which require hours of drills on skills before allowing any authentic interaction with written English, this program starts the student writing from the first day, making clear that the instructors believe that the new student—whether a native or nonnative speaker of English—has something important to say and has the ability to say it in writing.

The Invergarry Learning Centre is in Surrey, a working-class suburb of Vancouver, British Columbia. There are some 22,000 people in this high-density neighborhood, with about 50% of the households headed by single parents, and with high unemployment. Much of the housing is "project" housing for single families and single-parent homes. Many families speak English as a second or an additional language.

The Centre offers child care, so that young parents, especially young mothers, are not prevented from attending classes because they cannot afford a babysitter. The child care is both inexpensive and professional, run by an individual with a Master's degree in early childhood education.

About half of the adults in the program speak English as an additional language, with proficiency levels ranging from elementary to near-native fluency. Literacy ranges from no apparent knowledge of the alphabet to fluent reading, though not fluent writing, in English. The age range spans 17 through 80, with the majority of students in their 20s, 30s, or 40s.

Any adult who wants help with reading or writing is welcome at Invergarry Learning Centre. Often the first contact is a phone call from the adult who seeks information. A trained interviewer talks with the newcomer. The prospective student is not required to take any entrance examination; there is no concept of grade level. Discussions with the interviewer indicate the newcomer's background and establish the newcomer's goals and expectations. The new student identifies what he or she wants, and the interviewer clarifies the expectations of how the program works.

During the first session, the student tours the Centre and sees the variety of classes and reading materials. The students are encouraged to try reading whatever interests them: "Try three or four pages; see if you want to continue," they are advised. No one tells a student what to read or what not to read. As they learn the students' interests, teachers and tutors may rec-

ommend a book, story, or poem. Books are not selected or suggested on the basis of "levels" or readability formulas. The library is supplied primarily through a book distribution warehouse; the Centre spends between 2,000 and 3,000 Canadian dollars a year. The library is as eclectic as possible; it holds literature by Atwood, Dostoevsky, García Márquez, and Steinbeck, and also contains Gothic romances, Western novels, and choose-your-own adventures.

The new students are handed a blank, lined notebook and asked to write whatever they want. If they feel unable to write, they may dictate what they want to communicate using standard Language Experience Approach (Rigg, 1987) procedures. The notebook is the student's text: she or he will fill it with writing, and that writing will serve as reading material. The first writing sample may be marked a bit, if the student has made it clear that she or he expects this to happen, and it will be praised. Students are told about the creative writing group that meets in the evenings and are invited and encouraged to sit in and join the group. Evening and day students nurture each other, say Lee Weinstein and Gary Pharness, two of the people who started *VOICES*. Students choose a seat at a round table at which three to four other students and their tutors or teachers are sitting—writing, reading, and talking. The conversations that take place occur naturally and focus on literacy and its connection to each student's life.

The teachers and tutors (some of them volunteers) move from table to table frequently so that every student works with more than one person. Students select their work partners; sometimes they ask another student to respond to their writing, sometimes they ask a teacher or tutor. The sense of community is strong because each person—student, teacher, or tutor—is a writer and discusses writing with the others. Each person who responds to a piece of writing offers a different perspective so that the students' views of their writing are expanded. This contrasts strikingly with some volunteer adult literacy programs in the United States, which join one tutor and one student in a donor-receiver relationship (Kazemek, 1988), and thus, build student dependency.

What Lee Weinstein calls a "compassionate style" is characteristic of every staff member, including the volunteers. The volunteers receive both formal and informal training: As observers at the round tables, they see and hear how the teachers nurture the students' writing and reading, and thus, learn partly by example.

Teachers and tutors focus on the meaning of the students' writing, which is often autobiographical. The Australian A. B. Facey (1981) became literate in order to write his autobiography. His *A Fortunate Life* is not only a grand book to read, but a testimonial to the idea that adults become literate as they find their voices as writers, and they find their voices as they tell their own stories. To help new writers feel comfortable telling their stories, teachers and tutors share their own

or their students' stories. This is the Whole Language ideal of teacher and students learning with and from each other in an adult context.

By rereading what they have written, the students discover for themselves their unclear sentences. At this point, they may ask how to change their wording. For example, after six months of writing in his new language, one ESL speaker from Brazil became concerned with points of style. His notebook testified to his progress. Student self-evaluation is both constant and easy: Because the students focus on telling their stories as clearly as possible, they are continuously reworking their material.

Students are involved in every step of the publication process of the VOICES magazine, and this involvement gives authentic reasons for both revision and editing. More importantly, when new writers see their work in the magazine, perhaps with an author photograph alongside, they view themselves differently. They become authors, published authors, not unlike the people whose books are on the library shelves.

Summary

The Invergarry Learning Centre does not use the term Whole Language to describe its approach, but the Whole Language perspective clearly pervades the programs there. Gary Pharness says, "Our way is too simple for many people: we believe that we learn to read by reading and we learn to write by writing, and we have to pursue both aggressively" (G. Pharness, personal communication, December 25, 1989). The result is a community of writers and learners. Students not only articulate their own goals, but also select the materials, activities, and even the people with whom they will work. Teachers and students continually evaluate their own work and collaborate to make it better. No wonder I find the program a model.

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Digest

*Talking Adult ESL Students into Writing:
Building on Oral Fluency to Promote Literacy*

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In English as a second language (ESL) classes at the college level, students are often enrolled who have a high degree of oral fluency but little proficiency in reading and writing. College-level ESL curricula, largely designed on a postliteracy model, seem inadequate to serve students who need to learn English and develop advanced reading and writing skills at the same time. The challenge, then, is to reorient the college-level ESL curriculum to serve students with disparate and uneven proficiencies in oral and written English.

Which ESL Students Have Special Literacy Needs?

By and large, adults with special literacy needs in college-level classes are immigrants and refugees whose prior schooling has been disrupted for months or even years due to political and economic turmoil in their own countries. The schooling that they did have may not have been sufficient for them to handle subject-matter course work in English.

With no chance to establish a strong academic base in their own languages and with a weak academic beginning in English, these students often simply cope by acquiring what Cummins (1979, 1981) calls Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)--the verbal fluency in English needed for everyday informal situations. By transferring to English the decoding skills they acquired in their own languages before their schooling was interrupted, they appear literate. Yet their literacy is unfortunately very limited, for their schooling in any language was not sustained long enough for them to develop the deep literacy that can evolve only from sustained interaction with written texts.

When they arrive at college, many students are surprised that they are asked to take ESL placement tests. They are further surprised when they get their test results and realize that they have to enroll in intensive ESL classes. It is almost always students' reading and writing scores, not their listening comprehension scores, that place them in intensive ESL. Not having planned to spend a semester or two in intensive English classes before beginning their "real" studies, the students begin the school year disheartened. Raising their spirits while increasing their awareness of their needs becomes part of the ESL teacher's challenge (Blanton, 1987).

By and large, ESL curricula at post-secondary institutions are not designed to serve these students. While most ESL teachers at the college level see their job as teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP), students in their classes often have developmental needs, in addition to English-language needs. An EAP curriculum presupposes solid literacy abilities, as well as an academic orientation. It builds on students' awareness that there is a particular language of the academy (Bartholomae & Petrosky, 1986). certain ways of talking, reading, and writing ideas and texts. Developmental ESL students, however,

are often not ready for such a curriculum; they do not have the developed literacy base that it presupposes.

How Do Developmental ESL Students Approach Literacy Tasks?

Adult ESL students with developmental literacy needs share a number of characteristics with native-English-speaking basic writers who are placed in remedial college English courses because they, too, have not become proficient enough in reading and writing to be placed into credit-bearing English courses. (See Bartholomae & Petrosky, 1986; Salvatori, 1983; 1986.)

First, developmental ESL students often say that they do not like to read and do not read for pleasure. Second, they tend to respond to texts as nonreaders. For them, reading is a passive activity, and everything that can be said about a text lies in its print. They tend not to know that they can, and in fact should, bring their own reflections to bear on the subject matter. Reading for them involves the retrieval of information, of words. Questions they are asked about a text send them scurrying to that text to find the words to quote or copy in response to the question. They have limited experience with accessing their own ideas or responding to someone else's, and they often have little to write about, or little to say related to the subject of the text.

As Bartholomae and Petrosky (1986) put it, students who come to the college or university from outside the academic framework, those who do not see themselves as readers and writers, have to "invent" themselves as readers and writers. They have to invent the act of reading and writing by "assembling a language to make a reader [and a writer] and a reading [and a writing] possible, finding some compromise between idiosyncrasy, a personal history, and the requirements of convention . . ." (p. 8).

Where Does the Teacher Start With Developmental ESL Students?

Developmental ESL students need a solid start toward inventing themselves as readers and writers. This includes the development of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency or CALP (Cummins, 1979, 1981)--the linguistic and intellectual operations, and forms and details of language expected of "good" students. Since developmental ESL students often come to college programs with a high degree of verbal fluency but little proficiency in reading and writing, it makes sense to start with what they bring with them--their oral fluency.

Personal histories offer a good point of departure because they belong to students. With their personal histories, students can assume a stance of authority over something that they, and only they, have knowledge of.

In order for students to understand that ideas and reflections are intended for exchange and that one person's ideas and

reflections can amplify someone else's, situations can be set up in the classroom where students collaborate with each other as partners to share their histories aloud (Blanton, 1988). As they listen to each other, they become conscious of differences and similarities between their own histories and those of their partners. This awareness is reinforced later, when students work with written texts, and a text and its author become their "partner."

After students have discussed their broadly focused personal histories, they narrow the focus to some particular facet--a childhood memory, a frightening experience, a family member. The point is for them to understand how texts are created on the basis of personal significance. Writers narrow and organize their material on the basis of what is significant to them. Likewise, listeners/readers focus on areas they find to be significant.

The concept of significance is extremely important in working with developmental ESL students. They need to participate in activities that help them understand that the process of assigning significance resides with *them*, as listeners, speakers, readers, and writers. When they read, developmental ESL students need to understand that it is their own reflections that cause them to consider something significant or insignificant. Failing to understand that or lacking the confidence to act on it, they rely on the author's words to tell them. Reading is then a frustrating experience because they cannot remember all of the author's words; no one can. During oral-aural work in class, students can be made aware of the notion of significance and the importance of relating texts to their own lives. They are then more likely to find significance in written texts when they read them.

Students can then make the natural transition from reading to writing about a personal experience--a childhood memory, a frightening nightmare. Encouraging students to take notes during the talking and listening phase of their work, ostensibly for the purpose of remembering, as listeners, what they might want to ask more about later, helps ease the transition as well.

Just as the topic limits and shapes what students include in their writing, the medium of writing also limits and shapes what they write. They begin to see this as they compare what they talk about with what they choose to put on paper. They begin to reflect on what Salvatori (1986) characterizes as the "distance that the act of writing imposes on life" (p. 143)--how their experience feels different from how it looks on paper. They can begin then to interact with their own texts in preparation for later interacting with the texts of others.

Students can then work again with their partners, those with whom they had the oral-aural exchange, and function as each other's editors. As they already know the personal history in its oral form, they can now talk about what appears in the written text, what has been left out, and whether or not there are discrepancies between the oral and written histories. Revisions follow, as writers adjust what they write to what they know.

When the writing is ready, it forms a pool of texts for the class to read. Twenty texts or so are passed around the room, and students are encouraged to exchange ideas or comments with the writers themselves. Gradually, they begin to respond to these texts. Something "rings a bell," or reminds them of something else, or makes them think of something that someone else has said, in class discussions or in another text. These texts eventually wind up in individual student folders. The folders become thicker as the semester progresses, and the cycle of talking, listening, writing, and reading repeats itself again and again. At times, whole folders are passed from reader to reader.

Conclusion

Within this approach, students begin to make connections between writing and reading that they did not make before. They begin to realize that real live people compose texts, whether they be classmates, themselves, or unknown writers. As readers, they can argue with those texts, decide what is significant about them, and take their meanings with them.

As the semester progresses, more and more published, non-student-produced texts can be included among the readings, and students become less awed by them, less reticent to respond to them, and more willing to weave their own texts and the texts of others into their writing. Gradually, a growing posture of authority develops, a belief that students' own ideas carry equal weight with those of "real" authors. They begin to see themselves as real readers and writers.

This is where teachers need to start with developmental ESL students. Not with grammar correction, not with academic assignments, not with workbook exercises, but with the students--who they are, what they have, and what they need to do in order to relate to the world of texts, and, hence, to function in academia. This is where they can develop the deep base of literacy on which all other academic work rests.

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Digest

Using Newspapers in the ESL Literacy Classroom

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Newspapers can be very inexpensive and compelling "textbooks" for adult literacy development. For the newly arrived refugee or immigrant, the newspaper provides an introduction to the political, social, and business aspects of the local community. The newspaper can assist newcomers in finding a job, buying a car, taking advantage of sales, and choosing local entertainment. Incorporating newspapers into the English-as-a-second-language (ESL) literacy classroom offers the teacher authentic, practical, and easily accessible materials.

Newspapers in the ESL Literacy Classroom

While practitioners agree that newspapers can represent useful tools in the literacy classroom, they also recognize that newspaper articles written for native speakers are not always appropriate for ESL students. According to Virginia French Allen, an ESL specialist and literacy tutor, materials designed for native speakers of English are not equally suitable for ESL students with limited knowledge of English vocabulary and structure or limited experience with American life. "Many cultural, phonetic, and speaking cues which are readily apparent to native speakers must be developed for ESL students" (ANPA, 1989, p. 17).

Adapting the newspaper to classroom instruction is a natural way to introduce students to these cultural and linguistic concepts. In the past, creative teachers developed their own lessons around the newspaper; however, they often restricted this practice to advanced learners of English. In this way, beginning level students missed out on a natural source of meaningful linguistic and cultural "news."

But the newspaper can be used for ESL learners of all levels. For beginning students, the large-print headlines, recognizable symbols and numbers, and many color and black-and-white photographs can convey information that students understand. At an intermediate level, the newspaper provides exposure to print, to graphic devices, and to punctuation. Advanced students can read newspapers much as a native speaker would, skimming some articles, reading others completely, and discarding those parts of the newspaper of little interest to them. Many practitioners (Chavira, 1990; Hess, 1987; Salas-Isnardi, n.d.; Toben, 1987) have compiled detailed and level-appropriate lists of classroom activities for using the newspaper as text.

Activities for Beginning Students

- Have students cut out pictures of things they like in the newspaper and then write sentences about the pictures.
- Read a few scores from the sports page and have students write them down.
- Find numbers in newspaper advertisements that deal with money and have students practice reading the prices aloud.
- Using pictures found in the newspaper, have students write sentences about the pictures using prepositions to describe the spatial relationships.

- Discuss an issue found in an editorial that may be pertinent to students' lives.

Activities for Intermediate Students

- Have students circle words they do not understand and ask them to try to figure out the meaning from the context or look up the definition in the dictionary.
- Cut out headlines from various articles and have students match headlines with stories.
- Cut photo captions from photographs and have students match captions with photos.
- Analyze advertisements to discuss the way prices vary from store to store. Students may report their findings by writing a paragraph.
- Collect newspaper photographs of people and have students make up stories about the people.

Activities for Advanced Students

- Cut out several photographs of people and have students write descriptions of the people; let other students match the photographs with the descriptions.
- Work as a group to write a letter to the editor; more advanced students might write letters on their own.
- Follow a news item over a period of time and discuss the events that occur.
- Have students read an article that describes a problem and discuss the problem's cause and effects.
- Have students work in pairs, interviewing each other about an article in the newspaper.

The Role of Newspaper Publishers in Literacy

The newspaper industry itself is providing materials for use in adult ESL literacy classrooms. These efforts, some developed by newspaper publishers and others by literacy practitioners, involve using the newspaper as curriculum. This approach to literacy education is consistent with the recommendations of a recently released Educational Testing Service (ETS) study, "Reducing Illiteracy in California: Review of Effective Practices in Adult Literacy Programs," which recommends that teaching materials look and read like normal adult reading materials (paperback novels, newspapers, and manuals that do not announce their reading level on the cover) (ETS, 1989).

"The Houston Chronicle: Your ESL Source. A Source Guide for Adults Learning English as a Second Language," a curriculum developed by the *Houston Chronicle*, contains lessons for listening, reading, speaking, and writing in English, and requires no special materials other than the local newspaper (Winters & Orr, 1989).

The *Los Angeles Daily News* has developed a program for ESL and amnesty preparation that uses the newspaper as curriculum. Each section of the curriculum contains three levels of difficulty, so teachers may choose those tasks that are most appropriate for their students.

The *Syracuse Newspaper's* "Curriculum Modification for English as a Second Language" focuses on points of grammar in

newspaper copy. It, too, is designed to assist in reading and language arts skill areas for students at various levels of literacy.

Other Newspaper Activities

Newspaper publishers are involved in other types of literacy activities as well. Some newspapers offer workplace literacy classes. *The Los Angeles Herald Examiner* runs special classes to teach literacy skills to its language-minority employees, using a learner-centered approach, with discussion based on photographs of employees using authentic materials at the worksite.

Fifty adults are enrolled in a computer-assisted literacy project designed by the *Los Angeles Times* for its employees, their families, and individuals from the surrounding community.

The Providence Journal in Providence, RI, offers a workplace literacy program for its employees seeking the General Equivalency Diploma (GED), releasing them for one hour twice a week to attend class.

The Patriot Ledger in Quincy, MA, assists a local human services agency in sponsoring an English class for Asian adults in the community. The class, "New Americans: Learning English, Becoming American," prepares students for the U.S. citizenship examination while teaching them English.

The Miami Herald publishes a Spanish language newspaper to appeal to the large Spanish-speaking community in Miami. To attract readers in Spanish-speaking homes, *El Nuevo Herald* is provided free with a subscription to the *Miami Herald*.

The Austin American-Statesman has produced a bilingual adult literacy handbook, *Roads to Literacy/Caminos Hacia La Alfabetizacion*, that contains listings in both Spanish and English of county literacy projects, instructional agencies, and community contacts for special literacy services.

Five adult literacy centers that offer tutoring, tutor training, tutor recruitment, and referrals to language-minority adults have been established by the Rio Grande Valley Group Newspapers (Harlingen, TX) of the Freedom Newspapers Group. Additionally, this group sponsors a "Ready to Read" workshop, using the newspaper as a text. In Brownsville, TX, a class meets twice weekly using this approach. The Rio Grande Valley Group Newspapers also produce a monthly newsletter and public service announcements and are involved in symposia and curricula design.

The editorial staff of the *Times-Herald Record* in Middletown, NY, conducts writing workshops in ESL classrooms. Students participate in a writing contest, with the winning entry published in a special supplement to the paper.

How Newspaper Groups Are Promoting Literacy

Nationally, newspaper groups have encouraged their local newspapers to develop literacy projects and coalitions. The Gannett Foundation, Knight, and Chicago Tribune Charities have funded state and community literacy activities. Newspaper membership associations, such as the American Newspaper Publishers Association (ANPA), the Southern Newspaper Publishers Association (SNPA), the American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE), and the International Circulation Managers Association (ICMA) encourage their member newspapers to sponsor reading activities. Newspapers in Education (NIE), a cooperative effort between newspapers and local schools, has existed as a newspaper-literacy initiative since the 1930s. The International Circulation Managers Association has recommended that every newspaper make available to community literacy programs "Ready to Read," a newspaper curriculum that comes with a teacher training session conducted by the author, Janet Fenholt (1987).

On a local level, newspapers cover literacy activities, provide free advertising space, and set up community-wide coalitions. Local newspapers also work closely with national groups in literacy campaigns, such as Project Literacy U.S. (PLUS) and the General Federation of Womens' Clubs.

Newspapers, a cultural and community constant in American life, can help newcomers acquire literacy skills and useful information at the same time.

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ASSESSMENTS

ASSESSING LANGUAGE MINORITY MIGRANT STUDENTS

Assessment is a key piece of any educational program. This holds true for migrant education programs as well. You will face some unique and challenging questions as you plan assessment for your migrant students.

Your migrant students will use a language other than English at home. Their language skills, and those of their families, may vary tremendously. Some may be orally proficient in English and their home language, but experience some difficulty with academic English. Yet other students may know no English at all. Some migrants may speak English but not be able to read or write; others may speak no English but may be literate in their home language.

Your challenge will be to determine, as well as possible, the language proficiency of your migrant students in order to provide a quality education for all, including those language minority students who are limited in their ability to listen, speak, read, and write in English.

This section is not intended to be a comprehensive guide to assessing language minority students. We hope it will help you organize your own thoughts and questions regarding this complicated task and provide some suggestions for getting started.

ASSESSMENT: WHERE ARE THEY STARTING? HOW ARE THEY PROGRESSING?

Barbara Humak

Assessment is a critical area in ESL. A student who begins working above his or her level will become frustrated and discouraged; one who begins working below the appropriate level will be bored and probably upset by the lack of progress. In either case, there is a very real danger that the student might stop coming to class and therefore lose that opportunity to improve in English. This section provides an overview of assessment in adult ESL.

ESL tests are available both for adults who can read and write and for those who cannot. They can be administered by a psychologist, a guidance counselor, the classroom teacher, or a supervising teacher. An ESL test measures only the non-native speaker's English language ability compared to that of a native English speaker. Most ESL tests will indicate that the student falls into one of the following categories:

- low beginner
- high beginner
- low intermediate
- high intermediate
- low advanced
- high advanced

Please note that no ESL test can assess grade level or intelligence. This is not the purpose of a language test. Although administrators may request grade levels, it must be emphasized that no ESL test provides grade-level classifications.

WHAT TYPES OF TESTS ARE THERE?

Proficiency tests are the tests you will use for your new students. They define a student's level of proficiency in reference to a specific type of instruction or employment. They may be used to indicate a) readiness to undertake a certain subject, b) appropriate placement, and c) diagnostic information (What are the student's strengths and weaknesses?).

In addition to the proficiency tests, you may use:

Prognostic or Aptitude tests. These tests predict a student's probability of success in the study of ESL.

Progress tests. These measure the extent of mastery of material in class and the language lab.

Achievement tests. Prepared by an outside group of examiners, these are pre-tested and standardized with scores compared to statewide or national norms. They are given after formal instruction in ESL.

WHAT DO THE TESTS INCLUDE?

Mary Finnochiaro in Teaching English as a Second Language lists the commonly-used testing techniques for various tests:

In tests of listening comprehension pupils may be asked to:

1. Imitate minimal pairs; that is, words whose pronunciation differs in only one sound; e.g. rag/rack, yellow/fellow, very/berry, hat/hot.
2. Imitate sentences of varying length.
3. Carry out a request.
4. Point to a picture about which a statement is being made.
5. Answer specific questions about themselves, the weather, the room.
6. Take an aural comprehension exercise.
7. Listen to a recording and answer questions on it.

In tests of oral production students may be asked to:

1. Identify in complete sentences 10 common classroom objects in a picture series.
2. Answer questions about themselves.
3. Tell what they see in a picture.
4. Tell what happened yesterday or during a recent holiday period.
5. Answer questions on various topics.
6. Answer questions based on a passage that has been read.
7. Discuss a passage or an article that has been read.

To test reading comprehension, the pupil may be asked to:

1. Select the unrelated word from among a group of words.
2. Select the synonym of a given word from among four words.
3. Select the antonym of a given word from among four words.
4. Complete a sentence with a word selected from among a group of words;
e.g. The dog moos, barks, crows, flies.
5. Read a passage and answer questions about it with the book open.
6. Read a passage and answer questions about it without referring to the passage.
Reading samples can come from texts, manuals, newspapers, magazines, or technical books. The vocabulary covers a wide range, and the structure is relatively complex.

In tests of writing ability the pupils may be asked to:

1. Write the names of 10 or more objects, which the teacher dictates.
2. Write a short sentence about each of 10 objects in the classroom.
3. Write answers to questions about themselves.
4. Write answers to questions on a picture, a passage, or an article.
5. Take a dictation.

6. Write a short connected passage on a topic with which they should have some familiarity. Using a proper choice of vocabulary and correct usage of grammatical structure are important here.

PREPARING YOUR STUDENTS FOR TEST-TAKING

If your students are taking an oral test, preparation is not of great concern. Before they take written tests, however, many of them will need to learn some things about test-taking the American way.

Many foreign students learned by rote, and their test-taking was simply giving back material to the instructor verbatim, the way it was presented in class. These students have never been exposed to multiple choice, coloring dots with a #2 pencil, matching, true/false, or fill in the blank. The American way of testing and test-taking is culturally unique to the U.S. A good resource book that teaches American test-taking is How to Take Standardized Tests, published by ESL Publications/Prentice Hall.

WHICH PLACEMENT TESTS ARE MOST APPROPRIATE FOR MY ADULT EDL STUDENT?

The tests listed and described below are especially appropriate for students with little educational background and low levels of ability in English.

<u>Test</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Administration</u>
The John Test LINC Publications	Assess oral English proficiency. Student is rated on accuracy of information, syntactic structure, fluency, pronunciation. Asks 11 questions about a set of pictures. Student is asked to respond to questions about the accompanying pictures, then retell the complete story, and finally make questions out of statements.	Individual Interview Picture cards, score sheets, instruction sheets Time 5-15 min.

<u>Test</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Administration</u>
The HELP Test Alemany Press	Tests adult learners who have minimal or no oral English skills, and who fall into one of the following categories: 1) no reading skills in any language, 2) minimal reading and writing skills in their native language (less than 4 years of school), 3) non-Roman alphabet background.	Individual Interview Score sheets, picture cards alphabet chips, telephone Time: 30 min.
The BEST Test Center for Applied Linguistics	Tests elementary listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing of basic functional skills. 2 parts: 1) oral/aural, 2) reading/writing	oral/aural: individual, 20 min. reading/writing: entire class, 45 min. score sheets, sets of pictures, literacy booklets
Bilingual Vocational Oral Proficiency Test, Melton, PA	Tests listening and speaking skills, using both vocabulary and language structures from day-to-day English. 4 parts: 1) answering questions, 2) describing pictures, 3) elicited imitation, 4) following directions. Test results indicate if student is a low, medium, or high level speaker of English.	individual 20-30 min. picture set, score sheets, cups and saucers
The Delta Oral Proficiency Test Delta Systems	Placement Test. Student answers questions about a series of pictures. Test results will place student in a beginning, intermediate, or advanced ESL class, or more advanced instruction, such as an ABE class.	Individual 5 min Picture booklet score sheets

In adult education a combination of tests can effectively measure your students' English language ability. For example, the Delta and the literacy section of the BEST work well together. Particularly good features of the Delta are its ease in administration and scoring, plus the placement into either an ESL class or an ABE one. The BEST's Literacy section complements the Adult Performance Level skills around which most competency-based Adult Basic Education programs are built. For students with higher levels of English proficiency, the Michigan and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) may be used.

WHAT ABOUT PROGRESS TESTS?

Progress testing given during an ESL course can meet individual needs of students in addition to satisfying program administrators who want to see where the program is going. Both students and instructors need feedback to measure a student's competence. In the 1980's competency-based instruction, suggested by Adult Performance Levels (APL), has led to task-oriented tests as performance indicators.*

Since progress tests must measure what the student has learned, their content is based on the curriculum.

Informal Progress Tests

Teachers can encourage students to assess their own language growth by giving lists of questions which students answer about their own language abilities. For beginning students these lists can be translated in the student's language. Given when students enter a course of instruction, and again when the course is completed, the student self-diagnostic survey usually reflects language growth and can also show where each student feels more work is needed.

Teachers can provide self-check folders for specialized vocabulary, listening comprehension, grammar exercises, and reading comprehension questions. A cloze test is a simple way to measure reading comprehension. Prescription sheets in a language laboratory also let the student check his or her own answers.

* An excellent resource manual which addresses the APL competencies, Tasks, Field Trips, and Speakers, has been developed by the Palm Beach County Adult ESL Program.

Developing More Formal Progress Tests

Often specific tests which are commercially available are not satisfactory for use as progress tests. There are too many variables in local situations, such as reasons for testing, the variety of skill areas to test, and curricular emphases and sequence. Consequently, it is usually preferable to adapt an existing test or develop a new one based on local program goals and materials.

To prepare a progress test to measure curriculum content, consider the following steps:

1. Identify the skill areas taught -- listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
2. Identify the vocabulary, structure, situations, and functions taught and learned.
3. Develop test items which represent the skill areas (#1) and the language items (#2).
4. Check to make sure that the test items correspond with the levels of the curriculum.

A review checklist for ESL tests which you may want to apply to any locally-constructed tests can be found in an article entitled "Second Language Testing" by Andrew Cohen (pages 343-344 in Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language by Marianne Celce-Murcia and Lois McIntosh).

Whatever method of progress testing is used, the results will help instructors and administrators group and regroup classes throughout the year or course, identifying areas of progress and weakness. In addition, the progress tests provide an incentive for the students. They are a concrete means of indicating progress along the road to English language mastery.

Student Needs Assessment

I Need to Learn More English To

1.	Do you Speak English	A Lot	A Little	Never	
	At home?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk on the phone
	At the doctor's office?	_____	_____	_____	___ go shopping
	At the food stores?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk to the doctor
	At school?	_____	_____	_____	___ get a job
	At the post office?	_____	_____	_____	___ buy medicine
	At the welfare office?	_____	_____	_____	___ drive a car
	At the dentist office?	_____	_____	_____	___ order in a restaurant
	At the bank?	_____	_____	_____	___ open an account at the bank
	At the shopping center?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk at the post office
	At parties?	_____	_____	_____	___ take the bus
	At the gas station?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk to my children
	At church?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk to my neighbors
	At a restaurant?	_____	_____	_____	___ talk to my American friends
	On a bus?	_____	_____	_____	___ understand TV
	At a job?	_____	_____	_____	___ read signs
	On the telephone?	_____	_____	_____	___ read labels in stores
	With your neighbor?	_____	_____	_____	___ read the newspaper
	With your friends?	_____	_____	_____	___ write applications
	With your children?	_____	_____	_____	___ write letters
	With your manager?	_____	_____	_____	___ write checks for the bank
	With other students?	_____	_____	_____	___ fill out tax forms
					___ get insurance
					___ talk with a lawyer
					___ respond to traffic ticket in court
					___ speak with the police
					___ talk to my children's teachers
					___ talk to my manager

This is an example of how to make a pre assessment instrument of student's prior knowledge.

Pre-Post Assessment

A. PERSONAL INFORMATION AND INTRODUCTIONS

Evaluation is made by assessing the students' competence in both asking and responding to questions. This procedure can be accomplished by (a) having students work in pairs, with teacher and aide (if available) circulating and assessing, or (b) having teacher and/or aide make individual assessments.

1. Looking at the Personal Information visual, have the students answer these questions:
 - a. What's your name?
 - b. What's your address?
 - c. What's your zip code?
 - d. What's your telephone number?
 - e. What's your Social Security number?
 - f. What's your name?
 - g. Where are you from?
 - h. What's your date of birth?
 - i. When were you born?
 - j. Are you married?
 - k. Are you single?
 - l. What's your occupation?
2. Using the forms on page 8, have the students fill in the blanks.
3. Have the students role-play the following situations, in which two students meet:
 - a. They exchange greetings.
 - b. One student from each pair introduces his/her friend to the others.

B. STATES OF BEING/FEELINGS

Have the students look at the States of Being/Feelings visual, and tell about each picture. (Example: She is busy. I am hungry.)

C. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Using the Family visual, have the students name the members of the family. (Example: She is the mother. He is the grandfather.)

D. TELLING TIME

1. Using a cardboard or plastic clock, have the students tell time in hour, half-hour, minutes.
2. Using a large calendar or transparency, have the students tell the day, month, and year.

E. TELEPHONE COMMUNICATION

Using plastic telephones or the tele-trainer from the telephone company, have the students role-play the following situations:

1. Dial a given number.
2. One caller gives a simple message; the other student takes the message.

LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Some basic distinctions can be made to help group students by ability and to help the teacher decide on appropriate materials for each group. Some of the texts included in the Young Adult HELP bibliography offer similar situational materials at various levels of difficulty and could be directly applied to a multi-level class or used as a guide on how to adapt other materials to various levels of difficulty.

The following is a general assessment of language levels:

BEGINNER

Knowledge of English

Vocabulary is limited to at most a few common words and expressions.
Almost no knowledge of English grammar or word order.

Communicative Ability

Virtually no ability to understand spoken English.
Able to communicate only simplest expressions. Hello, Bye.

BASIC

Knowledge of English

Knows a small set of concrete, personal vocabulary used daily.
Familiar with English word order, pronouns. No question forms.

Communicative Ability

Listening comprehension is better than speaking ability.
Able to comprehend simple questions and statements.
Cannot comprehend any abstract information.
Able to exchange basic personal information with a sympathetic conversation partner.
Few polite expressions; can ask questions using intonation.

UPPER BASIC

Knowledge of English

General vocabulary level is broad enough to describe household, daily routines, basic personal history.
Familiar with English word order, question forms, past tense, and future tense.

ORAL EVALUATION TEST

A.

- | | | | | | |
|----|----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1. | What's your name? | () | () | () | () |
| 2. | What time is it? | () | () | () | () |
| 3. | How old are you? | () | () | () | () |
| 4. | Are you married or single? | () | () | () | () |
| 5. | Where are you from? | () | () | () | () |

B - stop here if student is having difficulty.

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 6. | What time do you go to sleep? | () | () | () | () |
| 7. | What did you do last night? | () | () | () | () |
| 8. | How long have you been in the U.S.? | () | () | () | () |
| 9. | When you leave here, where are you going? | () | () | () | () |
| 10. | What kind of books have you been reading? | () | () | () | () |

C - stop here if student is having difficulty.

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 11. | How do you spend your free time? | () | () | () | () |
| 12. | What kind of work would you like to do? | () | () | () | () |
| 13. | Where will you go on your vacation? | () | () | () | () |
| 14. | With whom were you speaking a few moments ago? | () | () | () | () |
| 15. | If you were rich, what would you do with your money? | () | () | () | () |

TOTALS	()	()	()	()
--------	-----	-----	-----	-----

SCORING

	<u>Advanced</u>	<u>High Intermediate</u>	<u>Intermediate</u>	<u>Low Intermediate</u>	<u>Beginning</u>	<u>Beginning</u>
With Ease	14-15	11-13	8-10	5-8	3-5	0-3

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

Pre-test date _____

Post test date _____

___ "What's your name?"

 Last Name First Name (written)

___ "What's your address?"

_____ (written)

___ "When's your birthday?" (also year)

___ "How old are you?"

___ "How are you?" (Answer: "I'm fine.")

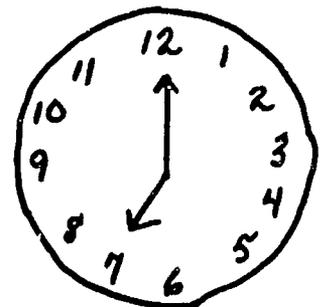
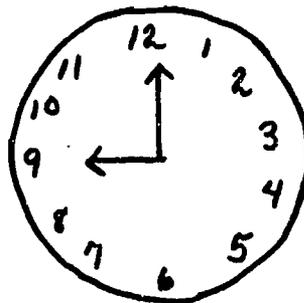
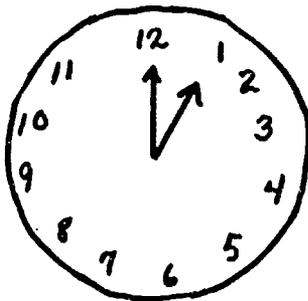
___ Instructor points to _____ head, _____ arm, _____ leg, _____ hand, _____ foot,
 _____ eyes, _____ ears, _____ nose, _____ stomach, _____ back. (80%)

What's this?

___ Explain illnesses (Use visual - "What hurts?") (80%)

___ Count from 1 - 20.

___ "What time is it?"



___ Ordering Food (Use visual - "What would you like?" I'd like _____)

INVENTORY OF USES OF LANGUAGE AND LITERACY

WHAT DO YOU ALREADY KNOW HOW TO READ/USE IN ENGLISH? WHAT DO YOU WANT TO LEARN TO READ?

	<u>ALREADY KNOW</u>	<u>WANT TO LEARN</u>
Phone Book		
Bills		
Labels on Medicine Bottles		
Letters from Friends		
Newspaper		
Menus		
Poetry		
Dictionary		
Help Wanted Ads		
Ads for Housing		
Bible		
Children's Books		
Movie Schedules		
Material for Work		
Directions for Using Things		
Notes and Notices from School		
Stories		
Other _____		

WHAT DO YOU ALREADY KNOW HOW TO WRITE IN ENGLISH? WHAT DO YOU WANT TO LEARN TO WRITE?

	<u>ALREADY KNOW</u>	<u>WANT TO LEARN</u>
Letters		
Notes to School		
Diary		
Poetry and Stories		
Homework		
Forms and Applications		
Checks		
Things for Work		
Other _____		

WHAT KINDS OF WRITTEN MATERIAL ARE THERE IN YOUR HOUSE?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Children's Books | <input type="checkbox"/> Cook Books and Home Repair Guides |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dictionaries | <input type="checkbox"/> Literature: Novels, Poetry |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Magazines and Comics | <input type="checkbox"/> Official Papers |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Newspapers | <input type="checkbox"/> Religious Books |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Notes from School | <input type="checkbox"/> TV Guides |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Letters | <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____ |

CULTURE

THE MEXICAN AMERICANS

CULTURAL FACTORS

Family composition and organization - Within the Mexican culture, the family is the most valued institution, and is the main focus of social identification. Nuclear families are commonly found among Mexican Americans, but there still exist many extended families which extend to over three generations. Traditional females display subdued qualities, while males have been the authority figure in the family. Each person in the family has the potential for increasing community respect for the family by their personal behavior.

EDUCATION

Most Mexican Americans appreciate and value the American educational system. Traditional Mexican American students have been taught to respect older members of their community, teachers and employers. Many students experience our educational system with little or no difficulties. At the same time, there are Mexican American students that have difficulties due to cultural differences and/or lack of English proficiency skills. Some students are unable to fully benefit from the educational system because of economic conditions that force them to be employed to maintain themselves. Also, the rate of mobility between the U.S. and Mexico affects the education of the students.

WORK ETHIC

In the Mexican American culture there is a strong loyalty and solidarity in the family unit. This family loyalty often is transferred to the work setting. This loyalty translates into work behaviors such as willingness to do additional tasks without being asked, working additional hours, or providing moral support to their supervisor and/or co-workers; therefore, Mexican Americans become valued employees. In the educational setting, Mexican American students work particularly well in groups. Another common characteristic relative to the work ethic is that parents encourage their teenage children to find employment. Many parents view it as an opportunity to understand the world of work and the value of earning money. In some poor families, the children's earnings are necessary in order to feed and clothe the family members.

THE HAITIANS

Many adult Haitians who are migrant laborers came to this country as "boat people" in the early 1980's. Often they were attempting to escape the political and economic hardships of their native country. It is likely that your Haitian students were born in this country, but that their parents may have "another family" (spouse and children) in Haiti. Siblings often have different surnames and may refer to brothers and sisters still living in Haiti.

Social Values in Haiti

Haiti, predominantly a nation of Blacks, is a stratified society. The family is the nucleus of Haitian society. The patriarchal system is very prevalent, even though many women raise children without the consistent presence of the father. By tradition, the father is the breadwinner and authority figure. The mother is the household manager and disciplinarian.

Parents do not consider themselves "buddies" or friends to their children. The parental role is authoritarian, but not always consistent. Parents rarely joke with their children and seldom talk to them except to give directions or to correct them. Children are not allowed direct eye contact with adults when they are being scolded. Therefore a Haitian student may not look directly at you when being disciplined.

From birth, males are granted more freedom and deference from adult members of the family. The male "macho" image is admired since men are perceived as playing the dominant role in society. Physical aggressiveness, especially among boys, is common, and may not be punished at home. Often, an extra measure of patience is required when disciplining Haitian children.

Language

Although French is the official language of Haiti, it is primarily the language of the upper class. Most Haitians speak Creole, which is a mixture of French vocabulary with the addition of African, Spanish and Indian words. Until recently, all books in school were in French; few Haitians (only one in ten can read and write) have literacy skills in any language. Haitian children in America often speak better English than their parents and appear to be fluent, when in reality their English is quite limited and Creole is still spoken in the home.

- Adapted from A Handbook for Teachers of Haitian Students in New Jersey, 1984 by the New Jersey Department of Education, Trenton, NJ 08625

RESOURCE AGENCIES

RESOURCE AGENCIES

Agency

U.S. Department of Education
Division of Adult Education
& Literacy
400 Maryland Avenue
Washington, DC 20202

Contact/Telephone

Joyce Campbell
(202) 732-2412

Services/Materials

o Grant information,
instructional resources

Bureau of Migrant Education
Louisiana Department of Education
P.O. Box 94064
Baton Rouge, LA 70804-9064

Al Wright, Editor
(504) 342-3517

o MEMO (Migrant Education
Monthly) available free of
charge; published monthly

ERIC Clearinghouse on Language
and Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, NW
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Association (IRA)
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P. O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714-8139

Central Switchboard
(302) 731-1600

o Annual conference
o Reading Research Quarterly
o Journal of Reading
o Reading Teacher
o Publications catalog available

also

Bilingual Reading Special
Interest Group
Center for Teaching/Learning
University of North Dakota
Grand Forks, ND 58202

o Bilingual SIG Newsletter--
included with annual IRA
membership

Agency

New Jersey Department of Education
 Bilingual Education Office
 225 West State Street
 Trenton, NJ 08625

National Center for Family Literacy
 401 South 4th Avenue, Suite 610
 Louisville, KY 40202

Teachers of English to Speakers of
 Other Languages (TESOL)
 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
 Alexandria, VA 22314

National Council of Teachers
 of English (NCTE)
 111 Kenyon Road
 Urbana, IL 61801

National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education
 Center for Applied Linguistics
 1118 22nd Street, NW
 Washington, DC 20037

Migrant Dropout Reconnection Program
 BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center
 Holcomb Bldg., Rm 210
 Geneseo, NY 14454

Contact/Telephone

Sylvia Roberts, Director
 Linda Gold-Collins, Consultant
 (609) 292-8777

(502) 584-1133

(703) 836-0774

Central Switchboard
 (217) 328-3870

(202) 429-9292

Hotline
 1-800-245-5681
 (NY) 1-800-245-5680

Services/Materials

- o Effective Practices of Bilingual/ESL Teachers--Classroom Strategies for LEP Students; publication free of charge.
- o Newsletter, information on designs & materials for family literacy programs.
- o Annual conference
- o TESOL Newsletter, included with annual membership; published bimonthly
- o TESOL Quarterly, included with membership, published quarterly
- o publications list available
- o Language Arts Journal, included w/annual membership.
- o NCTE Publications, product and price list available
- o ERIC Digest, up-to-date information on Adult Literacy.
- o REAL TALK--a publication informing young adults of continuing education opportunities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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SURVIVAL ENGLISH

Sources for texts, workbooks, audio and video tapes, charts, and newspapers:

LIFELINES, COPING SKILLS IN ENGLISH

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- *Good resource for the teacher, but not as a student text.

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- *A flexible text for high beginners designed to provide adults with the vocabulary they need to cope in vital areas such as: banking, transportation, housing, medical care etc.

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- *Collection of chants and poems designed to teach the natural stress and intonation of American English.

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- *Another collection of chants and poems geared more for adults.

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1-800-451-7556

TEACHER'S HANDBOOK FOR ENGLISH FOR LIVING

The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Bureau of Bilingual Education, Albany, N.Y. 12234.

- *This handbook, printed in 1979, is an excellent source for objectives, suggested visual aids, lesson plans, dialogues, and discussions that can be used in class. An extensive set of short student texts is available at the high intermediate level.

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Dr. Lucy M. Guglielmino, Adult Education Office, Florida Atlantic University, Building 22, Room 194, Boca Raton, FL 33432.

- *An informative orientation guide for ESL teachers of adults.

compiled by Elizabeth S. Rangel

December 1989

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Presents four papers that discuss materials and methods for teaching LEP students. Materials and approaches described include: (1) activities for nonliterate LEP elementary and secondary students; (2) characteristics of curriculum that recognize the learner's cultural experiences; (3) development of effective techniques in a program for ESL adults; and (4) limited literacy and limited English proficiency in the military. Two specialists' responses to the papers are also included.

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Contains four sections on ESL literacy. Section 1 describes techniques to recruit students; section 2 provides examples of assessment instruments; section 3 contains tests measuring students' progress in reading and writing; and section 4 describes curricula. Lesson plans are included.

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Reviews this program for teaching reading to functionally illiterate and limited-English-proficient (LEP) adults. Approaches used include language experience, assisted reading, and sustained silent reading, among others. Extensive appendixes contain a suggested materials list, newspaper exercises, and original stories for nonreaders.

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Presents an eclectic approach to literacy training. Appendixes on teaching the alphabet, a series of number exercises, a list of Oregon Minimal Competencies, and an annotated bibliography are included.

To read journal articles, locate the appropriate journal in the library nearest you. Documents may be read on microfiche at institutions with an ERIC collection, or ordered from:

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compiled by Allyson Fellars

June 1990

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Examines the major issues involved in helping private business and industry face the challenge of effectively training limited-English-proficient (LEP) employees. Material reviewed in the paper is concerned with providing the best assistance to private industry programs and developing a handbook to help start other industry-based programs.

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Discusses the need for changes in vocational education to accommodate the limited-English-proficient (LEP) population. This occasional paper examines the effects of vocational education on language minority students at the secondary level and presents some promising practices in vocational education. It concludes with recommendations for bilingual and ESL educators, parents, and policymakers.

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Provides strategies for teaching in pairs and guidelines for ESL instruction (general approaches, role playing, picture files, assessment and reviewing). A section is devoted to writing by workers that may be used to inspire others to write, and a final section provides suggestions and practical information for arranging field trips.

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Discusses the trends of current research in the way information gained through reading is processed to enhance occupational effectiveness. Curriculum developers can use the research on adult literacy and adult learning to create programs that will effectively prepare adults for the workplace.

ED 285 974 Business Council for Effective Literacy. *Job-Related Basic Skills: A Guide for Planners of Employee Programs. BCEL Bulletin, Issue No. 2*. 1987. 46pp.

Presents a step-by-step guide to planning and implementing an effective job-related employee basic skills program. Fourteen illustrative cases are provided throughout the guide, which includes three sections: (1) general guiding principles; (2) basic steps in developing, implementing, and assuring the effectiveness of the program; and (3) special issues, such as scheduling, the role of volunteers, the use of computers, and working with limited-English-proficient employees.

ED 245 120 Experiment in International Living; And Others. *Shifting Gears. Hands-on Activities for Learning Workplace Skills and English as a Second Language. A Teacher's Handbook*. 1983. 337pp.

Presents a hands-on approach to teaching basic skills and language for the U.S. workplace to students who are not familiar with many common tools and procedures. Included in the curriculum are two units, each unit containing 12 activity lessons and 34 numbers lessons to be used concurrently; a sample lesson plan; and a selection of teaching techniques.

ED 178 903 Jacob, Evelyn; Crandall, Jo Ann. *Job-Related Literacy: A Look at Current and Needed Research*. 1979. 14pp.

Points out the need for data based on ethnographic approaches to research and more realistic assessments of text difficulty. Problems with using readability formulas are pointed out, and the use of cloze test is recommended as a better approach to measuring literacy levels. Also noted are the parallels between adult reading programs and adult English as a second language programs.

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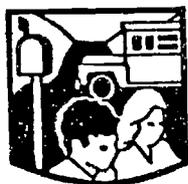
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DROP OUTS:

**WAYS TO RETRIEVE
AND HELP THEM**

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Migrant Students Who Leave School Early: Strategies for Retrieval

EDO-RC-91-7

THIS DIGEST examines the extent of early school leaving among migrants, conditions that precede early school leaving, common features of programs that work to retrieve dropouts, and illustrative programs that exhibit these features. The discussion of the predicament of migrant students, however, recognizes that retrieval programs *must* be adapted to local contexts.

The importance of dropout retrieval among migrant students

Migrant students have the lowest graduation rate in the public school system (Johnson, Levy, Morales, Morse, & Prokop, 1986). And in recent years, the educational system has rightly paid a good deal of attention to techniques for *preventing* early school leaving. However, because so many migrant youth leave school before they graduate, prevention is just part of the effort required to ensure that migrant students complete high school. "Dropout retrieval," the effort to identify and help dropouts complete high school diplomas, is the other part.

Migrant youth are *difficult to retrieve*, however, because of their mobility, comparatively greater need for financial support, and early family responsibilities. Strategies for meeting this challenge must include ways to accommodate the reality of migrant students' circumstances.

The extent of dropping out among migrants

The conditions that make dropout retrieval difficult also make difficult the collection of data about the extent of the problem. Two studies, however, corroborate the fact that the dropout rate for this group remains very high.

The Migrant Attrition Project conducted a study for the U.S. Department of Education that showed a 45 percent national dropout rate (Migrant Attrition Project, 1987), with a margin of error of ± 4 percent. A cooperative effort among states serving high proportions of migrant students, the study used a national, stratified random sample of 1,000 migrant students. The only comparable study, done 12 years earlier, had reported a 90 percent dropout rate. The more recent study concluded that, overall, strategies to support migrant students' efforts to complete high school were producing positive results.

Another study, conducted by the Interstate Migrant Education Council, analyzed data from the Migrant Student Record Transfer System for calendar year 1985. These national data show the sharp decrease in the number of fulltime equivalent (FTE) enrollments for migrant students in first versus twelfth grade. In first grade there were more than 35,000 FTE enrollments among migrant students, but in twelfth grade, there were fewer than 15,000 FTE enrollments. These findings suggest an attrition rate greater than 57 percent (Interstate Migrant Education Council, 1987).

Whatever the exact statistics might be, these data clearly suggest that though the dropout rate is declining, it remains high. The national rate for migrant students, in fact, still appears to be far higher than national rates for African-American or Hispanic students generally (see Kaufman & Frase, 1990).

Conditions that lead to early school leaving

Migrant students face the same risks as many impoverished, disadvantaged, or otherwise handicapped students. But, as a group, migrant students are more intensely at risk than the general population (Migrant Attrition Project, 1987).

Overage grade placement, for example, is among the most important of these conditions. Analysis of data from the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) indicates that, among current migrant students in grades 9-12, 50 percent were on grade level, 32 percent were one year below grade level, and 18 percent were two or more years below grade level. Thus, about half of all migrant students might reasonably be considered to be at risk of leaving school early (Migrant Education Secondary Assistance Project, 1989).

Poverty is another major condition that influences migrants to leave school early. De Mers (1988), for example, reports that the average income for a migrant family of 5.3 members was about \$5,500 in 1988. The contribution of another working family member can help provide necessities the family would otherwise lack. Moreover, many migrant youth start families of their own as adolescents, a condition that provides a further incentive to leave school early. The lack of adequate child care services can keep such students from participating in retrieval programs.

Interrupted school attendance and lack of continuity in curriculum from that interruption of studies are additional conditions that raise the dropout rate for migrant students. These conditions mean that migrant students often do not accumulate the credits they otherwise would.

Inconsistent recordkeeping in the schools seems to contribute to this problem. Migrant students rely on MSRTS updates so that the record of credits *they have already earned* are accessible to schools they will attend in the future. If schools fail to enter credits earned by migrant students, school completion is more difficult than it need be. During the 1987-88 regular term school year, for example, only 22 percent of the current migrant students in grades 9-12 who (1) changed school districts and also (2) attended two or more schools carried full or partial credit on their MSRTS records (Migrant Education Secondary Assistance Project, 1989).

Limited English proficiency is also a major condition of risk (so far as completing school in the U.S. is concerned). The first language of many migrant students is not English. For example, Hispanic

students comprise 75 percent of all migrant students (Salerno, 1989). Among these, many are foreign-born and have had little or no schooling in their native countries. Mobility and school interruptions compound the problem.

Effective features of dropout retrieval programs

Salerno and Fink (1989) noted a number of program features that research has found benefit migrant youth. The characteristics are classified according to type of service:

- **Academics**—basic skills, enrichment (e.g., field trips and cultural events), English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) instruction, placement options (home-study, residential, or commuter programs), and GED preparation;
- **Vocational training**—career awareness, job placement, post-employment counseling, and vocational courses; and
- **Support services**—child care, counseling and referral to social service agencies, self-concept development, stipends, and transportation.

Examples of programs that address the needs of migrant students

Not every program needs to incorporate each of the features listed above. To help guide efforts to improve programs or devise new ones, however, administrators and teachers can assess the needs of the students they serve against these features. Illustrative applications in existing programs are described below.

The High School Equivalency Program (HEP), funded by the Migrant Education Office of the U.S. Department of Education, provides migrant dropouts the chance to prepare for the GED high school equivalency diploma in a residential program on a college campus or in a commuter program. The 23 HEPs located across the nation offer counseling, tutoring, career information and job placement, transportation to and from the program site, and enrichment activities. Program cycles average 8 to 12 weeks. Some sites, moreover, offer GED instruction in Spanish. In residential programs, students receive room and board. In addition, they get small stipends during the program cycle.

The Migrant Dropout Reconnection Program (MDRP), based in Geneseo, New York, offers referral services to 16- to 21-year-old migrant dropout youth. A national hotline (1-800/245-5681 nationwide; 1-800/245-5680 in New York state) reconnects them to educational or vocational programs. Youth receive a monthly bilingual newsletter, REAL TALK, that encourages their reentry into a program. The newsletter provides information about health, career, and educational opportunities. It also features role models and youths' own writing. Bilingual educational clip sheets are also available to REAL TALK readers. The personal touch through hotline calls with counselors and followup letters gives many migrant youth the support they need to continue their schooling. A component of this program is GRASP (Giving Rural Adults a Study Program), a home-study GED course. Lack of transportation and child care, coupled with rural isolation and negative school experiences, make home-study both appealing to and feasible for migrant dropouts.

Family literacy programs are a much needed option for migrants. The Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project, based in Louisville, Kentucky, and Migrant Education-funded Even Start, with programs in the States of Louisiana, New York, and Oregon, are examples that address intergenerational literacy. La Familia, with programs in

California and Arizona, meets the educational and social services needs of the whole family through GED and ESL instruction, citizenship/amnesty classes, and information.

The Migrant Alternative School in Yakima, Washington, provides GED preparation in both English and Spanish, ESL instruction, basic skills, vocational training, counseling for employment and college planning, and some credit-bearing classes for students planning to return to high school. Since about 80 percent of the migrant students in this program have been educated in Mexico, the program's emphasis on GED preparation in Spanish is essential.

Work-study could be an effective feature of dropout retrieval programs for two reasons. First, it can help students develop new occupational skills, and, second, it can couple education with the income these students need. Unfortunately, few work-study programs are available as yet. Although not specific to migrant students, Project READY of Bettendorf, Iowa, is an example of a work-study program that places students in a job in the community for at least 15 hours a week and in school one day a week to work toward a high school diploma.

Further information about these and other programs is available from a variety of sources, including the ERIC database. (ERIC/CRESS staff will perform free searches for anyone; simply call 1-800/624-9120 and ask for "user services.")

Overcoming risk among migrant students

Dropout retrieval programs need to take steps to overcome the risks their students continue to face. Students need a variety of support services and vocational training, in addition to academics. Features of programs like those described in this Digest could be adapted to the diverse circumstances of migrant life, nationwide.

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Prepared by Anne Salerno, BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center, Geneseo, NY

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MIGRANT EDUCATION SECONDARY ASSISTANCE (MESA)

FUTURE DIRECTIONS: RECOMMENDATIONS and IMPLICATIONS

DRAFT

The following recommendations were selected as priorities based on the strongest areas of need revealed in MESA findings.

- **Better identification and recruitment of secondary migrant students and dropouts**

Secondary students and dropouts are not identified as consistently as younger migrant students. Recent MSRTS data revealed that there were 29,075 currently migrant students in 7th and 8th grades during 1987-88 regular term as compared to 34,441 in grades 9-12. Thus, the 7th and 8th grade population represents 84.4% of the totals in the next four grades. This steady decline in students is indicative of an increased dropout rate and may also signify a lack of identification of older students. Though some of these students may not want Migrant Education services or to be identified as migrants among their peers, they should still be identified in order to be offered the option.

A need for improved identification and recruitment is indicated in many states where the number of secondary migrant students who were actually served as reported by Performance Report data is a low percentage of those expected to be served. The range was from less than 2% to 220% with an average of 73%.

An analysis of recent MSRTS data shows that summer enrollment is less than 20% of that shown for regular term. *This may indicate a need for more intensive summer identification and recruitment as well as more extensive and varied summer programs.*

Specific recommendations include: 1) year-round recruiters, 2) use of the family form on the Certificate of Eligibility (COE) to facilitate identification of all children in the family, and 3) greater emphasis on identification of dropouts and collection of data in order to advocate services to them.

- **Increased services to migrant dropouts**

With high school graduation as the overall goal of Migrant Education, the high dropout rate among migrant youth must be of paramount concern. Despite great improvements during the last decade, the rate remains significantly higher than that of the general population. Even though at present the number of retrieval programs is limited, nationally a movement is underway to provide additional services for high school dropouts. Migrant Education legislation mandating service to migrant dropout youth up to age 22 correlates with this national initiative.

Migrant Education needs to provide or facilitate the development of more alternative programs, such as home-study, HEPs (High School Equivalency Programs which provide opportunities to earn high school diplomas or G.E.D.s), pre-G.E.D. programs for youth with less than an eighth grade reading level, career education and expanded residential programs. Funding should be augmented by outside sources. *Dropouts need to be provided with comprehensive services.*

Specific recommendations for dropouts include: 1) informational bulletins or newsletters, 2) regular communication through telephone or home visits, 3) that contact people be equipped with information concerning educational, career and human needs options, 4) that assessment and instruction be provided in the area of life survival skills, 5) that assessment and academic instruction be provided in order to help dropouts prepare for re-entry into schools and other academic programs or the G.E.D.

- **More inter/intrastate and interprogram/interagency coordination and cooperation to benefit migrant youth**

By necessity, Migrant Education has been a leader in inter/intrastate coordination. A large percentage of Migrant Education's previously funded Section 143 projects, which were mandated to provide interstate/intrastate coordination, had a focus on secondary migrant students. Improved interstate coordination can inform more migrant educators of the unique and creative programs that have proven effective for serving migrant youth on the secondary level. Migrant educators are still often not aware of some of the successful methods used within their migrant stream or across the country. At a first level, inter/intrastate cooperation can mean greater awareness among migrant educators of

programs outside their home areas. *Coordination must, however, go beyond the awareness level to build upon an interstate team concept for the development of new initiatives for more effective programming*

Migrant educators in an era of fiscal constraints and mandates for increased services must look beyond the traditional Migrant Education funds to serve the youth comprehensively. Coordination efforts must be expanded to include interagency and interprogram linkages at the federal, state and local levels.

Specific recommendation: Interstate coordination projects should provide lateral teaming and staff development among program level migrant educator peers to promote development and sharing of effective programs and less "reinventing of the wheel."

• More facilitation of credit transfer and access to credit-earning opportunities

Many migrant students lack sufficient credit to graduate due to late entry/early withdrawal, a shortage of the courses required at their designated school of graduation, and other factors. Migrant educators should fully utilize the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) to assure that credits are recorded. During the 1987-88 regular term, 22% of currently migrant students with two or more enrollments had full or partial credit appearing on their MSRTS records. Summer term currently migrant students with two or more enrollments showed virtually no full or partial credit.

Migrant students need a credit make-up system to allow them to compensate for lost credits without adding additional years of schooling. The Portable Assisted Study Sequence (P.A.S.S.) program is an effective method of earning credit that is presently offered in about half the states in varying degrees.

Specific recommendations: 1) Migrant educators should fully use the secondary section of the MSRTS record, giving priority to secondary students who move. 2) The P.A.S.S. program should be made available in all states as a means of supplementing during the regular and/or summer terms or by offering credit opportunities while the student is in transit. 3) Interstate coordination for acceptance of credits among districts and development and improvement of the P.A.S.S. program should be promoted.

• More work-study programs

A migrant student's need to work to help support the family often interferes with high school completion. Even though the desire to get an education is there, a student's obligation to assist the family financially cannot be overlooked.

Work-study programs are a proven and effective means of dropout prevention. Programs should reinforce basic skills, provide challenging work experiences, involve higher level skills, problem solving and career education, as well as positive reinforcement and successful experiences for students. During the 1987-88 regular and summer terms, approximately 10% of the states reported work-study programs.

Specific recommendations: 1) Work-study programs should be an essential component of Migrant Education secondary school and dropout services. 2) Work-study should be funded with Migrant funds and a combination of other public and private sources. 3) Work-study programs must expose youth to challenging career and work opportunities, with the first objective to be the education of the child.

• Greater advocacy for secondary level migrant issues

Migrant staff need to work as ambassadors to the public school system and the community to communicate the special characteristics and needs of minority secondary youth and to promote quality services and high expectations for them.

Specific recommendations include: 1) systematic training of teachers and administrators in higher teacher expectations, using the Teacher Expectation Student Achievement (TESA) program or an equivalent training approach, 2) that as a result of higher teacher expectations students not be tracked into general curriculum or other programs that make college an improbability, 3) that a student advisor or advocate be assigned to serve all high school students and dropouts at the local level, 4) that training and advocacy be provided to promote a culturally sensitive school environment, 5) that migrant and district staff reflect the culture of the students, 6) that interstate coordination projects as well as state and local programs promote greater coordination with post-secondary institutions to increase the enrollment and retention of migrant students in colleges and universities

• Greater Involvement of the whole family in education

The education of any youth cannot take place in a vacuum, isolated from family support. Though many migrant parents have low educational attainments, they would like to have their children receive the educational opportunities they never had.

Migrant educators and youth have repeatedly attributed youth's educational success to positive family support. Migrant Education must foster greater family involvement and take a whole family approach to education. By being provided with educational and support services for the whole family, parents realize more than ever the value of education in their children's lives. Early intervention can enable parents to set high expectations for their children and offer them the encouragement to finish high school and aim for college.

A model which takes a comprehensive approach to involving the whole family, La Familia programs, based in Arizona and California, coordinate efforts to serve migrant families through identifying educational and social service needs.

Specific recommendations: 1) Programs should be sensitive to cultural differences, realizing the potential for cultural conflict between home and school values. 2) Programs must recognize and reinforce in the educational process the cultural strengths and values, the merits of bilingualism in today's society. 3) Migrant staff must be cautious that efforts to provide parent education do not imply to parents that they are at fault for the differences in expectations at home and at school.

• Development of a policy to avoid grade retention

Being overage for grade level is the primary indicator of dropping out. Grade retention increases the chances of dropping out by 40-50% for one year, and by 90% for two or more years. In many areas as many as 50% of migrant kindergartners are retained and some are sent home to spend another year maturing. The Grade Retention and Placement Evaluation (GRAPE) project revealed that by second grade, 50% of migrants nationally were already below grade level as compared to 19% of the general population. MSRTS data from 1987-88 substantiate GRAPE findings. MSRTS data indicate that 50% of currently migrant students in grades 9-12 were below grade level and thus potential dropouts.

Grade retention often takes on a punitive nature. Whatever benefits a child may derive from being held back a grade are soon overridden by a loss of self-esteem, a sense of personal failure, and the negative effects on the student's social development.

Specific recommendations: 1) Migrant educators must be well informed on grade retention research and assertive in advocating against retention. 2) Migrant parents should be well informed as to the educational liabilities of retention. 3) Migrant Education needs to have better coordination between schools to ensure that students are placed appropriately when they move to a new school district, not penalized because they are unknown. 4) Policies should be developed that avoid grade retention so that students remain on grade level from the start. 5) Migrant educators should develop a variety of options for extra assistance to students in danger of retention so that they will be promoted. 6) A student's being "over-age" for his/her grade should be used as a criterion to indicate a need for services.

• **More versatility in programming and scheduling**

More migrant students will graduate if they have the opportunity to study and earn credit at more convenient times than the traditional school system offers. Analysis of recent MSRTS data shows that summer enrollment is less than twenty percent of that of regular term. The same data show that a larger percentage of those students who enrolled in summer term were on grade level. Such innovative programs as Florida's Summer Institute have demonstrated the effectiveness of alternative scheduling.

Specific recommendations: 1) Migrant Education must become truly supplemental at the secondary level by using after-school, evening, summer and weekend programming. 2) Home-study packets, such as those used in California, New York, and Pennsylvania, must be available in all states to provide another option for summer enrichment and credit make-up. 3) Programs must be offered throughout the summer months at hours that are convenient to the students rather than the staff. 4) Migrant programs must always be open to late-arriving migrant students; there should be no cutoff or exclusion due to mobility.

REAL



TALK

A National Interstate
and Intrastate Linkage System
to Identify and Serve Migrant
Dropout Youth

Vol. XII, No. 12
BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center
Holcomb Building 210
Geneseo, New York 14454
716/245-5681

SPECIAL PROGRAMS EDITION

CHOOSE A PROGRAM RIGHT FOR YOU

Have you been thinking about going back to school? Would you like to learn how to do a new job? Do you need help with English?

In this special issue of REAL TALK, you will find out about some programs that can help you. Some of the programs may be as close as your local high school. Other programs might be farther from home. For some you might go away from home and live at the program.

Maybe you have special needs that make it hard for you to study. You may not have a babysitter, or a car, or money for a class. Some programs are free. Some have child care, transportation, money for you while you train, or are home-study.

There are many choices to make in your life. Getting an education is one choice that will make your life better. Choose a program that is right for you. You'll be glad you did.

¡ESCOGE EL PROGRAMA MEJOR PARA TI!

¿Has estado pensando en volver a la escuela? ¿Te gustaría aprender un nuevo oficio? ¿Necesitas ayuda con el inglés?

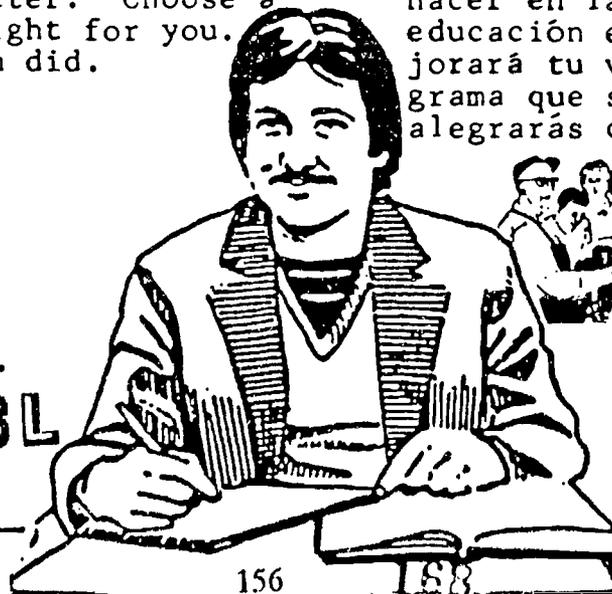
En este número especial de REAL TALK encontrarás información sobre algunos programas que pueden ayudarte. Algunos de estos programas pueden estar tan cerca como tu escuela secundaria. Otros pueden ser mas lejos de tu casa. Para algunos puedes vivir donde el programa se enseña.

Quizás tengas necesidades específicas que dificulten tu estudio. Puede que no tengas una niñera, o coche o dinero para la clase. Algunos programas son gratis. Algunos tienen guardería infantil, transporte, dinero para ti mientras estás en entrenamiento o estudiando.

Hay muchas decisiones que hacer en la vida. Conseguir una educación es una elección que mejorará tu vida. Escoge un programa que sea bueno para ti. Te alegrarás de haberlo hecho.



**ABE
ESL**



G.R.A.S.P.



G.E.D.

Do you have a high school diploma?

If not, you may want a G.E.D. G.E.D. means "general educational development." Some people call it the "high school equivalency test." It is a group of tests to show if you have the skills of most high school graduates. The 5 tests are:

1. Writing skills
2. Social studies
3. Science
4. Interpreting literature and the arts
5. Mathematics

WHO MAY TAKE THE G.E.D.?

Each state has its own rules. Call your local high school, adult education program or vocational school. Ask about the G.E.D. They will know the rules in your area.

WHEN AND WHERE CAN I TAKE THE TEST?

G.E.D. tests are given at many times and places. When you call your school, ask how to find out when and where you can take the tests.

THEN GET READY!

The tests are not easy. You may want to go to a class. Many times classes are free, but you may have to buy the books.

Get a G.E.D.! It's a good step to:

- * getting a job
- * getting a better job
- * or even going to college



¿Has obtenido el diploma de la secundaria?

Si no lo tienes, quizá quieras obtener el G.E.D. Las iniciales del inglés G.E.D. significan: desarrollo educativo general. Hay quien lo llama "prueba equivalente a la escuela secundaria." Consiste en un grupo de pruebas que demuestran si uno es tan hábil como la mayoría de los graduados. Las 5 pruebas son:

1. Escritura correcta
2. Estudios Sociales
3. Ciencias
4. Interpretación de literatura y artes
5. Matemáticas

¿QUIÉN PUEDE TOMAR EL G.E.D.?

Cada estado tiene sus reglamentos. Llama a la escuela secundaria de tu barrio o a la oficina de un programa escolar para adultos o a una escuela vocacional. Pregunta acerca del G.E.D. Allí sabrán los reglamentos del estado.

¿DÓNDE Y CUÁNDO PUEDO TOMAR LA PRUEBA?

Las pruebas del G.E.D. se dan a menudo y en muchos lugares. Cuando llames, pregunta cómo puedes averiguar el lugar y día que tú puedes tomar las pruebas.

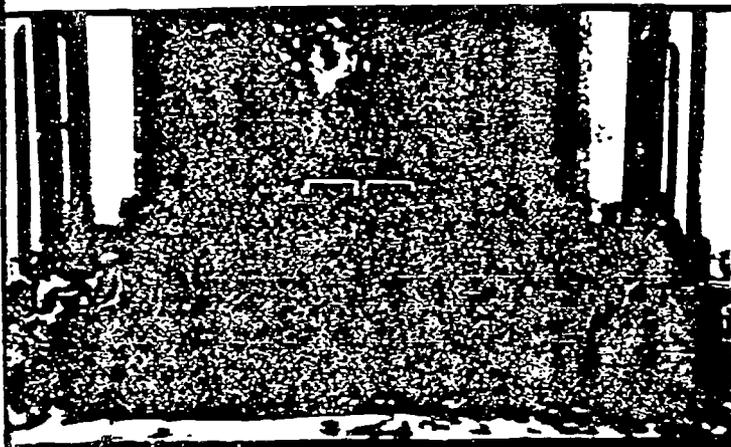
LUEGO, ¡PREPÁRATE!

Las pruebas no son fáciles. Quizá quieras asistir a clase. Muchas veces estas clases son gratis pero quizá debas comprar los libros.

¡Ve por el G.E.D.!
Es un buen paso para:

- * conseguir empleo
- * conseguir un empleo mejor
- * o para ir a la universidad

HEP



*University of Houston HEP graduates
Graduados del HEP de la University de Houston*

Are you ready for HEP?

HEP is ready for you! Since 1968 the High School Equivalency Program (HEP) has been helping migrant youth to get their high school equivalency diplomas (G.E.D.s), think about careers, and find jobs. Are you ready for HEP? Let's take a look!

Funded by the federal government, HEP has programs in many states.

HEP provides instruction leading to a high school equivalency diploma. Students attend classes and enjoy many other activities. Many sites are on college campuses and room and board are provided in the college dormitories and dining halls. Students receive free transportation to and from the HEP site, as well as an allowance for personal expenses. HEP counselors are available to help with problems.



(Continued on page 5)

¿Listos para ingresar en HEP?

¡En HEP están listos para recibirlos! Desde 1968 el programa HEP (Equivalente a Escuela Secundaria) ha estado ayudando a jóvenes migrantes a obtener el diploma G.E.D., que es equivalente al regular, y también a pensar en varias carreras, y a conseguir empleo. ¿Están listos? ¡Vamos a ver!

Provistos de fondos por el gobierno federal, los programas HEP se encuentran en muchos estados.

HEP brinda enseñanzas que permiten al alumno obtener el diploma equivalente a la escuela secundaria. Los estudiantes asisten a clases y disfrutan de otras actividades. Muchos de los programas se dan en recintos de universidades y los jóvenes viven en dormitorios y usan los comedores. La transportación es gratis y los estudiantes reciben un estipendio para los gastos personales. HEP tiene consejeros disponibles para ayudar con los problemas que se presenten.

¿QUIEN CALIFICA?

Los que solicitan a HEP deben:

- * tener 17 o más años de edad
- * ser dimitentes de la escuela secundaria
- * proponerse a seguir un programa serio de estudio y preparación para un empleo
- * ser obreros agrícolas o depender de uno y que haya trabajado por lo menos 75 días en los últimos 24 meses

(Página 5)

HEP

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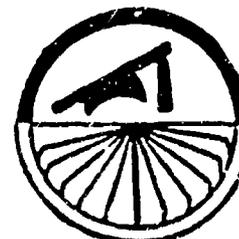
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HEP

(Continued from page 3)

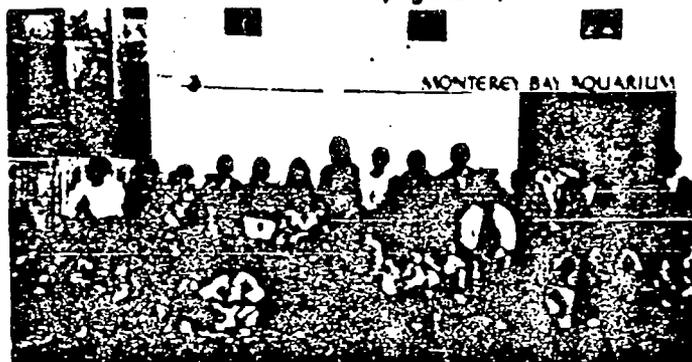
ELIGIBILITY?

A HEP applicant must be:

- * 17 years of age or older
- * a high school dropout
- * willing to follow a program of serious study and job preparation
- * an agricultural worker or a dependent of an agricultural worker with at least 75 days work in the past 24 months.

Are you ready for HEP? If you are interested, contact one of the HEP programs listed on page 4. Let's go - it's a great program!

(Viene de la página 3)



San Joaquin Delta College HEP

¿Listos a ingresar en HEP?
Si les interesa, comuníquense con uno de los programas HEP en la lista de la página 4. ¡A ver, es un gran programal.

Migrant Dropout Reconnection Program (MDRP) Programa Para Migrantes Que Salieron La Escuela (MDRP)

I am interested in finding out more about:
Me interesa saber más sobre:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|--|
| Adult Basic Education (ABE) | _____ | Programas de educación básica para adultos (ABE) |
| English as a Second Language (ESL) | _____ | Inglés como Segunda Lengua (ESL) |
| G.E.D. | _____ | G.E.D. |
| G.R.A.S.P. | _____ | G.R.A.S.P. |
| High School Equivalency Program (HEP) | _____ | Equivalencia de la Escuela Secundaria (HEP) |
| Job Corps | _____ | "Job Corps" (Cuerpos de trabajo) |
| Vocational programs | _____ | Programas vocacionales |

Name/Nombre

Street address/Dirección

City, State, Zip/Ciudad, Estado, Apartado de correos

Mail to/Mándelo a:
BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center
Holcomb Building, 210
Geneseo, NY 14454
1-800-245-5681
1-800-245-5680 (in/en NYS)

ABE

DO YOU WANT HELP IN STUDYING FOR THE G.E.D.?

Check out Adult Basic Education (ABE). ABE classes are given in many areas. Call your high school, library, vocational school or community college and ask. Classes may be given during the day, or at night, or you may have a choice. Most often when you enroll you are given a short test. Then the teacher knows what you need to study. You don't need to waste time on things you already know.

Who May Attend?

ABE classes are most often open to anyone 16 years of age or older. But you can check the rules in your area.

How much will ABE cost?

Again, check in your area. Many times classes are FREE. You may need to buy books.

ABE - Check it out. It can be a good start for you!

¿QUIERES AYUDA EN TUS ESTUDIOS PARA EL G.E.D.?

Investiga el programa Educación Básica para Adultos (iniciales del inglés: ABE). Las clases ABE se ofrecen en muchas localidades. Llama a la escuela secundaria de tu barrio, la biblioteca, la escuela vocacional o al instituto de la comunidad de tu región. Hay clases de día o de noche o quizá dan a escoger. Por lo regular, al matricularte te dan a tomar una pequeña prueba. Así sabrán lo que debes estudiar. No hay que perder tiempo en lo que ya sabes.

¿Quién Puede Asistir?

Las clases de ABE se ofrecen a los que han cumplido 16 años. Pero debes averiguar las reglas que tienen en tu región.

¿Cuánto cuesta el programa ABE?

Debes preguntar en tu localidad. Hay veces que las clases son GRATIS. Quizá tengas que comprar los libros.

El programa ABE - ¡investígalo! Podría ser un buen comienzo para ti.



ESL

Would you like to learn English? Maybe you speak a little English but would like to learn more.



English as a Second Language (ESL) classes can help you.

There are classes for people who speak some or no English. Learning English can make your life easier. Think of all the times you need English in your everyday life:

- * on the phone
- * at the bank, post office, or drug store
- * at the doctor's or clinic
- * at the grocery store
- * when you help your children with school work
- * when you look for a job
- * when you study for the citizenship test
- * when you meet new friends

English classes can help you take care of your personal needs and help you on the job. Learning more English makes you feel good about yourself.

English classes may be at:

- * libraries
- * high schools
- * county programs
- * adult education courses
- * adult Migrant Education courses
- * Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA)
- * local churches

Check your local area for an ESL class.

¿Te gustaría aprender inglés? Quizás puedas hablar un poco inglés pero te gustaría aprender más.

Las clases de Inglés como Segunda Lengua (ESL) pueden ayudarte. Hay clases para personas que hablan algún o ningún inglés. Aprender inglés puede hacer tu vida más fácil. Piensa en todas las veces que necesitas el inglés en tu vida diaria:

- * en el teléfono
- * en el banco, correos o droguerías
- * en la oficina del médico o en la clínica
- * en la tienda
- * cuando ayudas a tus niños con la tarea
- * cuando buscas trabajo
- * cuando estudias para el examen de ciudadanía
- * cuando haces nuevos amigos

Las clases de inglés pueden ayudarte a tener cuidado de tus necesidades personales y ayudarte en el trabajo. Aprender más inglés te hace sentir más satisfecho de ti mismo.

Puede haber clases de inglés en:

- * bibliotecas
- * escuelas secundarias
- * programas en el campo
- * cursos de educación para adultos
- * cursos de educación de migrantes adultos
- * programas de Instructores Voluntarios de América (LVA)
- * iglesias locales

Busca las clases de ESL en tu localidad.



VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS PROGRAMAS VOCACIONALES

Have you been thinking of getting a better job?

Would you like to learn a new trade or skill?

There are many vocational programs that can train you. Look for a program near you. Programs may be in high schools, community colleges, or at county sites.

You can learn many skills that will help you earn more money. Even if you have a high school diploma, you may think about a training program. Do you want to learn how to be a mechanic, nurse, hairdresser, welder, computer worker, secretary, carpenter, recreation aide? What do you want to learn? A vocational program near you may be able to teach you.

You may find that you can choose:

- * Day classes or night classes
- * A program with child care
- * A program that lasts weeks, months, or years

Vocational programs run by local, county, state or federal funds may be free or very low cost. When you check on a program, ask how much it will cost. If you qualify, you may be able to get financial help.

Some programs are run by private companies. These may sound like good deals. They can cost a lot. They might make big promises to train you in a short time. Always check out a program carefully! You could be wasting your money and your time.

If you want to know more about vocational programs in your area, call your high school guidance counselor. You can also call a state employment office.

¿Has pensado en conseguir un nuevo trabajo?

¿Te gustaría aprender un nuevo oficio o destreza?

Hay muchos programas vocacionales que te pueden entrenar. Busca uno que esté cerca. Los programas pueden ser en escuelas secundarias, universidades locales o en otros sitios del distrito.

Puedes aprender destrezas que te ayuden a ganar más dinero. Aunque tengas el diploma de la escuela secundaria, puede que te interese un programa de entrenamiento. ¿Quieres aprender a ser mecánico/a, enfermero/a, peluquera, soldador/a, secretario/a, carpintero/a, ayudante de recreaciones o trabajar en computadoras? ¿Qué quieres aprender? Un programa vocacional cercano puede ser capaz de enseñarte.

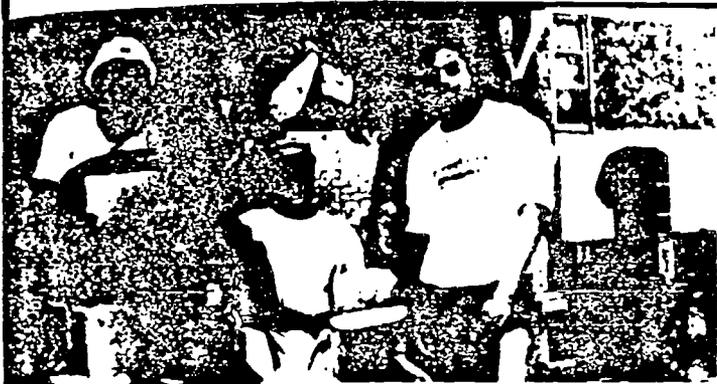
- Quizás puedas escoger:
- * Clases de día o de noche
 - * Un programa con guardería infantil
 - * Un programa que dura semanas, meses, o años.

Los programas vocacionales están financiados por fondos locales, estatales, federales o del condado, pueden ser gratis o muy baratos. Cuando te apuntes en uno de estos programas, pregunta cuanto cuesta. Si calificas, puedes ser capaz de conseguir ayuda financiera.

Algunos programas son de compañías privadas. Pueden parecer buenos negocios. Pueden costar mucho. Pueden prometer entrenamiento en poco tiempo. ¡Examina el programa con cuidado! Puedes estar perdiendo el dinero y el tiempo.

Si quieres saber más de programas vocacionales en tu zona, llama a tu consejero en la escuela secundaria. También, puedes llamar a la oficina de empleo del estado.

JOB CORPS



Job Corps, Cassadaga, NY
Photos by Pat Edwards

Each year thousands of young men and women like you make a **NEW LIFE** and a **GOOD LIVING** by joining **JOB CORPS**. It is a **FREE** program that offers you training in job skills and instruction in **G.E.D.** **JOB CORPS** was developed especially for young people who have trouble getting a good paying job because they lack education and training.

The training is provided at **JOB CORPS** Centers all over the United States. You may live at a **JOB CORPS** or may choose to attend each day and live at home. Some **JOB CORPS** Centers even have child care.

To **JOIN JOB CORPS** you must be:

- * between 16 & 22 years of age
- * from a low income family
- * in need of vocational training to get a job
- * able to benefit from and complete the training

At **JOB CORPS** you will **RECEIVE**:

- * a small cash allowance for personal needs that increases after two months of training
- * free room, food, medical care and transportation to the Center to begin training
- * an allowance that is saved for you until the end of training

Cada año miles de jóvenes como tú comienzan una **NUEVA VIDA** y **SE GANAN BIEN LA VIDA** ingresando en **LOS CUERPOS DE TRABAJO (JOB CORPS)**. Es un programa gratis que te ofrece entrenamiento en diversos trabajos e instrucción para el **G.E.D.** Los "**JOB CORPS**" se crearon especialmente para gente joven que tiene problemas para encontrar un trabajo bien pagado por falta de educación y entrenamiento.

El entrenamiento se da en Centros de "**JOB CORPS**" en todos los Estados Unidos. Puedes vivir en los Centros de "**JOB CORPS**" o puedes escoger el vivir en casa e ir allí todos los días. Algunos de estos Centros tienen guardería infantil.

Para inscribirte en los "**JOB CORPS**" debes de:

- * tener entre 16 y 22 años de edad
- * ser de una familia de bajos ingresos económicos
- * necesitar un entrenamiento vocacional para conseguir un trabajo
- * ser capaz de completar y de beneficiarte del entrenamiento

En los "**JOB CORPS**" **RECIBIRÁS**:

- * una pequeña cantidad de dinero para necesidades personales que aumentará después de dos meses de entrenamiento
- * habitación, comida, asistencia médica y transporte al centro al comienzo del entrenamiento, todo esto gratis
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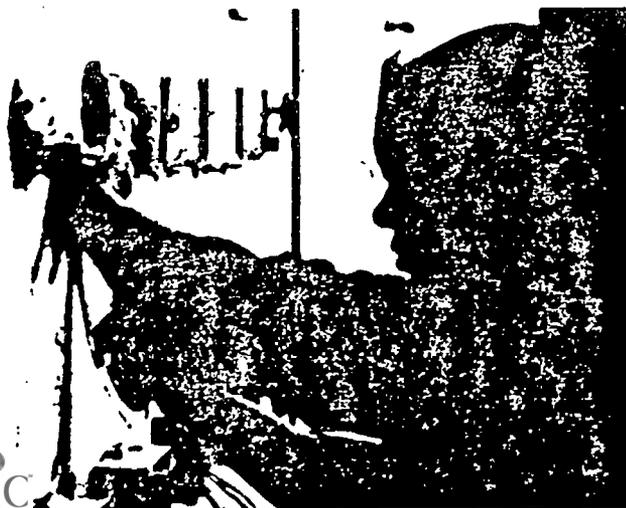
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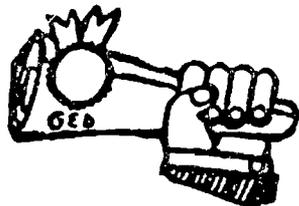
Los "JOB CORPS" pueden ser TU camino para conseguir una educación y un trabajo bien pagado.



G.R.A.S.P.

DO YOU WISH TO STUDY TOWARD YOUR G.E.D. BUT CAN'T GET TO A CLASS?

THINK ABOUT G.R.A.S.P.



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Cuando estés listo a tomar la prueba que equivale a estudios de escuela secundaria (el G.E.D.), recibirás una prueba de práctica. Si la apruebas, vas al centro de examinar más cercano a firmar la lista para tomar la prueba formal del G.E.D.

¿QUÉ VA A COSTAR?

El programa es GRATIS! Los materiales son GRATIS. El gasto del correo está pago. Los materiales y la parte educativa corren por cuenta del Programa Reconexión del Migrante Sin Diploma (MDRP).

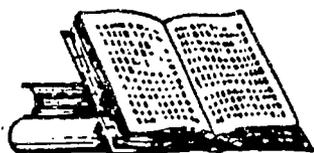
¿SOY ELEGIBLE?

Sí, puedes entrar en el programa si no obtuviste el diploma de la escuela secundaria y si estás dispuesto a estudiar por tu cuenta.

¿QUÉ DEBO HACER PARA EMPEZAR?

Llama gratis a la línea alerta o envía por correo el cupón. Se te enviará una carta describiendo el programa, los blancos para matricularte, y una

G.R.A.S.P.



them to the G.R.A.S.P. program, the test will be scored and you will be sent materials to begin work toward your G.E.D. All materials are written in English.

ENROLL SOON

Only a limited number of spaces are open.

copia de una prueba de nivel de lectura y matemática. Cuando completes la prueba y los blancos de la matrícula, devuélvelos al programa G.R.A.S.P. Acá marcamos la prueba y te enviamos los materiales para que comiences los estudios del G.E.D. Todos los materiales están escritos en inglés.

MATRICÚLATE PRONTO

Hay cabida para un número limitado de estudiantes.



G.R.A.S.P. student Margarita Zertuche was born in Matamoros, Mexico. She is 21 years old and is from a family of sixteen. She and her family used to travel from Florida up north to pick vegetables. Now she works in a nursery. She likes G.R.A.S.P. because she can work and study at the same time every day. Margarita tells others, "Try to go back to school. Show yourself and everybody that you can do it."

La estudiante del programa G.R.A.S.P. Margarita Zertuche nació en Matamoros, Mexico. Tiene 21 años y es de una familia de 16 personas. Ella y su familia viajan de Florida al norte para cosechar vegetales. Ahora ella trabaja en un semillero. A ella le gusta G.R.A.S.P. porque puede trabajar y estudiar a la misma hora todos los días. Margarita les dice a otros, "Traten de regresar a la escuela. Demuéstrate a ti mismo y todo el mundo que tú puedes hacerlo."



REAL TALK
BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center
Holcomb Building, 210
Geneseo, NY 14454

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ADDITIONAL READINGS

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English Literacy Development: Approaches and Strategies that Work with Limited English Proficient Children and Adults

Carmen Simich-Dudgeon

Introduction

This paper discusses selected issues in the development of literacy in children and adults with limited English proficiency (LEP) and their relevance to literacy teaching. It presents an overview of literacy definitions and suggests trends in the current understanding about literacy, especially as it pertains to LEP learners. This overview is followed by a review of several models and approaches currently used to develop the literacy skills (reading and writing) of LEP learners. Conclusions and recommendations are also included.

The Different Meanings of Literacy

A review of the literature on the teaching of literacy suggests that there is considerable variation in the way literacy is defined. For example, Sticht suggests it is the ability of individuals to "perform some reading task imposed by an external agent between the reader and a goal the reader wishes to obtain" (1975, pp. 4-5) while Bormuth defines it as the ability to respond competently to real-world reading tasks (1975). Other definitions of literacy are linked to a school grade-level of performance ranging from a fourth- to a twelfth-grade level (Harmon, 1987). Other experts define literacy within cultural and societal parameters. Venesky, Kaestle, and Sum (1987), for example, conclude:

literacy is... a continuum of skills that are acquired both in and outside of formal schooling and that relate directly to the ability [of individuals] to function within society (p. 3).

Freire (1985) defines literacy as "a process of search and creation by which illiterate learners are challenged

to perceive the deeper meaning of language and the word, the word that, in essence, they are being denied" (p. 10).

Freire states that literacy is intrinsically linked to political and cultural factors and that literacy "develops students' consciousness of their rights, along with their critical presence in the real world" (p. 10). The use of curricula and texts which do not reflect the actual experience of the nonliterate learner, in his view, distorts the learner's reality and motivation to become literate. The work of Freire has had an impact on literacy programs in many parts of the world.

An Operational Definition of Literacy

Given the various definitions of the term "literacy," perhaps an operational definition would be most practical. One such definition is given by Wells, et al. (1981) who suggest that:

there is no simple dichotomy between literate and nonliterate [individuals] but, instead, many varieties and degrees of literacy depending on the range of uses to which the skills of literacy are put (p. 260).

In regard to both school-age students and adults, Wells (1987) proposes a continuum of "levels" of literacy, each characterized by what students can do with written material:

Performative Level: involves decoding simple written messages and encoding ideas into writing according to written conventions.

Functional Level: involves coping with the needs of everyday life that involve written language.

Information Level: involves the use of literacy skills in the communication and acquisition of knowledge.

Epistemic Level: involves acting upon and transforming knowledge and experience that are, in general, unavailable to those who have never learned to read and write (p. 110).

The Wells literacy continuum implies that first-level literacy involves simple decoding and encoding skills; individuals at the second level of literacy are able to read and follow directions, complete forms requesting personal information, write messages, fill in job applications, and read newspapers and magazines. The third level allows students to use written language to access the body of knowledge available to them through schooling. The fourth level allows students to "employ symbolically-mediated skills of abstraction and reasoning in structuring and solving the various problems they confront in their everyday lives" (Wells, et al., 1981, p. 261). He also suggests that all levels of literacy could be developed in school settings although this is not always the case. More importantly, he argues that the degree to which students acquire the highest levels of literacy is related to "the extent to which the continued use of these skills is encouraged outside the school context" (p. 261).

Regardless of differences in definitions, there seems to be general agreement that literacy (for both adults and school-age children) involves the ability to use written symbols and conventions to communicate ideas about the world and to extract meaning from the written text, i.e., the ability to read and write. There also seems to be a movement within the literacy field to expand the concept of basic literacy, i.e., being able to decode and encode at a minimal level, toward a functional definition that reflects the demands of our technologically oriented society. Perhaps Wells' literacy continuum best captures the range of different stages of literacy and the relationship between the development of higher literacy levels and its usage in and outside formal school settings.

Awareness of Literacy by Youngsters

In 1985, Wells conducted a longitudinal study of native-English language development of preschool age children, where he investigated the relationship between the rate of language development and the children's home environment. He found significant correlations between overall achievement and a variable

he identified as "knowledge of literacy." This variable, in turn, showed correlation with certain responses to a parent questionnaire administered before the children entered school: the number of books owned by the child, the child's interest in literacy, and the child's concentration in activities associated with literacy, e.g., being read to. Although variation in the rate of development was found, Wells concluded that children who had more opportunities to participate in verbal interaction with family members at home showed higher rates of language development before schooling.

When the children in the study reached school age, some were identified as more ready than others for school by teachers using school-approved testing measures. Wells investigated the reason for the differences between the children's school evaluations and concluded that:

differential attainment in school, at least in the early years...was in large part due to differences between children in their experiences of written language in the preschool years and in their knowledge of the functions and mechanics of reading and writing (p. 234).

Goodman, Goodman, and Flores (1979) studied the effects of symbolic representation of print on preschool children's awareness of literacy. They concluded that young children in literate societies become aware of printed signs in their environment and relate them to their own immediate world. For example, they learn from TV advertisements how to identify print related to their favorite toys, cereals, and restaurants. Similar types of environmental stimuli are also present in literate communities where limited English proficient (or, in the case of young children, non-English proficient) children live. In many of these neighborhoods, public signs might be in both English and the home language of the LEP children; such signs can provide young children with initial literacy exposure in both English and their home language.

However, not all school-age children are exposed to print in their native languages. Many of the world's languages lack a written form. For example, Hmong and Mien (spoken in Southeast Asia), Mam and Cakchiquel (spoken in Central America), Haitian-Creole (spoken in Haiti), and Sranan (spoken in South America), do not have traditionally written forms. People who speak these languages tend to come from rural communities where, traditionally, few people learn to read and write, and they learn to do so only in languages spoken outside their communities. Although adults from such nonliterate communities will have

limited exposure to print; their children, if they come to the United States at an early age, will be exposed to written English (but not necessarily to written forms of their native languages). Children in the United States who come from homes where writing and reading are not usual (because the home language is not a written language) often face a serious disadvantage in becoming literate in English. Such children will often not have developed "knowledge of literacy" before entering school and will have a poorly developed "awareness of literacy."

Awareness of Literacy in Adults

For nonliterate adults learning English as a second language, Haverson and Haynes (1982) identified four categories of native language proficiency and education at the time they enter a literacy program:

Nonliterate: Learners who do not have literacy skills in their native language but "who speak a language for which there is a written form" (p. 3).

Preliterate: Learners who come from sociocultural groups without traditionally written languages.

Semiliterate: Learners who have 3 to 4 years of formal schooling but have minimal literacy skills in a language. They have initial knowledge of a writing system including the names of the letters and can recognize some common (written) words. They can write their name and address. These learners often have poor self-esteem and little confidence in their abilities.

Literate in a non-Roman alphabet or other writing system: Learners who are literate in their native language but have to learn a new writing system. Chinese- and Lao-speakers are examples.

Some of the adults in American ESL/literacy programs from Cambodia, Ethiopia, and Bolivia can be classified as nonliterate if they speak a language that has a traditional form of writing and they lack literacy skills. Preliterate adults are distinguishable from nonliterate adults in that they lack literacy skills and speak a native language that is not traditionally written. Some adults from Laos, such as the Hmong, and from Haiti would be classified as such.

Because of interruption in the local education systems as a result of war, natural disasters, or other reasons, some of the adults coming to this country as refugees from Central America, Ethiopia, and other countries can be classified as semiliterate since such individuals often have 4 years or less of formal schooling.

In addition to the above categories, a category for LEP adults who are literate in languages written in the Roman alphabet (e.g., Vietnamese, Spanish, Portuguese, Navajo, Samoan, etc.) should be added to the Haverson-Haynes system.

LEP adults and children who fall into the first three categories have not developed the orientation toward literacy and symbolism that would facilitate the acquisition of second language literacy. In some cases, they come from isolated rural communities, from societies with strong oral traditions that are at odds with our fast-paced, print-oriented society. For many of these learners, it is extremely difficult to adjust to a new environment and become literate in English. Sociocultural differences and lack of prior literacy experiences further complicate their second language literacy acquisition.

Because of economic necessity, many nonliterate adults have many responsibilities that do not allow them the time necessary for regular attendance in ESL/literacy classes. Mezirov, Darkenwald, and Knox (1975) surveyed teachers of adult non-literate learners in a large urban area. Eighty-five percent of the teachers believed that irregular attendance in literacy programs was the most serious obstacle to adult literacy development. In addition, Sticht (1982) suggests that it takes native English speaking adults from 80 to 120 hours of instruction to achieve one grade level of reading gains. No comparable research appears to have been done with adult LEP learners, but it is very likely that LEP adults need at least as much time to make comparable gains.

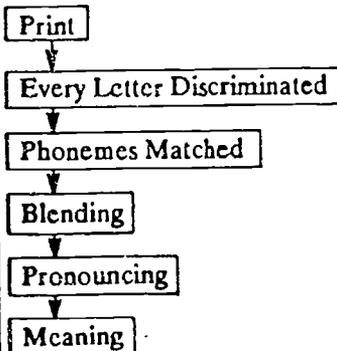
Becoming Literate in a Second Language: Models and Approaches

A review of the literature regarding currently used models of teaching reading and writing to LEP learners suggests that there are two basic models: the skills-based and the whole language. These two models can be placed at opposite ends of a continuum in terms of theoretical and methodological considerations, and between them are a series of combination approaches. This section gives an overview of the issues regarding currently used approaches with LEP learners.

Teaching Reading Using the Skills-Based Approach

The skills-based approach, also called the phonics approach, is characterized by the assumption that learners learn how to read by mastering discrete elements of language at the onset of reading instruction. Hughes (1986) uses a diagram developed by Cam-

bourne (1979) to illustrate the sequential process implicit in the skills-based approach:



Skills-based instruction is generally a component of published reading programs or is a supplement to a school (or school district) reading program. Some phonics advocates point to the fact that there is a certain amount of consistency in grapheme-phoneme (letter-sound) correspondences and make use of this consistency to support the approach.

According to Leu and Kinzer (1987), phonics reading materials use two major approaches to skills-based instruction: synthetic and analytic. Within the synthetic approach, a number of separate grapheme-phoneme correspondences are taught (e.g., C = /k/, D = /d/) followed by instruction on how to "blend" or combine sounds into words (e.g., /k/ + /w/ + /t/ = CUT). An analytic approach starts instruction from whole words to constituent parts (e.g., CAT, DOG). Then the words are separated into the smallest units to demonstrate grapheme-phoneme correspondences and "seldom are sounds isolated or is blending ability taught as a specific skill" (p. 55) in this approach.

In addition, two instructional methods are widely used with these two approaches to phonics instruction: deductive and inductive methods. In the deductive method, rules are initially presented by the teacher followed by examples of the rule. With the inductive method, examples are first presented and discussed with the children so that a rule emerges from the discussion.

The adequacy of the skills-based approach has been challenged over the years by many reading experts (Goodman, 1970; Smith, 1973), and there is research evidence that the model, by itself, is not an effective way of teaching reading to either LEP children or adults. The phonics method, it is suggested, achieves at best decoding proficiency and should be a component of the reading process, but not "the starting point" (Hughes, 1986, p. 164).

Hamayan and Pflieger (1987) caution educators about the use of the phonics approach alone because:

unfortunately, English is a language that does not have a very high ratio of symbol-to-sound correspondence. Many symbols represent more than one sound and, similarly, many sounds are represented by more than one symbol. In addition, it is so rare to have to rely purely on phonics rules to comprehend meaningful written language that it is almost not worth the time it takes to teach specific rules! (p. 3).

No practical writing system represents all of the sounds of a language consistently. One of the most distinctive elements in an English word is stress. For example, the difference between EXPORT (noun) and EXPORT (verb) is basically one of stress--a salient characteristic that is not indicated in the English writing system.

The focus on the sound-letter correspondences in the phonics approach creates a serious complication for the LEP student. The phonics approach is predicated on there being differences between letters because they represent different sounds and vice-versa. The native English speaker can hear the difference between /b/ and /v/ (as in BAT and VAT). But what if the student cannot hear any difference between /b/ and /v/, as is often the case for the Spanish-speaking LEP student? Or, in the case of the Japanese-speaking LEP student, /l/ and /r/ (as in ALIVE and ARRIVE)? The teaching of reading cannot be postponed until the student has mastered the important phonemic distinctions of English--the mastery of such distinctions takes time. This points to the need for a different approach to reading, particularly in the case of the LEP learner.

The Whole Language Approach

The whole language approach is based on the assumption that the introduction to reading must be meaningful (Goodman, 1986) and it should be developed from real communicative situations in the life of the learners. According to Hamayan and Pflieger (1987), the approach is guided by the following principles:

- Introduction to literacy (both reading and writing) should be meaningful.
- The link between oral language and print is easier to make when awareness of it emerges naturally, rather than when that link is explicitly taught.
- Affect plays an invaluable role in reading and writing. A child who enjoys reading is motivated to

read, will read more, and by doing so, will be a better reader (p. 45).

Hughes (1986) advocates an approach that uses the learner's past experiences, expectations, and language intuitions as the basis for learning written symbols and developing reading comprehension. Pronunciation and phonics are used but are not the focus of this approach. Hughes, borrowing Cambourne's description (1979), calls the whole language approach the Inside-Out approach, because learning how to read starts with the learner's past experience and gradually includes learning of discrete language components:

Past experience, language intuitions, expectations

Selective aspects of print

Meaning

Sound and pronunciation (when necessary)

This model implies that the reader is in an interactive relationship with the text and that for the reader to gain meaning from the text, he must be able to predict and anticipate meaning. (Hughes, 1986).

When the whole language approach is used to teach reading to LEP children and adults, some adjustments need to be made. Although there are many cultural differences among native English speaking learners, they share many common beliefs and values. LEP learners often do not share these beliefs and values and this may contribute to their making inappropriate predictions and inferences. This is especially the case if the texts are not reflective of their cultural experiences (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). Hudelson (1984) states that "reading comprehension in a second language, as in the first, is influenced by the background knowledge and the cultural framework that the reader brings to the text" (p. 226).

The importance of culturally relevant materials for teaching English reading to LEP learners cannot be over-emphasized. Research shows that LEP readers recall more from stories about their own cultural background than those of a culture foreign to them (Hudelson, 1984). Hudelson (1984) refers to two studies of ESL readers (Johnson, 1981, 1982), which conclude that the current practice of simplifying vocabulary and syntax "were less important factors in ESL readers' comprehension of a text than the cultural contents of the passage being read" (p. 227).

From the research evidence presented earlier, it appears that the whole language approach is particularly well-suited to LEP learners because it "takes into account the whole learner and builds on his or her total array of skills and abilities" (Hamayan and Pflieger, 1987, p. 4).

Language Experience Approach

As previously discussed, other approaches in addition to (or in conjunction with) the whole language approach and the phonics approach are often used with LEP learners. One of these is the Language Experience Approach (LEA), which is often a component of the whole language approach to the teaching of reading and writing. Generally, the approach follows the steps described by Strickland (1969):

Every child brings to school a language. He can listen and he can talk. The language approach to reading begins with this language and utilizes it as the material for reading. Children are encouraged to draw and paint pictures and talk about their in-school and out-of-school interests. In the case of a picture, the teacher writes under the picture the child's story of it. If he says, "This is my Dad. He is washing the car," that is what the teacher writes for him. Stories and accounts may be composed and dictated by an individual, a group, or the whole class. The children are placed so that they can watch the teacher write. She calls attention to what she is doing. "I have to start here with a big capital letter, don't I? We'll put a mark like this at the end of a sentence. Now what else shall we say? Can anyone help me spell the word?" (pp. 266-67).

As described by Strickland, in the LEA the teacher activates the students' language and encourages the students to share their experiences with the class. The teacher writes the students' words verbatim and then teaches the students to read what they have said. This process ensures that the learners understand what they are being taught to read (Moustafa, 1987).

Hamayan and Pflieger (1987) recommend the LEA for helping the LEP learner make the initial transition from oral (English) language to reading and writing, because it allows the learner to verbally share meaningful events and stories which are then shaped into written form by the teacher. This approach allows the learner to read meaningful story units rather than isolated words, parts of words, or sentences (Hamayan and Pflieger, 1987).

The Eclectic Approach

The eclectic approach to literacy development is advocated by Haverson and Haynes (1982) because it "allows the instructor to select those materials and methods that best fit the needs of the individual learners" (p. 2). Basically, the eclectic approach incorporates the learning of whole linguistic units, from words to phrases, etc., while at the same time stressing comprehension. Once "the word-meaning relationships have been mastered, the phrase may be broken down into individual words, then into syllables, next into letters, then, finally, appropriate sounds can be given to the component parts." (p. 2) The eclectic approach is not likely to work well with adults or children, unless the content of literacy instruction is functional and meets the immediate needs of the learner.

Teaching Writing to LEP Learners

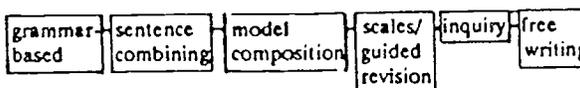
A review of the literature on writing suggests that there are basically two models at the ends of a continuum: a skills-based approach and a whole language approach which are similar, in terms of their theoretical orientation and method, to those in the area of reading. As with reading, there is a series of approaches, methods, and strategies which fall within the writing instruction continuum. This section describes selected findings in the area of writing, effectiveness of certain methods, and their application to the teaching of LEP learners.

Becoming literate, for school-age students, includes learning how to write and to use writing for academic purposes. There are many different perspectives on the role of writing and how best to teach students to use this skill. In a recent synthesis of results from his review of about 2,000 studies on writing, Hillocks (1987) attempted to answer the question: What types of knowledge do writers need for effective writing? Hillocks examined three types of research studies: those that focused on the composing process, the teaching of composition, and implications for curriculum development.

Hillocks found that at least six instructional approaches are often used to teach writing. These six approaches are presented here as they relate to the writing instruction continuum. Note that a grammar-based approach to writing focuses on discrete elements of the language (parts of speech) and is parallel to the phonics approach to reading, which also focuses on discrete elements of the written language (letters). Free writing is parallel to the LEA in that the student selects much of what he/she would like to do.

Writing Instruction Continuum

skills-based approach whole language approach



In classrooms with a focus on grammar, students are first taught the parts of speech, parts of sentences, clauses, types of sentences, etc. The purpose of this approach is to "help students understand how the English language works" (Hillocks, 1987, p. 75). With the sentence combining approach, students are presented with sets of sentences which they must combine to produce more complex, yet meaningful, syntactic structures. Model composition, he found, is an extensively used instructional method which consists of "the presentation of model compositions to exemplify principles or characteristics of good writing" (p. 76). With the scales and guided revision approach, students are given sets of criteria for judging and revising compositions. If the students give a composition a low rating, they are given prompts to help them come up with ideas on how to improve that composition. Similarly, when using an inquiry-based approach, the students learn how to use sets of data in a structured fashion in order to improve their written compositions. Lastly, free writing approaches consist of allowing students to freely compose and produce written materials with the goal of developing ideas and coherent text, rather than focusing on the structure and grammar.

Hillocks found that the study of traditional grammar (i.e., the definition of parts of speech, the parsing of sentences, etc.) has no effect on raising the quality of student writing. Moreover, he found that an emphasis on a grammar-based approach "resulted in significant losses in overall quality" (p. 74). Sentence combining methods, or the practice of building complex sentences from simpler ones, was found to be "more than twice as effective as free writing as a means of enhancing the quality of student writing" (p. 74). Model composition approaches were found to be much more useful than a grammar-based approach. However, Hillocks found that when modeling is used exclusively to teach writing, the overall result is "considerably less effective than other available techniques" (p. 74). The use of scales and guided revision methods was found to have a "powerful effect on enhancing the quality [of writing samples]." Hillocks states that:

through using the [scales] systematically, students appear to internalize them and bring them to bear in generating new material even when they do not have the [scales] in front of them. (p. 74).

Inquiry-type methods were found to be "on the average, ... 3 1/2 times more effective than free writing and over 2 1/2 times more effective than the traditional study of model pieces of writing." Finally, free writing methods were found to be more effective than the grammar-based method, but less effective than "other focuses of instruction examined" (p.74).

Hillocks suggests that "the most important knowledge is procedural: general procedures of the composing process and specific strategies for the production of discourse and the transformation of data for use in writing" (p. 81). His conclusion is that to encourage students to be effective writers, changes that reflect research findings on writing must be made in writing curricula and methodology.

Many of the approaches currently used to teach writing to LEP children and adults appear to be similar to those analyzed by Hillocks (1987). Although a critical review of the research on teaching writing to LEP learners has not yet been carried out, there are initial research findings that indicate that some writing methods work better with LEP students than others. The free writing approach has been reported to work successfully with both LEP learners and English-speaking students (Kreeft and Seycum, 1987). One variation of this approach is the use of dialogue journals (Staton, 1987). In this approach, the teacher and the students engage in active written interaction through journals whose topics and format are initiated by the students themselves. The role of the teacher is to encourage composition development and to act as a collaborator with the student, rather than as "an outsider who simply elicits and promotes writing" (Kreeft and Seycum, 1987). A by-product of this approach is that the students seem to learn the conventions of writing by having meaningful communication with the teacher.

There is some evidence that the modeling approach has been used with success with LEP school-age children and adults. Using this approach, the teacher and students write stories (or models) using a four-step sequence: inventing, composing, revising, and editing. Students are encouraged to share their stories, folk tales, and literature. This approach, as well as the dialogue journal approach, allows the student to maintain a bond with his/her cultural background and experience (Pfungstag, 1984).

Hudelson (1988) reviewed research on writing instruction of school-age LEP children, and her findings add support to arguments in favor of a whole language approach to writing and to English literacy in general. These findings can be summarized as follows:

- ESL learners, while they are still learning English, can write: they can create their own texts.
- ESL learners can respond to the world or others and can use another learner's responses to their work in order to make substantive revisions in their texts.
- Texts produced by ESL writers look very much like those produced by young native English speakers. These texts demonstrate that the writers are making predictions about how the written language works. As the writers' predictions change, the texts change.
- Children approach writing and develop as writers differently from one another.
- The classroom environment has a significant impact on the development of ESL children as writers.
- Culture may affect the writers' view of writing, of the functions or purposes of writing, and of themselves as writers.
- The ability to write in the native language facilitates the child's ESL writing in several different ways. [It] provides learners with information about the purposes of writing...second language learners apply the knowledge about writing gained in first language settings to second language settings (p. 1).

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this review of selected research studies and practices on the teaching of literacy to LEP students, encouraging signs of change have been found, but there are still big gaps. Many LEP children (and adults) continue to be taught reading skills through the phonics approach rather than the whole language and the LEA approaches which have been found to be effective means of teaching English language literacy skills to LEP learners. As for teaching writing to LEP learners, it would appear from initial research evidence that many LEP students are currently being taught to write through a grammar-based approach that is not as effective as other approaches.

A review of literacy research with LEP adults and children shows that there are striking similarities in findings regarding which approaches are most effective.

tive. The whole language approach and the Language Experience Approach seem to be most effective with LEP learners. Both children and adults are said to develop second language literacy when the content of instruction is functional, incorporates the culture and experience of the learner, and allows for individual differences related to age and native language literacy.

Finally, the debate as to what methods are the most appropriate for use with nonliterate, language minority children and adults will certainly continue as part of a general debate on which methods are the most effective in teaching literacy skills to students of English. However, findings of research studies with nonliterate, native English speakers and non-native LEP learners suggest that student-oriented, functionally developed programs are the most effective since they increase the possibility of transfer to real life situations.

Effective LEP adult literacy programs "reflect the needs, educational backgrounds, and abilities of the learners as well as realistic expectations on the part of the instructor" (Haverson and Haynes, 1982, p. 2). An analysis of adult literacy programs by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel, U.S. Department of Education, found that the most successful programs almost invariably integrate a basic skills focus with instruction in life or "survival" skills needed to function effectively in the everyday world (Darkenwald, 1986). Adult literacy programs of this nature use a whole language approach to reading and writing, with variations that integrate phonics instruction at different stages of the learning process.

Finally, Wells (1987) suggests a number of universal "guiding principles" that can be used as the underlying framework on which to facilitate the acquisition of English literacy by LEP children and adults:

- Children should be treated as active constructors of their own knowledge and understanding: they should be encouraged to share the responsibility for selecting the tasks in which they engage, for deciding on the means for attaining their goals, and for evaluating the outcomes of their attempts.
- Language should be seen, in general, as a means of achieving other goals, even when attention needs to be focused on the grammar and sound systems of a language.
- Writing, reading, speaking, and listening should be seen as complementary processes, each building on and feeding the others in an integrated approach to the exploration of ideas and feelings, the

consideration of alternatives, and finally, the formulation and communication of conclusions.

- An important place should be accorded, at all stages, to the sharing of stories, both those in the literature of the [children's] culture and those that children themselves construct on the basis of their own experiences... stories provide an important bridge from the particularized example to the general principle and from the basic narrative mode in which we all make sense of our individual experience to the more abstract logical modes of exposition and argument (p. 121).

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Q&A

The Freirean Approach to Adult Literacy Education

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What Is the Freirean Approach?

The Freirean approach to adult literacy education bases the content of language lessons on learners' cultures and personal experiences. Named for Brazilian educator Paulo Freire, the approach has also been referred to as the problem-posing approach (Wallerstein, 1983; Auerbach & Wallerstein, 1987), the psycho-social approach (Hope, Timmel, & Hodzi, 1984; Fargo, 1981), the learner-centered approach (Aforve, 1989), the liberatory approach (Shor & Freire, 1987; Facundo, 1984), and the participatory approach (Jurmo, 1987). It has been used in the developing world in successful native and second language literacy projects sponsored by governments and international voluntary organizations in both rural and urban settings. In the United States, many community-based organizations have used the approach in their nonformal educational programs for developing basic literacy in English, in native languages other than English, and in English as a second language (ESL). Because the Freirean approach goes by a number of different names and Freire's ideas have had such an impact on adult education internationally, there are many literacy educators in the United States who have incorporated elements of the approach into their teaching without realizing that they have been influenced by Paulo Freire.

Freire's approach has been called "deeply contextual" (Chacoff, 1989, p. 49), because in it, learning to read and write flows from the discussion of themes of importance to adult learners drawn from their real-life experiences. Formal language study plays a secondary role to learners' conceptual development. Learners acquire individual reading and writing skills through a process of inquiry into the nature of real-life problems facing the community of learners. In this sense, the Freirean approach can be considered a variant of the whole language approach to literacy described by Newman (1985), Goodman (1986), Tamayan and Pflieger (1987), and Simich-Dudgeon (1989).

The thematic content of literacy education in Freirean programs is drawn from the cultures of the participants. In Freirean terms, culture "includes how people labor, create, and make life choices" (Wallerstein, 1983, p. 5). Culture is not a static set of customs, religious beliefs, social attitudes, forms of address and attire, and foods; rather, it is a dynamic process of transformation and change laden with conflicts to resolve and choices to be made, both individually and as a community. Jurmo (1987) categorizes Freire as an exponent of "literacy for social change" because Freire argues that unjust social conditions are the cause of illiteracy and that the purpose of adult education is to enable learners to participate actively in changing themselves from the conditions that oppress them.

This liberatory aspect of Freire's philosophy is important for program management as well as for learning. Many programs following the Freirean approach have adopted management structures that give students significant control over the direction of present and future educational activities (Jurmo, 1987; Collins, Balmuth, & Jean, 1989).

What Are the Key Features of the Freirean Approach?

The two most distinctive features of the Freirean approach are *dialogue* and *problem posing*. Freire describes dialogue as an "I-thou relationship between two subjects" in which both parties confront each other as knowledgeable equals in a situation of genuine two-way communication (Freire, 1973, p. 52). Teachers possess knowledge of reading and writing; students possess knowledge of the concrete reality of their cultures. As with advocates of other humanistic teaching approaches, Freirean educators vehemently reject what Freire has termed "the banking concept of education," where the teacher's primary role is to transmit knowledge to students, "depositing" information into students as they would deposit money into a bank (Freire, 1970, 1973; Graman, 1988; Auerbach & Burgess, 1985). Instead, Freirean education is a mutual process of reflecting upon and developing insights into the students' evolving cultures. The lecture format, where the teacher talks and the students passively receive information, is replaced by the "culture circle," where teachers and students face one another and discuss issues of concern in their own lives (Freire, 1970, 1973).

The term "problem posing" is often misunderstood, perhaps because of the negative connotations surrounding the word "problem" and the frequent reference to "problem-solving skills" in education. In the Freirean approach, cultural themes in the form of open-ended problems are incorporated into materials, such as pictures, comics, short stories, songs, and video dramas, that are then used to generate discussion. The teacher asks a series of open-ended questions about these materials that encourage students to elaborate on what they see in them. Ultimately, this questioning process leads the students to define the real-life problem being represented, discuss its causes, and propose actions that can be taken to solve it (Freire, 1970, 1973; Wallerstein, 1983). Ideally, the solutions evolving from the group's discussion will entail actions in which reading and writing skills are required, thus giving learners a concrete purpose for the literacy they are developing. Freirean advocates contrast *problem-posing* with *problem-solving* approaches to literacy instruction. In *problem-solving* approaches, educators identify students' life problems for them a priori, and then design

lessons to give students the knowledge they need to solve those problems (Freire, 1970; Auerbach & Burgess, 1985; Noble, 1983; Faigin, 1985; Graman, 1988; Fargo, 1981).

How Is the Freirean Approach Used in Native Language Literacy Education?

The methods developed by Freire in Brazil in the early 1960s for native language literacy are still in use in many developing countries in Latin America and Africa. In the United States, organizations such as the Hispanic Literacy Council in Chicago; Bronx Educational Services, Union Settlement House, El Barrio Popular, and the Amalgamated Clothing and Textile Workers Union in New York; Basic Adult Spanish Education (BASE) in Los Angeles; and the Adult Literacy Resources Institute in Boston have used Freire's methods to teach initial literacy in Spanish, in what are sometimes referred to as Basic Education in the Native Language (BENL) programs.

Freire developed his approach working with a team of anthropologists, educators, and students in Brazil using a multiphase plan to carry out a program of initial literacy instruction in Portuguese for rural peasants and villagers. The first phase of the Brazilian literacy plan consisted of an extended period of social research in the communities where the program was to be implemented. Members of the literacy team spent time in those communities, participating in informal conversations with residents, observing their culture, and listening to their life stories. The team researched the vocabulary of the communities, looking for recurring words and themes to be included in materials for the literacy program. In the second phase of the plan, the literacy team chose "generative words" from their vocabulary lists that would later be used to help students develop elementary skills in decoding and encoding print. Generative words contain syllables that are separated and recombined to form other words. (According to Freire, 1970, in Portuguese only fifteen words are needed to generate all the other words in the language.) Like Ashton-Warner's concept of "key words" (1963), Freire believed that generative words should have special affective importance to learners and should evoke the social, cultural, and political contexts in which learners use them (Freire, 1973).

In Brazil, the building of the conceptual analysis skills needed for decoding a written text was carried out through the oral discussion of cultural themes present in people's daily lives (Freire, 1973). In the third phase of the Brazilian program, these themes were presented in a symbolic, codified way in the form of drawings of familiar scenes in the life of the community. Illiterate adults were encouraged to "read" their reality by analyzing the elements of the scenes using some of the same decoding tools, such as background knowledge and contextual information, that they would use with a written code. Each scene depicted conflicts found within the community for students to recognize, analyze, and attempt to resolve as a group. The generative words from the vocabulary lists compiled in the first phase of the plan were embedded in these codifications (Freire, 1973). In the course of identifying the problem in a given code and seeking its solution, learners would "name" the embedded generative words, giving teachers the raw material for developing reading and writing exercises.

The final phase of planning the literacy program involved the preparation of so-called discovery cards based on the generative words discussed above. Each discovery card contained a generative word separated into its component syllables, giving learners the opportunity to recombine syllables to form other words in their vocabulary (Freire, 1973). Use of the discovery card method was in keeping with established syllabary techniques frequently used to teach word-attack skills in phonetically and orthographically regular languages such as Spanish and Portuguese. (See, for example, Gudschinsky, 1967.) Recently, however, some Freirean practitioners working in BENL programs in the United States have begun to question the validity of total reliance on the syllabary method and are urging a shift toward more use of "whole-word" and "text-focused" methods (Rabideau, 1989), discussed in more detail below.

How Can the Freirean Approach Be Adapted for Use in ESL Literacy Education?

Literacy teachers in the United States and Canada who work with adult nonnative speakers of English have attempted to apply Freire's general approach, using compatible ESL teaching methods and techniques. In doing so, they have had to overcome two important difficulties. First, Freire's approach assumes that learners are highly knowledgeable about the culture in which they live, and that they are expert speakers of the language that they are learning to read and write. For nonnative speakers of English in predominantly English-speaking countries, neither of these conditions pertains. How can teachers pose problems for their classes to discuss in English, and then develop literacy lessons based on these discussions, if their students cannot speak English?

A number of authors have suggested that beginning ESL students can develop problem-posing and dialogue skills rather early on in their acquisition of English. Teachers can foster the process by focusing their initial instruction on developing their students' descriptive vocabularies and teaching them to use questions to exchange information in English. Some familiar ESL methods and techniques used by Freirean practitioners to develop students' descriptive and questioning abilities have included language experience stories, oral histories, Total Physical Response activities, picture stories, the use of flash cards to introduce new vocabulary and structures, and skits conducted with puppets (Wallerstein, 1983; Nash, Cason, Rhum, McGrail, & Gomez-Sanford, 1989; Faigin, 1985; Auerbach & Wallerstein, 1987; Barndt & Marino, 1983).

A second problem for ESL teachers is that the spelling and syllabic structures of English do not lend themselves to the syllabary method originally used by Freire in Portuguese. How, then, can generative words be used to build word-attack skills in reading and writing? Raúl Añorve, a literacy trainer for the Association for Community Based Education, uses a whole-word and word-family method. Learners memorize the spelling of each new vocabulary word and place each of these words in lists of other words on the basis of similar morphological structure or related meaning. For example, the word "American" might appear in two word lists: in one list with words such as "African," "Dominican," and "Canadian," and in another list

with words suggested by students, such as "apple pie," "Statue of Liberty," and "rich" (R. L. Añorve, personal communication, October 10, 1988).

Other practitioners adapt the use of generative words to the phonics method of reading instruction, where students learn the spelling patterns of English in order to be able to sound out new words they need to read and write. In languages such as Spanish and Portuguese, generative words contain syllables that can be recombined to form new words. In English, generative words are used to teach other words with the same sound-letter correspondences or similar morphological structures (Long & Spiegel-Podnecky, 1988). Still others have abandoned the use of generative words altogether in favor of whole language techniques developed for English.

How Can the Curriculum Be Based on Students' Life Experiences and Cultures When Teachers Do Not Speak Students' Languages?

In her book *Language and Culture in Conflict*, Nina Wallerstein (1983) emphasizes that ESL teachers and students come from different cultural, linguistic, and economic backgrounds that need to be recognized as distinct but equally valid. To bridge this experience gap, teachers must make special efforts to get to know the realities faced by students in their personal lives and communities, either by living among their students or by observing in class and in the community. Wallerstein recommends that teachers visit the homes of their students as invited guests to learn firsthand about their lives and families. To learn about the cultural attributes of students, teachers should attempt to be present as observers at times of cultural transmission from the older generation to the younger (social rites and child-rearing practices) and cultural preservation (festivals and historic celebrations in the students' neighborhoods). They should also learn about times of cultural disruption, by asking students either in simplified English or through an interpreter to describe their immigration to the host country and to compare their lives in the two countries. Teachers should also become familiar with the neighborhoods where students live, walking in them with students, taking photographs, and bringing realia back to class to discuss. In class, teachers should observe student-student interactions, including body language, and take note of students' actions, because these usually reveal students' priorities and problems. The teacher should also invite students to share objects from their cultures with others in class.

Having a bilingual aide in the ESL class can also facilitate dialogue on the cultural themes and problems that generate the curriculum in the Freirean approach. Hemmendinger (1987) found cultural themes and problems for the curriculum through classroom observation and conversations with her Laotian Hmong students. Sometimes problem-posing activities resulted from the sharing of cultural information; at other times the discussion of a problem led to intercultural dialogue. In one instance, for example, she found a student closely examining all the potted plants in the class. When Hemmendinger, through the bilingual aide, inquired as to why the student was interested in the plants, she found that he was a practitioner of Hmong herbal medicine. This led to a discussion of Hmong health and

medicinal practices as they compared to those practiced by the dominant culture in Canada and to problems that students were having as they confronted the Canadian health-care system.

Can the Freirean Approach Be Used with Competency-Based Approaches to ESL?

Although some educators advocating the Freirean approach have criticized competency-based ESL as being a form of "banking education" (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985; Graman, 1988), other Freire-inspired ESL teachers have described their use of competency-based instruction within the Freirean framework to teach specific language skills and functions (Faigin, 1985; Hemmendinger, 1987). Working with Central American refugees in Washington, DC, Spener (1990a) adapted the Freirean approach to the selection and development of ESL competencies in the curriculum. In bilingual discussion workshops, Spener and his students engaged in posing problems in which the solutions were related to the learning of English. The product of each of these workshops was a class syllabus agreed on by the group that included the daily situations where students felt improving their English would help them most. For each situation on a class's syllabus, Spener wrote out specific ESL competencies in Spanish and English that he would then bring back to class for the students to reject, modify, or approve for inclusion in their syllabus. The syllabus, which was called the study agenda, served as a guide to follow, allowing Spener and his students to incorporate other elements of dialogue and problem posing in class sessions to enrich the educational process (Spener, 1990a, 1990b).

Where Can I Learn More about Adapting the Freirean Approach to My Program?

In addition to consulting the references and suggestions for further reading cited below, you can contact the Association for Community Based Education (ACBE), a federation of local grass-roots organizations in the United States that run community education programs for social change. ACBE employs a team of literacy trainers who are experienced in adapting the Freirean approach to programs for minority-language adults. ACBE trainers travel throughout the United States conducting workshops for local literacy providers. Call or write ACBE, 1804 Vernon Street, NW, Washington, DC, 20009, 202/462-6333.

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Digest

Recruiting and Retaining Language Minority Students in Adult Literacy Programs

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As the nation has become aware of the scope of adult illiteracy and its tremendous cost, literacy programs have proliferated. New populations of language minority adults are becoming eligible for and involved in an increasing number of these programs. They include, among others, refugees whose training is no longer funded by the Office of Refugee Resettlement, and newly legal "amnesty" clients who have come into Adult Basic Education programs from classes conducted under the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986. How can recruitment and retention of these and other students in literacy programs be enhanced?

Recruitment

The most powerful tool for recruitment in education is still word-of-mouth publicity generated by satisfied students. Additionally, a variety of media approaches have been used to reach potential students, including radio and television announcements, newspaper articles on successful programs and students, and brochures distributed in neighborhood churches and shopping areas. Celebrations of student progress, to which former students are invited along with the families of the students who are being honored, also help establish a high profile in the community and enhance student self-esteem. In many sites, open-entry, year-round programs make it possible for clients to find classes whenever they are ready for them. Finally, systematic efforts to maintain contact with former students may bring "drop-outs" back to the program.

Attrition

Attrition has long been a problem in adult education. In fact, Cain and Whalen (1977) calculated an attrition rate of 40 to 60 percent for adult literacy programs in the United States. According to a study of attrition in urban literacy programs by Bean, Partanen, Wright, and Aaronson (1989), three kinds of factors contribute to attrition: those stemming from the student's personal situation; those attributable to the program or service provider; and external factors resulting from a lack of assistance from outside agencies in areas such as transportation and child care.

Personal factors

In Bean et al's 1989 study, most of the reasons cited by adults for dropping out of programs were personal in nature. The following are those most commonly designated.

Low self-esteem, coupled with lack of demonstrable progress. This may result from negative educational experiences. Bowren (1988) believes that the major cause for dropping out is lack of progress, real or perceived.

Daily pressures. Work schedule was the personal factor mentioned most frequently by students in the Bean et al (1989) study. A study by Taylor (1983) designated child-care needs and lack of transportation as the major obstacles to attendance.

Negative perception of the value of education (Cross, 1981). This included lack of support by the native culture for education and a family background of illiteracy.

Age. Older individuals may feel that at 45 or 50 they are too old to learn; such an attitude may become a self-fulfilling prophecy, if the risk of failure seems too great.

Program factors

When participants in Bean et al's study were asked what would have kept them in the program, most of the respondents cited the need for an increase in student-centeredness in program design and implementation. Current research on how adults learn shows their need to define or select their own goals. Other program factors that contribute to student-drop out include the following:

Lack of appropriate materials for very low level learners. Some students have such minimal English that the materials used in the program are not comprehensible.

Inappropriate placement. This may be caused by a discrepancy between the student's oral and literacy skill levels, or by use of an inappropriate testing instrument.

Lack of opportunity to achieve success. This may result from inappropriate placement, or from a failure to set short-term goals with opportunities for measurable progress.

Poor tutor/student or teacher/student match. A sensitive tutor/student match is very important, as is monitoring that relationship.

Lack of flexibility in class scheduling. Many adult students are juggling job, family, and other responsibilities, and need flexible school schedules.

Literates and nonliterates in the same class. This frequently results in lack of sufficient instructional time or individual attention for nonliterate students, who may have few independent learning strategies.

A poorly thought-out and executed intake process. Intake that is slow, cumbersome, and impersonal, and that often may include an intimidating test, can discourage students.

Lack of peer support and reinforcement. Adults who feel they are working alone, without the structured support of those who are like them and with whom they can identify, can become discouraged (see *Retention* below for further discussion).

Instructional material not relevant to students' needs and lives. Instructional materials that are too simplistic or that are of little relevance to the learners' life situations may insult learners and affect participation.

External factors

Literacy programs need to network with social service agencies to provide additional support services that enable adults to participate in classes on a regular basis. The

following services are generally available in the community and should be accessed by the literacy program:

- Health care (including eye exams and glasses);
- Child care;
- Transportation;
- Counseling support.

Retention

Obviously, resolving the problems that contribute to attrition should enhance retention. Smith-Burke (1987) lists four key factors that serve as retention motivation for the adult literacy student: (1) peer support; (2) perceived progress in developing literacy skills; (3) heightened self-esteem; and (4) a good teacher. This section describes these factors in tutorial and group learning contexts.

Peer support

Peer support serves adult students' needs for socialization and interaction. A supportive peer group not only provides an effective component for learning, but also increases opportunities for individuals to participate in relatively risk-free small-group environments (as opposed to being "on the spot" in a tutor/student pairing). Peer counseling, buddy systems, class discussions, and cooperative learning are all examples of ways in which peer support groups can be shaped (Taylor, 1983). Group work has been judged so valuable that it can work to offset the problems associated with large classes.

Bean et al (1989) conclude that, "Programs may need to be more ready to move an individual from a one-on-one tutoring situation to a potentially more supportive group-learning environment." Perhaps a hybrid of peer support and individual attention should be considered in order to provide students with the strengths of both environments.

Perceived progress in developing literacy skills

A program, a teacher, or a student may set such ambitious long-term goals (e.g., to obtain a GED) that these goals are soon perceived by the student as unattainable, even if the teacher can see progress. If the teacher breaks tasks down into small, realistic chunks (e.g., write a simple sentence from dictation; locate the cause and effect in a GED social studies lesson) and students see the progress they are making, then the situation is likely to lead to perception of success. Feedback from the teacher or from peers can solidify this perception of progress and motivate continued involvement in the program.

Heightened self-esteem

Feeling good about oneself and one's capacity to learn grows naturally from the support of friendly peers and teacher/tutors and from students' perception of their own progress. Programs that understand adult learners' needs, treat learners with respect, give learners the opportunity to participate in ongoing goal setting, and endow them with the responsibility for their own learning, not only build learners' confidence in their own abilities, but also provide them with tools for independent learning.

A good teacher

"Retention is an indicator of quality teaching" (Taylor, 1983), and retention of teachers and tutors is an indicator of a quality program. Bean et al (1989) conclude that literacy programs need to provide training for their tutors to help them develop appropriate strategies to address the special educational, social, and emotional needs of adults who have

not been successful at school. Programs that include language minority adults need to provide all this training and more; they also need to provide staff with cross-cultural training to help teachers understand culturally and linguistically diverse students and their special needs.

Students are not the only ones who need to experience success. A program that listens to the needs and concerns of its teachers and provides assistance quickly and in a supportive way can promote the sort of caring teaching/learning environment that is the basis of retention and accomplishment for teachers and students alike.

Conclusion

Successful literacy programs work because educators are listening carefully to students in order to help them define and work toward their own goals. They help students manage logistical problems that interfere with attendance and provide appropriate materials and mentors, while setting up learning tasks through which the students experience and are recognized for success.

"Most students will be inspired when they feel in control and secure in their classes, respected by their teachers and their peers, and hopeful about their future academic success" (Duryee, 1989).

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