



The ORTESOL Journal

Volume 28, 2010

Features

Teacher Candidates' Beliefs about ELL Characteristics

Curricular Renovations in ESOL: How Do We Better Prepare Our Teachers?

Cooperative Learning and Vocabulary Retention

Textual Input Enhancement: Applications in Teaching

Columns

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Teaching Notes

Welcoming an American Sit-com to the ESL Classroom

Online Surveys: An Engaging Teacher Tool

Daily "Warm-up" Dialogs for All

Report Writing for Lower-level ESL Students

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Volume 28, 2010

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In This Issue

Deborah Healey & Tom Delaney
ORTESOL Journal *Editors*

With this issue, we welcome Tom Delaney as co-Editor with many thanks to Byrne Brewerton for serving in that position previously. This issue of *ORTESOL Journal* covers a range of topics including teacher education, using online tools, and nuts and bolts teaching tips. We start off with Carmen Caceda's study of the beliefs of preservice ESOL teachers. The study is encouraging because, although some teacher candidates were found to hold incorrect beliefs about the characteristics of their future ELL students, Caceda found that these future teachers' beliefs became both more accurate and more positive after training.

Similarly, Karen Timmermans and EunJoo Catherine Kim's account of how they re-evaluated and revised elements of the ESOL teacher training curriculum at their institution, Pacific University, inspires confidence in the training ESOL teachers receive in Oregon. With teacher educators like Timmermans, Kim, and Caceda dedicating themselves to thoroughly preparing the next generation of teachers, Oregon will be in a better position to meet the needs of the growing population of students whose first language is not English.

Aysegul Dalogu and Kemal Cem Duzan describe a study of vocabulary retention when students use cooperative learning. What makes this most interesting is the use of a technique for scoring that gives points to the group based on the improvement of individual group members.

In her article, EunJoo Catherine Kim describes how enhancing target features of a text can lead to improved grammar learning. The article not only provides an overview of the research in this interesting area, but also gives

practical examples of how to implement input enhancement techniques.

We have four teaching notes as well. Maya Moore describes how she uses a TV sit-com to both entertain and educate her students. Moore reports that using this type of authentic video is especially appealing to her students who have been in the U.S. for some time already and for whom typical ESL videos miss the target.

Marianne Stipe and Lora Yasen discuss how they use the online survey tool *SurveyMonkey.com* as a part of a research project. Students design their own survey questions, collect data, and then interpret and present their results. The article provides readers with an example and helpful hints of how they, too, could carry out a similar project in their own classes.

JoAnn Elizabeth Siebert explains how she uses warm up dialogues with her classes. Not only do these dialogues sound like a fun way to activate students' interest and motivation, they also provide an interactive way for students to practice pronunciation and new language.

Research and writing are often left to advanced classes. In our final teaching note, Diane Tehrani describes how she successfully guides lower level ESL students through the process of using the library, researching a topic, and writing a report. The interactive process carefully scaffolds the students' work, ensuring that the students enjoy the process while they develop their skills.

We encourage you to consider writing for *ORTESOL Journal*. Please see the guidelines on the back page and the ORTESOL website. Feel free to contact the Editors with questions.

Teacher Candidates' Beliefs About ELL Characteristics

Carmen Caceda, Western Oregon University

Teacher education research has started to explore the beliefs that are part of teachers' cognition repertoires (Borg, 2006). Examining teachers' and teacher candidates' (TCs) beliefs is important because these act as filters through which learners, the classroom, and the learning process are viewed (Kagan, 1992). Moreover, beliefs are translated into teaching practices. As a result, teachers' negative beliefs can hinder the learning process by perpetuating stereotypes about learners. Stereotypical beliefs about English language learners (ELLs) may lead to a lack of recognition of the rich primary linguistic and cultural repertoires ELLs do possess. Research stresses that if these repertoires were part of the lessons, they would facilitate the learning and development of English (Gonzales, Moll, and Amanti, 2005; Moll, 2010). ELLs would consequently be more likely to become bilingual, bicultural, and biliterate learners, who contribute to the U.S. and to the global community.

This study aimed at assessing the impact of an ESL methods course on TCs' beliefs about ELL characteristics. TCs answered open-ended survey questions before and after they completed the course. The findings suggest that out of four beliefs about the characteristics of ELLs, two common beliefs (ethnicity and spoken language) reflect the current reality, while the other two (language proficiency and origin) are inaccurate or incomplete. Since TCs will be instructing diverse students, they need to have an informed and accurate perspective of who ELLs are.

After a review of the relevant literature, this study and its findings are summarized and implications are discussed.

Literature Review

Kagan (1992) states that a belief is “a form of *personal knowledge* consisting of *implicit assumptions* about students, learning, or classrooms” (p. 70, italics added). This definition is pivotal for this study. It suggests that TCs will act according to their personal knowledge and implicit assumptions unless they have become aware that their personal knowledge or implicit assumptions are incomplete or inaccurate versions of reality. For example, some TCs may believe that ELLs code-switch because they do not know either language well. However, research has widely challenged this implicit assumption (Poplack, 2000; Reyes, 2004).

ELLs' characteristics can be viewed from at least two standpoints: from a deficit perspective (Valencia, 1997) or from an additive approach. From a deficit view, the ELL's primary language can be viewed as *a problem*, whereas from an additive approach, the ELL's primary language can be seen as *a resource* or *an asset* (Ruiz, 1984). Interestingly, the deficit discourse appears to be the one that has trickled down to the general public. One such example stems from the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 which labels ELLs as “limited English proficient,” or LEP learners. Garcia (2009) proposes a different construct for this population of stu-

dents. She suggests the use of the term *emergent bilingual* as opposed to LEP learners or ELL. The concept of emergent bilingual capitalizes on learners' linguistic repertoires. That is, it conveys a positive idea, it acknowledges learners' potential to become bilinguals, and it does not erase ELLs' previous language repertoires. Since this study was conducted before the term emergent bilingual was proposed, ELL is the term used here. However, this study was conducted through the lens of an additive perspective with the assumption that TCs can approach their ELLs from a perspective of strength, capitalize on what ELLs bring to classes, and challenge them to their fullest potential.

Various studies on beliefs have been conducted in the field of language teacher education. Horwitz (1985) conducted pioneering work on TCs' beliefs about the language learning process and how it should be taught. One of the instruments she used to collect data was

the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Horwitz concluded that there is a need for "a systematic assessment of students' beliefs" (p. 337) because by acting on beliefs with no basis in the research, TCs may be hindering their learners' language development. For example, if TCs believe that grammar teaching is a key component in learning a language, TCs may only focus their lessons on explicit grammar teaching and not incorporate communicative activities. Kouritzin, Piquemal, & Nakagawa (2007) examined English-speaking TCs' beliefs about the value of learning a foreign language. They found that "this group of PSTs [pre-service teachers] believes that knowing English is sufficient for themselves and their students, and therefore that foreign language learning is not considered important" (p. 220).

Flores (2001) investigated bilingual teachers' beliefs and how these beliefs influence teachers' self-reported practices. One of

her findings was that "bilingual teachers have specific beliefs about how bilingual children learn" (p. 275). For example, the participants emphasized that a smoother transition to English occurs when children have a sound foundation in the four skills in their first language. Similarly, Karabenick & Clemens Noda (2004) administered surveys to teachers during professional development sessions to explore their beliefs, attitudes, and practices related to the needs of ELLs in mainstream classes. They found that "teachers more accepting of ELLs in their classes were more likely to believe that an ELL's first language proficiency promotes school performance and did not impede learning a second language" (p. 55).

de Courcy (2007) examined first-year TCs' reading reflections to find out whether academic

One suggested way to lessen TCs' unfavorable beliefs is by designing awareness-raising and reflective sessions.

readings challenged any of their beliefs about issues to consider when teaching a diverse population (e.g., their views about ESL

learners). She reported some surprising findings. For example, TCs thought they had to do most of the talking and students only had to listen to them. Consequently, she cautions teacher educators to be aware of TCs' reflections on readings. TCs may not be interpreting reading through the same lenses that teacher educators do, that is, "through the lens of years of experience interacting with second language learners" (p. 188).

Lastly, Peacock's (2001) research explored TCs and teachers' changes in beliefs about second language learning using the BALLI when taking a TESL methods course. He found minor changes in both groups' beliefs, namely in beliefs about vocabulary learning, grammar rules, and the role of intelligence in learning a second/foreign language. The results prompted him to design a five-stage instruction package that focused on communicative language teaching activities. The results still showed limited changes in TCs' beliefs. One of his recommendations

was that “considerable efforts should be made to eliminate any detrimental trainee beliefs before they start teaching” (p. 177). One suggested way to lessen TCs’ unfavorable beliefs is by designing awareness-raising and reflective sessions.

Of the studies reviewed thus far, de Courcy’s (2007) work is most closely related to this research. TCs’ beliefs about ESL learners is one of the four themes that emerged in de Courcy’s study of TCs’ reading reflections in a literacy course. She analyzed 37 reading reflections at two levels and found that the reflections “revealed students’ beliefs and developing understandings about second language learners” (p. 196). For example, some TCs believed that learners should have a passive role in the learning process rather than an active one.

This brief literature review illustrates that there are some studies about change in TCs’ beliefs, primarily about learning and teaching English. However, there appear to be few studies that explore TCs’ beliefs about ELL characteristics. Therefore, the research question for this study was the following: What beliefs do teacher candidates have about ELLs’ characteristics before and after taking an ESL methods course?

Method

The Population Surveyed

Of the 70 TCs who took a mandatory ESL methods course in a university in a southwestern city, 28 TCs (40%) reported being White, 37 (53%) Hispanic, and five (7%) of African or Asian-American origin. 44 TCs (63%) were pursuing the Early Childhood to the fourth grade level (EC-4) generalist certification; 11 (16%), the EC-4 bilingual certification; and 15 (21%) other certifications (e.g., Special Education). Fifty-six TCs (80%) spoke English as their first language, while 14 (20%) spoke Spanish.

Three issues regarding the TC demographics merit discussion. First, it can be noted that the ethnic makeup differs from that of the country in that Anglos are the predominant

group in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010) and in the teaching field (Ladson-Billings, 2005). However, the ethnic makeup of this study mirrors the makeup of the city where this study took place (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Second, about two thirds of the TCs will be teaching mainstream classes where they will have ELLs and therefore need to know who their learners are in order to serve them better. Third, English is the dominant language of the participants, including the Hispanic ones.

The ESL Methods Course

The semester-long ESL methods course is mandatory for TCs who seek certification in general education, bilingual education, or special education. The classes are divided into two strands: interactive lectures and methodology sessions. During interactive lectures, TCs are exposed to some statistics about the ELL population (e.g., origin and languages spoken), the rationale behind teaching ELLs, program models of learning English, theories of second language learning, and issues related to multicultural education, among other topics. Pair and group work provide the participants with a forum to discuss, comment on, and challenge the theories or issues presented during lectures. TCs read articles or chapters from textbooks on issues related to ELLs and later produce a reading reflection. They also conduct different projects, one of which is to interview an ELL. For the methodology strand, The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008) is used. TCs learn about the different components of the model, design lessons for their appropriate grade level, and micro-teach their lessons in class.

Data Collection and Analysis

My overarching research interest was in TCs’ beliefs related to three areas in particular: accent, code switching, and the process of language learning and teaching. Since no existing survey captured all these beliefs, I designed the *Language Beliefs* (LABE) instrument, borrow-

ing some items from previous surveys (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The pre- and post-LABE surveys were comprised of three parts: 11 questions on demographics; 10 open-ended questions; and 18 Likert items about accent, code-switching, and the process of language learning/teaching. For this article, I have selected only two open-ended questions that explore ELLs' characteristics:

- (a) What comes to your mind when you listen to or read the phrase English language learners?
- (b) Do you think ELLs can become proficient English language learners? Briefly elaborate.

Out of 86 sets collected, 16 were discarded due to missing information. The analysis for this study was conducted with 70 sets of pre- and post- surveys. Data analysis focused on the lexical choice where "at the word/phrase/[clause] level, we can examine the connotations of particular words, and the collocations found in the writing" (de Courcy, 2007, p. 196). Three subjective categories emerged from the data analysis process: (a) typical/neutral, (b) favorable, and (c) unfavorable beliefs.

Results

Beliefs About ELL Characteristics

Examining the pre-LABE responses for question (a): *What comes to your mind when*

you listen to/read the phrase English language learners? 20 TCs (28%) provided typical/neutral responses: "Students who are learning a second language." 27 (39%) provided favorable assumptions, e.g., "Children who are fluent in another language or speak another language" or "Those [learners] students/people who are proficient in reading and writing in their native language and desire to be proficient in the same way in a second language." 23 (33%) gave unfavorable beliefs, e.g., "Those who have limited English language skills" or "Students who have little or no background in the English language." The post-LABE responses showed some changes in beliefs since 35 TCs (50%) provided typical/neutral answers, 27 (39%) stated favorable beliefs, and only eight (11%) gave unfavorable responses.

Inaccurate or incomplete assumptions

Two further characteristics ascribed to ELLs were "Hispanic and Spanish speaking." In the TCs' responses to these constructs, few of them explicitly elaborated about ELLs' ethnicities or primary languages. Only four TCs (about 6%) stated that ELLs were Hispanic and nine TCs (about 13%) that Spanish was their primary language in the pre-LABE responses; two TCs (about 3%) stated that ELLs were Hispanic, and two TCs (about 3%) that Spanish was their primary language in the post-LABE responses.

Another characteristic attributed to ELLs

Table 1. What comes to your mind when you listen to or read the phrase English language learners?

| | Before | After |
|---|----------|----------|
| Favorable | 39% (27) | 39% (27) |
| Neutral/typical | 28% (20) | 50% (35) |
| Unfavorable | 33% (23) | 11% (8) |
| | | |
| Hispanic | 6% (4) | 3% (2) |
| Spanish-speaking | 13% (9) | 3% (2) |
| New to the country/from other countries | 16% (11) | 6% (4) |

was that they were “new to the country.” In the pre-LABE responses, only 11 TCs (about 16%) referred to ELLs’ origins, stating that they were “native Mexicans,” “new to the U.S.,” “people/students from other countries,” or “that they come from other countries.” The remaining 84% did not make a direct reference to ELLs’ origins. When answering the post-LABE survey, only four TCs (about 6%) stated that ELLs were “foreign students” or “students from other countries learning English.”

Beliefs About ELLs’ Potential for Successfully Learning English

In response to the pre- and post-survey responses for the second question (*Do you think ELLs can become proficient English language learners? Briefly elaborate.*), most participants gave positive answers. 69 TCs (99%) stated that ELLs can become proficient in English. Some representative comments include:

- “Yes, I believe an ELL can become proficient in English with the right teachers, support, and resources”
- “Yes, if they are taught properly and given equal opportunities”
- “Yes, if they are provided with a positive atmosphere and the proper language content”

Only one TC (1%) responded negatively, and this person elaborated that success depends “... on the ability of the person. English is a language difficult to master. The English alphabet is difficult.”

Discussion

Considering the findings for question (a), initially 33% of TCs’ responses attached a deficit perspective to ELLs’ language proficiencies using words/phrases such as “limited” or having “little or no background” in English. However,

by the end of the semester, the findings suggest that these TCs had become aware of their initial misconception and changed it to neutral/typical responses, since negative responses decreased from 33% to 11%. This change may be the result of having been exposed to lectures, readings, and statistics about ELLs or due to having obtained first-hand exposure to ELLs through the interview assignment. It is hoped that this increased awareness laid the foundation so that TCs could better support ELLs’ development of English.

In examining TCs’ responses as to whether ELLs can become proficient language learners or not, it is important to highlight that TCs either knew or were aware that language proficiency can be achieved if ELLs have “[the] right teachers,” “resources,” “a positive atmosphere,” and “are given equal opportunities.” If classes do not have these features, the language

these TCs had become aware of their initial misconception and changed it to neutral/typical responses

proficiency required at school, primarily for content classes, may not be achieved, as some studies show (Valdés, 1991; Valenzuela, 1999). The responses to this question suggest that the TCs were generally aware of this fact.

Generally, TC’s beliefs about the ethnicity of ELLs (Hispanic) and their primary language spoken (Spanish) are confirmed by current statistics. TCs may have read or heard that the Hispanic population is the fastest growing minority in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Thus, they may know the ELLs’ ethnicities and primary languages even if they did not make any reference to it, considering that more than 50% of TCs in this research are of Hispanic origin.

However, this assumption is incomplete. That is why it was reassuring to read their post-LABE responses: “At first I thought of people that come from Mexico, but then I realized that there are people from many countries that come to the U.S. as well” or “I do know that NOT every ELL’s first language will be Spanish. It

might be Russian, German, or Chinese.” That is, many TCs came to understand that ELLs are not only Hispanic Spanish-speaking learners, as many people and TCs tend to assume.

Two further comments need to be made considering the findings on ethnicity and language spoken. First, since TCs were not asked explicitly about ELLs’ ethnicities and languages, they may have felt that there was no need to state them. Second, these two characteristics, Hispanic and Spanish speaking, have been widely disseminated among the general public. As a result, it is default information that TCs bring to preparation sessions. Thus, teacher educators need to help TCs become better informed about the vast ethnic and linguistic diversity that exists among ELLs.

Finally, referring to some TCs’ beliefs that ELLs are new to the United States, it is important to point out that this assumption is not supported by current data. Latest figures show that “approximately 75% of children of immigrants were born in the U.S. and therefore are U.S. citizens” (Wright, 2010, p. 5). Thus, it is imperative that ELLs’ origins be highlighted in methods courses so that TCs are knowledgeable about the background of their future learners. Reframing this belief, when necessary, will help TCs to see ELLs from a *we/us/our* perspective rather than from a *they/them/their* or “other” perspective (van Dijk, 1993, p. 263). Unfortunately, the latter perspective appears to be very common.

Practical implications

There are four implications to draw from the findings. First, since TCs may be unaware of the beliefs they possess about ELLs’ characteristics (e.g., their origins), it is crucial that ESL methods coursework confront and dispel stereotypical notions of who ELLs are. Otherwise, TCs will ascribe features to ELLs that are inaccurate or limited.

Second, given that beliefs may be translated into classroom behavior, TCs should be required to examine their beliefs by predicting the effects these may have on learners. For example, referring to an ELL as a non-proficient learner denies him/her the opportunity to evolve and thrive as a bilingual learner. It also perpetuates a deficit perspective of ELLs’ repertoire.

Third, by being cognizant of ELLs’ characteristics, TCs will have a more complete image of who their students are and what they bring to class. This should help them make teaching and learning more connected, meaningful, and engaging.

Finally, educators should seek ways to reframe TCs’ beliefs, especially if they are inaccurate or incomplete ones. Two potential ways to challenge TCs’ beliefs about ELLs’ characteristics are showing current statistics and designing projects where TCs can obtain first-hand information about this student population (e.g., interviews with ELLs).

TCs should be required to examine their beliefs by predicting the effects these may have on learners.

Limitations

Perhaps the main limitation of the study is that it relies on TCs’ self-reported responses. It is possible that the participants aligned their responses to what they perceived the researcher to be looking for (Hancock & Flowers, 2001). However, since I was not the TCs’ instructor, I hope to have minimized this situation.

Future research should compare and contrast these findings with findings from groups of TCs from different backgrounds (e.g., those whose members are predominantly White) to gain insights on the similarities or differences of the groups’ beliefs. Finally, further research needs to be conducted to find out whether changes in beliefs endure after TCs become teachers or whether teachers reframe some of their beliefs in light of the experience they gain.

Conclusions

This research was conducted in a university with a large Hispanic population, and my interest was to find out what characteristics TCs ascribe to ELLs before and after taking an ESL methods course. As a teacher educator, this topic interested me because in previous courses I noticed that many TCs initially held a deficit perspective towards ELLs. My findings reveal that two beliefs are in need of revisiting: ELLs are not proficient learners, and ELLs are new to this country. The phrase “not proficient” [learners] needs re-examining because when TCs think of their learners as not proficient [learners], they limit ELLs’ possibilities for language development. Moreover, the notion that all ELLs are “new to the country” needs reframing since current figures contradict this finding (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). In fact, most ELLs in U.S. schools today are native-born American citizens.

TCs need to be aware that ELLs are already competent language users in at least one primary language, if not more. ELLs can become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural members of a global community that demands no less of them. In that vein, the construct “emergent bilingual” is useful because it captures and values ELLs’ previous linguistic repertoires (Garcia, 2009).

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- Carmen Caceda began teaching English as a foreign language in Peru in 1982. She later prepared EFL trainees. Moving to the US, she began teaching Spanish and preparing ESL/bilingual trainees. She is currently an Assistant Professor at Western Oregon University, teaching methods and culture classes.*

Curricular Renovations in ESOL: Preparing Our Teachers

*Karen M. Timmermans and EunJoo Catherine Kim,
Pacific University*

Oregon, the state in which we educate our in-service and pre-service teachers, recently revised the requirements for the English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) endorsement. The state had already published competency guidelines, or standards, for an ESOL endorsement. However, Oregon had required the ESOL endorsement candidates only to complete a 90-hour practicum with an ESOL endorsed teacher and achieve a passing score on a standardized knowledge assessment in order to add the endorsement on their teaching license.

Oregon wanted to ensure that ESOL-endorsed teachers met the competency guidelines already in place and were better prepared to teach children whose first language is not the language of instruction. The state retained the 90-hour practicum, created a new standardized knowledge assessment, and added curricular requirements to the ESOL endorsement. As part of the original ESOL endorsement standards, the state had identified six knowledge skills and abilities in which an ESOL endorsed teacher must demonstrate competency:

- 1) Language
- 2) Culture
- 3) Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction
- 4) Assessment
- 5) Professionalism
- 6) Technology (Oregon Department of Education, n.d.).

In this article, we will describe our purpose for re-evaluating Pacific University's standard course of study related to the ESOL endorsement and our process of redesigning our program.

Our intent in re-evaluating our program was to ensure an in-depth curriculum focusing not only on teaching, assessment, and learning; but also linguistics, culture, and policy for our ESOL endorsement candidates. We evaluated our current ESOL endorsement curriculum in order to determine whether the ESOL endorsement program currently in place for several years was fully aligned to the state's competency guidelines, prepared the ESOL endorsement candidates for the new standardized knowledge assessment, and led to their future success in the classroom.

As part of our evaluative process we reviewed the current course objectives, outcomes, and assignments as described in course syllabi; accessed current literature in ESOL teacher education; examined course evaluations completed by ESOL endorsement candidates; and considered other ESOL endorsement programs of study across the state. The criteria by which we evaluated the courses in the current program came directly from the competency guidelines set forth by the state.

We compared course objectives, outcomes, and assignments with the statements for each of the six fore-mentioned competencies to determine the extent to which the courses met the

state's standards. Upon initial review of our current curriculum for alignment with the state's competency guidelines, we identified the areas in which our courses met or exceeded the state's competency expectations and areas in need of improvement.

Additionally, as a framework and guideline for our ESOL endorsement program evaluation and redesign, we considered the ways in which our candidates could best demonstrate competency in the four broad areas that Dantas-Whitney, Favela, Mize, and Galloway (2008) identified as focus areas in ESOL endorsement programs:

- 1) The history and legal issues relevant to educating English-language learners (ELLs)
- 2) Cultural and linguistic diversities existing in K-12 education
- 3) Linguistic aspects of first and second language acquisition
- 4) Methods to teach and differentiate instruction and assessment for ELLs.

Dantas-Whitney et al.'s (2008) focus areas align with the state's competency guidelines as professionalism; culture; language; planning, implementing and managing instruction; and assessment.

History and Legal Issues

The course in which the impact of federal and state policies on ELLs learning in schools was addressed already went beyond the state's expectations of professional knowledge. Although we revised some of the course requirements, the most visible change to the course, focusing on the history and legal issues relevant to educating ELLs, was a change in the course title to better reflect the course content and state guidelines. The state's competency guidelines require ESOL endorsement candidates to not

only be current in political issues confronting ELLs, but also be advocates for the students and work collaboratively with their families. The course already in place supported the candidates' acquisition of knowledge of laws and policies related to how children who arrive in school not speaking the language of instruction are best served.

An assignment to support our candidates' understanding and practical application of policies and laws included in the newly redesigned policy course involves a pro and con stance on the English-only debate. ESOL endorsement candidates research one side of the issue and engage in a convincing debate with a group supporting the opposing view.

Our candidates' comments evidenced the ways in which the newly designed policy course

candidates research one side of the issue and engage in a convincing debate with a group supporting the opposing view

allowed them to better understand the struggles that those who do not speak English face when they seek equal access to public educa-

tion. Their comments included: "I learned so much from this course. Even though I am not going for the endorsement, I learned valuable information that will be applicable to my own class someday;" and "[this] class helped me further understand important policies relating to ESOL. I really liked the idea to have a debate for us to further our understanding of the 'English Only' issue."

Cultural and Linguistic Diversity

One component of our program that we identified as in need of strengthening was in the area of social and cultural competence related to the particular needs of ELLs. Other programs in our college provide frequent opportunities for our candidates to expand and broaden their experiences and understanding of working with

and teaching diverse populations. The focus of these other courses tends to be about understanding your own biases, your community, and diverse populations in general, rather than about children who come to school speaking a language different from the language of instruction.

We want our ESOL endorsement candidates to be more than just culturally competent; we want the candidates to move toward a more critical cultural consciousness. Our candidates, in order to be successful ESL teachers, need to participate in a critical self-examination of their own preconceived ideas beyond superficial acknowledgement or awareness of cultural issues. Dantas-Whitney and Waldschmidt (2009) emphasize this self-examination as an important component of teacher education in ESOL.

We wanted to deepen our candidates' cultural knowledge and consciousness. We created a two semester credit hour course in which our candidates consider the particular linguistic, social, and cultural aspects of ELLs and how these aspects impact the children's learning. We designed this cultural constructs course to equip our candidates with the skills to assist them to be culturally responsive in an environment supportive of learning for all students. The new course addresses the cultural and linguistic diversities found within K-12 classrooms. It provides an environment in which our candidates can reflect upon and develop a deep understanding of the cultures, language, values, attitudes, experiences, and behaviors our ELLs bring with them to the classroom.

The assignments are designed to facilitate a deeper understanding of our ELLs. Assignments include online and offline discussion and reflection on cultural and linguistic diversities existing in our schools, service learning opportunities within diverse schools and communities, observations of and interviews with ELLs to understand their experience, and interviews with ESL

teachers to learn about the unique challenges they face when working with ELLs from diverse backgrounds. The focus of the course and assignments is to allow our candidates to develop a critical view and understanding of what it means to become an intercultural educator who provides culturally responsive education.

Our candidates commented in the course evaluations how this course provided them with valuable opportunities to gain new insights into ESOL education and how much they learned from doing service learning, observations, and interviews with ESL teachers and students. Candidates mentioned that the assignments all allowed them to deepen their understanding of cultural and linguistic diversities existing among ELLs. Their course evaluations included comments such as: "We were able to interview ESOL instructors and students, which gave us a better understanding of what goes on in ELL classrooms;" "[this course] is a must in ESOL education;" "[this course] makes me want to

we want the candidates to move toward a more critical cultural consciousness

be an ESOL specialist;" "[this course] will definitely help me as an emerging ESOL teacher and opened my eyes to a lot of topics that I was not

aware of before;" and "[h]onestly, I was wondering whether I should take this class or not, but I was right to take the class. This class totally changed my perspective about ESL students and how to interact with their parents."

Linguistic Aspects

The state's competency guideline in the area of language acquisition requires candidates to fully "understand, and use the major concepts, theories, and research related to the nature and acquisition of language to construct learning environments that support English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) and bilingual students' language and literacy development and content area achievement" (Oregon Department of Education, n.d.).

The course in which linguistics and language acquisition for ELLs was addressed already exceeded the state's expectations of the skills and abilities candidates needed to demonstrate for their ESOL endorsement. In terms of the state's competency guidelines, the course allowed the students to gain a solid understanding of first and second language acquisition, both at the theoretical and practical levels. Again, the most visible change for the linguistics course was a course title that better reflected the course content and aligned with the state's guidelines.

Candidates in our program commented that this three semester credit hour educational linguistics course allowed them to develop a strong foundation in linguistics relevant to teaching and learning and language acquisition theories. Candidates' responses on course evaluations that directly pointed to the course content included the following: "Many assignments required reflective, critical thinking;" "I feel that I have a good grounding to go forward with the endorsement;" "I have learned much regarding the ESL language development and find it an excellent course;" and "I will certainly use much of what I learned on a daily basis in my future teaching practice."

Differentiating Instruction and Assessment

We were aware that our ESOL courses placed a great emphasis on research-based and standards-based practices from the assessment of our curriculum and the evaluations from our candidates. Still, we found the course in which the candidates explored instructional and assessment methods was too narrow in focus and did not fully cover aspects of how technology could be used to enhance learning for ELLs. In order to provide more depth and breadth for our candidates, we added a single semester credit hour to the three semester credit hour course, and split the course into two consecutive, two semester credit hour courses.

This strategic move allowed us to provide two classes with more focused content and extended opportunities for learning, rather than one course covering a shallow breadth of content. Our goal was to assist the candidates in building a strong theoretical foundation in the five areas of language arts, listening, speaking, reading, writing, and viewing. Candidates also learned how these skills connect to one's culture through a variety of instructional models and techniques.

The second course of the two-course sequence addressing our candidates' knowledge skills and abilities takes what the students learned in the first of the two-course sequence to a practical level: assessing, planning, and learning. For the second course, the candidates are required to complete a unit designed for ESL instruction. The unit includes the lesson plans, the Oregon ELP (English Language Proficiency) standards that each lesson addresses, assessment plans detailing how students' progress and achievement are assessed, and all the accompanying materials necessary to teach the unit successfully.

Candidates who participated in the new format reported they had learned many effective instructional strategies for ELLs that were not addressed in their previous teacher education coursework. Their comments on this course showed that they felt well prepared for actual ESL classroom teaching: "I learned a lot of practical things in this class (how to teach reading, grammar, and listening...);" "I learned so much from this course on how to teach ELLs. It was a great class to start off with and learn about;" and "[this] was such an amazingly helpful class. It took up a lot of time and was very challenging, but helpful for the future teaching."

This new learning occurred in part because of the hands-on nature of the newly redesigned courses focusing specifically on instructional methods, technology use, and assessments of ELLs. Compared to our previous ESOL endorsement curriculum, the newly revised two-course

sequence has a stronger focus on effective ways to apply the knowledge of instructional methodology, technology, and assessment.

We wanted to further strengthen the methodology component of the newly redesigned curriculum and to equip our candidates with effective teaching strategies and theoretical foundations for teaching reading to ELLs. We added a literacy course dedicated to literacy instruction for ELLs. The new literacy course allows our candidates to focus specifically on best practices in the area of reading and writing instruction. This course, required as part of the reading endorsement as well as ESOL endorsement, considers literacy instruction for academic English acquisition through content areas and children's and adolescent literature. It also allows candidates with diverse knowledge and expertise to come together to support each other's learning.

Again, the students' responses focusing on course content in their course evaluations assured us that our efforts in redesigning a more in-depth and effective program was well worth

the effort: "This was a great class filled with vibrant discussion and debate. Reading the text (which was relevant) and responding was a great way to critically think about the material. The lesson plan was thoughtful and made me think about my potential role as a literacy advocate for ELL students;" and "I believe the information covered in this course should be required curriculum for all pre-service teachers. I found the information to be some of the most useful I have encountered since beginning the MAT program."

Assessment of Candidates' Knowledge and Skills

Finally, we addressed the ways in which candidates demonstrate achievement of the state's competency guidelines. Previously, the

candidates submitted a portfolio in which they collected items during their 90-hour practicum. The portfolio was to include artifacts to demonstrate their experience in the areas of pre-assessment and analysis, planning and designing, instructional plans, evaluation, documentation and reporting, and research. The candidates included photocopies of assessments administered in order to determine the children's English competence, articles they read to indicate knowledge of research about ELLs, and handouts either they or their mentor teacher had used with the ELLs under their care during the practicum.

In this format, there was insufficient evidence to suggest our candidates were sufficiently prepared to effectively teach ELLs. Since we began our redesign process by aligning courses to the state's competency guidelines, we reframed the portfolio to be a source of comprehensive evidence that our candidates met each of

we reframed the portfolio to be a source of comprehensive evidence that our candidates met each of the state's competencies

the state's competencies. It became the responsibility of the candidates to gather artifacts from their courses and practicum to evidence their achievement of the state's com-

petency guidelines. The candidates no longer included photocopies of assessments and journal articles, but rather evidenced their learning in each of the six competency areas with projects and papers from each of their courses and lesson plans they created from their practicum. Each item was prefaced by a brief explanation as to how the artifacts demonstrated the candidate's understanding of each of the state's competency guidelines. These portfolios are evaluated using a scoring rubric designed to assess whether they show enough evidence that the candidates' work met each of the six competency areas.

As part of our redesign, we developed an observation tool to guide us as we observe our students in their ESOL practicum placements. The observation tool aligns with the state's competency guidelines and best practices in the field

of education. We also added a mentor teacher evaluation aligned with the state's competency guidelines to the candidate evaluation process. The mentor teacher can now provide direct feedback to the university's ESOL endorsement program coordinator and candidate supervisor about the student's ability to effectively teach ELLs within a self-contained ESL classroom or a mainstream classroom. Both the observation tool and the mentor teacher feedback form add to the evidence of our students' capability to successfully educate ELLs.

To conclude, we took great care in redesigning and aligning our ESOL endorsement program to the state's competency guidelines. As a result, we are now more confident that our candidates can better meet the linguistic, social, cultural, and academic needs of the ELLs in their classrooms and schools and are now better prepared to become highly competent teachers who provide effective instruction for ELLs.

We will continue to evaluate our new curricular changes through continuous monitoring and assessment of program effectiveness. We believe our reflective practice will help us keep

our ESOL endorsement curriculum relevant for the needs of Oregon schools.

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Cooperative Learning and Vocabulary Retention

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Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec (1992) define cooperative learning (CL) as the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. Cooperative learning is definitely not the act of bringing a number of students together haphazardly to learn a subject matter merely through discussion. Teachers who use CL actively organize students into groups and provide them with opportunities and motivation to be responsible for each other's learning.

Benefits of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning offers many benefits for both teachers and students when it is carefully planned and structured.

Academic Achievement

Research on cooperative learning shows that, when used appropriately, the effects of CL on achievement are consistently positive (Slavin, 1995). In their analysis of 122 achievement related studies, Johnson, Johnson, Maruyama, Nelson, & Skon (1981) reported that cooperative learning resulted in higher achievement than competitive or individualistic learning across all age levels, subject areas, and tasks.

Kessler (1992) notes that a number of studies show the greatest gains of CL among minority students (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978; Klein and Eshel, 1980; Slavin and Oickle, 1981) and among special needs students

(Nevin, Johnson, & Johnson, 1982). High-achieving students also generally perform well with CL. The stronger students have opportunities for explaining, organizing thoughts, and being certain about specific concepts, which in turn increases their own understanding (Dansereau, 1985; Webb, 1985).

Social and personal development

Various studies report positive results of cooperative learning on different aspects of social skills, such as reduced racial stereotyping and discrimination (Cohen, 1980), increased self-direction (Johnson, Johnson, Johnson, & Anderson, 1976), increased sense of intellectual competence (Kagan, 1989), and increased liking for class (Slavin, 1983).

Finally, according to Kagan & Kagan (1994), research reveals that even if there is no social skills instruction at all, students in cooperative learning classes turn out to be more caring, helpful, and understanding of each other.

Language learning

Kessler (1992) points out that there are close relations between CL and language development. Students who are taught through CL are exposed to increased amounts of active communication (both comprehension and production) and use of language for academic and social functions. Goodlad (1984) reports that in traditional teacher-centered classes, less than 20% of class time is spared for student language production. Moreover, each student typically

gets the chance to speak for only fractions of a minute during a fifty-minute class time in a class of thirty students.

In contrast, CL classrooms devote 80% of their time to activities that include talking. Since this talk is simultaneous, “half of the students may be engaged in language production while the others are engaged in language comprehension” (Kessler, 1992: 5). As a result, CL provides an abundance of opportunity for increased active communication. This in turn has the potential for more intake for the English language learners.

Management

Kagan & Kagan (1994) report that many teachers have fewer classroom management problems after they alter their methods from traditional to CL. Cangelosi (2000) states that CL activities help classroom management in that they foster student engagement in lessons, help students develop intrinsic motivation, equip students with better conflict solution skills, and decrease the number of discipline problems among students.

CL provides an abundance of opportunity for increased active communication.

Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD)

This CL technique, developed by Slavin (1994), is designed to raise students’ motivation to learn. It focuses on cooperation among group members within each team, which is followed by competition among the teams in the class. Jacobs, Power, & Inn (2002) describe this technique in four steps. First, the teacher instructs or presents the topic to the students who are arranged in heterogeneous groups of four. Second, students are asked to study the subject in their groups and make sure that each group member learns the material and is ready for a quiz. Then, students take the quiz individually. Finally, the teacher scores the quizzes.

Each student’s score is compared to his or her past averages and points are added to the

group according to the level of improvement each student shows. Thus, students compete with their own previous average instead of competing with their peers. According to Bejarano (1987) this provides each student with an equal opportunity to contribute to the team score.

Vocabulary Retention

Thornbury (2002) states that knowing the meaning of a word is not just knowing its dictionary meaning. Rather, the learner has to know the words commonly associated with it, namely, its collocations as well as its connotations, register, and cultural accretions. Another description for what it means to know a word is the type of word knowledge; that is, the distinction between receptive and productive word knowledge. According to Nation (2002), receptive vocabulary use involves perceiving the form of a word while

listening or reading and retrieving its meaning. Productive vocabulary use involves wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing

the appropriate spoken or written word form.

Vocabulary teaching and learning research has long focused on the most difficult question to answer; namely, what are the best ways of committing new words to memory? For short-term memory, which is used to hold information over brief periods, constant repetition of the new information would be the best action to take. However, if this new input is to be retained for days, weeks, or even years, we need to work much harder and try different strategies. Mere repetition will not be adequate to commit information to long-term memory (Gairns & Redman, 1986). Research findings support the idea that retention of new information depends on the amount and quality of attention that individuals pay to various aspects of words (Craik & Tulving, 1975).

When students read a text together and explain the concepts to each other while evaluating each others’ explanations, they engage in a

high level of critical thinking. They form new concepts by using their own vocabulary and by basing their comments on their existing knowledge. Lockhart & Craik (1990) claim that such rich and numerous associations with previous knowledge increases the chances that the new information will be retained. Therefore, processing new lexical information more elaborately will lead to better retention than if it is processed less elaborately (Lockhart & Craik, 1990).

One of the main goals of cooperative learning is to provide learners with opportunities to use language to do things, and in particular, to engage in meaningful interactive oral language production. In a study of the acquisition of mathematical vocabulary, Hall (1992) found that the vocabulary learning of students working on interactive activities was greater than that of students working in a teacher-fronted setting. In another study, Newton (1993) reported that learners negotiated unknown vocabulary successfully, hence helping each other with the learning and use of this new vocabulary. Thus, research provides evidence for improved vocabulary recognition and use both as a result of exposure to new vocabulary in a meaningful communicative context and as a result of communicative work on targeted vocabulary.

The Study

This study examined the effects of cooperative learning activities and STAD on students' vocabulary retention.

Design of the Study

The study is a "one-group pretest-posttest," a quasi-experimental research design. In this design, a single case is observed at two time points, one before the treatment and one after the treatment. Changes in the outcome of interest are presumed to be the result of the intervention or treatment. In this study, the subjects in a vocabulary course were given a pre-test before

each treatment. The same test was given as a post-test two weeks after each treatment, and the scores were compared to see the effects of the treatment. A two-week retention period was used for this study because similar studies had used the same period of time (Carter, Hardy & Hardy, 2001; Grace, 1998).

Participants

The study was carried out in the English Language Preparatory School attached to Başkent University in Ankara in one of the 43 beginner level classes. The medium of instruction in the university overall is Turkish. The language proficiency level of students was determined by a proficiency test administered at the beginning of the school year. There were 22 students in the class, 8 of whom were female and 14 of whom were male. Their ages ranged between 18 and 20.

Instruments

The researchers made use of four beginning level texts taken from the book

Far From Home: Reading and Word Study, by William Pickett. Cooperative learning activities were implemented with two of these texts, and small group tasks were implemented with the other two.

The cooperative lessons utilized a standard structure called Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), as described earlier. The teacher presented the unit. After that, worksheets were distributed on the same topic for the group members to study together. The students were responsible for ensuring that all their team members were ready for the individual quiz that followed immediately afterward.

In the cooperative activity, the students in their heterogeneous groups were asked to use the 10 newly learned words to create a reaction essay to the story they had just read. In this procedure, the group members thought of a plot together using the 10 new words. After that, each

One of the main goals of cooperative learning is to provide learners with opportunities to use language to do things

student in each group was assigned a part of the story and the words to use in that part, and s/he wrote his/her part individually in line with the plot they had created together. Then, they came together again and formed their essays. While doing that, they each took turns to explain their part and the vocabulary items with it. They made sure that everybody in the group mastered the use of the words in focus.

The teacher collected the essays to grade them according to such criteria as cohesion, coherence, grammatical accuracy, and the correct use of the words in focus. The essay grades were added to their total group scores. Then, they took a vocabulary quiz individually. Their quiz scores were compared with their base scores and 10 points were added to the group score for each member who exceeded his/her base score. In addition to this, if all members of a group received a grade of 90 or above, 10 more points was added to their total group scores.

With this structure, the teacher made sure that all the principles of the cooperative learning were present; namely, the activity fostered heterogeneous grouping, individual accountability, positive interdependence, equal participation, and simultaneous interaction. With these principles directly applied to the cooperative lessons, the teacher assumed that the students would develop their cooperative skills by engaging in cooperative tasks as opposed to lecturing them on what cooperative learning is.

Three tests were used for each cooperative lesson plan. First of all, a pre-test was given each time to see whether the students already knew the words we intended to teach. A quiz, which was a part of the STAD technique, was given right after instruction in order to determine the effectiveness of cooperative group work by seeing the contribution of each individual to the group

score. Finally, a post-test was given for each text after a two-week interval so as to find out the effect of cooperative tasks on vocabulary retention. The pre-test and the post-test of each lesson were the same and they aimed to test recognition of the definitions of focus words. The students were asked to match the target words arranged in threes with the correct definitions, which were arranged in sixes. An example is in Figure 1.

Results

Data from the pre-test and post-test scores were analyzed through t-tests to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the vocabulary retention results of cooperative learning activities and small group tasks. Then, regression analysis was used to determine the relation between students' course achievement and their retention levels for each of the methods.

Comparison of group work and cooperative learning activities

To be able to compare the group work scores and the cooperative learning scores, the difference in each participant's pre-test score was calculated. Afterwards, measures of central tendency presented in Table 1 were calculated using these scores.

As seen in Table 1, the mean values of student results from the cooperative learning lessons were higher than those from the lessons that adopted the group work technique. However, the variance and the standard deviation values of the group work lessons are slightly lower than those of the cooperative learning lessons. This finding can be interpreted as more equal distribution

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. the need to do things quickly | |
| 2. someone who drives a vehicle | _____ passenger |
| 3. a person travelling in a vehicle but not driving it | _____ hurry |
| 4. the central part of a city | _____ bill |
| 5. the amount of vehicles moving along roads | |
| 6. a piece of paper used as a request for payment; check | |

Figure 1. Matching exercise

Table 1: Measures of central tendency values for cooperative learning and group work

| Texts | Participants | Mean | Variance | Standard Deviation |
|---------------|--------------|------|----------|--------------------|
| Group work 1 | 22 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.2 |
| Group work 2 | 22 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 1.7 |
| Cooperative 1 | 22 | 3.3 | 5.4 | 2.3 |
| Cooperative 2 | 22 | 3.6 | 5.0 | 2.1 |

of scores around the average score, and fewer gaps between the learning and retention levels of the words among individual participants for the group work lessons. Cooperative learning lessons, which yielded bigger variance and standard deviation values, created individual retention scores which deviated a bit more from the average. This means that there are bigger gaps among the scores of participants, which is not a very favorable result for a cooperative learning lesson even though it created better retention results than the group work technique.

Table 2 presents the results of the t-test. Since *p-value* is smaller than 0.05, we can say that the difference between the *mean values* of cooperative learning and group work techniques is statistically significant. As a result, it can be concluded that cooperative learning lessons produced better vocabulary retention results than those implementing the group work technique.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the analysis of the data, it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in the participants' vocabulary retention scores

between the words learned through cooperative learning activities and the ones learned through group work technique in favour of cooperative learning activities. It can be concluded that cooperative learning lessons created better vocabulary retention results than those lessons which implemented the group work technique. The

findings of this study were consistent with the literature, highlighting the fact that cooperative learning settings can create longer retention periods since students constantly engage in the elaboration of new concepts and interaction with their group mates (Gairns & Redman, 1986).

Results of previous research studies support the idea that retention of new information depends on the amount and quality of attention that individuals pay to various aspects of words (Craik & Tulving, 1975). This study also reinforced the concept that cooperative learning activities increased the amount and the quality of attention that the participants paid to various aspects of words, therefore encouraging longer retention periods.

Slavin (1995) asserts that when students work together to achieve a mutual goal - as in classes structured with a cooperative reward system - their efforts to learn help their group mates succeed. This study demonstrated that cooperative learning lessons yielded individual retention scores which were diverse from each other to a great extent. This finding showed that, although

participants who internalized the basic principles of cooperative learning helped their group mates succeed, this effort was not enough to prevent them from getting diverse retention scores. Despite the better retention results in the cooperative learning

Table 2: Comparison of cooperative learning and group work

| Paired T-test for Cooperative – Group Work | | | | |
|--|----|-------|-------|---------|
| | N | Mean | StDev | SE Mean |
| Cooperative | 44 | 3.432 | 2.266 | 0.342 |
| Group Work | 44 | 2.227 | 1.612 | 0.243 |
| Difference | 44 | 1.205 | 2.520 | 0.380 |

95% CI for mean difference: (0.438; 1.971)
T-Test of mean difference = 0 (vs not = 0): T-Value = 3.17 P-Value = 0.003

lessons, the students' retention scores were not gathered around the mean, but scattered widely. This basically means that each student could not benefit equally from the cooperative learning lessons with respect to their retention levels.

This study also demonstrated the utility of the STAD technique, where high achieving students helped their less skilled teammates and increased their group's total score. The teaching activity provided high achieving students with more opportunities for sophisticated explanations or cognitive elaboration work. Activities such as organizing thoughts and being certain about specific concepts increased the vocabulary skills of high achieving students while at the same time benefiting the low achieving students, resulting in better retention for all.

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Textual Input Enhancement: Applications in Teaching

E. Catherine Kim, Pacific University

How to incorporate grammatical elements effectively into instruction has long been a topic of discussion in the field of second language (L2) teaching. One option that has recently received much attention from researchers is textual input enhancement, a technique which uses visual input enhancement methods such as underlining, boldfacing, italicizing, capitalizing, color coding, or using different fonts to highlight target features.

Textual input enhancement has been suggested by many researchers as an optimal intervention to promote learning of grammatical elements with minimal interruption to meaning- and communication-oriented language instruction. This method engages learners in the dual task of form processing and meaning comprehension by attracting learners' attention to a linguistic feature through enhanced texts. When properly and consistently used in conjunction with subsequent form- and meaning-focused activities, this intervention technique can help ESL learners' awareness and processing of the targeted grammatical elements with little detriment to meaning comprehension.

This paper discusses how this pedagogical framework may be used effectively and systematically to teach grammar with reading. Also addressed is how this method can be more efficiently integrated into meaning-based reading instruction compared to explicit, form-focused grammar teaching techniques. First, previous research on focus on form and textual enhance-

ment will be reviewed in order to identify the theoretical rationale behind using this intervention technique. Then, how this intervention technique can be incorporated into actual classroom ESL teaching will be discussed.

Grammar in Reading Instruction

Many second-language acquisition researchers have suggested that textual enhancement of a grammatical element in an L2 text is an effective way to promote form learning in primarily meaning- and comprehension-based language instruction (see Combs, 2004 and Lee, 2007 for a comprehensive review of this research). It is a way of integrating grammar instruction without compromising the aims of meaning-oriented language instruction. Although this technique draws learners' attention and raises their consciousness of a targeted grammar form through enhanced texts, the learners' primary and major learning task is to read and comprehend their text. This technique is therefore well suited to meaning- and comprehension-based reading lessons.

Another merit of this technique is that grammar instruction can be integrated without interrupting the usual sequence of reading instruction. Grammatical elements are fully embedded in a reading text, and they are only highlighted for the purpose of drawing learners' attention to them. Many form-focused gram-

mar techniques teach grammatical features in isolation without much context. Here, the target grammatical feature is seen in context, and the primary focus of instruction is on meaning comprehension. The learner's attention is briefly drawn to the targeted grammatical form, but it remains focused on comprehending the text.

How do second-language learners benefit from such texts when they are engaged in reading in the second language? When reading enhanced texts, second-language learners are inevitably engaged in the dual task of processing both form and meaning simultaneously. This is different from how native speakers read the same texts. Native speakers' knowledge of language forms allows them to process information in an enhanced text without using too many attentional resources, as their focus is given more to processing meaning and comprehending the text (Skehan & Foster, 2001).

How then do second language learners cope with these dual task situations in which they must attend to both form and meaning? From a pedagogical perspective, it is particularly interesting to look into whether or not there are any significant detrimental effects of textual enhancement on processing meaning and comprehension of a text. The findings of some major research studies are reviewed in the next section.

Support for Textual Input Enhancement

Many second language researchers agree that learners must attend to grammatical features properly in order to process and use the second language successfully (Long, 1991; Robinson, 2003; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999; Schmidt, 2001;

Sharwood Smith, 1993; Tomlin & Villa, 1994; VanPatten, 1990, 1996, 2002). "Attention" and "noticing" of linguistic features by second-language learners are prerequisites for form learning to take place, and learners may fail to detect a number of linguistic features present in their reading texts unless these features are made perceptually salient through intervention techniques (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

From a pedagogical perspective, many second language teachers would also acknowledge that there are certain "language forms" that learners do not seem to learn properly even with a vast amount of evidence (i.e., correct forms)

the greater saliency a language form has, the greater chances are for it to be noticed and attended to by the learner.

provided to them. Norris and Ortega (2000) showed that form learning does not always occur naturally without instruction.

They also argued that it is important that attention be properly paid to grammatical and formal features of the language such as verb and tense inflection, pronouns, and transition words in order for learners to successfully comprehend meaning. Sharwood Smith (1993) claimed in his study that *input saliency* is a critical factor for learners to notice the target input and to subsequently detect errors. That is, the greater saliency a language form has, the greater chances are for it to be noticed and attended to by the learner.

Textual enhancement has been suggested as a way to facilitate this process of "attention" and "noticing" by making input more salient through enhanced target grammatical features. Highlighted features create perceptual salience in the learner's memory, which in turn leads them to be noticed and attended to by the learner. These noticed features eventually become intake to be internalized and used by the learner. This process is illustrated in Figure 1.

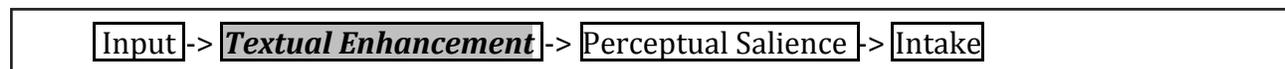


Figure 1. The process of input becoming intake through the intervention of textual enhancement.

It is inevitable that learners' attention is divided in order to process both form and meaning simultaneously, but it is debatable whether this divided attention actually interferes with comprehension of meaning. Learners' capacity to attend to form and their ability to attend to meaning will unavoidably be in competition to a certain degree (Wong, 2003).

However, many of the studies that examined possible debilitating effects of textual enhancement have shown that learners' comprehension might not be significantly compromised while reading enhanced texts (Alanen, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1981; White, 1998). Using only this technique might not be sufficient for form learning to take place, and it should be accompanied by supplementary learning activities to ensure enough exposure to the target grammatical features (White, 1998). Still, it holds promise as an effective way of getting the learner's attention for form processing.

It also appears that excessive use of enhancement may be ineffective. White (1998) and Doughty (2001) argued that excessive intervention might lead learners away from comprehending meaning. The proper amount of intervention is crucial to using this intervention technique. Although the studies did not precisely determine how much intervention is "excessive," it is no doubt more cognitively demanding to simultaneously process both forms and meaning when there are many enhanced forms.

Another point made in the research is that the timing of textual enhancement is important. VanPatten (1990) cautioned that learners who are in the beginning stages of second-language learning might have a hard time attending to both form and meaning simultaneously. They could thus end up with a poorer understanding of meaning, especially if enhanced linguistic

features are not crucial to the meaning being conveyed in a text.

Finally, it has been suggested that this technique should be selectively used to teach the linguistic features that are particularly difficult and seem not to be naturally acquired (Lightbown, 1998). It is not necessary or even possible to teach all linguistic features in classroom language instruction, as much of form learning takes place without focused instruction.

Pedagogical Implications

Several pedagogical implications should be considered in using textual input enhancement for actual classroom teaching. The first consideration is to avoid dividing learner attention excessively. The enhancement method for one language form should be consistent throughout the text. For example, if *italicizing* is chosen as an enhancement method for past tense verbs, it should be used consistently.

excessive intervention might lead learners away from comprehending meaning

In addition, only one language form should be focused on at a time. For example, if the past tense is the language form of interest in instruction, enhance only this feature. It can be detrimental to processing meaning if conceptual demands for form processing increase.

Three additional considerations should be kept in mind. Teachers should select a language form that is appropriate for the learners' proficiency level. If learners are not yet ready to learn the target language forms, enhanced input will not necessarily lead to learning even if they notice and attend to the input.

Secondly, the enhanced input should be presented to learners more than once after a language form is introduced and taught using this technique. We need to ensure that learners process the language form with enough exposure to the input. Finally, teachers should not rely

only on textual enhancement in order to teach linguistic features. Textual enhancement is unlikely to lead to successful learning of the target features unless it is used in combination with other learning activities to reinforce the learning of the target features.

Implementing Textual Input Enhancement

This section provides two examples of how textual input enhancement can be integrated into meaning-focused classroom reading instruction. It can be incorporated in a reading lesson without interrupting the usual sequence of reading instruction that begins with a pre-reading activity and ends with a post-reading activity. As the purpose of using textual input enhancement is to draw the learner's attention briefly to the target grammatical feature, the learner's primary task is always meaning comprehension.

The first example focuses on teaching past tense verbs, and the second example focuses on teaching passive voice. These features were chosen because they are crucial to comprehending the meaning conveyed in the texts but may not be easily noticed or attended to without focused intervention.

Example 1: Teaching Past Tense Verbs Using Textual Input Enhancement

This reading lesson is based on a storybook about a boy who liked to read a lot and wanted to write a story of his own. This storybook is from a graded reader series for ESL learners and primarily developed for elementary ESL reading instruction. However, the learning activities shown below can be adapted for any instructional level. In this lesson, textual input enhancement is integrated as a way to focus on past tense verb forms in a primarily meaning- and comprehension-focused reading lesson. After a pre-reading activity and vocabulary overview, learners are first presented with the sentences with enhanced grammatical features as shown below:

- a1. Authors are people who **write** books.
- a2. Ann Davis **wrote** many books.
- b1. Nathan **likes** to read books.
- b2. Nathan **liked** to write his story.

The above sentences are taken from the storybook itself and thus lead learners to engage in comprehending the meaning as well as noticing the enhanced grammatical features.

After students become familiar with the text, the teacher can copy a portion of it with highlighted, enhanced past tense verbs. See the excerpt from the text below:

Nathan **liked** to read books. He **read** many kinds of books. He **read** books by different authors. Authors are people who write books. His favorite author of all **was** Ann Davis. Nathan **loved** the interesting stories she **wrote** (Hunt, 2005: 3; bold added).

After showing the enhanced text and having students read the text again a few times, students go on to more traditional activities. For example, they can complete sentence frames using the past tense verbs such as below:

- a. Nathan _____ to read books. (like)
- b. Nathan _____ the interesting stories. (love)
- c. Ann Davis _____ Nathan's favorite author of all. (is)
- d. Ann Davis _____ many books. (write)

The above sentences come from the story that students read, so this task focuses on both form processing and meaning comprehension. In order to strengthen the learning of the target grammatical feature (past tense), the teacher can have students read the enhanced text a few more times before moving on to planned post-reading activities.

Example 2: Teaching Passive Voice Using Textual Input Enhancement

This lesson is designed to teach secondary ESL students about historical landmarks and to

discuss landmarks in the U.S. and in their home countries. While teaching what landmarks are and how landmarks are chosen, this lesson also focuses on the passive voice through textual input enhancement. After pre-reading activities, students are shown the example sentences containing passive sentences with enhancement as below:

- a. America's history **is preserved**, or **kept** alive, in many ways.
- b. Experts **are needed** to help in this process.
- c. It is an honor when a place **is chosen** to be a National Historic Landmark.
- d. More than a hundred pictographs **were found** in one place.

These sentences are taken from the text to highlight the passive forms of verbs. Next, after students are familiar with the text, the teacher can copy a portion of the text with highlighted, enhanced passive verbs. The passive verbs are more likely to be noticed and attended to while the students are engaged in reading the enhanced text. See the excerpt from the text below:

America's history **is preserved**, or **kept** alive, in many ways. National Historic Landmarks are places or objects that **are thought** to be important to American history. There are many historic places in the United States, but only about 2,500 **have been named** landmarks (Cully, 2005: 3; bold added).

The teacher can have students answer reading comprehension questions that are intended to elicit passive forms of the verbs while focusing on reading comprehension. Here, too, text enhancement can be used:

- a. How many historic places in the United States **have been named** landmarks?
- b. Who **is needed** when the National Park Service chooses the landmarks?
- c. What **is** the pueblo **made of**?
- d. Who **was** the Brooklyn Bridge **designed** by?

Students can read the enhanced text a few more times to strengthen their form learning as well as meaning comprehension. The teacher then engages students in typical post-reading activities to review the text.

Conclusion

This paper discussed the major theoretical aspects and pedagogical implications of incorporating textual input enhancement in classroom ESL teaching and showed how this intervention technique can be effectively used in actual classroom reading instruction. When properly and consistently used in primarily meaning-based reading instruction, this technique can effectively promote the learning of linguistic features without much interruption to meaning comprehension. It is hoped that this paper illuminated a way to effectively incorporate linguistic features in classroom ESL reading instruction.

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Teaching Tips

Welcoming an American Sit-com to the ESL Classroom

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Videos are not considered required materials for most ESL classrooms, and in fact many instructors don't bother to use them. This can be either because their classrooms lack the equipment or because the video theme or grammar point does not closely reflect class objectives. But videos do provide context in a way no other medium can—not even cartoon strips or role-playing. For one, stories presented on video are three-dimensional with “real” people speaking and acting. The teacher does not necessarily present or explain, as the story unfolds naturally before students' eyes. Also, unlike in reading and generated grammar sentences, the people in videos speak quickly and somewhat naturally, depending on the series. Every utterance is linked to another utterance or action.

Lately it's been a challenge to find videos that suit my upper-intermediate class. Crossroads Café, which is actually geared for a multi-level classroom, is a wonderful series for most students. Yet, the grammar points are too simple for most intermediate to advanced students. In addition, the actors speak more slowly than in real-life and sometimes in a contrived manner, since they are playing characters with accents. There are many other high quality video series, including Side-by-Side Interactive and Top Notch TV. Again, these seem geared towards lower levels, and they can be expensive.

I don't blame teachers for not using mod-

ern sit-coms. During my own quest I found that American sit-coms tend to offer humor that is either too subtle or inappropriate (in my opinion) for the classroom. I was disheartened when I realized lesbianism was being introduced in the very first episode of Friends, not the kind of topic I want to joke about with my students!

I eventually settled on two episodes, “Happy Birthdays” and “Max's Big Adventure,” from the sit-com “George Lopez.” This show features the famous Latino comedian playing himself. First of all, the protagonist is a man of Hispanic descent who is living with his wife and two children in the suburbs of Los Angeles. These are characters I would hope at least some students could relate to. I also liked that the main character, George, is in a position of new power. He has just been promoted to supervisor at the airplane parts factory where he has worked “on the line” for many years. So, the Lopez family is of Hispanic origin, yet middle class, with a lot of the same problems and concerns that other middle-class Americans have.

Another phenomenon that I've seen with my Level 4 students is that many have been living in Southern Oregon long enough to own their own homes and run their own businesses. This is a far cry from Mr. Brashov of Crossroads Café, who in one episode doesn't seem to understand the process of obtaining a bank loan. Many of the popular textbooks also fail to reflect this

*the story unfolds naturally
before students' eyes*

level of autonomy. In many instances textbooks feature characters who are either newly arrived immigrants or working at minimum wage jobs.

In “George Lopez,” the actors speak quite clearly, with barely any accent (they were born in the US, after all). They have specific personality traits expressed by their actions. George’s mother Bennie, for example, is always tough and sarcastic, and we learn that she is a single mom who raised George in extreme poverty. George’s best friend Ernie, on the other hand, is a grown man in his thirties who still lives with his parents. Ernie’s situation is fodder for numerous jokes, which leads me to the main reason I like the series. The jokes are really funny, in a slapstick laugh-out-loud way.

Suggestions for using the video

The importance of using closed captioning was made painfully clear during my first attempt. I could not find a well-functioning DVD player, and the students told me that they could only understand about 30-40% of what was said. The second time met with greater success when I procured well-functioning equipment that had the option of closed captioning. Here is a brief lesson plan for the first scene in “Max’s Big Adventure,” where a police officer comes to arrest one of George’s employees at the parts factory.

Total time: about 30 minutes

1. Go over vocabulary words, such as “warrant,” “shred,” “felon,” “wrestle,” and “carpool”.
2. Read through comprehension questions with the class. (Mine were really basic, such as “Why was Reggie being arrested? What did he do?” Answer: He beat up a man in a bar. “Why was Bennie upset about the arrest?” Answer: Reggie has the best car in the carpool.)
3. Play the video segment.

4. Students work in groups of three or four to answer the questions.
5. Go over answers with students and explain any jokes they didn’t understand.
6. Play the segment again.

I introduced the rest of the video story by asking students how they felt about children walking to school alone. The episode addressed this issue, as well as the theme of keeping kids safe and how much to tell them about the “real world.” I played the episode with subtitles, stopping it only occasionally to check in with the students about how much of the story they comprehended. We capped the episode with a lively discussion, in the same small groups, about how and when to introduce issues of safety and explain “real world dangers” to children. One student described how she used fairy tales such as Little Red Riding Hood to explain dangers to her toddler. Another student, who was a preschool teacher, described some of the approaches used at the school where he worked. The discussion lasted about twenty minutes and brought up other related issues and vocabulary.

After my brief yet positive experience with “Max’s Big Adventure,” I believe a curriculum package could be successfully built around the George Lopez series, divided into manageable segments, with worksheets to practice grammar (they use a lot of present perfect tense), vocabulary and comprehension questions. Any takers? Until there are, I think that with minimal preparation, George Lopez can still be a fun and innovative, not to mention hilarious, addition to the intermediate- or advanced-level ESL classroom.

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Online Surveys: An Engaging Teacher Tool

Marianne Stipe and Lora Yasen, Tokyo International University of America

Online surveys have become quite common, and we've all submitted our responses to SurveyMonkey.com on various topics. Online surveys can also be used as an engaging tool for language development, teaching academic skills, and developing critical thinking skills (Lebedev, 2009). However, teaching survey writing can involve certain challenges. How can we help students formulate survey questions that elicit meaningful answers? How can we frame the survey assignment and final projects in a way that will engage student interest?

Target Audience: intermediate/advanced ESL students in secondary/higher education

Learning Outcomes:

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- Write simple surveys on a topic
- Discuss survey results in small groups
- Write and discuss an interpretation of the survey results

The survey assignment was divided into preparation activities, online activities, and the analysis and product stage. We spent considerable time working with the language components involved in writing successful survey questions and responses. For example, we asked students to consider the type of information they wanted to elicit from their survey: numbers, opinions, reasons, ways, or likes. We discussed question types such as how closed-ended questions have a fixed set of answers. We introduced vocabulary for these questions such as adverbs of frequency. For example: "How often do you.....? Daily, weekly, monthly, never." (See Figure 1 for a sample survey question.)

For final products, students presented survey results in both a written analysis and an oral presentation. They had four areas to include in their interpretation. The first was the topic of their survey. Next, they explained what methods were used to gather the data. For example, did students ask yes/no questions or questions that

| 1. How would you rate the movie? | Actors/actresses | Plot/Story | Cultural/social themes | Special effects |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Excellent | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Very Good | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Good | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Fair | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Poor | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Figure 1. Sample survey question using SurveyMonkey.com

required the participants to complete a rating scale such as excellent, good, or poor?

The third area was the findings section. For example, “50% of the participants rated the film as excellent.” Finally, the students had to use critical thinking skills to discuss the implications of their surveys. Table 1 below shows the different activities in the project.

In sum, *SurveyMonkey.com* provides an instructional scaffolding approach to promote language learning by offering a compelling software tool, survey templates, and partial completion of the data manipulation tasks for the student. Zorfass & Copel (1995) write that if practice activities used in class have a product or performance focus, they will be more meaningful to students. Publishing and presenting the survey analyses personalized the projects and made them engaging for our students.

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| Preparation Activities | Online Activities | Analysis and Product |
|--|--|---|
| Take model online survey. | Write survey questions, answers and discuss with partner and instructor. | Introduce/review graph interpretation language. |
| Learn <i>SurveyMonkey</i> software, process vocabulary. | Create survey with free online survey tool: <i>SurveyMonkey</i> . | Discuss survey results in pairs or small groups. |
| List information to elicit through survey questions. | Write polite email message to request survey responses. | Write first and second drafts of survey analysis including topic, methods, findings and implications. |
| Study closed-ended and open-ended question types, adverbs of frequency, wh-questions, verb tenses, vocabulary for scale answers. | After instructor approval of survey questions, answers and email messages, send messages to collect responses. | Final products: Post survey analysis on student/class web page. Present survey analysis to class. |

Daily “Warm-up Dialogs” for All

JoAnn Elizabeth Siebert, Tokyo International University of America

As the years pass, I change my classroom routines to suit the times, the students, and my own interests. However, one routine that has persisted is the use of what I call “warm-up dialogs” at the beginning of almost every class period. All ages and levels benefit from warm-ups that incorporate vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics, and previous or upcoming concepts. I include topics and useful phrases from the students’ lives. Warm-up dialogs work well in intensive language classes, sheltered classes, and language classes that support content classes.

Warm-up dialogs are short, generally 8-12 lines, and are read by a pair of students. Figure 1 is an example from a grammar class in which students are practicing contractions soon after their arrival in the United States.

Preparation and class time

Writing the dialogs takes 10 to 30 minutes, but I now have dozens I recycle and revise. I mark syllable and word stress with upper case letters. I have recorded some dialogs using free Dartmouth Recorder software and linked them to my course websites. The class time devoted to the dialogs ranges from 10 to 30 minutes.

Implementation

The dialog is on the students’ desks as they come into class. Many start to look at it immediately. When class starts I say the lines, explaining new grammar, vocabulary, or concepts. With the dialog in Figure 1, I

would teach, for example, how to pronounce the names of the dormitories. We then say the lines together. I explain and emphasize all aspects of pronunciation.

Next, I make pairs by giving students, for instance, a vocabulary word or a geographic name, making sure there are two students with the same word. They stand and say their words until the corresponding partners are found. The students then remain standing and say the dialog, switching parts if appropriate and doing it a second time. If more practice is needed, students switch to a new partner and start over. I walk around, listen, and help.

Alternatively, I may first dictate all or part of the dialog or do a cloze exercise before giving students the full script. In pronunciation classes, I may write all or part of the dialog on the board in the International Phonetic Alphabet and have students figure it out, alone or in pairs, before I give them a script.

Finally, halfway the way through the course, I ask the students to suggest social and academic situations they would like me to use when I write the warm-ups. From that point on, I often incorporate their ideas.

A: **GOOD MORning. HOW’S it GOing toDAY?**
B: [B answers A’s question and then says his/her own line] ... **HOW’S your DAY so FAR?**
A: [answers] ...By the **WAY, WHAT’S the NAME of your DORM?**
B: [answers] ... **WHERE’S YOUR ROOM LOcated?**
A: [in __[dorm]__ ... **WHO’S your ROOMmate, and is he/she NICE?**
B: [answers] ... **WHAT’S YOUR ROOMmate’s NAME, and WHAT do you KNOW about him/her?**
A: [answers] ... Well, en**JOY the REST of the DAY.**
B: **SAME to YOU. SEE you LAtter.**

Figure 1. Sample warm-up dialog

A rewarding routine

The warm-ups use colloquial language and real-life situations but still include course material. The students are active from the first minute of class. My students never seem to tire of the warm-ups and always rate them highly on end-of-semester evaluations. Lastly, I especially enjoy these first minutes of class when the students are standing, smiling, and doing the warm-up they expect every day.

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Report Writing for Lower Level ESL Students

Diane Tehrani, Clark College

In the elementary grades, every one of us made reports on various topics such as “The Pyramids” or “Volcanoes.” We would find information – usually from one source – to complete an assignment. As we proceeded to higher grades and high school we learned to find information from various sources and to avoid using exact words, expressions, phrases, and sentence structure. We learned the proper way to paraphrase and quote informational material to protect sources and make writing uniquely our own, not only in expressing facts and ideas, but also in relating an opinion or thesis about a topic.

In early grades we learned the basics by using exact language from text. I devised a student-centered exercise to work on this basic skill by writing a class report from several sources. My students were second-third level (high-beginner) Clark College ESL students in their 20s and 30s from Russian, Spanish, and Asian backgrounds. The class had previously taken a field trip to the public library and become familiar with the types of material available and how and where to locate information (see Library Worksheet in Appendix A).

First, I took out five simplified biographies of Martin Luther King Jr. from the library. One biography came from the Internet via a relative of one of the students. Next, I made a set of questions about Dr. King’s personal information, education, family, work, activity, and beliefs (see Table 1 below). I gave one biography and a set of questions to each of six groups of students and asked each to write the title of the book, author, library call number, whether illustrated, number of pages, and pages where answers to the questions were found.

Following that, in cooperative learning fashion, we shared the answers on one worksheet that had the sixteen questions. (See answers to the questions in Table 2 below.) To examine relationships between ideas, I asked each group to cut out the sentence answers, decide how best to organize them into a report or story, and paste them together. I then typed the final form into a paragraph and listed the “references” in alphabetical order at the bottom of the page. The result was the final paragraph in Table 3. Finally, the class read the resulting draft. They understood the information they had collected,

although the sentences would have been too difficult without any previous familiarity.

Students had ample opportunity to process information through first identifying it with key words, then writing sentence answers, and finally ordering and drafting the answers into a version including the salient facts of the topic. This exercise proved to be ideal for helping lower level students begin to collect and present information as a first step in eventually handling the more difficult task of writing up research in higher levels.

Table 1. Martin Luther King Jr. Questions

Name:

Date:

Directions: *Look through the book to find answers to the questions below. Then, write the answers to the questions, title, author, call number, illustration, number of pages, and pages of information for the book on the lines provided.*

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

I. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. When was Martin Luther King Jr. born?
2. Where was he born?
3. Where did he live?

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

II. EDUCATION

1. Where did Martin Luther King Jr. go to school?
2. What degrees did MLK receive?
3. Was he a good student?

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

III. FAMILY

1. Who was Martin Luther King's father? What was his job?
2. Was MLK married?
3. Did he have children? If so, how many?

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

IV. WORK

1. What was Martin Luther King's job?
2. Where did MLK work?

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

V. ACTIVITY

1. What activities did Martin Luther King Jr. have?
2. What organizations did MLK belong to?

Title of book: Illustrated?

Author of book: Number of pages:

Call Number: Pages of information:

VI. BELIEFS

1. What was the name of Martin Luther King's famous speech?
2. Did MLK like the Indian freedom fighter Mahatma Gandhi? How do you know?
3. Was there any music that helped MLK speak? If so, what was it?

Table 2. Martin Luther King Jr. Answers

Martin Luther King Jr. was born on January 15, 1929. He lived in Atlanta, Georgia. (Lambert, p. 15)

Martin Luther King Jr. was awarded his doctorate from Boston University. (Patrick, p. 24)

Martin Luther King Jr. was the best student in high school. His grades were so good that he was given the chance to skip ninth and twelfth grades and begin college early. (Patrick, p. 17)

Martin Luther King's father was the Reverend Martin Luther King Sr., a minister. (Patrick, p. 13)

Coretta Scott King was Martin Luther King Jr.'s wife. (Jakoubek, p. 79)

Martin Luther King Jr. had four children. (Patrick, p. 58)

Martin Luther King Jr. was a reverend in the Baptist Church. He was a leader of black people who were trying to win their rights. (Murphy, p. 1)

Martin Luther King Jr. worked at Ebenezer Baptist Church in Atlanta, Georgia. (Schloredt, p. 58)

Martin Luther King Jr. asked black people to march and carry signs. He also asked black people not to fight. (Murphy, p. 7)

Martin Luther King Jr. belonged to Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). (Retrieved from the internet on January 18, 2007)

Martin Luther King Jr.'s famous speech was "I Have a Dream." (Murphy, p. 18)

Martin Luther King Jr. believed very strongly that American blacks should adopt the methods of nonviolence advocated by Mahatma Gandhi. (Schlordt, p. 12)

The hymn that helped Martin Luther King Jr. speak was "Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty we are free at last!" (Murphy, p. 18)

Table 3. Martin Luther King Jr. Paragraph

Martin Luther King Jr. was a reverend in the Baptist Church. He was a leader of black people who were trying to win their rights. Born on January 15, 1929, in Atlanta, Georgia, Martin Luther King Jr. was the best student in high school. His grades were so good that he was given the chance to skip ninth and twelfth grades and begin college early. He was awarded his doctorate from Boston University. After college, he worked at Ebenezer Baptist Church in Atlanta. His wife was Coretta Scott King and he had four children. In order to win rights for black people, he asked them to march and carry signs. He believed very strongly that American blacks should adopt the methods of nonviolence advocated by Mahatma Gandhi. Therefore, he asked black people not to fight. His famous speech was "I Have a Dream" and the hymn that helped him speak was "Free at last! Free at last! Thank God almighty we are free at last!"

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Diane Tehrani has taught beginning, intermediate, and advanced ESL at Clark College for fifteen years. Her special interests are writing and intercultural learning.

Appendix A: Library Worksheet

Name:

Date:

Directions: *After a visit to the library, write answers to the following questions.*

1. Call the Ft. Vancouver Library at (360) 695-1566. What are the hours the library is open?
2. Does the library have books in languages other than English? If it does, what are three of the languages?
3. Does the library have movies and cassette tapes? If it does, what is one movie or tape you might take out to watch?
4. How do you get a library card?
5. For how long can you take a book out of the library?
6. Look in the Portland telephone book. What is the name of a restaurant you might like to visit?
7. What are three levels of Easy Reading?
8. What is the name of the book at Call Number:
a) 423.9171 b) 428.34
SHAPIRO Collis
9. What is the call number for the World Book 2006?
10. What is an atlas?

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