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THE FUNCTIONS OF WRITTEN LANGUAGE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF
ORAL LANGUAGE FOR YOUNG (K-2) ESL STUDENTS

By

Youb Kim

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
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ABSTRACT

THE FUNCTIONS OF ENGLISH WRITTEN LANGUAGE
IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH ORAL LANGUAGE
FOR YOUNG (K-3) ESL STUDENTS

By

Youb Kim

Developing English oral language skills is an important instructional issue for ESL

students because appropriate uses of oral language skills are necessary to participate

meaningfully in class activities and to communicate effectively with their teachers and

peers. When ESL students are placed in integrated language curricula based classrooms,

they are encouraged to use all language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing).

Many literacy researchers support such instructional practice arguing that ESL students

can learn to read before they exhibit advanced stages of oral English proficiency. However,

popular views of ESL reading suggests that ESL students' participation in reading and

writing activities should be postponed until their oral language is in place. Having these

seemingly controversial views in mind, the current study seeks to answer, "How can school

based reading and writing be effectively used to develop English oral language skills for

young (K-3) ESL students?" Drawing upon seven case studies and an intervention study

using single subject experimental research, this study will explain the functions of English

reading and writing in the development of ESL students' oral language skills.

In dedication to the three most important teachers in my life:
P. David Pearson, Meredith McLellan, and my first grade
teacher, back in Korea, who warmed my hand in her coat
pocket and walked me home in cold winter days.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Research

Effective instruction for learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) has

garnered national attention in the United States. It has been the subject of intense debate

as the number of ESL students has increased in many schools, reaching 9.3% of total US

student population (August, 2002). A key aspect of effective instruction for ESL students

involves positive development of oral language skills to participate in academic and

social activities in their classrooms; ESL students need to respond to teachers' questions

appropriately, participate in various class discussions, and converse with their peers and

adults in school. Meaningful participation in these tasks requires ESL students'

knowledge and appropriate use of English oral language. Because the acquisition of oral

language appropriate for schooling, what we normally call academic English, is more

challenging than conversational English used in informal contexts, ESL students depend

upon their teachers and instruction (Cummins, 1979, 1986 &1994). Effective teachers

use these academic and linguistic challenges as a basis for developing an appropriate

curriculum for ESL students.

The need for understanding effective instruction for ESL students has been

heightened by the fact that the population of students speaking English as a Second

Language grows faster than the number of teachers who understand ESL issues; in sort, a

growing number of ESL students will be placed in a classroom in which the teacher is not

fully informed about ESL learning issues. In developing ESL students' academic oral

language skills, students' native language competence is suggested to be an important linguistic and cognitive tool (August & Hakuta, 1997; Cummins, 1979; Snow, Burns, Griffin, 1998). In fact, in one important document on the teaching of English reading (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), members of a panel on reading difficulties of the National Academy of Science recommended that where bilingual resources are available, students should be taught to read in their first language before being taught to read in English. However, bilingual support is often unavailable due to various reasons, such as shortage of qualified bilingual teachers. For example, "fewer than three percent of teachers with [ESL] students have earned a degree in ESL or bilingual education" (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2003). In such circumstances, students have no choice but to plunge into the task of learning English language utilizing language input available in regular classroom learning contexts.

Effective instruction for ESL students can provide rich language and literacy experiences. In elementary classrooms where teachers expose children to rich literacy experiences, literacy is viewed as the competence to exploit a particular set of cultural resources. It is the evolution of those resources in conjunction with the knowledge and skill to exploit those resources for particular purposes that makes up literacy (Olson, 1996). In effective ESL classrooms, language and literacy reinforces each other. ESL children are encouraged and supported to read high interest children's books and express their ideas through writing on various topics and purposes. (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Hudelson, 1984 & 1986) Thus, opportunities to learn and use language and literacy skills are inevitably abundant in effective classrooms for ESL students.

Considering that opportunities for interactions in English lead to learning English as a Second Language (ESL), classrooms that provide rich literacy experiences to young children can be opportune places for language learning (Ellis, 1999; Gass, 1986; Long, 1994). The central question is "How can English reading and writing be used to develop English oral language?" The present research study attempts to address this question by explaining the role of English reading and writing in the development of English oral language for young (K-2) English Language Learners.

The paucity of research in effective instruction for ESL students accentuates the importance of this research study. As van Lier (1988) suggests, "our actual knowledge of what goes on in classrooms is extremely limited" (p. 37), partly due to the perception that young children "pick up" language quickly and easily. Moreover, the field of second language acquisition focuses on input and interactions of English oral language of adult ESL learners, and the role of English reading and writing is a marginalized subject of inquiry (Harklau, 2001). Research studies on the oral and written connection for young ESL students are even much scarce. For example, in reviewing an extensive body of literature, Fitzgerald (1995) found only four research studies that have addressed the relationship between written and oral language in ESL learning for young ESL students (i.e., Lara, 1991 as cited in Fitzgerald, 1995; Saville-Troike, 1984; Snow, 1991; Tragar & Wong, 1984, as cited in Fitzgerald, 1995).

It was this lack of solid information on the potential, positive or negative, for English literacy instruction to influence the acquisition of oral English, that prompted this study. In explaining the role of English reading and writing in the development of English oral language for young ESL students, this dissertation study combines two

interconnected research components. The first component focuses on providing "thick" description of three ESL learners and their English language learning processes in classrooms. Uses of written language by individual cases and patterns that emerged across the cases were analyzed and used as empirical evidence to explain the various functions that written language played in the development of individual ESL students' English oral language. Drawing upon the insights gained from case studies, the second component of this study is intended to evaluate the contributions of written language more directly through a single subject experimental study.

This study is prompted by various conceptualizations regarding the relationship between oral and written language within the context of effective instruction for ESL students during the past few decades. The following review of research literature attempts to document various lines of thoughts and link between those thoughts and the present study.

Review of Related Research

"There is neither a first nor a last word and there are no limits to the dialogic context (it extends into the boundless past and the boundless future). Even *past* (italics in the original) meanings, that is, those born in the dialogue of past centuries, can never be stable (finalized, ended once and for all)—they will always change (be renewed) in the process of subsequent, future development of the dialogue. At any moment in the development of the dialogue there are immense, boundless masses of forgotten contextual meanings, but at certain moments of the dialogue's subsequent development along the way they are recalled and invigorated in renewed form (in a new context). Nothing is absolutely dead: every meaning will have its homecoming festival." (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 170)

There have been multiple dialogues regarding effective instruction for ESL students and the relationship between oral and written language in classroom contexts.

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These dialogues for the past few decades can be summarized as a "pendulum swing" between two conflicting perspectives on the oral and written connection in ESL, and resembles the much politicized debate between whole language and phonics approaches in reading instruction (Chall, 1996). The reading debate shed a light on how to conceptualize the pendulum swing in ESL. Although there existed a conceptual difference between phonics and whole language approach, the difference was not an issue in instructional contexts because effective teachers of reading use both phonics and whole language approaches seamlessly in their classrooms (Pressley, 2002). Unfortunately, the reading debate became a heated political topic because the two approaches were compared and contrasted without considering their usage in classrooms. In this sense, the reading war was exacerbated partly due to "forgotten contextual meanings" (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 170) of effective reading instruction rather than fundamental differences between two "seemingly" conflicting approaches to reading.

In understanding of the nature and the origins of the two conflicting views on the relationship between oral and written language in ESL, I take the position that both views need to be situated within the context of effective instruction for ESL students, and their meanings and values need to be analyzed within the new context. Thus, I trace the two conflicting views for the past three decades and their meanings with regards to effective ESL instruction. More specifically, this literature review includes a brief description of multiple dialogues within the oral primacy view and synergistic view. Perspectives on ESL literacy and classroom learning, the characteristics of oral and literacy development of ESL students, and an exploration of methodological possibilities are also included.

Pendulum Swing: the relationship between oral and written language in ESL

In Preventing Reading Difficulties, Snow and her colleagues (1998) made a

recommendation for teaching reading for language-minority students:

> "If language-minority students arrive at school with no proficiency in English, but speak a language for which the above conditions cannot be met and for which there are insufficient numbers of children to justify the development of the local community to meet such conditions [i.e., providing native language instruction while developing English oral language] and the provision of native language instruction at a community level is not feasible, instructional priority should be given to develop English oral language and postpone formal reading instruction until the language-minority students reach an adequate level of English oral proficiency." (Snow, Burns, Griffith, 1998, p. 11).

While privileging native language instruction, the editors espoused a perspective

that oral language should come before written language in learning English as a Second

Language. This oral primacy view has deep historical roots in Western intellectual

history. According to Derrida's analysis, conflicting views existed regarding the

relationship between oral and written language. One such view is phonocentrism, which

traces back to Aristotle, Rousseau, and structural linguists including Saussure and Levi-

Strauss. Phonocentrism privileged speech as "the native unity of voice," (Derrida, 1997, p.

17), "formal essence of the signified" (Derrida, 1997, p. 18), and denounced writing as

"arche-speech" (Derrida, 1997, p. 17) or "disguise of language" (Derrida, 1997, p.35).

According to the perspective of phonocentrism, writing is unnatural and secondary.

The oral primacy view. The oral primacy view postulates that reading

comprehension (and perhaps writing) are cognitively and linguistically more demanding

than speaking and listening; therefore reading (and writing) should not be a part of initial

language input for ESL learners (Mills, Cowen, & Guess, 1977; Wong-Fillmore &

Valadez, 1986). An example of the oral before written phenomenon comes from the work

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of Snow and her colleagues. They found that certain oral language structures (e.g., formal definitions of words) carrying a syntax that is more similar to written language as it might be encountered in school than it is to everyday oral language, predicted later success in school literacy tasks (Snow, 1991; Snow, Cancino, Gonzalez, & Shriberg, 1987; Snow, Tabors, Nicholson, & Kurland, 1995).

The oral primacy view appearing in <u>Preventing Reading Difficulties</u> has a historical precedent in ESL. In a report entitled, "Bilingual-bicultural education in the classroom: A handbook of ideas for the teacher, Mills, Cowen, and Guess (1977) argued, "teaching English as a Second Language should definitely begin with oral language development. Reading should not be taught at all until they have attained sufficient command of oral language including comprehension skills" (Mills, Cowen & Guess (1977, p. 46) According to this view, oral language and written language inherently possess different conceptual difficulties, and effective instruction should incorporate these differing characteristics.

The instructional implication of the oral primacy view is that a key aspect of effective ESL instruction involves a careful control on using and presenting written language materials in classroom instruction. Because ESL students' oral language proficiency has to reach at an "adequate" level before they can be introduced to formal reading and writing, teachers in these classrooms need to provide abundant opportunities for conversations in English only using a limited number of print materials (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998). Teachers in these classrooms also need to assess ESL students' oral language proficiency carefully so that they can judge when formal reading and writing can be introduced. In addition, the level of difficulty in text materials needs to be

carefully controlled so that the written materials are not cognitively too challenging for ESL students (Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986).

Swinging the Pendulum: Oral Proficiency and Reading Performance. Research evidence for oral primacy view comes from studies on the relationship between oral language proficiency and reading performance of ESL students. These studies found that oral language was a predictor for students' performance on reading (Snow, 1991; Snow, Cancino, Gonzalez & Shriberg, 1987; Clarke, 1980). In response to the claims regarding the connection between oral language proficiency and student performance in reading, however, Garcia (2000) suggested, "variables other than oral language proficiency [e.g., first-language word recognition] were more powerful predictors of the children's reading task performance in either language" (Garcia, 2000, p. 818). According to Fitzgerald (1995), "the relationship between ESL reading proficiency and ESL oral proficiency may have depended on at least three factors: native language, age or grade level, and the type of English oral proficiency measure used" (Fitzgerald, 1995, p. 175). Thus, this research synthesis refutes the claim that the connection between oral language proficiency and reading performance suggests the oral primacy view in ESL.

Synergistic view. The oral primacy view has been continuously challenged over several decades by many researchers, such as Anderson & Roit (1996), Elley (1983, 1991, 1994), Goodman et al (1979), Hudelson (1984), Saville-Troike (1984), Seda & Abramson (1990). Gersten (1996) and Anderson & Roit (1996) maintain that the use of written texts can serve as building blocks for oral and written English proficiency. Barrera (1983) also notes that children can learn to read in their second language before oral fluency develops (Anderson & Roit, 1996, p. 296). These arguments reveal many important contributions

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of literacy activities to English language learning. Based upon experimental research on the effect of a 'book flood' on 380 Fijian children, Elley (1983, 1991 &1994) suggests that literacy activities facilitate the development of general English language proficiency including oral language skills. He contends that high-interest story reading had a positive role in second language learning including oral skills.

These authors argue for "parallel synergies" (Pearson, 2001, personal communication) between English oral and written language development, suggesting that ESL learners can read and write without developing fully proficient English oral language, and that reading and writing can facilitate English oral language development (see, for example, Fitzgerald, 1995; Weber, 1991; Garcia, 2000). According to the synergistic view, "it is not necessary to make literacy instruction contingent upon considerable listening/speaking proficiency [because] literacy development begins long before formal instruction" (Fitzgerald, 1993, p. 644). Rather, effective teachers create classroom communities that support risk-taking and experimenting with emergent language skills and immerse ESL children in reading and writing while de-emphasizing "small things" such as including details, using correct grammar and pronouncing words correctly (Au, Mason & Scheu, 1995; Fitzgerald, 1993). Teachers assess ESL students' engagement and performance in classroom activities and use the assessment information to inform instruction. Hence, authors who argue for the synergistic view accentuate illuminate the nature of literacy and instructional contexts within the dialogue of effective instruction for ESL students.

In summary, the issue of the oral and written connection in ESL is a much contested terrain. Borrowing Weber's words, "the current picture is fragmented and

underdeveloped, if not controversial" (Weber, 1991, p. 115). There are two conflicting

perspectives involving the oral primacy and synergistic views regarding the relationship

between the oral and written language in ESL. The oral primacy view seems to be

supported by "mechanistic principles of language learning and reinforced by a narrow

conception of reading as translating symbols to speech" (Weber, 1991, p. 101) while the

synergistic view is based upon the perspective that language and literacy supports each

other.

Analysis of the Pendulum Swing: ESL literacy and Classroom Learning

The conflicting conversations between the oral primacy view and synergistic view

in ESL indicate that the crux of the argument lies in the perspectives of ESL literacy and

the language learning environment in elementary classrooms in which actual language

learning takes place. Researchers who argued for parallel synergies indicated that the

sequence of oral to literacy development evident in native language acquisition is not

valid in ESL. More specifically, Goodman argued, "Reading as a receptive language

process seems to develop more rapidly than speaking, a productive process."(Goodman,

Goodman & Flores, 1978, p. 21) In addition, language skills are all integrated in ESL

classrooms. Hudelson argued, "the processes of writing, reading, speaking, and listening

in a second language are interrelated and interdependent. It is both useless and, ultimately,

impossible to separate out the language processes in our teaching or to try to present ESL

material in a linear sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing." (Hudelson,

1984, p. 234)

As such, conceptualizations of effective ESL instruction differ between the oral primacy view and the synergistic view. The oral primacy view suggests that effective instruction needs to take into account two important aspects about language and learning. Researchers posit that oral language is the basis of all language development (Ticknor, 1833), and learning takes place in a progression of easy to complex. Thus, literacy develops on the basis of language (presumably oral language), and effective instruction should incorporate these two factors into curriculum development. In other words, because oral language is easier and more natural, and reading and writing is more difficult, effective ESL curriculum needs to focus on the development of oral proficiency initially and gradually move to the development of reading and writing. Unlike the oral primacy view, the synergistic view proposes that effective instruction for ESL students should consider the fact that all language skills can develop concomitantly especially in second language learning (Fitzgerald, 1993). In classrooms in which actual language learning and teaching take place, language skills cannot be separated out (Hudelson, 1984). Thus, language and literacy are connected according to synergistic view regarding the relationship between oral and written language in ESL.

Another difference between the oral primacy view and synergistic view seems to lie in their perspectives on ESL students. The oral primacy view indicates that ESL students need to be carefully guided by the teachers in learning English as a Second Language because language learning processes of ESL students are like those of young children in learning a first language. On the contrary, the synergistic view suggests that ESL students do make sense of language and literacy materials at their own pace independently when teachers provide rich language learning environment. The question

is then, "What does research say about ESL students' development in oral and literacy skills in English?" This issue will be discussed in the next section.

<u>What We Know: Characteristics of the Language Development of ESL Learners</u>

Research evidence from case studies strongly indicates that language learning is influenced by learning contexts (August & Hakuta, 1997; Snow, 1992). According to several case studies that examined the language development of ESL learners in learning English oral or literacy skills, it is evident that oral language development is shaped by language input available to ESL students and ESL students' efforts to maintain internal consistency of grammatical rules (Hakuta, 1974). Written language development seems to be influenced by teachers' assumptions about reading and writing (Hudelson, 1986; Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001).

<u>Oral language development</u>. Based upon a research synthesis on a number of case studies in ESL, van Lier (1998) gives an overview of young ESL students' oral language development. He suggests that young ESL children do not seem to develop complex English skills. Instead, ESL students "speak of formulaic utterances, conversational strategies, and a highly simple code. This simple code is sufficient for everyday social contact, and often gives the impression of amazing conversational fluency in these contexts, but it is not the elaborate, syntactically and lexically complex code of the proficient language user." (van Lier, 1998, p. 10)

More specific research evidence on young ESL children's oral language development comes from Hakuta's work. Based upon spontaneous speech data of a five-year old Japanese girl, Hakuta reported three prefabricated patterns (Hakuta, 1974). The

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three speech patterns included a)"gonna" to represent "am/are/is gonna," b) "do you" as in "what do you do" and c) "how to" in embedded how-questions as in "I know how to do it." For example, the child's utterances using the three prefabricated patterns involved "I gonna make 'nother baseball," "What do you doing, this boy?" "I know how do you write this" The existence of these prefabricated patterns suggested that the child did not possess syntactic knowledge that governs the sentence structure in English. Among the child's speech samples over a period of sixty weeks, these prefabricated patterns constituted over 50% of her total oral production (Hakuta, 1976). Hakuta also found the evidence of language transfer. For example, the child uttered "I just mistake it" Linguistic error in this sentence derived from using mistake, a noun as a verb, which is traceable to Japanese because "make a mistake" is one word in Japanese (Hakuta, 1976).

Two other studies made similar observations regarding ESL students' limited progress in acquiring syntactic complexity in English oral language skills. Wagner and Hatch included a brief description of Huang's study of Paul, a five-year-old Chinese child. Based on the description, Paul's speech contained mostly formulas, such as "are you ready?; I see you, and very good" during the first two months of his exposure to English (Wagner-Gouch & Hatch, 1975, p. 298). They also reported the speech of Homer, a five-year-old Iranian child who extended the usage of "what's this?' to mean "identification (this is…), advice or help (what should I do now) or command (stop pushing sand in my tunnel)" (Wagner-Gouch & Hatch, 1975, p. 301). Based upon case studies of two six year old Spanish speaking children of Puerto Rican origin, Weber and Longhi-Chirlin concluded that "both children advanced in speaking English, but not far beyond fixed

expressions and simple syntax, as observed in other learners in their first year in learning English" (Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001, p. 44).

All three case studies included here suggest that the ESL students make sense of oral language input provided to them, and they sometimes overgeneralized the rules. They were able to develop basic oral language skills appropriate for a conversational context, however, their language development did not reach at the level of a proficient language user.

Literacy development. Studies on ESL children's literacy development suggest that ESL children develop literacy skills without sufficient proficiency in oral language, and their literacy skills are appropriate for their instructional contexts. In other words, ESL students develop literacy skills at a functioning level in their classrooms. Two research studies are relevant here. Recall Weber and Longhi-Chirlin's study (2001) of two six year old Spanish speaking children. The school grouped children based upon their ability to understand the concept of print in their native language, Spanish. The children were in classrooms in which teachers used basal texts for reading and provided writing experiences in a controlled way (i.e., dictation) while encouraging ESL students' participation in class activities and providing necessary support such as bringing the Reading Recovery teacher to the classroom. Weber and Longhi-Chirlin found that both children develop highly accurate decoding skills, and their oral reading was generally smooth and steady although both children did not seem to be successful in predicting and comprehending written texts and writing their own ideas in different types of writing. The literacy skill development of these two children was sufficient enough for them to keep up with the class and meet the teachers' expectations for text comprehension and writing.

Based upon a study of four intermediate grade children of Southeast Asian origin, Hudelson (1986) found that ESL children could understand and produce different types of written texts (i.e., expressive, poetic, and transactional writing), and they could do so without a mastery of oral language in English in an ESL classroom. In the classrooms Hudelson studied, the ESL teacher was committed to helping ESL students succeed academically in regular classrooms and provided multiple opportunities to read and write both expository and informational texts. Although there were differences among students in the rates of writing development, Hudelson found that ESL students were generally willing to express their ideas in written form in the classroom.

These two studies suggest that ESL students could develop literacy skills without an "appropriate" level of oral language proficiency in English. ESL students' literacy skill development also reflects teachers' assumptions about reading and writing. Thus, instructional context influences ESL children's reading and writing development. In addition, ESL students are willing to express their ideas orally and in a written form.

Studies on ESL children's oral and written language skill development indicate that ESL students are motivated to communicate in English with English speakers using available linguistic resources in a creative way. They do so by drawing from their linguistic knowledge in their native language or making sense of linguistic input from their surroundings. Their creative usage often leads to ungrammaticality in oral and written forms. Thus, these studies highlight the importance of learning contexts and the role of teachers in providing effective instruction for ESL students.

In summary, three key constructs seem to be important in understanding the relationship between oral and written language in ESL in effective classrooms for ESL

students —students, teachers, and instructional contexts. The oral primacy view suggests that ESL students' language learning processes are similar to those of young children in learning a first language, and teachers need to carefully guide ESL students in the process of learning. In this sense, the role of instructional context is non-existent. To the contrary, the synergistic view highlights the importance of language learning context as well as students and teachers. ESL students are equipped to process language input independently at their own pace with support from teachers. Teachers support ESL students' language learning through modeling and providing language learning environment conducive to learning. Thus, conceptualizations of effective instruction should take all these three constructs into account.

The Research Paradigmatic Conversation in ESL

Research perspectives also play an important role in understanding the relationship between oral and written connection within the context of effective instruction for ESL students. There have been two competing perspectives in research regarding second language development. The two perspectives involve cognition based and socio-cultural oriented approaches (Snow, 1992). Psychologists and linguists mostly focus on cognition, and they perceive second language acquisition as "acquiring a complex cognitive system that is more or less overlap with complex systems already acquired" (Snow, 1992, p. 17). The cognition-oriented approach focuses on what and how individual learners learn a second language. Socio-linguists hold a socio-cultural perspective in second language development. According to the socio-cultural perspective, learning and cognition is viewed as a situated activity embedded in a social, cultural, and

physical context (Pease-Alvarez & Hakuta, 1992). Researchers focus on how children come to use essential "cultural tools," (Moll, 1992, p. 21) or how teachers become agents/facilitators of students' socialization in language practices. For example, Moll (1992) emphasizes how a cultural group becomes a resource for its individual families with limited income. He calls this societal network as a "funds-of-knowledge." In classrooms where the funds-of-knowledge are abundant, teachers and English-speaking peers provide ESL students with a rich language learning environment.

Explaining the role of written language in the development of oral language for ESL students is a complex task, and current approaches in second language research are not as helpful as they could be. Considering the complexity and ill-structuredness in second language learning, incidences of ESL learning in context need to be described as extensively as we can (Spiro, Vispoel, Schmitz & Boerger, 1987; Spiro & Jehng, 1990; Spiro, Feltovich, Jacobson & Coulson, 1992; Spiro, Feltovich & Coulson, 1996). Spiro calls it "criss-crossing a landscape" borrowing from Wittgenstein. He contends:

> ....because the complexity of a single region (issue, example, case) in a landscape would not be fully graspable in any single context, its full multifacetedness would be brought out by rearranging the sequence of sketch presentations in the album so that the region would be revisited from a variety of vantage points, each perspective highlighting aspects of the region in a somewhat different way than the other perspectives. A synoptic view of the complexity of the conceptual landscape would cumulatively emerge over a number of traversals-the richness of the subject matter would not be crippled if the content was examined in many different ways" (Spiro & Jehng, 1990, p. 170).

"Criss-crossing the landscape" of ESL learning may help us understand the relationship between oral and written language in classrooms in which ESL students are learning English as a Second Language.

Because effective instruction for ESL students is a complex phenomenon, understanding effective instruction for ESL students requires a new research paradigm. We need empirical research that looks at the oral and written relationship as it is situated within elementary classrooms using a flexible research methodology that captures exhaustive criss-crossing of ESL learning.

To summarize in the various dialogues regarding effective instruction for ESL students, there has been a lack of empirical research studies regarding the oral and written connection in ESL. Current research methodology in ESL is based upon a specific perspective, and it does not allow the flexibility in exploring complex questions that arise in instructional contexts. To honor the complexity of effective ESL instruction, a new research methodology is needed. Lastly, the research literature suggests that there are three important constructs in studying effective instruction for ESL students, and these three constructs need to be included in the scope of a new inquiry.

Developing a New Inquiry on Effective ESL Instruction

As I have described in tracing the multiple dialogues regarding effective instruction for ESL students, the oral and written relationship in ESL is currently a much contested and politicized research issue. As we have witnessed in the reading debates in the past three decades, political attention does not necessarily lead to desirable educational outcomes. While the issue is more prominent nationally, there is a lack of

empirical evidence to help policy makers decide on a course of action. Proponents of oral primacy or synergistic views offer conceptual arguments, but very little empirical evidence, to support their views. I found two empirical studies that provide evidence for the synergistic view. Based upon experimental research on the effect of a 'book flood' on 380 Fijian children, Elley (1983, 1991 &1994) contends that high-interest story reading had a positive role in second language learning including oral skills. Weber and Longhi-Chirlin conducted two case studies and provided rich contextual information about the students, their learning contexts, and their oral and written language development.

My understanding of the complexity of the effective instruction for ESL students has been guided by my personal and professional experiences. Sensitized by my own experiences as an ESL learner and parent, I have been interested in understanding various issues in ESL learning and teaching. I have participated in research studies on ESL assessment within Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement (CIERA), and observed both general and ESL teachers' instruction and ESL students to understand the role of assessment in the language learning for ESL students. My participation in ESL assessment research studies enabled me to develop various hypotheses about ESL teaching and learning. After Preventing Reading Difficulties was published, I joined in a research study that examined the relationship between oral and written language. As a research team, we developed a conceptual framework that described the contribution of written language in ESL. I expanded on my research interest in the oral and written connection in ESL and began my dissertation study. Based upon my understanding of general and ESL instruction for ESL students, I chose the synergistic perspective to guide my thinking.

Equipped by both conceptual and experiential knowledge in ESL learning and teaching, I posed a new set of questions to explain the role of written language in the development of oral language for young ESL students. I also chose a research methodology that was consistent with my belief on ESL learning; I believe language learning is ultimately an individual process. Individuals make sense of what is available in their learning environment and produce oral and written language to communicate within their learning context. Thus, I chose research methodology that would allow me to look carefully at individuals. Case studies seemed appropriate in this sense. In addition, I sought ways to hone a theory that I generated through case studies and see an "objective possibility" (Weber, 1949, p. 80). Thus, I chose a combination of case studies and a single subject experimental study to explore a new set of questions that consider students, teachers, and learning contexts in explaining the role of written language in the development of oral language for ESL students.

Research Questions

1) What constitutes school based reading and writing activities in the cases selected for the study?

2) What kinds of reading and writing activities do the ESL students participate in and utilize for their English language learning?

3) What functions do school based reading and writing activities serve to develop oral language skills in English for the ESL students?

4) Will the proposed intervention contribute to substantial gains in a focus ESL student's oral language development?

Bahktin's notion of dialogue reminds us that a theory or a perspective is a part of a dialogue (rather than a monologue), and it is situated in a dialogic context (rather than existing as a separate entity). When the conflicting views on the relationship between oral and written language in ESL is viewed as a dialogue within a larger context, such as effective instruction for ESL students, we can bring those views into the appropriate context and analyze their meaning and value within that specific context. In so doing, we can seek pragmatic solutions to bring effective instruction for ESL students. To contribute to the dialogue on the relationship between oral and written language within the context of effective instruction for ESL students, I begin my inquiry by looking at students, teachers, and instructional contexts through case studies.

CHAPTER TWO

CASE STUDIES

Introduction

This chapter presents the stories of three young Korean students who were learning English as a Second Language (ESL) in the United States. Portraits of their learning experiences include descriptions of their classroom learning contexts and language learning processes of individual students. More specifically, students' learning contexts include descriptions of various learning opportunities offered in each classroom and teachers' uses of written language. Students' language learning processes focus on the kinds of classroom learning activities students participated throughout the year with a special attention to their uses of written language in their classrooms. In so doing, I intend to explain the functions that school based reading and writing played in the development of oral language for the three ESL students.

The case studies are an extension of a previous ESL research study supported by Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement (CIERA), which I participated in between 1999 and 2002. During the first year between 1999 and 2000, a team of school and university-based researchers shadowed two ESL students and ventured to develop a conceptual framework that described the written to oral connection in ESL learning. I collected more cases in the following two years, and the data were revisited and reanalyzed as a part of my dissertation study.

Considering the interconnectedness of the case studies and previous research study, the report of case studies begins with a brief description of CIERA research. This

section includes the process of data collection, data analysis method, and an overview of conceptual categories that describe the written to oral connection, and these conceptual categories are used as an analytic tool for three cases presented in this chapter. Then, three research questions are introduced. After describing the school context and ESL program, findings of the three case studies are reported in the order of research questions by individual cases. A brief summary of case study findings and implications conclude this chapter.

Beginning of an Inquiry: Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement (CIERA) Research

Intrigued by the oral primacy view in ESL learning (i.e., teaching oral language prior to reading and writing instruction) advocated by the editors of Preventing Reading Difficulties in their report published in 1998, a group of school and university based researchers within CIERA embarked on a research endeavor to develop a conceptual framework that described the relationship between oral and written language in ESL learning.

In developing our framework, the research team focused on two Korean ESL students who were enrolled in the second and fifth grades and already possessed fluent literacy skills in their native language. Data were collected in both the ESL and regular classrooms from three sources: 1) weekly ESL and regular class observations, which we recorded through field notes, audiotapes and videotapes; 2) student work samples; and 3) student oral language samples. In particular, the classroom observations required deliberate planning with the teachers. Where possible, we consulted with the teachers

about their upcoming lesson plans and observed lessons in which there was a high likelihood of written-oral connections.

In order to measure student progress in English language learning and effectiveness of ESL instruction for two focal students, we also collected assessment information from standardized (i.e., Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey, Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, and Bilingual Syntax Measure) and informal ESL assessments (i.e., Qualitative Reading Inventories, English oral and written vocabulary tests).

In analyzing our data, we used a constant comparative method and analytic induction (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). We reviewed students' oral and written language production, identified segments that seemed to illustrate written to oral connections, shared our candidate segments with one another, and generated analytic categories that captured the essence of each example. We also used self-contained triangulation (Fetterman, 1984, p. 361), a process that we realized through ongoing weekly data analysis conversations among ourselves as a research team. This process helped us generate, revise, and refine our framework for analyzing the functions of reading and writing in ESL oral language development. Consequently, the research team developed a list of four conceptual categories that described the oral and written connection in ESL learning. Among them, three categories were generated from a second grader, and they were used for analyzing cases for this study. The three categories[1] involved making language material, making language stand still, and rehearsal.

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[1] The fourth category is discussion crutch. It refers to using written language as a scaffold to facilitate participation in routine oral language activities in school contexts, such as class discussions. During whole class discussions, the fifth-grade general classroom teachers expected all students to

Making language material refers to using written language to connect language to its base in the everyday world. There were several ways in which this occurred in classrooms: 1) "writing to label an object" (e.g., labeling objects in a classroom); 2) "writing to describe a picture" (e.g., picture word cards or sentences describing pictures); 3) "writing to prompt speech" (e.g., seeing and saying the word); 4) combinations of the above. Vocabulary acquisition exemplified the process of making language material. For example, an ESL teacher showed a picture of buttons to her ESL students, said its English name, wrote the word on the chalkboard, and read the word with the students. This process was used to develop ESL students' basic English vocabulary.

Making language "stand still" involved using written language to highlight specific aspects of oral or written language use so that it can be inspected closely, carefully, and deliberately. This is what Olson (1996) calls the metalinguistic advantage of written language, and he claims that this advantage facilitates meta-awareness of both oral and written language—what we would typically label linguistic analysis. According to Olson (1996), it is this metalinguistic feature of written language that accounts for the many of the differences in cognitive reflection that we discuss when we compare literate

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participate orally. To meet the teacher's expectation during whole class discussions, a fifth-grade student created what turned out to serve as written scripts, or discussion crutches, from which he literally read when he volunteered to talk in class. Written language seemed to assist the fifth-grade student in fulfilling this expectation and through his own writing. Thus, the discussion crutch differs from covert rehearsal because the purpose of writing is for public sharing, and language in the script is not fully internalized into the student' oral language system. This category was excluded from case study analysis because it was generated from a fifth grader, and it was not utilized by any of the three case study participants.

to preliterate societies. Examples of this category also include using written language to study phenomena such as past tense markers, morphological elements, and phonemic awareness. For example, an ESL teacher wrote "-ed" on the chalkboard and explained to her ESL students that the language form was used to describe what happened yesterday. When a child said, "I played computer" during an oral sharing that immediately followed, the teacher wrote the sentence to highlight the past tense verb marker and its meaning.

Rehearsal refers to using written language to practice emerging English skills, in much the same way as a person would rehearse for a play. The rehearsal can be either overt, as in rehearsing for participating in a reader's theatre reading, or covert, as when a student uses a journal as a way of practicing or rehearsing a specific language pattern for later use in an informal conversational setting. Covert rehearsal focuses on the process of repeated practice of one or more language forms over an extended period of time; thus, repeated practice contributes to the development of both written and oral English proficiency. The purpose of rehearsing a language form in covert rehearsal is for personal reflection rather than immediate public sharing, and the rehearsal process is not likely to be available to researchers. As an example, an ESL student rehearsed "I went to_" form over a period of almost two months by repeatedly writing various sentences using the sentence structure in her home journal. Her rehearsal seemed to have contributed to her learning of the sentence structure and using it successfully during an oral sharing. This category would not have been developed if the student's family had not informed the author of the existence of the student's home journal and if the student and her family had not granted a permission to use it for research.

As described thus far, CIERA research study focused on students' use of written language in school contexts in unraveling the oral and written connection in ESL learning. Conceptual categories suggested that written language could play a role in the development of English oral language skills in ESL

Continuing the Inquiry

Inspired by the initial findings from the CIERA research, I continued to collect cases with the support from CIERA. Considering that learning and teaching are intricately interwoven, what seemed to be a logical next step was to describe more carefully the kinds of learning contexts in which ESL students were immersed, how teachers used written language in their instruction, and the ways written language was connected to the oral language development of ESL students. Thus, using the three conceptual categories as an analytic tool, the author extended the scope of research and proposed to investigate the following research questions based upon the existing data.

Research Questions

1) What constitutes school based reading and writing activities in the cases selected for the study?

A historical review of research literature indicates that researchers hold different views on reading and writing. The oral primacy view suggests that reading and writing is a separate process from speaking and listening (Mills, Cowen & Guess, 1977; Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998; Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986). On the contrary, the

synergistic view implies that reading and writing is intricately connected to the development of speaking and listening especially in classroom contexts (Goodman, Goodman & Flores, 1978; Hudelson, 1984). Thus, it seems important to explore what constitutes school based reading and writing activities in focal students' learning contexts.

2) What kinds of reading and writing activities do the ESL students participate in and utilize for their English language learning?

Second language researchers argue that not all language input get processed by ESL students, and this has been an important research agenda especially among second language acquisition researchers. (Chaudron, 1985; Corder, 1967; Ellis, 1999; Gass, 1986; Krashen, 1980; Long, 1994; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) Due to students' linguistic knowledge, opportunities for interaction as well as their emotional readiness, these researchers posited, second language learners selectively participate and utilize language input provided to them. (Gass, 1986; Krashen, 1980) Thus, it is hypothesized that the level of students' participation in various class activities may shed a light on understanding the language learning processes of individual ESL students.

3) What functions do school based reading and writing activities serve to develop oral language skills in English for the ESL students?

A conceptual framework developed through CIERA research during 1999-2000 suggested that school based reading and writing play a role in the development of English oral language skills for ESL students who have already developed full literacy skills in their native language. Considering that native language literacy is an important factor in ESL learning (August & Hakuta, 1997), it is hypothesized that English reading and writing may have a different impact on young ESL students with varying literacy skills in

their native language. Thus, I chose three students who possessed three different levels (i.e., sophisticated, fluent, and minimal) in Korean literacy. They were also enrolled in kindergarten, first and second grade respectively.

Method

School Context

The Spring Valley Elementary School served as my research site between 1998 and 2001. It was a public school located in mid Michigan with a population of 240 K-5 students. During my research period, the majority of the students were children of international graduate students or visiting scholars in the neighboring university, and they represented over 20 different languages and cultures. Among ESL students, who constituted approximately 80% of the student population in the school, 27% of them possessed limited English skills and were qualified for additional ESL support. To accommodate the diverse cultural and linguistic needs of such a high percentage of ESL students, two ESL teachers coordinated and implemented a pull-out ESL program to complement the accommodations of the general classroom teachers. The focal students worked with both ESL teachers throughout an academic year. However, data used for the case studies came from observations of one of the ESL teachers, who was also a member of the ESL research team.

ESL Program

The English as a Second Language program at Spring Valley Elementary School accommodated the needs of English language learning for K-5 students who spoke

minimal English when they first entered school. ESL instruction took place in small groups outside of the general classroom. The length of ESL instruction was usually less than an hour per day with some variation based upon the group. During the remainder of the day, the ESL students studied in the general classrooms. The ESL program provided English support in a small group. The program offered a supportive learning environment and English language learning opportunities within an integrated language arts program where both oral and written languages were used for instruction and class participation. ESL students were given abundant opportunities to develop both English oral and written language so that they could function at grade level in a general classroom. While learning English as a Second Language, "students were helped to learn content knowledge and make connections among subject areas, to develop feelings of empowerment in English, to increase strategic reasoning for problem solving, and to form appropriate constructs for authoring, reading and learning conversations. During the process, the ESL teacher worked closely with the classroom teacher so that language learning would flow seamlessly from one setting to the other." (McLellan, 2000)

Case Selection and Re-analyses of CIERA Data

A set of procedures were employed in the process of case selection and reanalyses of the existing data collected between 1999 and 2002. Among seven cases already existed, two focal cases and one auxiliary case were selected to "maximize diversity" (Firestone, 1993, p. 20) in grade levels (i.e., kindergarten, first & second) and literacy skills in their native language (i.e., sophisticated, literate, emergent), as well as availability of valid student assessment results in oral and written language. The three students chosen for

case study analyses were Yonsu, Tayl, and Jin. Among them, Yonsu and Tayl were two focal cases because they shared the same ESL and general classroom teachers, and this enabled the author to conduct a cross case analysis. Jin was an auxiliary case study participant because his ESL and general teachers differed from the other two. Jin was shadowed in his general classroom only because the author was interested in comparing the grade level differences in the general curriculum. A more detailed description of individual students will be included in the results section.

Data used for reanalyses came from a variety of data sources. They involved a) observation notes from general and ESL classrooms, b) student oral language samples, c) student work samples from school and home including home journals, and d) interviews with parents, teachers, and tutors. Because observations were made based upon consultations with general and ESL classroom teachers in order to maximize the opportunity of observing the written to oral connection in learning English, the frequency and length of general and ESL classroom observations differed slightly year by year. More specifically, Yonsu was observed weekly in her general classroom and three times a month in an ESL classroom between October and early June. Tayl was observed almost weekly in his general classroom and twice monthly in his ESL classroom between September and May. Jin was observed three times a month involving a total of seventeen general class sessions between March and January of the following year. Unlike two focal case study participants, Jin's data came from observations in his general classroom.

In analyzing data, constant comparative method was used (Glazer & Strauss, 1967 to realize "objective possibility" (Weber, 1949, p. 80) of observing the written to oral connection in ESL. Guided by the description of conceptual categories developed from

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the CIERA research, candidate data segments were identified for each category (i.e.,

making language material, making language stand still, and rehearsal). Then, the nature

and characteristics of each segment was compared to existing descriptions of conceptual

categories, and a conceptual category was assigned to the relevant data segment.

Impressions gained from various data sources were also triangulated in order to achieve

an analytic generalization regarding the written to oral connection (Fetterman, 1984;

Firestone, 1993; Stake, 1994). Table 1 summarizes information on three case study

participants and data sources.

Table 1. Case study participants and data sources

Students	Yonsu	Tayl	Jin
Grade	2nd	1st	K
Native language	Korean	Korean	Korean
L1 literacy	Sophisticated	Literate	Minimal
Research period	1999-2000 (Oct-June)	2000-2001 (Sep-May)	2001-2002 (March-Jan)
General class observation	Weekly	Weekly	3 times per month
ESL class observation	3 times per month	Twice monthly	None
Teacher interviews	Informal (need basis)	Twice (Nov., Jan.)	Informal (need basis)
Parent interviews	3 times (Nov., March, May)	Twice (Jan., June)	4 times (Feb., June, Oct. of 2001 & Jan. of 2002)
Tutor interviews	Once (March)	Once (June)	None
Other data	School work samples, home journal, student assessment results, oral language sample general-ESL teacher meeting	School work samples, student assessment results, oral language sample	School work samples, student assessment results, oral language sample

Results

Results include both a description and an evaluation of the written to oral connection in ESL. In describing the written to oral connection in ESL, I focused on written language usage in both teaching and learning—incidences in which teachers and students used literacy (i.e., reading, writing, and drawing) to discuss, highlight, and review various aspects of English oral language together or individually. In evaluating the functions of written language to the development of English oral language for the three case study participants, the author focused on the specific ways in which written language mediated three case study students' oral language development with a special attention to examples that exhibited the plausible written to oral connection. Interestingly, the research results indicated that there was a relationship between students' literacy experiences in their native language and the functions of English written language.

There were differences in the nature of student participation between general and ESL classrooms. Because general classroom instruction focused on English-speaking students in each grade level (they were clearly the majority of the students in each classroom), the general curriculum may have been challenging for beginning ESL students. The three case study students exhibited changes in class participation, and the changes that each student showed in participating in different types of activities shed interesting insights. Thus, descriptions of general classroom instruction focus on the changes each case study student made in participating in different types of classroom activities. In other words, descriptions will focus on what type of activities the three case study students participated in and how their participation in each type of class activity changed over time. In the ESL classroom where instruction was to provide English

language support for each individual ESL student, ESL classroom learning activities were structured to engage all ESL students in classroom instruction. While student participation was constant, the nature of ESL instruction changed over time. Thus, accounts of ESL instruction include a detailed description of the nature of ESL instruction highlighting changes throughout the year.

The case study findings reported in this section consist of two distinctive parts. The first part focuses on the three focal students' learning contexts and participation. More specifically, it involves 1) descriptions of the three case study participants and their home learning environment; 2) accounts of general and ESL classroom instruction; 3) the functions of written language in both classroom instruction; 4) descriptions of the three students' participation in both classroom activities. The report is organized into four sections, and each section is reported by students. The second part focuses on the functions of written language that played a role in the development of oral language for the three case study participants. For the second part, results from individual focal students were complied and analyzed using the three conceptual categories (i.e., making language material, making language stand still, and rehearsal) as a framework.

Portraiture of Focal Students and Home Language-Learning Environment

All three case study participants came from Korea with their families accompanying their fathers who were visiting scholars at a mid-western university. During their one-year stay in the United States, all three families supported their children's English language learning in school and at home. The students played with Korean friends in the beginning, and they gradually made English speaking friends as the

year progressed. All three students made progress in English oral and writing language skills.

Yonsu. Yonsu was a second grade female student from Korea. She stayed in the United States for one year with her family accompanying her father who came as a visiting professional at a mid-western university. By coming to the States, Yonsu's parents hoped to give their children opportunities to learn English (Parent interview, 11/24/99). Before Yonsu came to the United States, she attended a public elementary school for one year and acquired sophisticated literacy skills in her native language. Korean was an important part of Yonsu's life even in the United States. Yonsu spoke Korean with her friends and family, and she spent her playtime mostly with Korean friends outside of school. Yonsu's parents described Yonsu as quiet, sensitive and shy. They added that she was sometimes bold. For example, she volunteered to become a chairperson in her homeroom when she was in Korea (Parent interview, 3/6/00).

Yonsu was an avid reader and writer. While Yonsu was in Korea, she sometimes skipped a meal to read through a new book that her dad newly purchased for her (Parent interview, 11/24/99). Her disposition for reading persisted in the U.S. She mostly read Korean books in the beginning. She exhibited consistent progress in English reading as the year progressed. In the beginning, she read ESL books that were sent home as home assignment. By March, parents checked out books-on-tape from a local public library, and Yonsu listened to them at bedtime (Parent interview, 3/6/00). By May, Yonsu read chapter books including science fiction (Parent interview, 5/22/00).

Yonsu's disposition for reading and writing appeared to have been fostered through parental support. They took her and her younger sister to a local public library

and provided a tutor twice weekly. Although they avoided reading to her after they were warned by their Korean friend that their non-native pronunciation might impede Yonsu's English learning in a negative way, they encouraged her to read and write regularly at home, and Yonsu kept a home journal throughout the year.

Entries in Yonsu's home journal were written in Korean in the beginning and gradually included English writing as the year progressed. She wrote a couple of English words such as Christmas or good bye in the beginning (Yonsu's home journal, 12/23/99). On January 24th, she wrote "Today, I went to MGM studio," which was the first incidence of writing in a full sentence in English on her own. The longest English entry found in her journal dated April 10th when she recorded her excitement of getting attention from her classmates during recess due to a jump rope she brought to school. Ten English sentences she wrote that day included Yonsu's recall of her friends' questions. Yonsu's daily journal entries recorded detailed notes of her personal emotions, daily experiences, happy moments in her school and home lives, family trips, and experiences with her playmates. She also expressed her sadness of missing her home and extended family members in Korea.

Despite Yonsu's shyness and consistent use of Korean, Yonsu's English developed throughout the year. Assessment results showed positive gains in English oral and written language development for Yonsu. For example, the Woodcock- Muñoz test showed that Yonsu's oral English improved from very limited to limited (level 2-3) in November, to the fluent level (level 4) in May. Her reading and writing progressed from very limited to limited (level 2-3), to fluent to advanced (level 5) between November and May. Yonsu's progress in oral and written language skills in English seemed evident

according to her parents. Although they only taught English alphabet before they came to the States (Parent interview, 11/24/99), Yonsu began to write her home journal in English with a little help from them with English words (Parent interview, 3/6/00). By May, Yonsu only spoke English even with Korean friends, preferred to read English chapter books independently, and only wrote in English. She wrote a four-page journal regarding her family trip to Holland (parent interview, 5/22/00). Take these assessment results together, Yonsu developed English oral and written skills successfully.

Tayl. Tayl was enrolled in the first grade when he participated in the case study. Tayl came to the United States with his mother, an older sister, and father who was a visiting professional at a mid-western university. Tayl read and wrote in Korean at his grade level (Korean assessment, 1/24/01). Tayl was perceived to be shy according to his general classroom teacher, who identified the need for him to be more vocal based upon his classroom interactons (Teacher interview, 1/10/01).

Tayl's family supported Tayl's English language learning. They tried to speak a couple of English sentences once or twice a day to encourage their children's use of English at home. To encourage reading, Tayl's parents consulted with Tayl's teacher and purchased fifty volumes of used children's books. Among them were included Dr. Seuss' books and Berenstein Bears series. Parents also tried to teach Tayl and his sister English at home for a couple of hours a day. They used dictation to develop their children's English skills. Tayl was capable of reading English books independently by January (Parent interview, 1/24/01). His parents continued to ask Tayl to read books at home. The parents also provided their children with an English tutor who attended college in the area. The tutor came twice a week during the first four months. Later, the parents increased the

frequency of tutoring to three times a week. With the tutor, Tayl read books, played

Hangman game, and studied workbooks that focused on phonics skills and reading

comprehension.

Tayl's progress in English oral skills was evident in his social and cultural

interaction as well as his English use at home. In January, Tayl had two Korean friends

and an English-speaking friend from his first grade class. By June, he made more

English-speaking friends, and he frequently watched English cartoon movies. Tayl's

speaking and listening skills improved noticeably since March, and by June he used more

English than Korean at home. At this time, Tayl's parents were proud of Tayl's

development in English oral language. They described, "Tayl speaks like foreign

students." His mother added that he even translated for her when she did not understand

her neighbor who paid a visit to her apartment (Parent interview, 6/5/01).

Tayl's performance on ESL assessment measures matched with his parents'

perceptions of Tayl's growth in English. Tayl's oral language skills developed from level

1 in October and improved to level 2 in May based upon the Pre-Las Oral Test (Duncan,

& De Avila, 1998). His oral syntax also improved from level 1 to level 3 according to the

Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) (Burt, Dulay & Hernández Ch., 1976). According the

structural scoring index of BSM, almost half of Tayl's utterances were grammatically

accurate in May. Tayl made comparable growth in learning the English written language.

His performance on Pre-Literacy on the Pre-Las Test showed that he improved from level

1 to level 3 between October and December. According to Tayl's performance on the

Qualitative Reading Inventory (Leslie & Caldwell, 1995), Tayl began as a non-reader in

the beginning and became a primer level reader by the end of the year.

Jin. Jin was a kindergartner who participated in the study for 11 months between January and November. Based upon classroom observations of Jin and multiple conversations with his parents, Jin seemed to possess an outgoing personality. Due to Jin's lack of English skills and schooling experiences, his parents and kindergarten teacher met before the end of a school year and decided to retain him in the same kindergarten classroom after the summer. Like two other case study participants, Jin came to the States with his family accompanying his father who was a visiting scholar at a mid-western university. Jin did not have any formal schooling experience in Korea. Before he came to the US, he was a proficient oral language user, but he did not know the Korean alphabet fully. His mom mostly read Korean folk legends or Disney stories written in Korean (Parent interview, 6/4/01).

Jin possessed minimal English skills when he first arrived in the US. While he was in the country, his family supported Jin's learning of English. For example, Jin's family members encouraged him to use English at home. His parents often used English at home to encourage Jin to practice his emerging English skills, which he readily complied (2/7/01 interview). Jin's parents also encouraged Jin to watch TV programs with his older sister, which Jin seemed to have been reluctant to do in the beginning. Jin's mom or his sister, who was enrolled in the third grade, read English books to support Jin's learning of English. Until June, Jin insisted upon listening to Korean translations so that he could understand what was read to him (6/4/01 interview). In the beginning, he used Korean and mostly played with his older sister and other Korean friends in the neighborhood. Later in the year, however, Jin listened to English stories without Korean translation, and he understood the content of a book when his family read books to him

(10/12/01 interview). He preferred to watch TV rather than reading books. He switched language depending upon his interlocutors. He used English when he played with his sister or school friends who came from other countries. When he spoke with Korean adults, he used Korean.

Jin developed his English skills during his stay in the United States. Based upon his performance on Pre-Las, a standardized ESL test, his oral language improved to level 1 by October. In the beginning, he was not tested for oral skills because he did not speak English at all. His literacy skills also improved slightly. Although his performance on the Pre-Literacy component of Pre-Las test remained in level two, his performance improved by 7 points in between May and October. Jin's oral and written language samples from class observations also indicated his progress in learning English. Early in the year, Jin did not speak English at all (Class observation, 1/24/01). His writing involved a string of random letters (Student artifact, 2/21/01). Later in the year, he was able to produce a sentence. He shouted, "I can spell grass" when the teacher flipped a chart paper and showed the picture of a tree (Class observation, 10/10/01). His writing involved a complete sentence with inventive spelling such as, "I lik soccer" (Student artifact, 10/12/01)

Table 2. Student assessment information

Students	Yonsu	Tayl	Jin
Personality	shy	shy	outgoing
Korean oral skills	competent	competent	competent
Native language (L1) literacy	sophisticated	fluent	minimal
L1 writing at home	Yes (daily home journal)	Sometimes (dictation)	minimal
English skills upon arrival in the US	minimal	minimal	minimal
English oral skill development	Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey very limited-limited (level 2-3) to fluent (level 4)	PreLas oral (level 1 to level 3) Bilingual Syntax Measure (level 1 to level 3)	PreLas oral none to level 1
English written skill development	WMLS level 2-3 to fluent-advanced (level 5)	PreLas Pre-Literacy (level 1 to level 3) QRI (non-reader to primer)	PreLas Pre-Literacy level 2 (65) to level 2 (72)

Written Language Activities in General Classrooms

All class activities involved reading and writing when reading and writing

activities were defined based upon the perspective of literacy forwarded by Olson (i.e.,

the competence to exploit a particular set of cultural resources) (Olson, 1996). Both

general and ESL classroom teachers used English written language to provide a model

for learning and using English oral language.

All class activities incorporated reading and writing with a varying degree, and

there were three different levels of incorporation of written language: 1) Independent

writing activities called for mostly reading and writing skills. Students were required to

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use their reading and writing skills to complete independent writing activities; 2) Small group activities incorporated a mix of all language skills. Students needed reading and writing skills to process written information provided to them, and speaking and listening skills to discuss ideas to complete a given task; and 3) Whole group activities involved oral language skills with a varying degree of written language usage. Specifically, students were required to use reading skills to process teachers' writing on the chalkboard or chart paper and oral language skills to comprehend and participate in class discussions.

Because all class activities were reading and writing activities, the description of written language activities in general classrooms is organized into two parts. It focuses on 1) activities offered in each classroom and 2) teachers' uses of written language. Reports of classroom activities are organized by each student, and teachers' uses of written language are organized by conceptual categories.

Yonsu's Second Grade Class. A daily routine in Yonsu's class indicated omnipresence of written language in all class activities. The students in Yonsu's class sat in small groups. When they arrived in the morning, they were given time to review basic math skills such as subtraction or to build literacy related skills using morning worksheets. The "Student of The Week" presentation was occasionally offered during the time after morning worksheet and before morning recess. After morning recess, students were given time to do publishing when they do not go to special classes such as arts. Independent reading or literacy related whole class games or teacher reading aloud were offered before students left for lunch. In the afternoon, students were given content instruction around 1:30 for about forty-five minutes before the students left for afternoon recess. When they returned to the room after recess, the teacher read aloud a book to the

children while children ate snacks in the front of the room. After the whole group reading by Mr. K, Yonsu's second grade teacher, the class focused on math lessons or science lessons. Occasionally, the teacher implemented a student of the week activity when the class did not have time in the morning.

Written language mediated oral language use in various ways depending upon the purpose and the type of learning activities (i.e., whole group, small group, independent). The purpose of whole group activities was to introduce a new concept, wrapping up what they learned in small group discussions, and building a supportive and collaborative learning community in the class. Types of whole group activities included teacher's content instruction, teacher's summary of group discussions, science experiments, small group presentations, teacher reading, a discussion of annoying behavior, student of the week, and literacy games such as letter bingo or Hangman.

Among whole group activities, some activities relied more on oral language skills. These activities involved student of the week, whole group discussions on annoying behavior, bingo or hangman games. During these activities, written language or objects played an auxiliary role to support oral language use. For example, during student of the week, the focal student brought in various objects that he or she wanted to share with the class. The student showed each object to the class and explained what it was. At that time, students were given opportunities to view the objects (class observation, 1/13/00).

Small group activities were designed to help students apply what they learned in whole groups. Types of small group activities involved coloring and cutting shapes for a puppet show (for story retelling), measuring lengths of straight lines, magnet experiment entitled "To stick or not stick," a role play on annoying behavior, small group reading

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with the teacher (so that the students can be helped), and research projects on tornados and manatees. During small group activities, students shared resources or discussed ideas to complete the given class assignment. Thus, both oral and written language skills were required to participate in small group activities. Because students sat in small groups, Mr. K attended to interactions among students and made changes that he deemed necessary. When ESL students used native language only while interacting with each other in January, the teacher consulted with an ESL teacher and changed the seating arrangement in the room to encourage ESL students to practice their emerging English skills (General-ESL teacher meeting, 1/18/00).

The purpose of independent activities was to practice basic academic skills (e.g., math and literacy skills), to review learning from whole group instruction, and to develop writing skills. Independent learning activities included morning worksheets which focused on practicing basic math skills and reading related skills (e.g., syllables, words in context). Independent learning activities were implemented as a follow-up of a whole group activity. After a whole class instruction in a content area, students were given a teacher-developed worksheet related to the content discussed earlier. Students were asked to answer questions included in the worksheet independently. Publishing was another important independent learning activity. Students were given opportunities to write a story of their own choice and include their own illustration during publishing. Independent learning activities mostly involved the use of written language from students

Tayl's First Grade Class. Tayl's first grade classroom offered a wide range of learning opportunities in a diverse group setting including whole and small groups as well as individual activities. Mr. K, Tayl's general classroom teacher, integrated these

three different types of activities into a daily routine. Like Yonsu's class, written language was used in all class activities, and it was impossible to separate out oral and written language in class activities.

When the students arrived, they participated in morning worksheets while the teacher was getting lunch counts and completing other important classroom logistics. After the morning worksheet time, students then gathered around the teacher in the front of the room near the chalkboard. Sometimes the teacher began the whole group activity with reviewing concepts or skills in morning worksheets when the teacher found something that he wanted to discuss from observing students' work in the morning worksheet, he addressed the question to the whole class. After the morning worksheet activity, the teacher offered "The Question of the Day" activity, which involved a small group of students' writing of their questions that they wanted to explore that day. All students took turns to participate in the activity, and eventually, every student in the class had an opportunity to contribute to developing "The Question of the Day." Students who participated in the activity wrote their questions on a chart paper. During this time, other children participated in a morning routine, which involved writing the date and counting the day of the week. Classroom jobs followed immediately after. The rest of the morning after recess was filled with other literacy activities such as journal writing, studying spelling words in pair groups, student reading of a journal entry, teacher read aloud to the class, publishing, or small group editing with the teacher.

When children returned from lunch and a short lunch recess, they engaged themselves in silent reading. Students were given opportunities to choose books of their own choice and find a place to read quietly. The teacher had a classroom library full of a

wide variety of children literature in the room. Bookshelves were located at various corners of the room. After afternoon recess, children again gathered around the teacher in the carpeted area in the front of the room. At this time, the teacher read aloud a book or two out loud to the children. Children were invited to bring their own snack and listen to the teacher's story. After the snack and story time, lessons on Social Studies or Science followed. Sometimes a school day concluded with estimation or following directions.

Whole group activities included guessing jar that required students to estimate the number of objects in the jar, morning routine (i.e., writing the date of the day and singing the day of the week song), teacher read aloud, student of the day, snack & story time, content area instruction including math, science and social studies. Literacy activities completed in whole group settings included student journal reading, and generating word lists for journal writing. As such, whole group activities mostly involved use of oral language skills from students, and written language (e.g., books or teacher's writing) often mediated usage of oral language (e.g., class discussions or teacher read aloud). Students listened to the books that the teacher or their peers read or teacher directions regarding a lesson in a content area. They shared their ideas verbally. Often, whole group activities were preludes to small or independent activities.

Small group activities included studying spelling words in a pair group, a map activity which required making a school map with members of a small group as a part of Social Studies lesson, and small group presentations during a science lesson. Another type of small group activity involved editing with the teacher. During publishing time, a small group of students were invited to bring their written works to the teacher for editing. Participation in small group activities involved both written and oral language skills.

Independent learning activities mostly required the use of written language skills from students. The type of independent activities included morning worksheets, journal writing, silent reading, or writing responses to the questions written in a worksheet during science lessons. During these independent learning activities after whole group science lessons, students sat quietly in their seats and wrote their own responses to the questions on teacher-generated worksheets or wrote their ideas in their literacy journals. During morning worksheets, another independent learning activity, students completed their written responses to math questions or basic literacy skill related questions.

Jin's Kindergarten Class. Like the two previous classrooms, Jin's general classroom required use of all language skills in class activities. Although usage of written language varied depending upon the type of class activities, oral language were inseparable from written language. Jin's class activities included a wide variety of theme-based learning activities ranging from whole and small group activities as well as learning centers. These activities were a part of the class routine. For example, morning activities consisted of reviewing the day's schedule, calendar activity, counting the day and month (and occasionally year), reading Fish News (which involved listening to a piece of news from one of the students and choral reading), job charts, and weather of the day. After morning recess, students engaged in whole group content instruction and small group activities before they left the classroom for lunch.

Whole group activities included discussing different weather words, characteristics of butterflies, students' Reading All About Me books, morning routine, teacher's reading of children's books or informational texts related to a class theme, finding words that begin with "The Letter of the Day", writing conventions (e.g.,

exclamation marks) and the sounds and letters of double consonants. The purpose of whole group activities was mostly to introduce new lessons or themes, or teacher modeling of an activity. These whole group activities involved all language skills, and they were often followed by independent review activities in small groups.

Independent activities involved review of whole group lessons in small group settings. Individual students were given teacher generated worksheets related to the whole group discussion on a theme (e.g., butterfly). Each activity was focused on theme related vocabulary or compositions of one's own sentence in a little book, which the teacher developed. The main purpose of review activities was to reinforce their previous learning in whole groups through writing or drawing or a combination of the two. Ms. P, Jin's general classroom teacher, often visited the students who needed extra support and helped them understand a given task and complete their review sheets. The teacher asked questions to encourage the students to think harder (Class observation, 5/17/01). When the students were done, they were asked to turn in their written work. When the teacher completed checking the student's work and found it to be satisfactory, students were allowed to go to centers of their choice. Independent review activities in the class mostly involved the use of written language, and oral language played an auxiliary role to support learning of content instruction during whole group lessons.

Center activities in Jin's class offered a variety of choices. Centers, which the author observed, included construction, games, reading, literacy, listening, and pretend play. Students were given options to choose a center of their interest and play either alone or with friends. The teacher circulated the classroom, supported individual students' engagement in each center activity, and helped students manage their own behaviors so

that they could share toys and take turns to use games. The most frequently used language skill during center activities was oral language mediated by cultural artifacts such as board games, blocks, books, and play things. The only exception was literacy centers, which the teacher offered in the afternoon during free center activities. At these literacy centers, students worked on writing skills through, for example, teacher developed little alphabet books. At these literacy centers, however, uses of oral language were not excluded because students often conversed while completing their work.

To summarize, written language was omnipresent in all three general classrooms. Although all class activities involved reading and writing, written language was integrated into class activities in various ways depending upon the purpose and the type of class activities. Oral and written skills were fused in all class activities, and they were inseparable.

Teachers' uses of written language in general classrooms

General classroom teachers used various functions of written language to provide a model of learning and using oral language. The functions of written language utilized by teachers included making language material, making language stand still, and rehearsal. Teachers taught English oral vocabulary using written language or pictures or a combination of both. They introduced new concepts in a content area through written language by writing class discussions on the board or drawing a diagram while introducing new ideas orally. The teachers also used written language to support students' learning of oral language through repeated practice. The existence of grade

level differences in teachers' usage of written language indicated that teachers had different expectations for required cognitive skills depending upon grade levels.

Making language material. This function was utilized only by the 1st and kindergarten teachers. Vocabulary instruction was a typical example of using written language to make oral language material. Mr. K, Tayl's first grade teacher, encouraged students to explain their understanding of words through pictures when the students wrote in their journals. For example, Mr. K drew a rectangle and a line in the middle. He drew a picture of the sun on the top part and the word sun on the bottom of the rectangle. Then, he told the students to do the same in their journals (Class observation, 10/18/00). By modeling drawing a picture that represented the meaning of a word to the students, the teacher encouraged the students to make oral language material in their journal writing so that they understood the meanings of the written words.

Jin's teacher used written language to make oral language material. In November, the teacher asked the students to find words that begin with the letter d. When a student raised his hand and said dragon, the teacher wrote the word on a chart paper in front of the class and drew a simplified picture of a dragon next the English word. In so doing, the teacher made the meaning of dragon material, and the students could actually see the meaning of the word. (Class observation, 11/14/01)

Making language stand still. Making language stand still was utilized to discuss concepts in whole groups or to revisit class discussions or whole group instruction. Yonsu's teacher made oral language stand still during content instruction. When the teacher introduced magnetism to the class, he asked individual students what they knew about it. The teacher wrote students' responses on the chalk board and created a class

concept map. Each time students offered a new idea regarding magnetism, the teacher made connections among different ideas and expanded the class concept map. After the lesson, the class reviewed the concept map together (Class observation, 2/22/00). Because the class concept map made oral language stand still, the class could analyze various characteristics of magnetism and revisit the concept map as a whole class when the oral discussions ended. As another example, when the class discussed annoying behaviors, the teacher wrote a script on the chalkboard to be used for a role play. Students were paired up and told their pairs what was written on the board. When the students forgot what they were supposed to say, they looked at the board. Because the teacher's writing on the chalkboard made oral language stand still, students were able to use the information when they could not recall the script (Class observation, 3/23/00).

Written language was used to make oral language stand still in Tayl's general classroom. Everyday, after Mr. K read books before journal time, the students and the teacher generated a list of words that students could use in their writing journals. Students readily offered words that they wanted to know more or they liked for the list. Then, Mr. K, Tayl's first grade teacher, wrote the words that students offered for the class word list for their journal writing. On September 20th of 2000, the students and the teacher generated twenty-one words related to environment. The words were environment, fish, eagle, sparkling, brook, deer, shine, bears, turtle, birds, bats, frogs, mouse, wolf, duck, squirrel, horse, eat, drink, water, and food. By writing students' words on a big piece of paper, Mr. K made language stand still so that the students can revisit and use them in their journal writing. Making language stand still was also observed when the teacher wrote oral discussions during "The Student of the Day" activity, "The Question of the

Day", and other daily whole group activities. Thus, making language stand still was the most frequently used function of written language in this classroom.

Mr. K also made oral language stand still to help students promote scientific understanding. On May 9th, one of the foci of the science lesson was to compare the differences between woodland plants and freshwater plants. The teacher drew two columns on a piece of chart paper and asked to volunteer their ideas. Students raised their hands and said that woodland plants had conifers and the size, shape, color, texture of woodland plants were different from freshwater plants. They added that woodland plants need soil, don't live in water, and they have leaves. Mr. K wrote these ideas on the left column and students' ideas related to freshwater plans on the right column. In so doing, the teacher used writing to make oral language (i.e., students oral responses) stand still so that they can analyze and understand the differences between woodland plants and freshwater plants.

Analyses of functions of written language in class activities exhibited the intricate connection between oral and written language in Jin's class. For example, his teacher led a whole group discussion with the students regarding various kinds of weather in April. When the students offered weather related words, the teacher wrote the words on the chart paper placed on an easel next to the teacher. (Class observation, 4/18/01) By writing the words that the students offered, the teacher made oral language stand still so that the students and teacher could review the words.

Rehearsal. Yonsu's second grade teacher provided his students opportunities to rehearse their language skills. During morning worksheets, students were invited to do worksheets. One of the important purposes of worksheets was to practice English sounds

such as long vowels, the sounds of oo, consonant pairs, and blends. For example, students were given a worksheet focusing on the sounds of oo. The worksheet included "moon" and "noon" as sample words on the top. Next, ten sentences were listed with a blank space in the middle. Next to each sentence, there were three word choices. Students were then asked to choose a word from the word choices that fit in the sentence (Student artifact, 10/18/99). By reading words included in a worksheet, identifying the same sounds as the sample words, and using correct words in a given sentence, students were given opportunities to rehearse their language skills.

Rehearsal was also observed in Tayl's classroom. Journal writing was a typical example in the classroom through which the teacher encouraged the children to rehearse their language skills. Mr. K explained that generating a word list for their journals was specifically to encourage students use the words. The word list that the teacher wrote for the students were actually words that the students wanted to include in their journals because they liked a specific word. The teacher stated that because words were from the students, he thought that the students would have ownership of the words, and they would be more likely to use them. (Informal teacher interview, 9/20/00). By including journal writing in a daily routine, the teacher encouraged the students to rehearse their language skills so that their oral language would develop more fully.

Jin's kindergarten teacher provided students with teacher generated worksheets or small books after whole group discussions. The worksheets or small books often included words or sentences related to the lessons during previous whole group discussions. Students were required to copy the words or sentences and add a new word. By writing the words or sentences, students were given opportunities to review what they have

learned previously. In so doing, the teacher used written language to provide students with opportunities to do a rehearsal of their developing language skills. Table 3 summarizes the functions of written language in each classroom.

Table 3. Functions of written language in general classrooms

grades	Making Language Material	Making Language Stand Still	Rehearsal
2nd	Not observed	Content instruction (e.g., magnetism), Reviewing concepts or instruction or discussion	Basic literacy skill worksheets, journal writing
1st	Vocabulary knowledge	Word list for journal writing, Comparison of different types of plants	Journal writing, Review worksheets
K	Vocabulary instruction	Reviewing whole class discussions	Review worksheets

Summary. As Table 3 shows, general classroom teachers used English written language to provide a model for learning and using English oral language. They modeled that written language could be used, to name a few, to introduce new concepts such as magnetism, to compare and contrast differences between plants, to record oral discussions so that they could review what they discussed, to highlight English sounds, to connect oral language to read world objects, or to practice emerging oral language skills repeatedly. Interestingly, Mr. K did not use making language material function for his 2nd graders. Considering that this function was used for basic vocabulary instruction in other classrooms, Mr. K may have expected his students to have already acquired basic English vocabulary before they arrived in the 2nd grade.

Written Language Activities in the ESL Classroom

As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, ESL instruction was observed in two focal students' ESL classrooms (i.e., Yonsu and Tayl) only. Based upon observations of these two ESL classes, it was evident that all ESL class activities involved a varying degree of written language skills. Analyses of ESL written language activities indicated a distinctive pattern in integrating oral and written language skills in ESL instruction. The ESL teacher also modeled using English written language to understand and learn various aspects of English oral language.

Yonsu's ESL Classroom. Yonsu's ESL classroom provided ESL support for about 40 minutes in a small group. In the beginning of the year, Yonsu was a part of small group of four members. Later in the year, Yonsu joined in an intermediate group, which consisted of nine group members. Except independent writing, most ESL class activities were done in whole groups. The kinds of whole group activities included vocabulary, grammar, and basic literacy skill instruction, language experience, oral sharing, games, choral, paired, and individual reading, as well as independent writing. While both oral and written language were integrated into ESL instruction throughout the year, the language skills required to participate in ESL activities seemed to increase in its depth and breadth as the year progressed.

Vocabulary instruction in the beginning focused on building basic English vocabulary such as shape words. The teacher gave each student a word bank which included picture word cards of about one and a half inch in length on each side. The teacher taught the names of objects in the word bank in class, and encouraged the students to say the name of an object on each card and practice it repeatedly (ESL class

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observation, 10/25/99). Later, vocabulary instruction involved semantic aspects of the English language such as the meaning of a plural marker "s" or "are". Mrs. M., the ESL teacher, often used pictures to help students understand these linguistic features. For example, the ESL teacher asked the students, "Why do we have "s" on cherries and grapes? The teacher then told the students to look at the picture and notice that there was more than one. (ESL class observation, 11/16/99).

Basic literacy skill instruction was observed in the beginning. It focused on developing English sounds such as initial consonants, silent ending "e" and phonemic segmentation. For example, when the class learned the names of various kinds of fruit using pictures in November, the ESL teacher segmented a word into its phonemes or discussed a silent letter "e" and initial consonants.

ESL teacher: What is next word?
Student 1: Strawberry
(The teacher writes the word as she pronounces the word in phonemic segments)
ESL teacher: St-raw-berry
ESL teacher: Next one is green, and we can use it for salads.
(No students respond.)
ESL teacher: Lettuce. (Pointing to a picture of oranges) I said the other day, "Don't say orange-e." Why? (Student 2 explains that there is a silent letter "e." The teacher affirms the students' response.)
ESL teacher: (pointing to a picture of beans) Beans. Beans. (She reads the word twice) Tell me what letter the word begins with.
Students: B
(ESL observation, 11/16/99)

As this example shows, the ESL teacher used writing to highlight and help her students understand various aspects of English sounds and basic literacy concepts such as a beginning consonant "b," a silent letter "e," and segmenting the word strawberry into its phonemes.

Grammar instruction focused on past tense verbs. Mrs. M, the ESL teacher asked students to talk about the place they visited during the winter break and wrote students' responses on the chalkboard. After the class, the teacher made little books using student sentences and encouraged students to read the sentences multiple times in class (ESL class observation, 1/13/00). Mrs. M also sent little books to students' parents. Mrs. M also provided students with opportunities to use past tense verb forms in class during oral sharing. For example, when the class met first time in a week, the teacher asked students to share their weekend experiences orally with the class (ESL class observation, 2/20/00).

The usage of Language Experience Approach (Smith, 1965; Spache & Spache, 1964; Taylor, 1992) was also evident in the ESL instruction. The ESL class made a peanut butter sandwich in March. The teacher asked the students to share what they know about how to make a peanut butter sandwich. The teacher wrote student responses on the chalk board and generated a class list for making a peanut butter sandwich. With the ingredients that Mrs. M brought to the class, students and the ESL teacher together made their own peanut butter sandwiches and ate them in class. After tasting, the teacher asked individual students to describe what their peanut butter sandwich tasted like, and she wrote students' responses on the board. At the end of the class, the students read what was written on the board (ESL observation, 3/2/2000). In so doing, the ESL teacher modeled that written language could be used to record class oral discussions, to generate a class list regarding how to make peanut butter sandwich, to describe one's impressions on how it tasted like, and to review the information they recorded when needed. Both oral and written language required to participate in this activity were more complex and diverse than when the students first came to the ESL class.

Independent writing activities included letter writing or making little books. For example, the students wrote a letter to their parents or relatives in their home country. The students were given instruction regarding how to write a letter and address on an envelope. (ESL class observation, 3/23/00). Students also made their own little books. After studying farm animals, the ESL teacher gave sheets of lined papers that included pictures of farm animals. Students were invited to write what they remembered about each animal (ESL class observation, 4/12/00). In another example, students made frog books. After the students studied frogs, the teacher asked students to make their own frog book and create illustrations (ESL class observation, 4/20/00). In these independent writing instructions, oral and written language skills required for class participation were content related (e.g., science) and involved more complex cognitive skills than ESL activities in the beginning.

Tayl's ESL Classroom. Tayl also received ESL instruction in mostly whole groups. His ESL group involved a group of six ESL students. In addition to whole group activities, there were also independent writing activities and pair group reading activities. Throughout the year, all students participated in the learning process, and oral and written language skills were integrated in the ESL instruction in a spiral fashion. (See Figure 1)
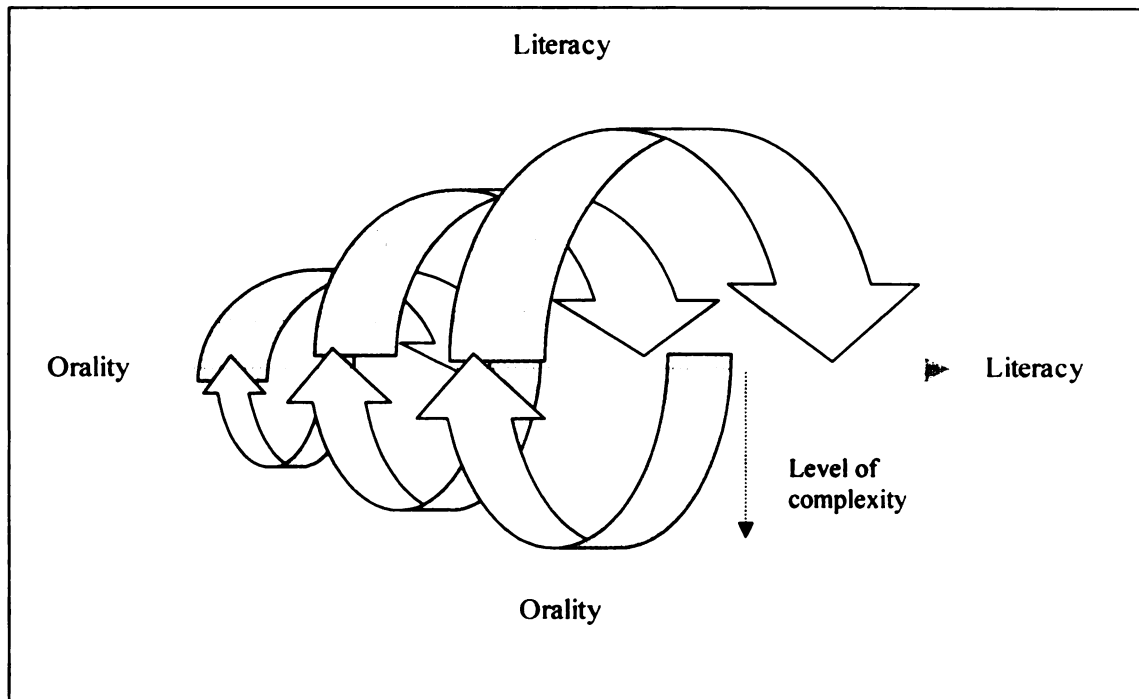
Figure 1. Spiral instruction in Tayl's ESL classroom

As figure 1 demonstrates, the content of ESL instruction encompassed all aspects

of language and literacy moving from basic oral language related activities to more

complex written language related activities. Usage of both oral and written language

skills was required for class participation in the process. Chronologically, ESL classroom

activities included learning the English alphabet, the order of English letters, sounding

out words, identifying initial and ending consonants, developing letter and word concepts,

vocabulary learning through matching English words with pictures or body parts or

behaviors, describing quantity more precisely, learning English syntax, past tense verbs,

looking at the title page of a book and guessing the content of a book, reading little books

and other content related books, comprehending written texts, guessing a title of a written

text after reading, greeting, writing date and month, writing journals and little books, and

writing an ending to a story.

During each class period, Mrs. M went to the students' classrooms and brought them to the ESL classroom. Once the students were seated, the teacher began her instruction with checking students' ESL folders. The ESL teacher checked whether students read little books that they took home to their parents or adults in their homes by looking at the signatures on the cover page of their ESL folders. Students who completed their home reading assignment were given a sticker as a reward. Then, the main instruction was provided. After the main ESL instruction, students chose a book to take home to read to their parents. Toward the middle of the year when the students were accustomed to daily home reading assignment, the teacher checked students' completion of home assignment before they left for their general classrooms. The responsibility of checking student assignment was often carried out by a senior citizen who volunteered in the ESL classroom.

The content of main ESL instruction changed over time. It can be divided into three phases. In the beginning, it focused on building basic vocabulary such as things to wear or body parts (ESL class observations, 10/18/00 & 11/1/00). Singing was used as a tool to engage all students in the learning process. For example, when the teacher taught body parts in November, the teacher started and ended the class with singing heads, shoulders, knees, and toes (ESL observation, 11/01/00). Because all students sang the song, everyone had a chance to pronounce the words while pointing to relevant body parts. After singing the song, students were given a few pictures of body parts. They were asked to cut each picture and include the picture in their word bank. Then, students were given opportunities to make sentences using the words. For example, in October, Mrs. M asked the students to choose two items that they wanted to wear from their word bank.

She modeled by saying and writing on the chalkboard, "Mrs. M is wearing socks and a necklace." Then, she looked at each student and asked them to make a sentence using the same sentence structure, and the teacher wrote the sentences students generated (ESL observation, 10/18/00). The ESL teacher also implemented student reading. Student reading at this time involved reading words in their word bank or little books made up of one-word utterances. The teacher also encouraged the students to sound out initial consonants (ESL class observation, 11/01/00).

From February of 2001, the second phase of ESL instruction began. It focused on understanding date and month, listening and reading comprehension, and pre-reading conversations around a book. In other words, the teacher incorporated more literacy related features of English into the ESL instruction. All language skills were still required for class participation. For example, the teacher asked the students to help her write the date and the month in February. She told the students that they needed to listen carefully to what was read. When each student read three pages from the text regarding a lion and a mouse, the ESL teacher stopped and asked questions that required recall or comprehension skills. She asked, "How do you think a mouse could help a lion? Give me an idea. Help me....without...checking [your book]." (ESL class observation, 2/7/01)

During this time, Mrs. M implemented vocabulary lessons when students exhibited difficulty in decoding words. She used motions instead of pictures. For example, when Tayl read the text, he stumbled on the word, "nibbling." The ESL teacher demonstrated a nibbling behavior and pronounced the word again for Tayl. She also helped students develop the concept of a word or a letter. She showed cards that included

words or letters to the students and asked them to identify the category (i.e., word or letter) of each one.

Pre-reading conversations around a book were first observed in February as well. Before the ESL teacher read a book entitled, "The very hungry caterpillar" (Carle, 1987), she led a brief whole group discussion about the book:

> ESL teacher: Who knows about what a caterpillar is?
> S1: I know about it.
> ESL teacher: What does it eat?
> S1: It eats everything.
> (Mrs. M smiles.)
> ESL teacher: Where does he live? (She looks at Tayl and repeats the question) Where does he live, Tayl?
> S2: Leaf
> ESL teacher: That's right.
> (Mrs. M shows the title page of the book and reads the title with the students pointing to each word.)
> (ESL class observation, 2/21/01)

By having a conversation before reading a book, the ESL teacher achieved multiple goals. She helped the students recall facts about a caterpillar, share what they knew, reminded the students of word concepts by pointing to each word while reading the title. She also helped students understand the information included in the illustration of the title page. After reading, each student was given a teacher-developed little book that included sentences from "The very hungry caterpillar." Students were asked to draw an appropriate illustration on each page.

The last phase of ESL instruction took place between early April and the end of May. During this time, explicit grammar instruction was observed. For example, the ESL teacher asked the students to talk about what they did during the previous day in April.

She wrote "–ed" on the chalkboard and explained what it meant. Then, she drew two columns. She wrote the word "play" in the left column as she said the word and asked the students to give her a past tense form of the word. When students said played, she wrote it on the right column. The ESL teacher also taught irregular past tense forms such as "thought." She gave a sentence to individual students and asked students to change the verb of a sentence into its past tense form. (ESL class observation, 4/10/01).

More reading and writing activities were observed during the last phase of ESL instruction, and the activities required more advanced literacy related skills than during the first two phases. The teacher and the students read a book entitled "Put your best foot forward." (Stoutland, 2000) Students independently wrote a book using the sentence structure appeared in the book (ESL observation, 4/18/01). When the students finished writing their little books, the whole class reviewed classroom rules for authors and audience members and read their little books to the whole group (ESL observation, 4/25/01). The ESL teacher also focused on predicting and writing an ending to a story. For example, the teacher read a short passage with the students and asked the students to guess what a girl in a picture of the story was going to do (ESL observation, 5/23/01). In the following day, the teacher asked the students write an ending to the story after reading a short passage (ESL observation, 5/24/01). In addition, the teacher taught phrases such as a bar of soap or a bunch of carrot and helped ESL students to be more elaborate in their language use (ESL observation, 5/16/01).

When new ESL students arrived in the room, the process seemed to begin again. The ESL teacher began her instruction with greeting individual students:

ESL teacher: Good afternoon.
Student 1: Good afternoon.

(Mrs. M greets everyone and asks each student to greet her back)

(ESL observation, 5/24/01)

Then the ESL teacher engaged the students in an introduction activity, which required the students to describe themselves including how old they were and where they lived. For the remainder of the ESL class that day, existing ESL class members wrote an ending to a story while newcomers drew an illustration for each page. As such, oral and written language skills were integrated on a daily basis while the depth and breadth of literacy related skills in the ESL instruction increased as the year progressed. In summary, the ESL instruction resembled an enlarging spiral.

The functions of written language in ESL class activities

Although all language skills were used in ESL instruction, the ESL teacher used written language throughout the year to highlight, analyze, and understand various aspects of English oral language. Pictures were used to make names of real world objects material, and teacher's writing on the chalk board made oral language stand still. The ESL teacher also used written language to provide her students with opportunities to rehearse their emerging oral language skills in English.

Making language material. The ESL teacher made language material by using pictures to build basic English oral vocabulary. Individual students in Yonsu's ESL class were given a word bank, which consisted of small picture word cards. Each card included a picture of a real world object. These cards were used to develop ESL students' vocabulary. For example, the ESL teacher asked students to look at the picture of buttons in their word bank and asked them to say its English name (ESL class observation,

10/25/99). Pictures in the word bank were used to develop the concept of plurals. For example, the teacher asked the students to look at the objects in a picture in November when the class discussed a plural marker –s (ESL observation, 11/16/99). In so doing, the ESL teacher made oral language material so that the students could understand the meaning of a plural marker (i.e., "s").

The ESL teacher made oral language material for vocabulary instruction for Tayl's ESL group. In addition to picture cards, Mrs. M used body parts or physical demonstrations to make oral language material. For example, the teacher pointed to each of the body parts while singing a song called "Heads, shoulders, knees and toes." In the process, the teacher helped students connect the actual body parts and their names. (ESL observation, 11/01/00) Later in the year, the teacher demonstrated a nibbling behavior to show what the word meant (ESL observation, 2/7/01). These examples show that the ESL teacher made language material to develop students' oral vocabulary.

Making language stand still. Written language made oral language stand still in Yonsu's ESL class. The ESL teachers often wrote what were discussed in a whole group. For example, when the class discussed numbers and shapes in November, the ESL teacher wrote, "six, seven, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, stars, squares, circles, hearts, triangles, and octagon" Then, the class read these words together (ESL observation, 11/10/99). Recall the example of making a peanut butter sandwich in March when Mrs. M engaged her ESL students in a discussion and generated a class list of how to make a peanut butter sandwich (ESL observation, 3/2/00). In so doing, the ESL teacher modeled a usage of written language to make oral language stand still so that the students can revisit whenever the students needed while making peanut butter sandwiches.

The function of making language stand still was evident in Tayl's ESL classroom. Mrs. M wrote the name of the month and date on the chalkboard after she said the words (ESL observation, 2/7/010). The ESL teacher used written language to introduce the form and meaning of past tense verbs. She wrote "ed" on the chalkboard and explained to the students that people use the form to describe things happened yesterday (ESL class observation, 4/10/01). ESL teacher also used written language to teach a new phrase that described quantity such as a bar of soap or a tube of toothpaste (ESL class observation, 5/16/01). By using written language, the ESL teacher made the form and function of past tense verbs and adjectival phrases stand still. In so doing, the teacher helped her students understand and use more elaborate English.

Rehearsal. Students were also given opportunities to rehearse their emerging English skills through writing. Recall the example of making a little book on farm animals. The ESL teacher provided teacher-developed worksheets to individual students. The sheet included small pictures of farm animals and a few lines for each animal so that the students could write a description for each animal. Yonsu wrote a couple of sentences for each animal. In describing a piglet, she wrote, "This is a piglet. He likes in the mud." After she wrote these statements, she read the sentence over again. She then erased the second sentence and rewrote, "He likes play in the mud." (ESL class observation, 4/12/00). As this example illustrates, by giving an opportunity to write about what they learned in class, the ESL teacher provided ESL students opportunities to rehearse their emerging English skills. Interestingly, in the particular example, written language provided Yonsu with an opportunity to rehearse her emerging language skills, to recognize ambiguity in her sentence, and to elaborate it.

Tayl's ESL class was also given opportunities to rehearse a newly learned English form through writing. Recall when the ESL students made little books in April. Tayl's ESL class read two books entitled, "Put your best foot forward: more little lessons for a happier world" and "Reach for the sky." Both books had a sentence pattern, "...taught me..." Then, the students made their own little books using the sentence pattern. Some of Tayl's sentences included, "My sister taught me to study and computing number. Mr. K taught me to play a tag. People taught me that I am so good" (ESL observation, 4/18/01). While writing these sentences, Tayl was given opportunities to rehearse the new sentence structure, "...taught me..." and expand his English skills.

In summary, the ESL teacher modeled for her students various ways of using written language to develop English oral language skills. The teacher used written language to highlight various aspects of English oral language, to expand oral vocabulary, to practice English syntax (e.g., making English sentences in present or past tenses) and to use their emerging oral language skills. The ESL teacher's modeling seemed to have influenced student participation in the ESL class activities and the processes of learning English.

Student Participation in General and ESL Classes

All three students exhibited similar patterns in participating in both general and ESL classrooms. In general classrooms, the three case study students participated in a progression of general classroom activities that required least oral language skills to most flexible oral language skills. Students' participation in written language activities indicated that students moved from copying to more active meaning making literacy

activities. Changes in participating in ESL classes showed the process of oral language development of ESL students in a year. Students used single word utterances in the beginning, and their utterances involved sentences toward the end of the year.

Yousu's participation. In her general classroom, Yonsu participated in independent writing activities from the beginning. She completed her morning worksheets and wrote in her journals. She often copied sentences from journal entries of her Korean friends who possessed proficient English skills, and she added detailed illustrations (Class observation, 1/20/00). In another example, Yonsu participated successfully in review activities after whole group instruction. She looked at written materials provided for an activity and worksheet, understood the task and participated successfully in the class activity (Class observation, 2/22/00). By the end of February, Yonsu became more expressive and independent (Informal teacher interview, 2/29/00).

As the year progressed, Yonsu began to participate in whole group activities as she became more familiar with the class routine and developed oral and written language skills to understand what was discussed. When she was "The Student of the Week," she successfully completed her student of the week presentation with help from a Korean female student whose English was proficient (Class observation, 3/4/00). In a couple of weeks later, Yonsu volunteered an answer during a whole class discussion on annoying behavior as the following example illustrates:

> Teacher: What is annoying behavior?
> (Students raise hands. Yonsu also raises a hand)
> Teacher: Yonsu?
> Yonsu: (in a soft voice) Hating
> Teacher: Hitting or hating?

Yonsu: Hating.
(Class observation, 3/23/00)

In this example, the teacher asked Yonsu to clarify her responses by repeating what he thought Yonsu said. At that moment, Yonsu did not become silent. Instead, she repeated her earlier response. Although participating whole group activities required more oral language skills than independent writing activities, Yonsu was able to contribute to whole group discussion with single word utterances. As such, Yonsu's increased participation in whole group activities was evident as the year progressed.

Yonsu also participated in small group activities as her oral and written language skills developed. Participating in small group activities seemed to involve a combination of more flexible use of oral language skills and more active meaning making of written texts than whole group activities. During a pair group discussion on sea otters and manatees, Yonsu contributed meaningfully to the group activity. During the activity, students were paired up to discuss short passages on sea otters and manatees as well as questions regarding the texts. Yonsu read the questions and told her partner the answers she found from the passages. Her partner wrote the answers. When the teacher asked students' attention to wrap up their activity, Yonsu's partner reported to the teacher that they did a great job answering the questions (Class observation, 5/2/00).

Because ESL instruction was organized to involve all students in class activities, Yonsu participated in ESL activities from the beginning. However, her oral responses changed over time. In the beginning, Yonsu did not volunteer to respond to the ESL teacher's questions. She completed class work as she was told. She usually gave one-word utterances. By February, Yonsu began to participate more actively in ESL class

activities. For example, Mrs. M told the author that she did a good job participating in class (Informal interview with ESL teacher, 2/1/00). In February, Yonsu's response in a complete sentence was observed for the first time when she stated, "I went to Frankenmuth" to describe her weekend experience (ESL observation, 2/20/00). By March, Yonsu began asking questions to the teacher. As she became more comfortable in her classrooms, and she developed more confidence in her oral and written language skills, Yonsu participated more actively in class activities, became more verbal, and initiated oral interactions with her teachers and peers. Her grammatical errors also became more apparent to the observer.

Tayl's Participation. Tayl's participation in general classroom activities showed a similar pattern as Yonsu. In the beginning he participated in independent activities such as journal writing and silent reading. As the year progressed, his participation extended to other types of activities. He participated in whole group activities as well as more substantially in independent activities.

Tayl participated in independent activities from the beginning of the year. Independent activities he participated in included journal writing, morning worksheets, and silent reading after lunch. During journal writing activities, Tayl usually received help in the beginning from a female Korean student who was proficient in English. Tayl asked the female student what a specific word meant. After he understood what it meant, he wrote the word in his journal and drew a picture that represented the meaning of the word. Later, he wrote words independently. Toward the end of the school year, Tayl wrote in sentences instead of words in his journal. For example, he wrote, "people eat food because people is people. And family is my family and my friend's family to. And

long ago people eat fruit and mill." (Student artifact, 4/11/02) During silent reading, Tayl

usually looked at the cover of a book in February (Class observation, 2/7/01). Later in the

year, he actually read a few books during silent reading. For example, he read

"Graveyard of the dinosaurs" (Tanaka, 1998), "I am water" (Marzollo, 1996), and a book

about Pokemon by April (Class observation, 4/25/01).

Tayl's participation in whole group activities changed over time. In earlier months

such as October, he did not engage himself in whole group activities. For example, he

played with his fingers during the question of the day activity (Class observation,

10/9/00).When the class generated a word list before journal writing, Tayl did not

volunteer to talk in the beginning. When the teacher read to the whole class and asked

whether the book the class read was fiction or non-fiction, Tayl looked down on the floor

and did not say anything (Class observation, 10/18/00).

However, Tayl actively participated in whole group activities later in the year.

During the word list activity in which students offered words to be included on a chart

paper for their journal writing, Tayl offered two words including airplane and people in

March (Class observation, 3/28/01). When the teacher read a book entitled, "Plants we

know" (Miner, 1981), Tayl looked at the book while the teacher read to the whole class.

When the teacher stopped reading the book and asked the students to give an example of

root plants, Tayl raised a hand and said, "seeds." Although his answer was not accurate,

this incidence showed Tayl's willingness to participate in the whole group activities

(Class observation, 5/16/01).

During a small group activity, which the author observed on May 31st of 2001,

Tayl actively participated in a given task. During a pair group spelling words activity,

Tayl and an English speaking male student paired up, asked spelling a word to the other, and switched their roles. They stood near the classroom entrance to do the activity. Tayl asked his partner to spell the word "America," and his partner said, "Aou..." "A..." At that time, Tayl showed the spelling word list. His partner spelled "Amerca." Tayl told his partner that he forgot the letter "I" although his spelling partner denied it. Then, they switched their roles. It was Tayl's turn to spell equator. Tayl said, "e-q-u-a-t-o-r," and his partner told Tayl that his spelling was wrong. Tayl said that he would try again (Class observation, 5/31/01).

Later in the day, Tayl participated in a map activity in another small group of three students including himself. Tayl and two other English-speaking male students left the room with each holding an outline of a map filled with squares and lines that represented different classrooms in the school. Their task was to label the rooms on their individual maps. As soon as they went out their classroom door, Tayl said, while looking at his map outline, "This is my room. Here is Mrs. B. No, this is Mrs. D." Then, two other group members join in finding where they were:

> Student 1: We went down the hall.
> Tayl: No, here's Mrs. B here...
> Student 2 (pointing to a square on his map): Office.
> Tayl: Let's draw.
> Two boys asked Tayl to spell the word, "door," and Tayl spelled it out for them. Tayl then shouted out, "We forgot gym. We forgot lunch."
> (Class observation, 5/31/01)

Tayl's participation in ESL class activities also changed over time. Earlier in the year, he did not respond to the teacher's request for participation. For example, when he was first asked to describe what he wanted to wear by his ESL teacher, Tayl did not say

anything. The teacher asked the next person to respond to the question (ESL class observation, 10/18/00). Tayl also used Korean for communication with his peers and other Korean speakers. (ESL class observation, 11/01/00).

During the second half of the year, Tayl began participating in ESL class activities more actively. In February, the teacher asked inferential questions while reading a book entitled, "The very hungry caterpillar" (Carle, 1987). Tayl responded to the teacher's question posed to the whole group although his answer was not accurate:

> ESL teacher: What kind of day is it today?
> Student 1: Juicy...Umm...Wednesday.
> ESL teacher: What kind of weather is it in our story?
> Student 2: Windy. Ahh...Sun.
> ESL teacher: Do you expect that it's a warm day or a cold day like Michigan?
> Tayl: Snow?
> ESL teacher: Snowy day? It's what we have outside.
> (ESL class observation, 2/21/01)
> In this conversation, Tayl responded to the question that the teacher posed to the

whole group. Although his answer was not accurate, he used the information he knew about Michigan weather at the time in responding to the teacher's question. In this sense, his response was exploratory.

Tayl continued to participate actively in ESL class activities. By May, his responses were more accurate. For example, during an activity in which students and the ESL teacher took turns to read a passage regarding a truck and a pig, Tayl read a paragraph. He said, "talking' while he was reading the word, "taking." The ESL teacher stopped him and asked him if it made sense, and she repeated the sentence that Tayl uttered. The teacher again asked Tayl whether the sentence made sense to him. She urged

Tayl to think about what the word might be if it did not make sense. At that moment,

Tayl corrected himself. When Tayl was done with reading a paragraph, the ESL teacher

asked comprehension questions to the whole group:

> ESL teacher: What just happened? The man stopped at the red light. And then
> what happened?
> Students: Pig...Pig...
> Tayl: Wait. Wait. Pig jumped out.
> ESL teacher: Out of the truck.
> (ESL observation, 5/16/01)

During this conversation, Tayl processed the teacher's both questions and

responded to her accurately with the teacher's support. By this time, both his oral and

written language skills were more developed. He participated more meaningfully in ESL

class activities, and his oral responses were more appropriate to the linguistic context.

Jin's Participation. Jin's participation in class activities also followed the pattern

of the two other case study participants. The change involved both the type of class

activities in which he engaged himself and the nature of his participation. Jin participated

in a limited range of activities in the beginning. The activities included independent

review activities in small groups, center activities, and independent writing activities.

These activities mostly involved written language skills and did not require much peer

interactions. When the class went to their seats clustered in small groups after whole

group discussions, Jin also went to his seat and completed teacher developed review

sheets. He did so by looking at what other children in his group were doing. (Student

interview, 4/25/01) When he completed his work, he submitted it to his teacher, and he

participated in different centers. In the construction areas, he would build airplanes or

guns (which was discouraged by the teacher explaining to him that guns were not allowed

in school). He played number bingo and listened to books-on-tape. His favorite book-on-tape was titled "Chicka Chicka Boom Boom." (Martin Jr. & Archambault, 2000) In reading areas, he usually picked up a book, flipped through and put it back to a book basket or a bookshelf.

During the whole group activities, he idled in different corners of the classroom looking at environmental print on the wall in the beginning. (Class observation, 4/18/01) At this time he did not understand what was going on during the whole group instruction. He explained to the author why he did not participate in the whole group activities when the author asked him in Korean. During a classroom observation in April, Jin blamed himself. He told the author that he did not know Korean well so that he did not understand what was taught in the whole group instruction (Student interview, 4/18/01). In May, Jin told the author that other children understood what went on, but he did not know. So he was bored (Student interview, 5/10/01).

After the summer, Jin actively participated in whole group activities. Weekly observations made between September and the end of November showed that he made oral contributions to whole class discussions. During a guessing jar activity in September, Jin commented that twenty, the number of his classmate guessed, was not too little after the teacher said that the number was too little for the number of objects in the guessing jar:

> Ms. P: Kyle has twenty.
> Jin: Twenty very much. Twenty very much. One very little.
> (Ms. P points to the objects in the guessing jar and explains to the students that the number twenty is too little.)
> Jin: Ms. P, twenty not too little.

Ms. P: Twenty is not very little, but it is too little in comparison to what's in the jar.

(Class observation, 9/26/01).

This conversation shows Jin's willingness to respond to the teacher's question and share his ideas when there is disagreement between his and his teacher's opinions.

During a journal reading activity in a whole group, when Jin saw a picture of Disney World that a student showed to the class while reading her journal, Jin said, "My friend go Disney World" (Class observation, 10/03/01). When the teacher read a big book entitled "Life in a tree," (Berger, 1997) Jin questioned the color of the egg in the picture. He said, "Why blue egg? Not white egg?" (Class observation, 10/19/01) Jin also offered words that began with the letter of the day during vocabulary activity. On October 24th, when the teacher asked the students to say j words, Jin raised his hand and said jacket (Class observation, 10/24/01). He even offered help to his friends by urging them to look at the environmental print in the room and get ideas for words that begin with the letter of the day (Class observation, 10/10/01). On the same day, Jin also complained that someone else had two turns instead of one.

The nature of Jin's participation in class reading and writing activities also changed as the year progressed. Observations of Jin's participation in small group activities early in the year showed that he focused on completing his work while leaving out details. For example, on April 18th, a month after he began participating in the case study, students were given a teacher developed worksheet as a small group review activity. At the bottom of the sheet read a sentence, "My favorite kind of weather is" with an underlined blank space at the end. Jin wrote his name and drew a very simplified stick person on the sheet. When he showed it to the teacher, the teacher asked, "Jin, where is

your feet?" pointing to the stick person that Jin drew. The teacher then pointed to Jin's feet. Jin said, "Uh eh" and added feet to the picture he drew. (Class observation, 4/18/01) Jin's writing in his journal early in the year included random English letters or his names in English (Student artifacts, 2/21/01).

Jin's writing in his journal entries exhibited more developed language form and content after the summer. It resembled real English words and described his ideas more fully. In October, he wrote complete sentences with a word with inventive spelling, and his inventive spelling resembled adult writing. He wrote, "I lik birds." His drawing included more details, and writing was used to communicate a message (Class observation, 10/16/01). Jin also exercised ownership in participating in a writing activity based on a class observation in October. After he drew two M & M's which he wanted for his and his dad's Halloween costumes, he wrote "I like to be." Then, he asked the author, "How do you write chocolate?" When the author wrote the word on the top of the picture, Jin copied it below the author's word and wrote the word in his sentence (Class observation, 10/31/01). By this time, writing activity was not just completing given assignment to comply with the teacher's directions. Rather, the purpose of writing was to represent his ideas accurately.

The Functions of Written Language in Oral Language Development

All three case study students participated in a wide range of reading and writing activities in both general and ESL classrooms. Their engagement in class activities and appropriateness of their oral responses to their teachers and peers indicated the progress they made in learning English oral language. In most class activities written language

mediated the three case study students' participation and oral language use in various ways. Among them, there were a few examples that showed a more plausible connection between oral and written language in English. These examples also show that not all students utilized the three functions of written language that their teachers modeled for them (i.e., making language material, making language stand still, rehearsal). Students' experiences with literacy in their native language seemed to play a role in how the students utilized English written language to develop oral language skills.

Making Language Stand Still

Yonsu. The function of making language stand still was evident in two examples from Yonsu. She used written language to help her remember how to pronounce English words. In November, Yonsu rewrote a title of her weekly spelling list, "Spelling words for the week of November 8th" using Korean phonetic system so that she could be sure to pronounce and hear the words correctly (Student artifact, 11/08/99). By writing the title and the date in Korean (the orthography in which she was already competent) she made the English pronunciation of the title "stand still" so that she could pronounce the words in the title. In this interesting application of cross-orthographic transfer, she essentially used a more well-developed orthographic system (the Korean alphabet) to do the job (i.e., assist in the oral production task) that English orthography would later do.

Books made language stand still and helped Yonsu acquire a vowel sound during reading. In late April, she participated in a guided pair group reading activity with the regular classroom teacher. When faced with an unknown word, "Elvira," the name of a main character, she skipped reading it. Then the teacher pronounced it for her. As the

word reappeared several times in the text, she gradually approximated its conventional pronunciation. Because the book made the word stand still, the teacher was able to notice that she did not read the word and model how to pronounce it (Class observation, 4/21/00). Written language provided Yonsu with opportunities to practice the word repeatedly and learn to pronounce it.

Tayl. Written language seemed to have played a role in Tayl's oral language development by making oral language stand still. An example comes from Tayl's learning of "caught." On April 10th, the ESL teacher taught her students how to describe "things I did yesterday" as a way to teach past tense verb forms. Students were taught both regular and irregular ones. During the review of the day's lesson, the ESL teacher asked a sentence and expected them to say the past tense form of a verb in the sentence. Tayl did not know the correct tense form of catch that day:

> ESL teacher (looking at Tayl): Can you catch that big ball?
> Tayl: Catched.
> ESL teacher: Close.
> Tayl: Ca...
> ESL teacher: Caught.
> (The ESL teacher writes the word on the board)

After this conversation, the teacher asked her students to read their little books, which included past tense verb forms that they studied that day, to a partner or another adult in the room. The ESL teacher told Tayl to go to the principal's office and read to him. Because the school principal served as a listening partner to all school children, going to the principal's office meant "cool" thing to the school children. Tayl went to the principal's office and read his little book. Every time he encountered the word "caught,"

he hesitated, and the principal pronounced the word for him. When Tayl was done with reading, the principal gave Tayl a "special" pencil with compliments for Tayl's good work.

About a month later on May 16th, Tayl used the word "caught" accurately during a conversation after a reading passage:

ESL teacher: What did he take to his farm?
Student 1: The pig.
ESL teacher: The pig. How did he get the pig?
Student 1: Catch
Tayl: No. Caught.

In this exchange, Tayl corrected his friend and provided an accurate past tense form for catch, which seemed to exhibit his solid understanding of the word. This example shows that written language made oral language stand still and contributed to Tayl's acquisition and accurate use of "caught."

Jin. The classroom teacher made language stand still, and it seemed to have played a role in Jin's oral language development. On April 18th, the teacher developed a list of weather words and wrote them on a chart paper. The words included tornado, rainy, hot, cloudy, sunny, snowy, windy, hail, foggy, thunder, lightening, and storm. On the same day during the small group review activity, when the teacher asked Jin what kind of weather that he liked the best, Jin said, "Windy" (Class observation, 4/18/01). The teacher's writing seemed to have class discussion stand still and contributed to Jin's use of the word verbally.

Another example of making language stand still comes from an observation made on May 17th of 2001. The class discussed butterflies before the author arrived in the room.

Upon arrival, the author noticed that the class produced a diagram regarding butterflies on a piece of a chart paper. It included a simplified picture of a butterfly and words associated with butterflies. One of the words written on the chart paper was scary. Interestingly, Jin used the word "scary" verbally on the following week. On May 23rd, Jin colored a butterfly pattern in various colors as a small group review activity. When coloring was completed, Jin began cutting the butterfly pattern. A few minutes later, Jin came and told the teacher, "Amy's butterfly very scary." Because the author did not observe Jin's use of the word "scary" in previous class observations, it seemed that the teacher's writing of the word on the chart paper made it stand still, and that writing seemed to have contributed to Jin's use of the word verbally a week later.

Making Language Material

Yonsu used written language to support her oral language skills in English. Vocabulary acquisition exemplifies the process of making language material. For Yonsu, teachers' use of word sheets or word banks that involve pictures and matching English words helped her learn basic English vocabulary. Words in word sheets and word banks from the ESL classroom included objects available in children's everyday lives like shapes, body parts, and playground items. Pictures helped Yonsu to use her knowledge of objects in her native language and understand the meanings of matching English words. As she read the words in her word sheets and word banks repeatedly to the ESL teacher and her peers in school and to her parents at home, she began to understand meanings of individual words without assistance of pictures. Considering that there was no explicit vocabulary instruction at home according to Yonsu's parent interviews, school based

reading and writing helped her acquire English vocabulary. Based on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-form 3B (1997), she made substantial progress moving from an age equivalence of 3 years 2 months in receptive vocabulary in November, to an age equivalence of 5 years by the end of May.

Natural Language Enforcement

Written language also served as "natural language enforcement" for Tayl. In his general classroom, story reading was a part of daily routine. The teacher read stories to the whole class at least once a day during the afternoon snack and story time. Most of the times, Tayl seemed to be more interested in eating his snack than listening to the story. On February 7th, when the afternoon snack and story time was over, the author asked Tayl if he enjoyed listening to the stories during snack and story time. He said that he enjoyed it because he could hear some words in the book that he already knew in Korean. About two weeks later when his ESL teacher read a book entitled, "The very hungry caterpillar," Tayl stood up to look at the book and silently read the words along with the teacher (ESL observation, 2/22/01). Almost two months later, when Tayl seemed to be engaged in listening to a story entitled, "Bear's Bargain" during the snack and story time in his general classroom, the author asked him again if he enjoyed the story. Tayl said that he enjoyed the story because he knew all of the words. Taking these examples together, English reading reminded Tayl of the words he knew from reading at home or at other occasions, encouraged him to practice reading the words silently, and consequently reinforced his language learning in class.

Rehearsal

The following example shows the process of how writing helped Yonsu acquire a specific sentence structure, "I went to" and produce it orally in the ESL class. After Yonsu's ESL class discussed places students visited during the Christmas break, she copied what the teacher wrote on the chalkboard in her journal on January 16th (Appendix D). She wrote the title in Korean and the rest in English:

> Places where my friends went (Underlined parts are written in Korean)
> Han said, "I went to Niagara Fall." Kyle said, "I went to Canada."
> Andy said, "I went to Seoul."
> Aluba said, "I went to Chicago."
> Elina said, "I went to New York."
> Wally said, "I went to Caesar Land."
> Wook said, "I went to Washington D. C."
> (Yonsu's home journal, 1/16/00)

Practicing these sentences through writing in her home journal helped to her acquire the sentence structure. She seemed to have understood that names of places could come after the preposition "to."

Yonsu's understanding of this sentence structure seems to be evident in her continued rehearsal observed between January 24th and February 6th in her home journal:

> Today, I went to MGM studio. (January 24th)
> Today, I went to Animal Kingdom (January 25th)
> Today, I went to Daytona Beach (January 26th)
> Today, I went to MGM studio, Animal Kingdom, Magic Kingdom. (January 28th)
> Today, my family went to swimming pool. (no father) (February 6th)

During these times, Yonsu added "today" in the beginning of the sentences. On February 6th, Yonsu changed the subject of the sentence to "my family" instead of "I"

and a place after the proposition appropriately. In so doing, she exhibited her deeper understanding of the sentence structure.

The form "I went to" that she rehearsed over and over again in her home journal seemed to have become readily available for oral language production and enabled her to answer in a complete sentence on February 22nd. When the ESL teacher asked the students to share their experiences during the weekend, Yonsu answered, "I went to Frankenmuth" after the teacher's second prompting:

> Meredith (looking at Yonsu): Did you do something for the weekend?
> Yonsu gives no answer.
> Meredith (with a smile): Can you tell me one thing?
> Yonsu (In a soft voice): Franken...
> Meredith: You went to Pokemon? I am sorry?
> Yonsu: I went to Frankenmuth.
> (ESL class observation, 2/22/00)

Producing this complete sentence was a definite accomplishment. Her earlier productions during this critical period typically consisted of one word sentences, and her use of more complete English sentences increased dramatically after the writing incident just reported. Thus, it seems quite clear that this written language activity (i.e., journal writing) made a contribution to her oral language proficiency.

Cross Classroom and Case Analysis

When literacy is viewed as "the competence to exploit a particular set of cultural resources" (Olson, 1996), all class activities in both general and ESL classrooms involved a varying degree of reading and writing skills. There were, however, differences between

ESL and general classroom classrooms. Grade level differences were also observed amon g the three general classrooms.

Reading and writing activities in the ESL classroom changed as the year progressed from reading and writing activities that required simple recognition to more complex and cognitive functioning. Oral language skills required for class participation changed accordingly from simple responses in the beginning to more complex thinking skills toward the end of the year. For example, students participated in recognizing and saying English names of objects that they already knew or encountered on a daily basis such as clothing or body parts. Toward the end of the school year, students read content related books (e.g., caterpillars) and discussed related concepts (e.g., food and habitat of caterpillars). Considering that one of the important goals of ESL instruction was to encourage students to participate in class activities and use their developing language skills in English, such progression seems critical in the success of the program.

The yearly progression of complexity in literacy activities in the ESL classroom was not evident in general classrooms. By maintaining the same daily routine in each classroom, general classroom teachers offered continuity in the type and nature of literacy activities throughout the year. Literacy activities did not change although new concepts were introduced in each content area through reading and writing. For example, Tayl's class had the same variety of literacy activities throughout the year. To name a few, they were snack and story, journal writing, reading in content areas, and review of skills and concepts through worksheets throughout the year. Through these activities, students in Tayl's classroom studied fall and pumpkin patch in October and lightening in May. This pattern was consistent for all three general classrooms.

There were grade level differences in the functions of written language utilized by the teachers. For example, while teachers' usage of making language stand still and rehearsal were present in all three classrooms, the making language material function was not observed in the second grade classroom. Its usage was only evident in the first and kindergarten classrooms. Considering that Mr. K taught both first and second grade classrooms, this research finding indicates that the teacher expected basic vocabulary instruction (i.e., vocabulary instruction through usage of pictures or real world objects) to be done in kindergarten and first grade. Because the author was not present in the classrooms at all times, however, there is a possibility that the second grade teacher used making language material function to teach vocabulary while the author was not present. Nevertheless, the fact that such use was not observed through weekly observations suggests that making language material was less common in the second grade classroom.

A cross case analysis showed that the three students utilized the functions of written language differently regardless of common characteristics among them. All three students possessed minimal English skills in the beginning, they all received parental support for learning English, they were exposed to all three functions of written language in their general and ESL classrooms, and their oral and written language progressed in a similar pattern. Thus, students' experiences in native language literacy seem to be the only factor related to the three students' different usage of written language. More specifically, Yonsu was a sophisticated reader and writer in Korean, and her rehearsal of "I went to" form in her home journal seemed to have contributed to her learning and successful use of the language form in her ESL class. In the case of Tayl, who was literate in Korean, natural language enforcement was unique to his case. It seemed that

Tayl's experience of reading in Korean carried over to his extensive reading in English. Unlike Yonsu and Tayl, Jin was minimally literate in Korean, and he did not utilize the functions of reading and writing like the two other students did. The examples of the written to oral connection in his case seemed to have been influenced by his general teacher's usage of making language stand still. Hence, there seems to be a relationship between students' experiences with native language literacy and the functions of English written language. Table 4 summarizes cross case analyses.

Table 4. Cross case analyses

Students	General class participation	ESL participation	L1 literacy skills	Functions of written language
Yonsu	Oral: Independent → whole group → small group Written: Copying → recognizing → meaning making	Oral: passive, simple → active, complex Written: Simple (drawing) → complex (composing)	sophisticated	Making language stand still, making language material, rehearsal
Tayl	Oral: Independent → whole group → small group	Oral: passive, simple → active, complex Written:	literate	Making language stand still, natural language
	Written: Copying → recognizing → meaning making	Simple (drawing) → complex (composing)		reinforcement
Jin	Oral: Independent → whole group → small group Written: Copying → recognizing → meaning making	Not observed	minimal	Making language stand still

Summary

    The case study findings showed that school based reading and writing activities involved an integration of all language skills. In both general and ESL classrooms, teachers used reading and writing to promote oral language skills, and oral language was used to develop reading and writing. Teachers modeled written language usage to understand and analyze various aspects of the English oral language. In the process, they utilized all three conceptual categories (i.e., making language stand still, making language material, and rehearsal).

    The type and the nature of student participation in class activities changed over time. In the beginning, ESL students participated in independent writing activities Completing worksheets or journal writing were the two most common independent writing activities, and these activities did not require an overt use of oral language skills. As the year progressed, ESL students develop more oral and written language skills, and they participated in whole group and small group activities, which required students' greater understanding of oral language skills than independent writing activities.

    Results showed that school based reading and writing activities played various functions in developing the three students' oral language development. Written language made oral language material and stand still. Using written language, a focal student rehearsed her emerging language skills privately. Among various examples, Yonsu's acquisition of "I went to" sentence structure and Tayl's understanding and an accurate use of "caught" demonstrated the most plausible connection between the oral and written language in ESL.

Discussion

It is important to note that the categories in the conceptual framework are not mutually exclusive. For any given example of written language transfer, it would have been possible to attach more than one category label. For example, Yonsu's rehearsal involved the process of close inspection by writing sentences down to highlight English syntactic structure in addition to her silent rehearsal of the language form, "I went to." The most salient category label was chosen for the purposes of analysis to a given example.

The connection between students' literacy skills in their native language and the functions of written language that the students utilized for their oral language development warrants further discussion. This finding seems to be consonant with Cummins' conceptualization of linguistic interdependence between native language and second language competencies (Cummins, 1979 & 1994). While this research finding indicates the importance of developing students' literacy skills in their native language while learning English (hence, validating the arguments made by the proponents of bilingual education), this study does not suggest that ESL students cannot develop second language literacy skills without native language literacy. Further studies are required to explore the relationship between native language and English literacy skill development.

Differences in general and ESL teachers' usage of written language seem to suggest academic and linguistic challenges that older ESL students would face in schools, and the necessity to understand effective instruction for older ESL students. Recall that both Yonsu and Tayl possessed similar English proficiency in the beginning. The ESL teacher modeled all three functions of written language (i.e., making language material,

making language stand still, rehearsal) in her instruction. However, Mr. K who also taught both first and second graders did not seem to use making language material, the function activated for basic vocabulary instruction, in his second grade classroom. This seemed to suggest that there are certain linguistic and literacy skills that students need to possess at each grade level to function in general classrooms because the general curriculum is geared toward English speaking students. When older ESL students enter U.S. classrooms with minimal English oral and literacy skills, they have to acquire basic English skills while making sense of grade level academic materials presented to them. It may be true that older students come with higher cognitive skills due to their physical development. Because the nation seems to lean toward English-only instruction and weaning ESL support earlier than what ESL students actually need, more and more general classroom teachers will face the issue of teaching ESL students with minimal English skills. What make matters worse, there are "thirteen percent of schools (4,832)" in the United States (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2003, p. 2), which does not provide ESL support because of the small number of ESL students in a school or lack of funding or a combination of both. Then, an important question is how do general classroom teachers of older ESL students with minimal English skills successfully help their ESL students learn necessary English skills in school even without ESL support? This is a question that needs to be answered only through studying the instruction of effective general classroom teachers.

Having documented a few examples of effective instruction for ESL students, we need to do more research on understanding its nature and characteristics. What the general and ESL teachers in this study did in their classrooms supported language

learning of the three case study participants based upon student assessment results. For example, Jin read and wrote mostly in school. What the class discussed appeared in Jin's oral conversations. In the case Tayl, the general classroom teacher's reading served as natural language enforcement and contributed to Tayl's oral language skills. For Yonsu, she practiced language forms that she learned in school (e.g., I went to...) in her home journal. Recall also the ESL teacher's curriculum, which encompassed sharing past experiences, providing students with the language form explicitly through writing and giving students with opportunities to use the form verbally and successfully. Such a curriculum led to Yonsu's acquisition of the language form. Considering that we do not know much about the nature and characteristics of effective instruction for ESL students, more research studies are needed in this area (Hakuta, 1999, personal communication; vanLier, 1988).

Conversations among teachers seem important in individualizing instruction for ESL students as well as accommodating and supporting their language learning needs. For example, Yonsu's general and ESL teachers had a brief meeting to discuss ways to support ESL students' English language learning. More specifically, Mr. K, Yonsu's general classroom teacher, addressed his concerns regarding Yonsu's lack of class participation and asked what level reading books ESL children should read. He also asked an ESL teacher whether he should separate three girls to encourage Yonsu's use of her emerging English skills. Consequently, ESL teacher helped the general classroom teacher understand Yonsu by sharing her observations of Yonsu as a perfectionist and a shy person, and how that might have been a factor in Yonsu's class participation. Through this conversation, it seemed that the general classroom teacher had a better

understanding of Yonsu and what levels of books that he could use for her (General-ESL teacher meeting, 1/18/00). Thus, conversation such as this would help shaping general class curriculum in much culturally relevant ways.

Students' emotions seemed to be an important factor in language learning. The students seemed to have missed home. They did not want to learn English. Learning another language was an onerous task. For example, Yonsu wrote in home journal her sense of homesickness and disinterest in learning English. Teachers in the case study supported these ESL students in a couple of ways. The teachers used students' homesickness to develop their language and literacy skills in English. The ESL teacher's writing activity was a good example. The teachers also gave case study students more freedom than other students to explore what they wanted to do while providing more individual support. Jin's teacher held him on her laps to help him focused. The ESL teacher gave positive comments whenever she can get a chance. For example, the ESL teacher told Yonsu , "I like that you talk to me" when Yonsu responded to her. Consequently, teachers' efforts to use students' emotions as part of their academic curriculum and to provide emotional support seemed to have played a positive role in English learning of the three case study participants.

We also need to reconsider educational benefits of worksheets. Research literature strongly discourages teachers' usage of worksheets. Using worksheets is likened to a bad teaching practice especially in reading because worksheets require "only a perfunctory level of reading" and "the exercise [through worksheets] is time-consuming and extremely tedious" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). Interestingly, all teachers in the case study used both teacher-generated and commercially available

worksheets in their instruction. They seem to use worksheets for various purposes. To name a few, worksheets were used to help students practice what they have learned in class, to introduce a new concept (e.g., playground nouns), and to encourage group discussions (e.g., Mr. K's use of worksheets on manatees). Thus, it seems to suggest that the worksheet is not the problem. The key issue is how worksheets are used in classroom instruction. To unveil this issue, we need to investigate why teachers use worksheets and good uses of worksheets.

We need to consider inherent methodological issues in case studies. Case studies provided us with a rich description of ESL students' learning opportunities and their language learning processes. However, the case studies were opportunistic. To capture strong examples that showed the written to oral connection, the author spent numerous hours in their classrooms shadowing the children. More than often such efforts did not seem to bring fruitful results. It was only when Yonsu's home journal was found and when Tayl's use of "caught" was noticed that the research appeared to be going toward the right direction. Considering the benefits of case studies, we need to understand how we could overcome its opportunistic nature and conduct case studies more effectively. An equally important methodological issue in case studies is the observational bias. Because observations were conducted solely by the author, it is also possible that the author's personal experiences and world views may have tainted what was observed in classrooms and in the data and consequently creating an observational bias. Thus, more rigorous research studies are needed to resolve inherent methodological issues of case studies.

Understanding the nature and characteristics of effective instruction for ESL students requires making multiple dialogues alive—dialogues between research and

practice, between novice and veteran teachers, between students and teachers and between researchers amongst themselves. Having a dialogue between research and practice partly means looking carefully at what is happening in classrooms where teachers successfully engage themselves in a dialogue with their ESL students and their families, and where ESL students are successful in learning a new language and the culture of power (Delpit, 1988). Researchers need to come in those classrooms and ask questions to the teachers so that teachers can make their thinking explicit to themselves and to others. There also needs to be a dialogue among teachers—between general classroom teachers and ESL or bilingual teachers as well as novice and veteran teachers. While engaging in conversations regarding how they can effectively work with students with linguistic challenges, we will be able to understand "how's" of effective instruction for ESL students. Researchers also need to engage themselves in the dialogue. Focusing on the complex issue of learning English as a Second Language, researchers need to ask how their expertise could bring new perspectives and solutions.

Documenting effective instruction for ESL students in research requires methodological flexibility. Both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms are needed because effective instruction is complex phenomena and requires multiple perspectives. Case studies or ethnography allow researchers to construct rich descriptions on inner workings of effective ESL instruction and generate a grounded theory. However, that process alone is not enough because the research findings may have been tainted by observational bias. A theory generated from qualitative research framework needs to be evaluated through quantitative research methods. In so doing, researchers will be able to hone a theory that is relatively free of personal bias while it is grounded in ESL practice.

CHAPTER THREE

INTERVENTION STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this intervention study is to validate the findings of case studies regarding the role of English written language in the development of English oral language for young ESL students. To this end, conceptual categories that show the oral and written connection (i.e., case study findings) served as a guiding framework to design the intervention. Considering methodological concerns about case studies within scientific research community; that is, observational bias can muddle case study findings (McLaughlin, 1978), and observations can be opportunistic (Pearson, 2000, personal communication), single subject experimental research method was chosen to conduct a more controlled study in examining the written and oral connection.

The intervention study took place during a period of ten weeks (February through April 2002) including a two-week baseline period. A two-week baseline period was established to collect extensive information on focal students' oral language skills using various assessment tools. During an eight-week intervention, two modes of instruction or treatments (i.e., integrated language and oral language-based instruction) were implemented repeatedly to two beginning level ESL students. The sequence of treatments crossed over between the students. An extensive use of written language marks the difference between the treatments, and it was withdrawn during the oral language-based instructional phase.

A key element of the intervention study was extensive oral language assessment of two focal students. The purpose of the assessment was to observe treatment effects. Focal students' oral language performances were assessed at various times including daily, thematically, and during baseline phases. Among these various assessments, daily oral language assessment was central in identifying treatment effects. Differences in focal students' oral language performance on daily assessment were observed. Analyses involved visual analyses of differences in students' oral language performances on daily assessment and statistical analyses of their mean differences between the two treatments. Results demonstrated that treatment effects were greater during integrated language-based instruction (i.e., treatment OW) than oral language-based instruction (i.e., treatment O). Thus, the study suggested that English written language plays a role in the development of English oral language for young ESL students.

The intervention study is reported in a chronological order of the research process. Preceded by the description of research questions, sections that explicate the process in which data collection took place, the method used to analyze data, and study results are presented sequentially. A brief summary and discussion appear in the last section of this chapter.

Research question and rationale

Does the integrated language based intervention lead to greater gains in the oral language development of focal ESL students than the oral language based intervention?

This question is proposed to conduct a controlled study that evaluates the contributions of English written language in the development of English oral language for two focal ESL students. Earlier case study findings delineated specific roles that written language played in the development of oral language. The three most important roles of written language identified through case studies were making language stand still, making language material, and rehearsal. Integrated language based intervention was designed to utilize these three roles of written language. Thus, the integrated language based intervention was hypothesized to lead to greater gains in the oral language development of focus ESL students than oral language based intervention, which does not utilize the three functions of written language specified above.

Method

<u>Study Participants</u>

Two focal students, Yang and Yun, were chosen for the single subject intervention study. Student selection criteria included: (1) grade level, (2) native language background, (3) length of residence in the United States, (4) English oral and written language proficiency, and (5) literacy skills in their native languages. Preference was given to the students who were enrolled in kindergarten classrooms, spoke Asian languages (i.e., Korean and Chinese) as a first language with minimal literacy skills, resided in the U.S. less than one year at the time the intervention study began, and possessed emergent English oral and written skills. Once two focal students were chosen, they were observed in their classrooms in order to understand their personality, learning

environment, and most importantly to get an impression on their oral and written language skills in English. Classroom observations were conducted from the beginning of the school year until the intervention study began, and observation data were the basis of describing the focal students.

Yang. Yang was six years and eight months old when she began the intervention study. She exhibited an outgoing personality. In the beginning of the school year, she used her emerging English skills such as, "hi," or "bye" to talk to her classroom teacher and familiar visitors in her classroom. Yang emigrated from China with her brother at the age of six and lived with her grandparents and uncle's family in the United States. Yang's native tongue was Cantonese. According to a Cantonese native speaker who assessed Yang's native language skills, Yang's oral language skills in Cantonese were "normal" for her age level, and her literacy skills in her native language were limited (Informal Chinese assessment, 12//20/01)

Yang had no formal schooling experience in her home country. In China, she attended a preschool, which was more like a daycare according to her aunt (Interview with Yang's aunt, 6/7/02). She learned Chinese songs and dances at the preschool. She received informal instruction on Chinese from her extended family members in China and in the United States. For example, her maternal grandmother taught her numbers in Chinese. After her arrival in the United States, she learned to read and write in Chinese for a short period of time (i.e., less than half an hour) every week. Her grandfather and uncle read Chinese stories or poems. Her uncle taught Yang how to write Chinese characters. According to her aunt, Yang spent a lot of time watching children's television

programs including Blues Clues or Discovery Channel. (Interview with Yang's aunt, 6/7/02)

Yun. Yun, the other focal student, came from Korea when she was almost five years old. She came to the United States with her family accompanying her father who was a visiting scholar. Like Yang, Yun did not have a formal schooling experience in her home country. She participated in swimming and art programs in Korea totaling one year. Yun's personality was marked by her shyness. She seldom spoke a word to her peers or visitors in the classroom. When her classroom visitors said greetings to her, she often ducked her head while smiling. Her shyness persisted throughout the school year, but the tendency was apparent in the beginning. For example, during center activities on February of 2002, Yun went to a writing center and stood there leaning against a bookshelf nearby. When a child asked Yun if she wanted a piece of paper, Yun nodded her head. A few minutes later, the author asked Yun a few questions regarding which center activity she liked the most. She did not respond to any of the author's questions. She only shook her head. (Class observation, 2/27/02) Yun began the intervention study at the age of five years and three months. She possessed minimal oral and written language skills in English. During the intervention study, Yun's oral language skills in Korean were at her age level, and her literacy skills in Korean were emerging. While she was in the United States, her mother taught reading and writing in Korean for about 2 hours a week in the beginning and 5-6 hours a month toward the end of their stay in the States. According to her mother, Yun was better at reading than writing in Korean. She was only able to write her own name and simple words such as lion or apple, which do

not have ending consonants. (Interview with Yun's mother, 6/5/02). Table 5 summarizes

information on two focal students.

Table 5. Intervention Study Student Information

Student name	Yang	Yun
Nationality	China	Korea
Native language	Cantonese	Korean
Literacy skills in native language	Limited	Emergent
Personality	Outgoing	Extremely shy
Prior schooling experience	No formal schooling	No formal schooling
English proficiency	Minimal	Minimal

Procedures

Design. The research design for the single subject intervention study involved a

sequence of Baseline Phase One, Intervention, and Baseline Phase Two for duration of

ten weeks between February and April 2002. The primary focus of the two baseline

phases was to collect information on individual focus students' English oral language

proficiency. To this end, five different types of formal and informal oral assessment

measures were used. The names and characteristics of these assessment measures will be

described in the assessment section below.

There were two treatments during the intervention phase. The two treatments

involved integrated (i.e., treatment OW) and oral language-based instruction (i.e.,

treatment O), and each treatment was repeated twice altogether. Extensive uses of written

language were withdrawn during the oral language-based instruction phase. For example,

during integrated language-based instruction, I read books while pointing to the words

and sentences on each page. I also gave the students opportunities to read and write books or texts that they created. Reading and writing by students were important component of integrated language-based instruction. During oral language-based instruction, however, I read and explained the content of a book pointing to pictures on each page, and students were not given opportunities to read or write. There were no reading and writing by students during oral language-based instruction. Only pictures on books or picture cards were used to make the content of conversations comprehensible to the students and facilitate oral conversations on a focal theme.

To avoid the transfer of learning effects between treatments, four different themes were chosen for instruction. The four themes consisted of food, places we live, clothing, and transportation. These themes were organized into either oral or integrated language-based instruction. Each theme was taught for two weeks. More specifically, for Yang, places we live and clothing themes were organized into integrated language based activities, and food and transportation themes were oral language activities. The combination of themes and treatments was reversed for Yun. As such, the order of treatments crossed over between students to control for the effect of treatment sequence. To represent procedural characteristics of the study as described in the above, the single subject intervention study is entitled as crossover withdrawal single subject research study. Table 2 summarizes themes and treatments by focal students.

Table 6. Intervention Study Themes and Treatments

Themes	Integrated	Oral
Places/Clothing	Yang	Yun
Food/Transportation	Yun	Yang

Treatments

Instruction within each treatment involved two themes and twelve instructional sessions for individual focal students. Each instructional session consisted of a thirty-minute mini lesson and a two minute-fifty second pre and post daily oral language assessment. There was an exception regarding the length of instructional time. Lessons during the first and last session of each theme lasted for 20 minutes, and the rest of the lessons were 30 minutes in length as described in the above. These adjustments were made because students were given thematic assessments during the first and last session of each session.

The purpose of each lesson was in two fold. The primary objective was to expand focal students' vocabulary in four themes (i.e., food, places we live, clothing, and transportation. The four themes were chosen because of their familiarity to the young children. (Kostelnik, Howe, Payne, Rohde, Spalding, Stein & Whitbeck, 1991; Herr & Libby, 1995) Because children encounter items within these four themes on a daily basis, their needs to understand vocabulary and use them in daily communication were assumed to be great.

The secondary instructional objective of each lesson was to help focal students use a complete sentence involving more than one word. Bimonthly classroom observations prior to the intervention study showed that the focal students used one-word utterances. For example, Yang mostly nodded or gave one word responses to her classroom teacher's questions in October and November. The teacher provided instructional support by asking her to repeat a request in a full sentence (Class

observation, 11/16/01). However, Yang's one word utterances persisted through December. Yun also used one word utterances when she responded orally. In November, when the author asked Yun what she was doing, she said, "computer." (Class observation, 11/07/01) During most of class observations between October and December of 2001, Yun nodded or followed the teacher's directions without any oral response.

Integrated language-based instruction generally consisted of four steps: (1) teacher's reading of a story related to each theme, (2) focus instruction including pre-journal writing activity for the purpose of elaborating language and journal writing, and (3) student's reading of their journals. The last session of each theme consisted of reviewing words and key sentence structures in previous lessons using reading and writing. As such, reading and writing were an integral part of instruction during integrated language based lessons. The author read the text while pointing to the words and pictures on each page. Focal students wrote words or sentences. As a review activity, the students read what they wrote independently or with the author.

Oral language-based instruction was matched to the integrated language-based instruction. Unlike integrated language-based instruction, however, students were not involved in reading and writing during oral language-based instruction. Books or pictures were used as an auxiliary tool to support oral interactions between the author and focal students. Oral language-based instruction primarily involved (1) listening to the teacher's explanation of a story while looking at the pictures in the story, (2) focus instruction through the teacher and the student's conversation on the main idea of the story as a way to elaborate language, and (3) an oral review of what the teacher and the student studied that day. The last instruction session of each theme focused on reviewing words and

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sentence structures learned in previous lessons orally. Picture cards were used to facilitate reviewing words from previous lessons.

Assessment Tools

To compare treatment effects, the same outcome measures were used for pre and post-assessment. For example, assessment tools used for Baseline Phase One and Two were the same. Outcome measures for each theme were the same between pre and post-assessment. Most importantly, the same oral language assessment tool was used for daily pre and post-assessment sessions. In what follows unfolds a more detailed description of each assessment tool preceded by an overview of assessment measures. Each assessment description delineates assessment format and scoring procedures. Examples of scoring procedures are also included for informal assessment measures only. Sections on daily picture description tasks and two standardized assessment measures contain validity and reliability information.

In all, there were five different types of English language assessment measures, and these measures focused on focal students' knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, or a combination of both in English. Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey was a standardized assessment tool for gauging overall English oral and written language development. There were two types of vocabulary assessment. Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) was a standardized receptive vocabulary assessment measure, and formal definitions (Snow, Cancino, Gonzalez, Shriberg, 1987; Snow, Cancino, Temple & Schley, 1991) were used to assess ESL students' ability to define words in decontexualized situations.

Weekend descriptions and picture descriptions were used to assess a combination of vocabulary and syntax. More specifically, weekend descriptions assessed children's ability to articulate their weekend experiences in an informal conversational setting. Picture description tasks during baseline phases and daily lessons within the intervention phase assessed children's ability to provide an oral description regarding objects and events in a picture that the administrator selected for them. Daily picture description tasks were timed, and each was administered for 2 minute 50 seconds (or 25 tape counts). More specific description on picture selections used for picture description tasks will be included in daily picture description task section.

Out of five types of oral language assessment measures, a different combination of assessment tools was selected depending upon the phase of the intervention study. Assessment tools for the two baseline phases were same. Assessment used for baseline phases involved Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey (Woodcock & Muñoz –Sandoval, 1993), Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn & Dunn, 1997), baseline picture description tasks, formal definitions (Snow, Cancino, Gonzalez, Shriberg, 1987; Snow, Cancino, Temple & Schley, 1991). Additional information on focal students' language development was collected around the baseline phases (i.e., before the intervention study began and during the second baseline phase). It included informal literacy assessment in students' native languages, and two parent interviews. Teacher interviews on student language development were conducted during the second baseline phase as well. Assessment tools used for the eight-week intervention phase included pre and post-theme formal definitions, weekend descriptions, and daily pictures description assessment prior to and followed by daily lessons. Assessment tools are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7. Intervention Study Assessment Overview

Baseline: Phase One (Pre-assessment)	Intervention Phase (Treatments O & OW)		Baseline: Phase Two (Post-assessment)
Picture description, Formal definition, PPVT, Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey	Daily (pre & post assessment)	Picture description	Picture description, Formal definition, PPVT, Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey
	Weekly	Weekend description	
	Thematic	Formal definitions	

Among these measures, information on validity and reliability is included for

three assessment measures including daily picture description tasks, Woodcock-Muñoz

Language Survey, and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. Validity is defined as "the

degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores entailed by

proposed uses of tests," (The American Educational Research Association, the American

Psychological Association, and the National Council on Measurement in Education, p. 9),

and reliability refers to consistency of assessment measures when "the testing procedure

is repeated on a population of individuals or groups." (ibid., p. 25) Validity and reliability

checks on assessment tools and procedures for the intervention study are reported based

upon their availability and the importance of an assessment tool to the intervention study.

Thus, information on assessment validity and reliability is reported for daily oral

language assessment and two standardized tests.

Daily Picture Description Tasks

Assessment portrait. Daily picture description tasks were oral language

assessment tools used for measuring treatment effects on a daily basis. Because the

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existence of confounding factors was minimal during daily picture description tasks among all assessment tools used for the intervention study, this task was used as a primary tool to assess treatment effects. A total of four different pictures were used for each theme. The four pictures included three different representational types of pictures. Type one involved two real life pictures from a commercial calendar entitled Defining Moments (Immunex Corporation, 2001). Type two consisted of two colorful illustrations from Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids (Keyes, 1998), a commercially developed picture books developed for ESL students. Type three involved white and black two-tone illustrations from Composition Through Pictures (Heaton, 1966), a picture book developed to guide composition for ESL students. In summary, one picture was chosen from either type one or three, and three pictures from type two for each theme. For each treatment (i.e., two themes), a total of eight pictures were chosen from the three sources described in the above. The eight pictures included one picture from type one, six pictures from type two, and one picture from type three.

General prompts used for daily picture description tasks were "Tell me what you see in this picture," "What do you see in this picture? Please tell me." Or "Can you tell me what you see in this picture?" One of these three prompts was given to focus students when a picture was shown to them. When students did not say anything after a few moments, the teacher repeated one of the prompts. For incidences when a child did not produce any words orally even after general prompts were given for a couple times, the author pointed to a specific object in the picture and asked what it was.

Scoring of daily picture description was additive. This was due to the operational definition that students' oral language proficiency is represented by the student's ability

to articulate her ideas appropriately to a given question using accurate words in a grammatically appropriate sentential structure within a reasonably limited time. Both qualitative and quantitative aspects of student oral language production were considered. Scores were computed for each utterance and aggregated per each testing session. Two points were assigned if a testing session lasted less than 25 tape counts (or two minute and fifty seconds), one point for 25-30 tape counts, and zero point for over 30 tape counts. A score for the length of testing time was given for each testing session. Treatment effects were calculated by finding differences in sum scores between daily pre and post assessments. Getting positive numbers as a product represented that a specific treatment was effective.

Five areas were considered for scoring each utterance. They included number of words, pragmatic acceptability (i.e., whether students' responses were appropriate to the teachers' questions), semantic (i.e., whether the students' responses accurately describe what are in a picture) and syntactic acceptability (i.e., whether the sentential structure of the students' utterances are grammatical), and absence of prompting. One point was given for each comprehensible word per utterance, and the range in sample was between 0-15. Then, a maximum of 2 points per utterance were given for each of the five areas mentioned in the above. Two points were given for an appropriate response for each area. One point was assigned for an acceptable response, and zero point for unacceptable response. The range in sample for number of words per assessment session was between 0-71, 0-40 for grammaticality, 0-21 for semantic acceptability, 0-23 for syntactic acceptability, and 0-39 for the absence of prompt.

To describe an example of scoring, Yang produced, "onion, apple, pizza, I see apple" during the post assessment on the first day of oral language-based instruction phase. Among the items mentioned by Yang, only onion and apple were present in the picture. Thus, Yang's score for the total number of words was 6, sum of pragmatic scores were 8. A total of 2 points was given for semantic acceptability, and a total of 4 points was given for syntactic acceptability. After 2 points were assigned for the length of testing time, the total points given to Yang's oral day one production was twenty-three.

Validity and reliability. Validity of daily picture description tasks focused on construct validity of using pictures as the main stimuli and scoring process. Pictures are confirmed to be a valid assessment tool according to the research literature in semiotics and an analysis of standardized ESL tests. Research literature in semiotics describes pictures as the most familiar form to most people and universal in all cultures. (Smith, 2001) Pictures have been used to communicate messages in the human history, and picture reading involves different skills than reading written words. (Manguel, 1996) Because "all discourse (everyday speech, poetry, drama, novels, music, and scientific articles) is contextual, immediate, and grounded in the concrete specifics of the international situation" (Denzin, 1997, p. 36; Bakhtin, 1986), one can posit that a picture is a reliable assessment tool to induce a person's oral language abilities in everyday context regardless of one's cultural orientation. This postulation is confirmed by popular use of pictures in standardized ESL tests. Analyses of all standardized ESL tests currently available in the market exhibit that 40% of tests use pictures as main stimuli. Thus, validity of using pictures as main stimuli is affirmed.

The validity of daily picture description tasks also involves construct validity of scoring components. Syntax (i.e., grammar), semantics (i.e., word meaning), and pragmatics (i.e., responding appropriately to a question or following directions) are three most important constructs in assessing ESL students' language and literacy skills based upon analyses of ESL tests. For example, 26% of ESL tests assessed syntactic skills, 19.3% on semantic skills, and 10.5% on school language (i.e., following directions). School language was an especially important language skill in young ESL learners because 33.3% of ESL tests designed for young ESL learners assessed this skill.

To ensure the validity of daily picture description tasks, the development process involved a careful set of efforts. The assessment rubric was developed based upon three sources— a literature review on language development, insights gained from longitudinal ESL class observations and discussions with an experienced ESL teachers, and scoring the focal students' oral language production based upon the assessment criteria. During the scoring process, the author marked items that were not quite clear and checked the validity of scoring of those items with two experienced ESL teachers and a graduate student trained in assessment and literacy.

Reliability checks on daily picture descriptions consisted of internal consistency affirmed by inter-rater reliability and factor analysis. After the author completed scoring of focal students' oral language production, 10% of focal students' oral response was graded by another scorer who was a first grade teacher, and inter-rater reliability between the author and the second scorer was 87.5%. Explanatory factor analysis was conducted to examine whether the interrelationships of different scores were consistent with the main construct (i.e., English oral language proficiency) (Mulaik, 1972; The American

Educational Research Association, the American Psychological Association, and the National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999). The results show that there are two components, and the major component explains 71% of variability. In addition, reliability coefficients based on correlation analysis among different scores 0.8989. Thus, daily picture description is a reliable assessment measure.

Weekend Descriptions

Weekend descriptions were an informal assessment tool administered weekly. This assessment was derived from an ESL teacher's weekly warm-up conversation and review lessons that the author observed for five years. The purpose of this assessment was to gauge focal students' oral language skills in articulating past experiences. Of key interest was their accurate use of past tense verbs with teacher prompts in informal contexts. The length of each assessment session was not timed, and the number and nature of teacher prompts were flexible. Because weekend descriptions assessed broad oral language skills, and they were minimally related to the curriculum specifically developed for the intervention study, focal students' performance may not directly reflect treatment effects. However, it was assumed that the changes in the fluency and accuracy of focus students' oral language performance between different time points within each theme and across themes may shed some insights into understanding the connection between treatments and the development of focal students' oral language skills.

The prompts of weekend descriptions included "What did you do during the weekend?" or "Did you have a good weekend?" with a follow-up question, "What did you do?" In the beginning of a first weekly instructional session, the teacher waited for

the child to be seated and asked one of these questions. When the teacher deemed it to be

appropriate, the prompt was modified to ask the student's experience in the previous day.

The teacher also provided additional prompts to maintain conversation with the focus

students. Additional prompts involved follow-up questions to students' responses to the

initial prompts described in the above. For example, the following conversation took

place during weekend description assessment on March 25th:

> Youb: Yang, what did you do during the weekend?
> Yang: Eh...
> Youb: Did you play?
> Yang: Umm. Yeah.
> Youb: What did you play?
> Yang: I play that one (pointing to a map puzzle)
> (Weekend descriptions, 3/25/02)

By providing additional prompts such as "Did you play?" or "What did you

play?" focal students were given opportunities to maintain a conversation and use their

emerging oral language.

The mean length of comprehensible utterances (MLCU) was computed to analyze

focus students' oral language performance in weekend descriptions. The steps taken to

calculate MLCU involved 1) counting the number of comprehensible utterances and the

number of words from the focus students' oral language during a weekend description, 2)

counting the number of incorrectly tensed verbs, 3) subtracting the number of incorrect

words from total number of words, and 4) dividing the product from step three by the

number of utterances. MLCU was derived from Mean Length of Utterances (MLU) used

in linguistics to analyze young first language learners' syntactic development. The

difference between the two is that MLCU counts the number of comprehensible words

while MLU counts the number of accurate morphemes. This is due to the fact that beginning second language learners seemed to memorize a word in chunk rather than attending to individual morphemes. (Hakuta, 1974) In addition, beginning second language learners often do not use accurate language forms although their language is comprehensible.

To give an example of scoring weekend descriptions, Yun stated the following statements on May 6th while describing her weekend experience of going to an ice cream store with her aunt and younger brother, "East ice cream. Strawberry and ...chocolate. My brother eat chocolate. I eat strawberry. I give her [store keeper] money. Specially, I eat this kind. Lizzy [Yang's aunt] give money for me and go to the ice cream. And I go and I go. And I need to line up and go and first to the desk and get it ice cream. That's it." The total number of utterances was 10, and the number of words was 60. Among them, twelve words were ungrammatical. After dividing the number of grammatical words (i.e., 48) with the total number of utterances (i.e., 10), the mean length of comprehensible utterances was 4.8. In other words, Yang was able to produce grammatical sentences that consisted of a little less than five words. The higher the number, the greater the child's ability is to speak grammatically acceptable and articulate sentences.

Formal definitions

Formal definitions (Snow, Tabors, Nicholson, & Kurland, 1995; Snow, Cancino, Temple & Schley, 1991; Snow, C. E., Cancino, H., Gonzalez, P., & Shriberg, E., 1987) were an informal assessment tool administered in the beginning and at the end of each theme and during the two baseline phases. The purpose of formal definitions was to

measure the depth of focal students' vocabulary. Students were given a word from a vocabulary list and asked to provide a definition of the word in question. Because no explicit instruction was provided regarding how to define the words (i.e., giving formal definitions), although words were chosen from the books used for treatments, formal definitions was less curriculum embedded assessment than daily picture descriptions, and it was assumed that the relationship between student performance on formal definitions and treatments might be weaker than daily picture description tasks.

Formal definition vocabulary list was generated from new words introduced in the children's books used for the intervention study. Ten or fourteen words were randomly chosen from the new word list. The number of theme-based formal definition words was ten, and baseline formal definition words were fourteen. For example, the fourteen words included in the baseline formal definition word list were cherry, orange, watermelon, bookshelf, light switch, sofa, airports, fire chief, flash, steer, rush, mind, fix, and fun. Prompts for formal definitions involved, "What does _____ mean or "Tell me what ____ is." When the focal students did not say anything to the initial prompt, the teacher repeated one of the prompts. When the student did not respond to the second prompt, the teacher left student response column blank and asked the next word on the list. When the student's responses were unclear, the teacher asked clarification questions to the student by repeating the student response. Formal definitions were not timed.

There was a modification in administering formal definitions. Due to extensive assessment in the beginning, the author used Baseline One formal definitions as pre-assessment for the first two themes (i.e., food and places we live). Thus, student responses to only the first three words were used for comparison between pre- and post-

assessment for the first two themes. All ten words were used for assessment for the third and fourth themes (i.e., transportation and clothing).

Scoring of formal definitions was based on a five-point scale for definitional features of student responses. The scale was derived from formal definition scoring system used by Snow and her colleagues' studies described above. Four points were given to responses such as x is a y syntax with a superordinate such as thing or a kind of with minimal complement. Four points were given to student responses with x is to be y syntax when the word in question was an adjective, and x is to y syntax when the question involved a verb. Three points were given to students' responses consisting of complements or a sentence. Complements were synonyms of words in question (e.g., chair for a sofa). Sentences involved using the word in question in an acceptable sentence (e.g., "Wash your hands in bathroom" for bathroom) or an appropriate description of the features or functions of the word in question (e.g., "We can eat" for watermelon; "Put the book...put the book over there" for bookshelf; "It's lying the book" for a bookshelf). Two points were given if student responses consisted of complements only. Complements were related to the word in question (e.g., book for a bookshelf) or use the word in question in a colloquial expression (e.g., never mind for mind). If focus students pointed to the relevant object or used gesture or repeated the word in question (e.g., drawing a circle with a finger while saying orange is....orange; "color...ing" for orange) or an inferable description of the features or functions of the word in question ("It can open" for light switch), one point was given. No points were given to no or irrelevant response or "I don't know." The range of student formal definition scores in data was 0-3.

Definitional fluency was calculated to analyze formal definitions involved. It involved three steps: 1) assigning a score for the definitional feature of each of the focus students' responses; 2) computing a sum of scores for the definitional feature of the focus students' responses for an assessment session; and 3) dividing the product by the total number of words (i.e., 14 for baseline formal definitions). The differences in the definitional fluency between pre- and post-assessment were compared to observe treatment effects. For example, Yang gave the following responses during baseline one formal definitions (i.e., pre-intervention) assessment: "Orange is…orange" while drawing a circle in the air when asked to define orange (1 point); "the book" for bookshelf (2 points); "chair" for sofa (3 points); "car" for steer (2 points), and "boom" for flash (3 points). The total score for definitional features assigned to Yang's responses was twelve, and the total number of words was fourteen. Thus, Yang's definitional accuracy was 0.86. In other words, Yang was not able to point to a relevant object or repeat the word in question during pre-intervention formal definitions.

<u>Baseline Picture Description</u>

Baseline picture description was an informal assessment tool administered during two baseline phases. The purpose of the assessment was to measure focal students' oral language development before and after the intervention. Focal students were shown two different series pictures and asked to describe them. Each series of pictures were chosen from Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay & Hernández Ch., 1976) and preLas (Duncan & De Avila, 1998). Pictures in preLAS included a series of four illustrations of a snail and an earthworm that encounter a rainstorm while strolling through the woods.

Pictures in Bilingual Syntax Measure described a series of three scenes of a king at a dining table and the king's dog that ate up the food on the king's plate while the king took an apple from his servant.

An initial prompt provided to the focus students for baseline picture description included "What do you see in these pictures?" Then, follow-up questions were asked while pointing to each picture. When the students did not reply to the initial prompt, the teacher pointed to an object or a person and asked what the picture was. Follow-up questions included, "What is going on in this picture?" or "What happens here?" or "What is he doing?" while pointing to the king in the picture in Bilingual Syntax Measure. Clarification questions were also asked when the students' oral responses were unclear. Baseline picture description was not timed. However, only the first 25 tape counts (or two minute and fifty seconds) of student responses were used for analyses.

Analyses of student oral responses involved computing fluency and accuracy and comparing focal students' performance in these two areas between pre and post-assessment. Fluency was calculated by counting mean length of comprehensible utterances (MLCU). To assess focal students' syntactic maturity[2], the number of words in each utterance was counted (O'Hare, 1971).

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[2] Although one of the focal students used a plural marker –s, this was not counted independently because the student did not seem to have an understanding about the role of –s. Rather, the student seemed to have memorized the words as a chunk. For example, the only word that Yang used in a plural form was "pizzas" during Baseline Phase One picture description. Because Yang did not use a plural form for two apples in the picture, she did not seem to understand "s" means more than one thing at that point. Thus, Yang's use of a plural morpheme "s" was not counted independently.

Computing accuracy consisted of two steps: 1) getting a summed score of oral language production based upon daily oral language assessment rubric and a maximum possible score; 2) dividing a summed score of student oral language production by the maximum possible score. For example, Yang produced, "Pizzas. No, yummy food. Eating. Doggie. Not apple. The doggie eat it. The apple. Down. Not turkey" during pre-assessment. The maximum possible score based on the grading rubric was two hundred and one, and the student's performance score was one hundred twenty-seven. When Yang's performance score was divided by the possible maximum score of Yang's utterances, the result was seventy-eight percent, and this score represented Yang's accuracy for the pre-assessment.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test Third Edition (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) was a standardized test administered during two baseline phases. The purpose of this test was to measure the development of focus students' English receptive vocabulary. Essentially, the test kit involved two components: a testing booklet with an easel feature for the student and a scoring form recorded by the teacher or a test administrator. Each test item involved four choices of illustrations of real world objects, and each picture was given a sequential number in the bottom center. A teacher called out a stimulus word, and the student was asked to say the number of an appropriate illustration out of four choices. PPVT was not timed.

Scoring consisted of calculating chronological age, setting basal and ceiling items, and computing raw scores. Raw scores of student performance were computed. Chronological age was calculated by subtracting the month, date and year of the focal students' birth from the date of testing. Basal was set when a student made one or no

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errors in a set, which consisted of twelve stimuli words. Ceiling was decided when an examinee made eight or more errors in a set. The test manual required a complete administration of each set of questions was required even if ceiling was set. Raw scores were computed by counting the number of correctly answered items between the basal and ceiling items. A raw score was then translated into a standard score, percentile rank, Normal Curve Equivalent, Stanine score, and age equivalent score based upon the rubric developed by the test. An age equivalent score was used to analyze focus students' vocabulary development between pre and post-assessment. Other scores were not used for analysis.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test reported three forms of test reliabilities including alternate-forms, split-half, and test-retest reliabilities. Median values of all three coefficients ranged above .90. A qualitative description of both content and construct validity as well as internal and criterion validity were reported. These pieces of information suggested PPVT as a valid measure of vocabulary test.

Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey. Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey (Woodcock & Muñoz –Sandoval, 1993) was a standardized test administered during the two baseline phases. It is a language test specifically developed for students learning English as a Second Language. The purpose of the test was to measure focal students' English skills in oral language and literacy (i.e., reading-writing). A test kit included a testing booklet with easel feature and two answer sheets for dictation for the student, and a scoring form completed by the teacher. There were four components in the test encompassing picture vocabulary, verbal analogies, letter-word identification, and dictation.

Scoring of Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey requires obtaining the age of the student, setting basal and ceiling items, and computing raw scores. Like PPVT, age of the student was computed by subtracting the child's date of birth from the date of testing. The test provided suggested testing points based upon students' grade levels. However, unlike PPVT, basal level of Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey was set by assigning the lowest item number in a set of six consecutive correct answers or the first test item of a set if a child was not able to correctly answer any of the six consecutive items in a set. The ceiling level was determined by assigning the item number of the highest item number in the first set of six consecutive incorrect answers. Raw scores were calculated by counting the number of items answered correctly between basal and ceiling items. Using a computerized scoring system developed by the test developer, these raw scores were converted into the level of oral and literacy skills for the focus students. These levels were used for analyzing focus students' language development between pre- and post-assessment.

The technical manual of the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey reports a split-half reliability for each set of four tests (i.e., picture vocabulary, verbal analogies, letter-word identification, and dictation) and three clusters (i.e., oral language, reading-writing, and broad English abilities), with coefficients ranging between 0.75s and 0.90s. A qualitative description of content, concurrent, and construct validity is also reported, and it suggests strong validity of the test as a language test for English as a Second Language students.

Results

The results are reported in by dependent measure, using the order of assessment tools administered daily, thematically and during baseline phases. The results of each assessment tool are presented according to individual focal students, Yang and then Yun. For daily oral language assessment, a central measure for evaluating treatment effects, both visual and statistical analyses (an independent sample t-test) were conducted. Additionally, two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to discern interaction effects among independent variables (i.e., students and treatments). Quantitative analyses on the accuracy and fluency of oral language production were conducted on assessment during baseline phases and each theme. Results confirmed the fundamental research hypothesis by showing that focal students made greater gains in oral language performance during integrated oral-written language based instruction than oral language-based instruction.

Daily Oral Language Assessment

Yang

To understand treatment effect, differences in Yang's oral language performance between pre and post-assessments were computed. If the difference score was positive, it was assumed that the treatment was effective. Treatment was assumed to be ineffective if the difference score was negative. Daily difference scores were plotted into a graph for a visual analysis. A mean of daily difference scores was calculated for each theme, and mean shifts across themes were observed.

Visual analysis. Recall that the basic unit of analysis for the daily measures was the difference in the scores of a picture description task administered immediately before and immediately after each daily lesson, the assumption being that if scores increased then the daily lesson had a positive impact on language growth. A visual analysis of the scores showed wide day to day fluctuation in difference scores. Across these variations, however, a clear pattern emerged: the daily difference scores were positive whenever integrated language-based instruction (i.e., OW, dotted line in figure 1) was first introduced. Shifts across themes show the same pattern. The mean of difference scores for the first treatment O was –2.83. The mean of difference scores for the first treatment OW was 25.67. The mean of difference scores for the second treatment O was –3.5, and the mean of difference scores for the second treatment OW was 31.67. The means shifted up and down depending upon treatments. Clearly, treatment OW led to upward mean shifts, and treatment O led to downward mean shifts as shown in figure 2.

Difference in Yang's oral production between pre & post assessment

___ Treatment O

-----Treatment OW

Mean shifts across themes

O (oral): -2.83
OW (integrated): 25.67
O (oral): -3.5
OW (integrated): 31.67

Figure 2. Yang's difference scores

T-test analysis. To supplement visual analyses, an independent sample t-test was conducted in order to discern statistical significance of mean differences between treatments A and B. Autocorrelations among data points were examined as a prerequisite to a t-test because the data were from a single subject (Kamil, 1995; Kazdin, 1982). The results showed that the data were not autocorrelated. In other words, the value of a data point was not "predictable from its predecessor" (Kamil, 1995, p. 87). Because the main research hypothesis was that the mean of treatment OW effects (i.e., integrated language-based instruction) was greater than that of treatment O effects, one-tailed t-test was conducted.

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T-test results show that the mean difference between treatments was statistically significant at the level of 0.05. In other words, the mean treatment effects of integrated language-based instruction was greater than that of oral language-based instruction, and the difference between the two means was statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. To reiterate, integrated language-based instruction (i.e., treatment OW) was more effective than oral language-based instruction (i.e., treatment O) in leading to greater differences in Yang's oral language production between pre and post-daily assessment.

Yun

Visual analysis. Although difference scores fluctuated, Yun's oral language performance showed a different pattern from Yang's. The means of difference scores for all themes were positive. Unlike Yang, there was no clear pattern in the difference scores. When the first oral language-based instruction (treatment O, straight line in figure 2) was introduced, difference scores moved upward. However, the difference scores moved downward whenever a new mode of instruction was introduced for the second time regardless of the type of treatments. The mean of difference scores for the first treatment OW was 13.83. The mean of difference scores for the first treatment O was 8.5. The mean of difference scores for the second treatment OW was 16, and the mean of difference scores for the second treatment O was 2.67. Upward mean shifts were observed during treatment OW, and downward mean shifts were noticed during treatment O as shown in figure 3.

Differences in Yun's oral production between pre & post assessment

Treatment O

----- Treatment OW

Mean shifts across themes
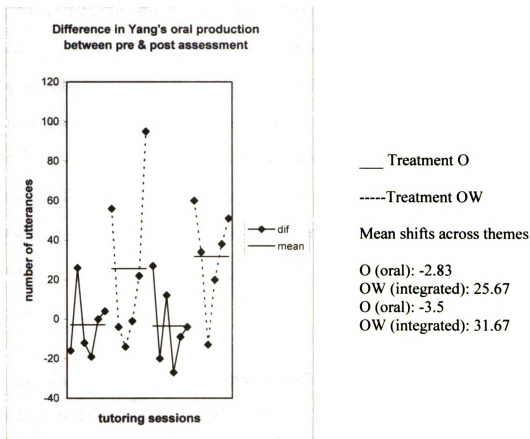
OW (integrated): 13.83
O (oral): 8.5
OW (integrated): 16
O (oral): 2.67
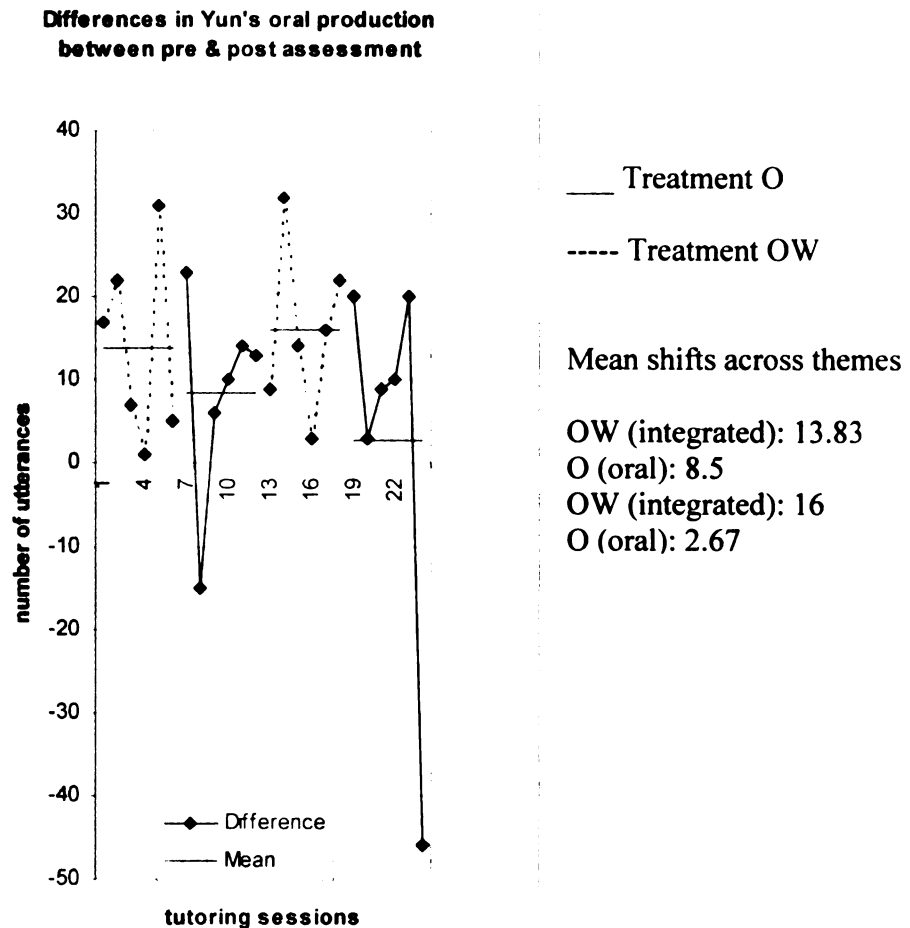
Figure 3. Yun's difference scores

T-test analysis. To complement visual analyses, a t-test was conducted in order to understand the statistical significance of mean differences between treatments. After confirming that data were not autocorrelated, an independent sample one-tailed t-test was conducted. T-test results show that the mean difference between treatments was statistically significant at the level of 0.10. In other words, the mean treatment effects of integrated language-based instruction were greater than that of oral language-based instruction, and the difference was statistically significant at the 90% confidence interval.

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To reiterate, integrated language-based instruction (i.e., treatment OW) was more

effective than oral language-based instruction (i.e., treatment O) in leading to greater

differences in Yun's oral language production between pre and post-daily assessment.

Two-way ANOVA

Visual analyses of treatment effects exhibited that Yang's performance fluctuated

greatly based upon the type of instruction (i.e., treatments) while Yun's performance

seemed to be less affected by the type of instruction. The difference between the two

students suggested the possibility of interaction between students and treatments (i.e.,

integrated and oral language-based instruction). In other words, Yang seemed to be

dramatically more receptive to integrated language-based instruction while Yun seemed

to be moderately receptive to both oral and integrated language-based instruction. To

examine interaction effects, an ad-hoc two-way ANOVA was conducted using SPSS

program. Two independent variables were student and activity (i.e., mode of instruction).

The results show that the interaction effect was not statistically significant at the α level

of 0.05 (i.e., p value = 0.081, R^2 = .241, adjusted R^2 = .190). However, it was significant

at the α level of 0.10 as shown in table 2. The bottom line seems to be that the OW

treatment is effective overall, but created a more modest advantage for Yun.

Table 8. Interaction effects between students and mode of instruction

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects (Dependent Variable: dif)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	6677.833	3	2225.944	4.670	.006
Intercept	6348.000	1	6348.000	13.317	.001

Table 8 (cont'd)

ACTIVITY	5084.083	1	5084.083	10.665	.002
STUDENT	75.000	1	75.000	.157	.694
ACTIVITY * STUDENT	1518.750	1	1518.750	3.186	.081
Error	20974.167	44	476.686		
Total	34000.000	48			
Corrected Total	27652.000	47			

a R Squared = .241 (Adjusted R Squared = .190)

Thematic Oral Language Assessment

Thematic oral language assessment included weekend descriptions administered on a weekly basis and formal definitions administered in the beginning and at the end of each theme. Weekend descriptions assessed focal students' language skills to describe their past experiences. Mean length of comprehensible utterances (MLCU) was calculated to analyze weekend descriptions. Formal definitions assess the depth of focal students' vocabulary. Each thematic formal definition words included ten words from a list of new words appeared in the books used for intervention.

The results show that Yang's performance on weekend descriptions differed depending upon the treatments. Integrated language-based instruction was related to Yang's greater mean length of comprehensible utterances and more grammatical errors during weekend descriptions. Yang's performance on formal definitions showed oral language based activities led to greater differences between pre and post-assessment. Regarding Yun's performance on thematic formal definitions and weekend descriptions, however, there was no apparent difference between treatments.

<u>Weekend Description</u>

Weekend descriptions were usually given on Monday tutoring sessions or the first time when the focal students came for tutoring sessions regardless of theme changes. Thus, the number of weekend descriptions across themes was not constant. It also differed between the two focal students.

Yang. Based upon Yang's performances on a total of seven weekend descriptions during the intervention phase, Yang's mean length of comprehensible utterances (MLCU) increased across the themes. As described earlier, MLCU refers to the average number of words in focal students' comprehensible utterances, and it was calculated by 1) counting the number of comprehensible utterances and the number of words from the focus students' oral language during a weekend description, 2) counting the number of incorrectly tensed verbs, 3) subtracting the number of incorrect words from total number of words, and 4) dividing the product from step three by the number of utterances.

Seven weekend descriptions included one session from both food and transportation (i.e., treatment O), and three sessions during places-we-live theme and two sessions during clothing theme (i.e., treatment OW). Because there was a single session for treatment O and multiple sessions for treatment OW, comparison between pre and post-assessment across themes was not made. Instead, an average MLCU score was calculated for the themes with multiple weekend description sessions, and changes across the themes were observed.

Yang's MLCU increased across the themes. Yang's MLCU during food theme (treatment O) was 1.78. In other words, the length of comprehensible sentences was a little less than two words when Yang described her weekend experiences during food

theme. It increased to an average of 2.52 during places-we-live theme (treatment OW).

Yang's MLCU during transportation theme (treatment O) was 3.14, and it increased to an

average of 4.0 during clothing theme (treatment OW).

Although Yang's performances on themes with multiple sessions did not show

any consistent pattern, a positive correlation was noted between the number of words and

the number of incorrect words in Yang's oral responses. More specifically, Yang's

performance fluctuated slightly during the places-we-live theme (2.3, 2.63, and 2.63

respectively), and it increased during clothing theme (3.14 and 4.8 respectively). Use of

incorrect words ranged between 0 and 5 in most sessions. During these sessions, Yang's

number of words ranged between 16 and 45. However, the number of incorrect words

increased to 12 at the last weekend description session of the second treatment B phase.

At this session, the number of words in Yang's responses was 60.

An interesting contrastive pattern was observed when the number of words in

Yang's responses was compared between treatments. The number of Yang's words

ranged between 25 and 60 during treatment OW. An overall trend in the number of words

was an upward fashion during the treatment OW (i.e., 27, 45, 42, 27, 60 respectively)

with a sudden drop in the number of Yang's words (i.e., 27) at the fourth session. The

range of the number of incorrect words during treatment OW was between 0 and 12 (i.e.,

4, 3, 0, 5,12 respectively). In contrast, the number of words in Yang's responses during

treatment O was 16 or 19 respectively, and there was no incorrect word in her responses.

To summarize, Yang produced a greater mean length of utterances and higher number of

errors during integrated language based intervention. Thus, it suggested that integrated

language-based instruction led to greater oral language production as well as greater linguistic errors, which will be revisited in the discussion section.

Yun. There were a total of seven assessment sessions. Among them, three sessions were during food theme, two sessions during clothing theme, and one session during both places we live and transportation theme. Yun's responses during seven weekend description sessions were minimal. She stated a total of five one-word utterances. Four utterances were mentioned across three assessment sessions during treatment OW and one utterance was produced during treatment O. When changes in Yun's responses within each theme were compared, there was the same difference. More specifically, she uttered no word in the beginning and gave a one-word response toward the end of a theme. To reiterate, Yun's responses to weekend descriptions were too scant to make any generalizations about her knowledge of past tense.

Table 9. Weekend description summary

Students	MLCU	Number of words (errors)
Yang	O: 2.17 MLCU OW: 2.6 (average) O: 3.2 OW: 4.2 (average)	O: 16 (0) OW: 27 (4), 45 (3), 42 (0) O: 19 (0) OW: 27 (5), 60 (12)
Yun	O: 0 OW: 1 (average) O: 0 OW: 1	O: 0 (0) OW: 1 (0), 1 (0), 2 (0) O: 0 (0) OW: 1 (0)

Thematic Formal Definitions

Yang. Yang's definitional fluency increased between pre- and post-assessment across the themes except during clothing theme, during which it remained the same. It increased the most during food theme. When comparing changes between treatments, the changes in Yang's formal definitional fluency were greater during treatment O than

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during treatment OW. The highest score Yang obtained was 4 points when she defined orange as, "Eat. Orange is…the color is orange." Her lowest score was 0 point which means that she did not respond to the question or uttered that she did not know the word.

For food theme, Yang's definitional fluency increased to 2.3 from 0.3. In other words, Yang was not able to give any formal definitions in the beginning, but she was able to give formal definitions either using the word in question in an expression or giving a synonym at the end of the theme. The differences in Yang's definitional fluency were also slightly positive for the places-we-live theme, changing to 2 during post-assessment from 1.6 during pre-assessment, and for transportation theme when the change was 0.6 during post-assessment from 0.2 during pre-assessment. However, there was no change between pre and post-assessment during clothing theme. During this theme, Yang's formal definitional fluency remained at 1. In other words, she pointed to a relevant object or repeated the focus word or used gestures to describe the word in question.

Yun. Yun's responses for formal definitions were minimal. She produced a total of six formal definitions. Yun's progress between two formal definitions within each theme was minimal in general. During the food theme (i.e., treatment OW), Yun's formal definitions improved to 0.3 from zero. It remained zero during places we live theme (i.e., treatment O), zero to 0.2 during transportation theme (i.e., treatment OW), and 0.1 to zero during clothing theme (i.e., treatment O). During treatment OW, Yun made progress in formal definitions. Yang's performance during treatment O was inconsistent.

Her responses involved mostly pointing to relevant items or repeating the word in question or listed items that belong to the word in question. For example, when she was

asked to give formal definitions of kitchen, she responded by saying "kitchen chair, table, cup." Yun also responded in Korean occasionally. Her Korean responses were accurate translations of words in question, but they did not lead her to earn points because her English oral skills were being assessed. In summary, Yun's performance in formal definitions ranged between zero and 0.6 with no distinctive differences between treatments.

Table 10. Thematic formal definitions summary

Students	Post-test results	Pre-test results
Yang	O: 2.3 (MLCU) OW: 2 O: 0.6 OW: 1	O: 0.3 (MLCU) OW: 1.6 O: 0.2 OW: 1
Yun	OW: 0.3 O: 0 OW: 0.2 O: 0	OW: 0 O: 0 OW: 0 O: 0.1

Baseline Oral Language Assessment

Baseline oral language assessment includes focal students' performances on three assessment tools. They included baseline picture description tasks, formal definitions, Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT), and Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey. Results are reported based upon each focal student. Baseline assessment results illustrate that Yang made gains in most English oral and written language assessment measures between February and May. During the same period, Yun also made gains in one language test, but her performance remained the same in most language assessment measures.

Yang. Yang made progress in both baseline picture description tasks and formal definitions between pre & post-intervention assessment. Yang's accuracy in picture

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description tasks increased to 78% during post-assessment from 63.2% during pre-assessment. The mean length of comprehensible utterances also increased to 2.9 words from 1.7 words. In other words, Yang's responses during post-assessment consisted of generally three words, and they were at least one word longer and 15% more accurate than pre-assessment. Yang's definitional fluency on formal definitions also increased to 1.14 from 0.86.

Yang's performance on standardized tests showed interesting results. Yang made progress on both oral and reading & writing tests of Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey between pre & post assessment. Yang improved to oral level 4 from level 3. She also made progress in reading & writing by scoring 432 points from 422.5 points although she stayed within the level 5. However, Yang's vocabulary did not improve between pre & post-intervention assessment according to her performance on PPVT. Yang was 4 years and 3 months of age equivalent of the norm group (AE) and a raw score of 54 during the post-assessment, but her performance during pre-assessment was 4 years and 9 months AE and a raw score of 61 during pre-assessment. Considering the standard error of measurement of PPVT is 3.7, there was 11% chance of Yang's vocabulary skills remained the same, and 89% chance that Yang's vocabulary skills decreased during the post-assessment.

Yun. Yun did not make progress in either baseline picture description tasks or formal definitions. Her baseline picture description tasks results show that her MCLU was one for both pre & post-assessment, and accuracy slightly decreased from 63.6% to 59%. Her performance on formal definitions did not change between pre & post-assessment. She scored zero on both assessment sessions.

Yun's performance on standardized tests show Yun made some progress in

English skills, but her vocabulary skills remained the same. Yun was oral level 3 and

reading & writing level 4 in the beginning, but her oral skill improved to level 4, and her

reading & writing skill improved to level 5 during post-assessment. According to Yang's

performance on PPVT, she seemed to remain the same. She was 3 years and 2 months

AE and a raw score of 39 during pre-assessment and 3 years and 1 months AE and a raw

score of 38 during post-assessment.

Table 11. Baseline oral language assessment summary

Students	Assessment	Post-test results	Pre-test results
Yang	PPVT	4:03 AE	4:09 AE
	W-M	Oral level 4 R & W level 5 (432 points)	Oral level 3 R & W level 5 (422.5 points)
	Baseline picture description	78% accuracy 2.9 MLCU	63.2% accuracy 1.7 MLCU
	Formal definitions	1.14 definitional fluency	0.86 definitional fluency
Yun	PPVT	3:01 AE (38 raw score)	3:02 AE (39 raw score)
	W-M	Oral level 4 R & W level 5	Oral level 3 R & W level 4
	Baseline picture description	69% accuracy 1.0 MLCU	63.6 % accuracy 1.0 MLCU
	Formal definitions	0	0

Summary

This intervention study was proposed to examine the question, "Does the

integrated language based intervention lead to greater gains in the oral language

development of focal ESL students than the oral language based intervention?" Drawing

from the results of multiple oral language assessment administered during baseline and

intervention phases, integrated language based intervention, in overall, led to greater gains in the oral language development of two focal ESL students than oral language based intervention.

Yang seems to be a critical informant of the oral and written connection. While she made progress in oral language between two baseline phases according to the results of Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey and baseline picture description tasks, her oral language performance was influenced by treatments. Yang's performance on daily oral language assessment clearly exhibited that integrated language-based instruction led to greater and statistically significant (95% confidence interval) treatment effects than oral language-based instruction. Thematic oral language assessment also showed that Yang produced greater mean length of comprehensible utterances during weekend descriptions. Interestingly, however, Yang's performance on formal definitions showed that gains in formal definitional fluency were greater during food theme, oral language-based instruction. Her vocabulary did not improve between two baseline phases according to her performance on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

The assessment results of Yun, the other focal student, were similar to Yang's. Integrated language-based instruction led to greater gains in Yun's performances in various assessment measures, but Yun's oral language development appeared to be less influenced by the type of treatment. More specifically, her performance on Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey suggested that she made progress in English oral language between two baseline phases. Daily oral language assessment results showed that integrated language-based instruction led to greater treatment effects than oral language-based instruction. The result was statistically significant at 90% confidence interval.

Because Yun's responses to other language assessment measures (i.e., formal definitions, weekend descriptions, and baseline picture description tasks) were minimal, however, it was difficult to get an impression on her oral language development during the intervention study. Yang's performance on Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test showed that her vocabulary skills remained the same between two baseline phases.

Taken together, the results showed that integrated language-based instruction led to greater gains in two focal students' oral language performance than oral language-based instruction. There existed at least a hint of an interaction effect between treatments and focal students on daily oral language performance. If one is willing to accept the statistical appropriateness of a 90% confidence interval, then it can be concluded that the integrated language-based instruction (OW) was more effective for Yang's oral language development than was oral language instruction (O). For Yun, on the other hand, O and OW were equally effective.

Discussion

At this point, a couple of cautionary remarks seem appropriate. Findings are based upon single subject experimental research on two ESL students, and they may not be generalizable to other ESL students. It is also important to note that the number of assessment sessions of thematic informal assessment (i.e., weekend descriptions and thematic formal definitions) was small, and interpretation of focal students' oral language performance on those assessment measures should not be overextended.

Despite these limitations, there were a few interesting findings that warrant more thorough discussions. To begin, Yang's performance on weekend descriptions exhibited a

curious phenomenon. When she produced greatest mean length of comprehensible utterances, her grammatical errors were also the highest. The errors involved Yang's use of present tense verb forms in linguistic contexts that past tense forms were appropriate. The positive correlation between fluency and grammatical errors found in Yang's assessment performance seems to be consistent with Bernhardt's finding on ESL students' grammatical development. She stated "syntactic errors actually increase with learning time is evidence that as learners become more sophisticated in their use of language they make more sophisticated errors" (Bernhardt, 2001, p. 798) This research finding has profound implications in ESL instruction and assessment. To suggest a couple of key instructional issues, if a classroom teacher values accuracy over fluency and does not allow ESL students to have a psychological space to explore their emerging language skills, in what ways will such classroom environment influence ESL students' language development? Positive correlation between grammatical errors and ESL students' fluency also poses a dilemma in the area of ESL assessment. Do any of the currently available ESL tests incorporate the relationship among English fluency, grammatical errors, and the stages of English language development? What is the appropriate balance between accuracy and fluency in assessing ESL students' language development in order to ensure test validity? These issues need further exploration.

Yang's performance on thematic formal definitions also sheds an interesting insight regarding the issue of developing background knowledge in ESL. The assessment results showed that she made most progress in food theme. Considering the empirical evidence that formal definitions assess decontextualized oral language skills, which are predictive of students' future literacy skills (Snow, C. E., Cancino, H., Gonzalez, P., &

Shriberg, E., 1987), Yang's results provokes an interesting question regarding the relationship between background knowledge and formal definitions. I suspect that Yang's daily encounters with food items were more substantial than other three themes. Such frequent encounters may have enabled her to develop background knowledge in food theme, and her background knowledge in food theme might have contributed to Yang's most progress in formal definitions on food theme. Thus, it would be worthwhile to study whether ESL students' background knowledge is prerequisite to their development in formal definition skills, and what would be the best way to develop background knowledge. Another question may involve if ESL students' formal definition skills on a specific topic (e.g., animals) can be transferred to those skills in other topics.

Yun's use of native language accentuates the importance of allowing students' use of native language in ESL instruction and assessment if the focus is to understand and foster their linguistic and cognitive abilities. Yun and the author came from the same native language background (i.e., Korean), and Yun knew the fact. In the beginning, Yun responded in Korean only when the author encouraged Yun to use Korean because she did not seem to know how to respond in English. As the study progressed, Yun voluntarily used Korean in her oral responses when she did not remember English words, or she did not know how to respond in English sentences. What this seems to suggest is that ESL students' English oral language alone cannot be a good indicator of their cognitive abilities. This seems to be especially true for beginning ESL students. Thus, if the focus of instruction or assessment is to understand ESL students' linguistic and cognitive abilities, it seems important for teachers and test administers to allow ESL students use their native languages to represent what they know more accurately.

While attending to the issue of providing instructional support in students' native languages through bilingual teachers in schools, Yun's use of her native language in assessment also indicates the importance of understanding the nature and characteristics of successful bilingual teachers' instructional practice. Based upon the fact that it took a while for Yun to voluntarily use her native language during assessment even though she knew the author would understand, it would not be too much to say that ESL students do not automatically feel comfortable with speakers of the same native language background. In other words, teachers' ability to speak ESL students' native language is only a beginning to connect to ESL students and encourage their educational endeavors. Bilingual teachers need to understand effective instructional approaches that can both engage ESL students in the process of language and content learning and bring desirable educational outcomes. It necessitates bilingual teachers' understanding in pedagogically sound approaches to nurture linguistic or cognitive development for ESL students. Such teacher knowledge does not come naturally with bilingual teachers' competence in speaking student languages. Then, what are the nature and characteristics of effective instructional strategies, and how do bilingual teachers develop such knowledge? More research studies are needed to unveil the knowledge of effective ESL and bilingual teachers.

Test sensitivity is another interesting issue that arose during the intervention study. Test sensitivity seems to be an important concept in medical research although it does not seem to be the case in educational or linguistic research. For example, the author did not find any research studies in ERIC database when key word searches were conducted using "test sensitivity." A definition of sensitivity that the author found in a medical

research was "the proportion of truly non-diseased person who are identified as diseased by the diagnostic test...In the case of CXR [chest X-ray], it is 80%...80% of all those with TB are successfully picked up by chest X-rays." (Sunmed organization, 2003, p. 3) Drawing from this example, test sensitivity can be reformulated as the level of effectiveness of an assessment measure for a specific purpose (e.g., assessing effectiveness of an ESL program)

It seemed that standardized ESL assessment tools exhibit different sensitivities in detecting ESL students' language development in English. For example, the Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey (WMLS) showed changes in the two focal students' language development. On the contrary, Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) did not show such changes. Considering that both tests are widely used as valid and reliable ESL assessment tools, the issue does not seem to lie in whether one is more valid and reliable than the other. Rather, it seems to be a test sensitivity issue. Drawing from the fact that norm groups differ between the two standardized tests, the two tests may possess different sensitivities in detecting language development of ESL students. For example, WMLS may be more appropriate in assessing beginning ESL students' language development, and PPVT may be used for more advanced ESL students. Thus, the two tests can serve different roles. It is possible to administer both tests and get different indicators for ESL students' language development in English.

The implication of this finding is profound in the era of hyperaccountability. Schools are required to report annual assessment results to receive funding necessary for sustaining school programs. If ESL assessment measures possess different sensitivities in detecting ESL students' language development in English, a school's choice of an

assessment tool may bring different outcomes in representing effectiveness of an ESL

program, and such assessment choice may influence school funding. For example, a

school district in mid Michigan adopted Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey (WWLS)

as an ESL assessment tool. Based upon a conversation with an ESL teacher in the school

district, the author learned that most of ESL students including recent arrivals in her

school scored above intermediate level (i.e., levels 3, 4, & 5) in WMLS. Because WMLS

assessment levels were based upon grade norms, interpretation of assessment results

should be contextualized both WMLS proficiency level and student grade level. In other

words, level 5 in grade 1 is different from level 5 in grade 2. That assessment result was a

concern to the ESL teacher because she suspected that the state department may not

understand how to interpret WWLS results, and they may cease to fund the ESL program

because ESL students scored high. While listening to the teacher's concern, the author

could feel the sense of risk that an assessment measure created in the era of

hyperaccountability and the feeling of helplessness that the teachers and administrators

may experience on a daily basis.

If ESL assessment measures possess different sensitivities in detecting ESL

students' English language development, it is reasonable to assume the existence of

variability in representing effectiveness of ESL instruction. A careful choice of

assessment tools will lead to a more accurate representation of instructional effectiveness

(Gunderson & Siegel, 2001; Pearson, 1998; Pearson, Vyas, Sensale, & Kim, 2001;

Serafini, 2001). Stakeholders in education (e.g., teachers, school administrators, and

parents) need to be informed about characteristics of ESL assessment tools. Rather than

consuming assessment information given to them, they need to read it more critically.

Additionally, instead of using single ESL assessment measure, using multiple assessment tools seems to make better sense considering that each ESL assessment exhibits different sensitivities. For example, teachers may want to identify a few assessment measures in the beginning of a school year focusing on the type (e.g., formal or informal), skills (e.g., syntax and vocabulary), and sensitivity (e.g, WMLS is more sensitive to beginning ESL students' language development than PPVT). Such multiple assessment practices will be one way to provide individualized instruction that meets the diverse needs of ESL students.

Lastly, the issue of language input needs a more thorough discussion. While it is reasonable to judge that the two focal students' oral language proficiency in English improved based upon their performances in various ESL assessment measures, it is not easy to pinpoint what played a key role in students' learning in English. Data from parent or guardian interviews clearly indicated that both focal students did not receive any type of formal English oral language instruction from home. Instead, the students relied mostly on school instruction and English reading at home as well as viewing English TV programs. In school contexts, focal students participated in extensive literacy activities including structured language instruction, journal writing and independent reading. Taken the information together, it seems evident that school instruction was an important source of language input for two focal students in developing their English skills although there is no data that delineated a clear causal relationship between language input provided in school contexts and two focal ESL students' language development in English. If we want educational research to play a role in improving schooling for ESL students in American public schools, more careful research studies are

necessary to understand the specific roles of school instruction in the development of ESL students' English language development.

Undoubtedly, language learning is a complicated issue. Existence of varying perspectives on second language development attests to such complexity (Snow, 1992). Research knowledge accumulated in various disciplines related to second language research has indicated that language learning takes place in social milieu, and understanding ESL students' language development requires thoughtful investigation of various factors related to both student learning, teaching, and the context in which ESL learning and teaching occurs. Consideration of these complex factors can be a daunting task, and it presents interesting intellectual challenges. Future ESL research should consider, in addition to identifying research areas that have not been studied, new methodological and conceptual possibilities to meet such challenges successfully.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusion

The current study is a conceptual and methodological attempt to bring multiple perspectives on effective instruction for ESL students into classroom contexts. As a response to the growing number of ESL students in U. S. public schools, multiple conversations evolved concerning the issue of effectively educating students who come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. My analysis of the development of the dialogue for the past three decades revealed that there has been a pendulum swing to and fro between the oral primacy view and the synergistic view on the subject of the relationship between oral and written language in ESL. Because the difference between the two perspectives seemed to emerge from "immense, boundless masses of forgotten contextual meanings" (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 170) of written language usage, I examined these two competing perspectives within the classroom contexts.

The purpose of this work was to explain the role of English reading and writing in the development of English oral language for young (K-2) English as a Second Language (ESL) students. Based upon my understanding that classrooms that provide rich literacy experiences to young children can be opportune places for developing oral language for ESL students, an overarching research question was "How can English reading and writing be used to develop English oral language?" For this inquiry, I chose a research methodology that reflected the centrality of individuals in language learning because I believe that language learning is ultimately individualistic. In other words, although

language learning always occurs in a social context, it is best viewed as a combination of individual, social, and political phenomena. And irrespective of the stimulus to acquisition and growth, it is individuals who internalize language input available to them, decide what and how to communicate, compose a message based upon one's knowledge about English and take risks to produce oral language. I used case studies to observe the written to oral connection in ESL learning in naturalistic settings. Based upon insights gained from case studies, I designed a single subject experimental study to confirm my findings regarding the role of written language. In so doing, the current study criss-crossed landscapes of ESL learning and teaching and illuminated four key issues in ESL learning. These issues include the nature of school based reading and writing activities, the role of teachers and teaching contexts, the active role of learners in the process of language learning, and the written to oral connection in ESL. Each of these issues involves research findings and implications for research and practice, carries some limitations, and suggests future research initiatives.

This work shed light on the nature of school based reading and writing activities and the role of teachers and contexts. As suggested in the synergistic view, all language skills were integrated in the classrooms where the three case studies took place. All class activities involved a varying degree of reading and writing depending upon the purpose and the type (i.e., whole, small, independent groups) of class activities. Because school based reading and writing activities required the use of all language skills, findings from my dissertation study suggested that language skills need not be taught in a linear progression of oral and written language skills in the classroom contexts where learning literacy is viewed as "learning to exploit [cultural] resources" (Olson, 1996, p. 17).

Because oral and written language skills ebbed and flowed seamlessly, it was impossible to separate out listening, speaking, reading, and writing in these classrooms (Goodman, Goodman, & Flores, 1978; Huddelson, 1984 & 1986). In these classrooms, teachers modeled various uses of written language for their students. The teachers used written language to make oral language material so that they could teach basic vocabulary to their students. They wrote English words or sentences to highlight phonemes, plural markers and past tense verbs. In so doing, they used written language to make phonemic, semantic, and syntactic aspects of oral language stand still. The teachers also used written language to help students rehearse their emerging oral language skills so that students could internalize what they learned about English language.

Classroom contexts influence teachers' instructional roles in providing effective instruction for ESL students (Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001). While teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge is a critical component of effective instruction, teachers' instructional roles are mediated by the classroom context in which they operate. In the school where this study took place, both general and ESL classroom teachers used written language in their instruction, but they did so in very different ways. General classroom teachers began with their grade level curriculum and attended to the whole class while diversifying their support to meet the needs of individual ESL students. The ESL teacher, on the other hand, began her instruction at the language and literacy level where ESL students were and guided them through the process of expanding the complexity and the depth of language and literacy skills. The ESL teacher was able to organize her curriculum to accommodate the needs of individual ESL students because she had a small group of ESL students with similar language and literacy skills. When comparing the

different roles that general and ESL class teachers played, it seemed to me that ESL students' academic success is critically dependent upon maintaining a balance between holding academic expectations at a grade level and beginning at ESL students' language and literacy levels. Teaching contexts (i.e., general or ESL classrooms) seemed to influence the ways in which teachers balance between these two spectrums of instruction for ESL students. Teachers of ESL students should be aware of the balance and find ways to support successful language learning for ESL students by sharing information among teachers about the linguistic capabilities of individual ESL students as well as content standards that all students need to meet at each grade level.

The data from the case studies suggests that these ESL students are active sense-makers as indicated by the synergistic view. However, these active processes are not always visible to outsiders because students choose different modes of communication (i.e., oral or written) depending upon their personality. ESL students often understand more than what they produce orally. For example, Yonsu's journal entries seemed to indicate that she understood how to make sentences using the "I went to" form for at least a month earlier than she was able to produce the structure orally in her ESL class. A main reason for the discrepancy between oral performance and linguistic competence of ESL students lies in the fact that speaking requires more risk-taking than other language skills. The consistency across classroom contexts in providing support for all three case study participants in their language learning processes suggests that the variability across the students, their disposition to take risks by speaking in class may come from one's personality. More specifically, Jin, who possessed an outgoing personality, asked, "Can I lunch rooms my mommy?" to mean whether he could go to the lunchroom with his

mommy who was visiting his classroom that day. Jin produced this utterance in mid May, about four months after his arrival in the States. As this example indicates, Jin seemed to be interested in achieving his goals for communication rather than being conscious of uttering grammatical sentences. In contrast, such linguistic behaviors were not evident in Yonsu and Tayl. Although these two students were capable of writing complete sentences privately, they did not produce full sentences orally until later when they had some control over English language to produce syntactically sound sentences. This seemed to suggest that these two shy students monitored their language production and tried their best to refrain themselves from speaking ungrammatical sentences. Thus, a key to effective instruction may be to provide ESL students with classroom activities that require varying language skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) so that they can choose activities where they feel comfortable participating, and they can develop language proficiency despite their differing personalities.

As active sense-makers, ESL students want to communicate with other people and participate meaningfully in class activities. Effective school curricula for ESL students should incorporate ESL students' interests in meaningful participation. For example, one of Yonsu's journal entries in April described her happiness at being an important part of her classroom community when she brought a jump rope to school (Yonsu's journal, 4/10/00). Case study participants made use of what they learned from their teachers to participate in class activities. Yonsu's journal entries clearly showed that she learned past tense verbs during the weekend description tasks in her ESL class, and she quietly practiced this form over and over again. When teachers provided ESL students with diverse classroom activities that required a varying degree of oral and written language

skills, ESL students participated in the activities that they could manage and extended their participation in other class activities as their language skills improved. For example, recall the three ESL students' participation in general and ESL classroom activities. While the ESL students participated in all ESL class activities from the beginning, their exploration in general classrooms began with activities that required the least use of oral language and gradually moved toward the activities that required more active use of oral language skills as the year progressed. It is also important to note other factors that may have facilitated the ESL students' aspirations for meaningful participation in class activities. For example, the three case study participants received parental support for learning English and academic skills. The students seemed to make their best efforts to make sense of language input available to them and communicate in English utilizing whatever cultural and linguistic resources were at their disposal (e.g., students' literacy skills in their native language) (Hakuta, 1976; Huddelson, 1986; Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001).

The most important finding from this work is that written language played very specific functions in language learning for the participating ESL students. The three case study participants developed all language skills concomitantly while participating in school based reading and writing activities. Although written language seems lifeless because it does not carry sounds, pitch or tone—all of which are the intrinsic characteristics of oral language, written language comes to life in use by teachers and students. As described in my case study chapter, teachers used written language to serve three distinctive functions: (a) to make oral language material, (b) to make oral language stand still, and (c) to provide students with opportunities to rehearse their emerging

language skills. Most importantly, when the three case study participants made use of these various written language ploys introduced by their teachers, their oral language improved.

The single subject research study supported this case study finding. When the two focal students were provided with oral language-based instruction or integrated language-based instruction, and when their oral language performances before and after the instruction were compared, it was evident that the focal students made more substantial and statistically significant gains on daily oral language measures during integrated language-based instruction than during exclusively oral instruction.

Although information was available only from Yang, her fluency increased to a greater degree during integrated language-based instruction than oral language-based instruction when she was given opportunities to talk about her weekend experiences. More specifically, Yang produced a greater mean length of utterances and a higher number of errors during integrated language-based instruction. While the contribution of written language was evident, there seems to be a hint of an interaction effect between the type of instruction (i.e., oral language-based or integrated language-based instruction) and focal students' oral language performance. In other words, there is a slight possibility that integrated language instruction was more effective than oral language activities for Yang while both types of instruction seemed effective for Yun.

Taken together, school based reading and writing activities can play a role in the development of young (K-2) ESL students, and reading and writing can be used to develop oral language for young ESL students with limited English oral language proficiency. Having extended our understanding regarding the usage of written language

through criss-crossing landscapes of ESL teaching and learning both conceptually and methodologically, we need to rethink the dialogue on the written and oral connection in ESL and effective instruction for ESL students.

Implications

"There is neither a first nor a last word and there are no limits to the dialogic context (it extends into the boundless past and the boundless future)....At any moment in the development of the dialogue there are immense, boundless masses of forgotten contextual meanings, but at certain moments of the dialogue's subsequent development along the way they are recalled and invigorated in renewed form (in a new context). Nothing is absolutely dead: every meaning will have its homecoming festival." (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 170)

Promoting effective instruction for ESL students requires our careful attention to what is lost or implicit in the current perspectives of teaching and learning in ESL. Because ESL learning takes place in a classroom context, understanding the role of written language requires understanding what it means to read and write in a classroom, and what individual teachers and students do with reading and writing. In rethinking the pendulum swing between the oral primacy view and the synergistic view for the past three decades, I have realized that the resurgence of the two competing perspectives represents a lack of attention to all three aspects of ESL practice (i.e., students, teachers, and learning contexts) in ESL research, and this lack of attention exacerbates the gap between research and practice at that. Thus, forgotten contextual meanings of a dialogue regarding the relationship between oral and written language in ESL can be "invigorated," to borrow Bahkin's term, when we attend to all three central aspects of instruction in ESL. Equally importantly, we need to attend to the important contextual factors of ESL learning such as individual students' personalities, experiences, and

capabilities as well as their goals for ESL learning. A lack of attention to these learning factors in teaching engenders the gap between teaching and learning in ESL.

Effective Written Language Usage

An implication of this line of inquiry is that it is not written language but the use of written language, that is at issue. Written language can be used ineffectively or effectively depending upon its users. To highlight the importance of users and their usage of written language, members of the CIERA research study used action words in labeling conceptual categories that show written to oral connection, and I endorsed this idea through my dissertation study. In the area of ESL educational policy, teachers' ineffective usage of written language seems to be a dominant concern. For example, in an informal conversation with one of the editors of Preventing Reading Difficulties during the year of 2000, she described many ineffective ESL classrooms where uses of worksheets were prevalent with minimal opportunities for oral interactions for students. Perhaps the recommendations for ESL reading by the editors of Preventing Reading Difficulties may have been guided by the concern about ineffective (and often exclusively) reading and writing instruction for ESL students. Similar concerns were discussed by Valdés (1998). Based upon her observations of ESL classrooms where ESL students were tracked and uses of worksheets were common, she raised significant issues regarding the educational practice that used language to create an ESL track and consequently "an important rallying point in boundary maintenance" (Valdés, 1998, p. 13) between ESL and English speaking students. As such, ineffective usage of written language can hamper ESL students' learning and school success, and the ESL research community needs to put

forth its best efforts to resolve this issue. This does not mean, however, that all written language activities will hamper learning; indeed the data from the current study suggests that in the right hands and in the right instructional contexts, it can be very effective.

The current findings suggest that the key issue for effective instruction for ESL students is using written language as "a launching pad not a trap" (P.D.Pearson, personal communication, 2003). Conceptualizations of what effective instruction looks like in practice differ between research and practice. Worksheets are the most interesting example that shows the gap between research and practice with respect to their educational value. Teachers in my case studies used worksheets in their classrooms to provide students with opportunities to practice their emerging language skills, and their usage seemed to reap educational benefits. Research literature in reading, on the contrary, discourages teachers' uses of worksheets, especially those with poor educational quality. For example, authors of "Becoming a nation of readers" were concerned about worksheets because they involve "only a perfunctory level of reading" and "the exercise [through worksheets] is time-consuming and extremely tedious" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 75). Interestingly, most of the teachers that I observed used worksheets in various ways, and many of them had reputation as effective teachers. My impression is that the teachers used worksheets because they did not have time to prepare instructional materials independently. However, teachers chose specific worksheets that were related to their lessons and helpful to their students. Worksheets seemed to offer convenience to the teachers and they devised creative ways of using worksheets to reinforce their students' language learning. Additionally, worksheets may be able to offer opportunities to provide explicit language skill instruction for ESL students, especially

the subset of ESL students who receive minimal parental support at home. In this sense, worksheets can be used to teach the culture of power (Delpit, 1995). For example, most of the parents of my case study participants did not help their children pronounce English words because they were concerned that their non-native pronunciation would interfere with their children's learning of phonological aspects of English. Mr. K, the teacher for Yonsu and Tayl, used worksheets to teach them various aspects of English pronunciation such as vowels or diphthongs or initial consonants. Considering that being able to pronounce English words and being understood by English speaking teachers and peers give ESL students an advantage in school, Mr. K taught the culture of power (i.e., English pronunciation) to Yonsu and Tayl through worksheets. The fact that worksheets have existed despite the criticisms from the reading research community for many decades may suggest that worksheets are a necessary vice due to the nature of teaching, or at least that they serve an important need (Jackson, 1968; Lortie, 1975). Given the fact that there are teachers who use worksheets as an instructional tool, we need to better understand the role of worksheets in promoting student learning. Researchers could review previous research reports or studies that discussed worksheets (e.g., Becoming a Nation of Readers) and investigate effective usage of worksheets in classrooms before dismissing educational benefits of them.

ESL Learning

The oral primacy view accentuates the importance of teachers' careful monitoring of oral language development and thoughtful introduction of formal reading instruction for beginning ESL students so that the students are not exposed to materials and activities that are cognitively too challenging (Mills, Cowen, & Guess, 1977; Snow, Burns, Griffith,

1998; Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986). In this sense, individual ESL students play a marginal role in language learning. However, my case study findings suggest that ESL students are active sense makers as indicated in the synergistic view. They use their own cultural and linguistic knowledge to learn English and communicate with teachers, peers, and other adults in their classrooms. Because language learning is ultimately an individual process in the sense that individual students have to produce oral language to communicate with others, we need to understand what ESL students are *capable* of doing independently. While we have some understanding regarding what young ESL students can accomplish, our knowledge base in this area is very limited, and more research studies are urgently needed (van Lier, 1988). For example, in a study on essay revisions with adult ESL students, Polio and her colleagues found that adult ESL students improved their essays when given extra time (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998). We could do similar studies with young ESL students to document their emerging linguistic capabilities in various areas of language learning under various sorts of accommodations (Abedi, Courtney, & Leon, 2003; Pelligrino, Jones, Mitchell, 1999). A deeper understanding of what ESL students can do will enable us to design ESL curriculum and instruction that meets the linguistic and cultural needs and strengths of ESL students.

One important way to enrich our understanding about ESL students' capabilities involves a reconceptualization of ESL students' grammatical errors. The oral primacy view indicates that ESL learning takes place in stages. ESL learning begins with the development of oral language, the basis of all language skills. Once oral language is reached at an appropriate level, ESL students develop written language, cognitively more demanding language skills (Mills, Cowen, & Guess, 1977; Wong-Fillmore & Valadez,

1986). In this view, grammatical errors imply a lack of linguistic control, and grammatical errors would decrease as language proficiency increases. Similar to Barnhardt (2001), however, my case studies showed that ESL students' grammatical errors increased as their English proficiency improved. This finding indicates that ESL students' grammatical errors reveal their developing knowledge or hypothesis in English language and perhaps their increasing willingness to take risks. Some of their grammatical errors may appear because ESL students think in a complex way. In other words, they make grammatical errors in English when they mobilize their linguistic knowledge in their native language, generate hypothesis about English, organize their ideas based upon their hypothesis about English and take risks to communicate in English. Considering that English is added into students' knowledge in their native language when they learn English as a Second Language, grammatical errors may be an indication of ESL students' richer linguistic capital rather than a lack of linguistic control (Bernstein, 1977; Cummins, 1979).

An important implication of the current study is that there are both similarities and differences between the processes of ESL learning and learning a native language. The oral primacy view suggests that ESL learning is similar to the process of learning a native language. My observations of ESL students' language learning affirmed the view that ESL students develop English language skills in phases. For example, young ESL students that I observed in a period of one academic year began with the initial observational phase, which is also called as the silent period in applied linguistics. During this phase, beginning ESL students mostly observe the language usage of their peers and teachers without producing any oral or written language. The next phase is the simple

utterance production phase. The nature and the length of ESL students' utterances seem to depend upon the personality of individual ESL students. Shy students seem to produce one word utterances, while outgoing students tend to produce longer sentences that seem to be based upon linguistic rules generated initially by their knowledge of native language in a combination with their emerging knowledge of English. Then, both shy and outgoing students move into the fluency phase in which they make many more utterances and linguistic errors in English (Barnhardt, 2001). However, unlike children who are learning their native language, ESL students do not develop English oral language skills before they develop written language skills. Rather, ESL students concomitantly develop English oral and written language skills as shown in my dissertation study. Thus, while there is similarity at a macro level between native language learning and learning English a second language, based upon my data, micro level differences do exist between the two language learning processes (August & Hakuta, 1997; McLaughlin, 1978). Understanding these micro level differences between first and second language learning will influence the effectiveness of an ESL curriculum.

The tension between accuracy and fluency

An implication of this work for ESL practice is concerned with the tension between accuracy and fluency during the beginning and intermediate phases of ESL learning. As I discussed in the intervention chapter, ESL students at these phases seem to be increasingly inaccurate while they become more fluent. Because accuracy is another important issue in communication considering the fact that our ideas can be misinterpreted and communication gaps can occur when we are not accurate in conveying our thoughts, the inconsistency between accuracy and fluency among beginning and

intermediate ESL students becomes an important instructional issue. For language minority children who are in the process of learning oral language and school discourse, there is ample research evidence that shows emphasis on accuracy leads to unintended negative consequences. Moll and his colleagues, based upon observations of reading instruction for young Spanish bilingual children by two teachers (i.e., a Spanish teacher and an English teacher), noted "the overriding concern of the lessons in English [was] decoding, pronunciation, and other forms related to the sounds of the second language" (Cazden, 1988, p. 84). Teachers' focus on accuracy and their "immediate correction inadvertently depressed both children's self-correction and their accuracy scores" (Cazden, 1988, p. 88). These examples suggest that ESL students are capable of language self-corrections, and the processes of making self-corrections are important in cognitive development. Thus, it is important to provide opportunities for ESL students and other language minority students to explore language independently and develop fluency while developing linguistic competence and accuracy in English.

In conceptualizing the balance between fluency and accuracy in language learning, it is important to consider the purpose and the scope of accuracy. To give an example from my personal experiences, I have finally decided to improve my knowledge and usage of definite and indefinite articles. I have not been working on my article usage in English because I found that articles are difficult grammatical features for me to tackle because they are nonexistent or unimportant in my native language. Recently, my dissertation director raised my awareness of improving my inattentiveness to English articles because accurate articles usage is important in academic writing. Because I possess strong aspirations to write for academic purposes, I have decided to improve my

knowledge of English articles. This example indicated to me that the development of linguistic competence is driven by purpose and context. Advanced linguistic accuracy, such as the acquisition of the rules of definite and indefinite articles, is important in certain areas such as academic writing, but essentially irrelevant in daily oral communication. In addition, my purpose for doing academic writing influences the importance of attending to the issue of linguistic accuracy. Thus, the tension between accuracy and fluency can be resolved through thoughtful considerations of the goals of language learning of individual ESL students.

In helping ESL students learn English successfully, teachers of ESL students need to understand how to set up classroom learning environment that promote self-exploration and self correction while developing fluency. Until ESL students gain linguistic and conceptual flexibility in English and monitor their own language usage appropriately, teachers' guidance plays a critical role in helping ESL students acquire linguistic and cognitive independence. Considering the variability and the importance of classroom contexts in language learning, we need to understand how effective teachers resolve the tension of balancing accuracy and fluency in language learning to successfully promote ESL students' language development.

ESL Assessment

Test sensitivity is an important issue considering that ESL students' linguistic fluency rather than accuracy may be a better indicator of language proficiency for beginning and intermediate ESL students. Test sensitivity refers to the level of effectiveness of an assessment measure for a specific purpose (e.g., assessing

effectiveness of an ESL program). Because ESL tests are developed based upon test developers' assumptions regarding language learning, there may be variability in test sensitivity. More specifically, to accurately assess ESL students' language development, educators should use ESL tests that are sensitive to beginning ESL students' language development, which may consider the issues of fluency and accuracy. For example, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test did not reveal any growth in language development for the two single subject experimental study participants during the study period, but the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey did reflect the progress that the two ESL students made in learning English. In the era of hyperaccountability when student performance on standardized tests critically influence the funding for educational programs and the existence of schools with a high proportion of ESL students, it is important to attend to the issue of test sensitivity and identify appropriate tests that are valid and reliable measures of student performance and instructional effectiveness (Pellegrino, Jones, & Mitchell, 1999)

Preparation of Teachers of ESL Students

Teachers are key players in providing effective instruction for ESL students. As I described in the case study chapter, general classroom teachers need to balance two competing instructional goals (i.e., holding grade level expectations while beginning with students' linguistic competence and providing scaffolding in the processes of developing linguistic, literacy, and cognitive skills). To meet such daunting instructional challenges, teachers need opportunities to develop knowledge, skills, and strategies, and dispositions to work with ESL students (Duffy & Roehler, 1993). Based upon my readings of conversations for the past few years in a bilingual list serve in which I participate, I found

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that one of the key instructional issues in ESL is general classroom teachers' lack of confidence and knowledge in working with ESL students. Considering that many general classroom teachers do not receive adequate training in this area, we need to find ways to support teacher learning through effective professional development activities (August & Hakuta, 1997; Little, 1993).

Focusing specifically on the knowledge and disposition necessary for the teachers of ESL students, the data from my case studies suggests that effective teachers possess at least three interconnected attributes. They have positive perspectives about ESL students. The three collaborating teachers seemed to perceive that ESL students were competent language users despite grammatical errors in the ESL students' utterances. They focused on what the ESL students were capable of doing while listening to the stduents and reading their written work. The second attribute of effective teachers of ESL students is holding high expectations for ESL students (August & Hakuta, 1997). Even when case study participants did not produce any oral language, or when their utterances were full of grammatical errors, the teachers invited ESL students to participate in all class activities. While providing linguistically and cognitively challenging activities, effective teachers individualize instructional and emotional support as the three collaborating teachers did so by observing personalities and the strengths of the ESL students and conversing with fellow teachers who knew the students and the processes of ESL learning and teaching to discuss how to provide better support for the ESL students. As such, effective teachers of ESL students possess certain knowledge and disposition. While there is an extensive body of research literature on the subject of the characteristics of effective teaching for ESL and bilingual students, most studies do not clearly describe

the criteria for instructional effectiveness (August & Hakuta, 1997). Thus, more rigorous research studies are needed to document the nature and characteristics of effective instruction and share research findings with teacher educators who work with inservice and preservice teacher population.

ESL Research

When I launched my dissertation study, I perceived quantitative and qualitative research paradigms to be incommensurable. Through my dissertation study, however, I have learned that the two research paradigms are complementary. More specifically, case studies helped me gain a deep understanding about students, teachers, and their learning contexts. My knowledge about individual research participants and the research context led me to identify key constructs for my single subject experimental research study. Through case studies, I learned that three conceptual categories (i.e., making language material, making language stand still, and rehearsal) served key functions of written language, and I used them as the basis of designing my single subject experimental research study. The single subject experimental research study, on the other hand, helped me review my coding scheme, and evaluate and reevaluate my assumptions, hypothesis, and assessment criteria. It also helped me make my thinking explicit and make my ideas comprehensible to others. I especially felt that the two research paradigms were complementary when my knowledge on learners, classroom contexts, and their learning opportunities helped me understand the meaning of numbers from the results of the single subject research study and enabled me to compose a narrative of the research participants. Using both case studies and a single subject experimental study allowed me to criss-cross landscapes of the written to oral

connection in ESL methodologically. Complementarity between the two research paradigms seemed also apparent when I used my understanding of reliability and validity to scrutinize my selections of examples that showed the written to oral connection in my case studies. Considering conceptual benefits of mixed research methods, we need to create research environment that encourages us to explore both research paradigms and "promote synergy and complementarity across methods" (P.D. Pearson, personal communication, 2003; Shavelson & Towne, 2002)

Delineating the complex nature of ESL learning and teaching in research requires researchers' flexible uses of research methodology. In ESL research, there has been a clear divide between cognitive and socio-cultural research perspectives, and each perspective has asked different questions and utilized different research methods (Snow, 1992). Considering that language learning takes place in a social milieu, understanding factors that influence the development of language proficiency for an individual requires "understanding that language is a sociocultural phenomenon as well as a cognitive achievement" (Snow, 199, p. 18). Thus, it seems quite plausible to make flexible uses of research methods. For example, by using both case study and single subject experimental method for the purpose of understanding the written to oral connection in ESL, I was able to understand the nuances of ESL learning, teaching, context and the intricate connection among them. Through the employment of methodological flexibility, I believe that researchers can make educational research relevant to the realities of learning and teaching in ESL and consequently contribute to ensuring effective instruction for all ESL students.

Limitations and Future Directions

Because my dissertation study is based upon a small number of participants and a specific learning context, findings and implications from my study may not be applicable to other groups of ESL students that may come from a drastically different context. Equally importantly, my research findings cannot be generalized to the overall ESL student population due to the small sample, both in the case studies and in the single subject experimental study. Limitations of my dissertation notwithstanding, the issue on the role of written language for young ESL students deserves more attention from the ESL research community because empirical studies in this area are extremely limited. To list a few future research possibilities, researchers should explore the possibility of developing new conceptual categories that describe the relationship between oral and written language in ESL. Considering that conceptual categories are a mere description of the written to oral connection, future research should also examine how we could use conceptual categories to guide instruction practice and eventually to promote effective instruction in classrooms. The results from my intervention study suggested that there is a possible interaction effect between students and the mode of instruction. Future search should explore the connection between ESL students and mode of instruction (i.e., oral language-based or integrated language-based instruction). Lastly, research studies are needed to understand whether the same type of the written to oral connection is evident with different groups of ESL students, especially the subset of ESL students who have performed poorly in U.S. schools.

By using mixed methods and triangulating research evidence from various data sources, I have tried to make my dissertation study an accurate representation of the

perspectives of ESL students and teachers and a realistic depiction of ESL practice. However, I cannot confidently claim that my attention to methodological rigor eradicated my personal bias. I suspect that my observations are inevitably influenced by my personal and professional experiences, and beliefs and aspirations engendered through my social network. Considering the role of researcher's personal experiences and beliefs in research, future ESL research may consider collaborative research projects by researchers whose life experiences and perspectives differ in various ways so that personal biases can be sifted through purposeful dialogues. One such example may involve an analytic study that compares and contrasts case studies conducted by various researchers in order to develop insights into improving case study methods and procedures (D.W. Rowe, personal communication, 2003).

My attempt to involve teachers in a dialogue on the written to oral relationship in ESL and effective instruction for ESL students is reflected in the fact that my research question evolved from observing classroom teaching practice and what teachers have mentioned during research meetings. We can envision different types of dialogues that engage teachers more actively and frequently during the research process, although the level of teachers' engagement in a research project may critically depend upon the purpose of a research study (Shavelson & Towne, 2002). Future research needs to consider the flexibility of the level of engagement of students, parents and teachers in a dialogue and may explore strengths and weaknesses of different levels of their involvement in research.

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