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ARTICLES

REVIEWS

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We begin this issue with findings from Keith Folse and Kate Bremmett, who argue the case for a separate ESOL grammar course in teacher education programs so content teachers will be knowledgeable about grammar issues that cause difficulty for ELs.

Gergana Vitanova raises interesting points about emergent teacher identity taking shape through discourse. She discusses the role that narrative discourse plays for TESOL practitioners in conceptualization of their teaching identities.

David Mumford ponders the role English plays in intergalactic travel and notes that English is the language of communication, even in outer space.

Dorry Kenyon, Carol Van Duzer, and Sarah Young have tackled the topics of aligning content standard with appropriate assessments. They analyze two popular assessments to determine their quality, validity, and reliability for evaluating oral and written proficiency in English.

Julie Alemany and Rudy Collum appraise the efficacy of a reading program model in a South Florida School to determine if its success could be applied to other schools.

Noorchaya Yahya and Joseph Furner address the importance of quality math programs for English learners. They describe how CALLA is a viable method to use in trying to reach this goal.

Reviews were submitted by Sherri Sacharow, John Graney, and Tiffany Patella. Topics covered were books for Latinas, writing process and structures, and language learning software.

Enjoy your summer!

Eileen N. Whelan Ariza
Editor

Keith S. Folse, University of Central Florida
Kate Brummett, University of Central Florida

PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR COURSES OFFERED BY MATESOL PROGRAMS IN FLORIDA

Written by a TESOL professor and an MATESOL student, this article offers a unique perspective on the potential role of a pedagogic grammar course within a teacher-training graduate program. In the United States, MATESOL programs are the primary producers of ESOL teachers; in Florida, no fewer than eight universities offer graduate degrees in TESOL or a closely related field. This article reports the results of a survey regarding the extent to which these eight programs offer a grammar course, which is considered by many to be an essential component in second language learning and therefore in advanced teacher training. Based on the results of this study as well as their experiences as MATESOL professor and MATESOL student, the authors discuss their rationale for suggesting that TESOL programs require a grammar course. The results of this study also include information regarding the various course materials and assignments, which could be adapted for use in K-12 in-service settings.

With almost 300,000 non-native English speaking students (MacDonald, 2004), schools in Florida continue to face a shortage of qualified teachers who are knowledgeable about key issues in second language learning and thus able to educate this group of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students effectively (Stebbins, 2002). At the same time, schools face serious accountability pressures from the 1990 Consent Decree between the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) and the Florida Department of Education, which requires that all LEP students receive equal access to programming that is appropriate to their level of English proficiency, and from No Child Left Behind, which mandates that students be retained if they do not satisfy state-established norms.

Just how serious is the situation for LEP students in Florida? In 2001, the retention rate for secondary level (grades 7-12) English Language Learners (ELLs) in Florida was a stunning 18.2%, which was one of the highest rates in the entire country (Kindler, 2002).

For comparison, the state of Texas, which also has a high population of ELLs, had a retention rate of 10.4%, which is about 43% less than that of Florida.

To improve the educational plight of ELLs, the Florida Department of Education guidelines, in direct response to the Consent Decree, requires that teachers of language arts and content areas, such as social studies and science, complete training in five key areas: ESOL methods, ESOL curriculum and materials, cross-cultural issues, applied linguistics, and ESOL evaluation. As Florida transitions to more inclusion classes for ELLs (Platt, Harper, and Mendoza, 2003), which would mean less direct emphasis on ESL issues, these areas and the amount of emphasis that each receives could be potential targets for reallocation.

While these five areas are certainly important in helping teachers understand how to teach ELLs better, we believe that a separate course in ESOL grammar is needed. Becoming familiar with ESOL teaching methods or testing procedures can empower content teachers who have had little to no previous training in second language education issues, but what is missing is a course that familiarizes these teachers with specific ESL grammar issues that make learning English or content through English so very difficult for ELLs. LULAC intended that content teachers comprehend why English is difficult for ESOL students and that the teachers develop not only empathy for the ESOL learners' plight, but also a knowledge base of the exact language problems and appropriate solutions. A course in pedagogical ESOL grammar—not a traditional grammar class of the eight parts of speech for native speakers—could play a pivotal role in achieving this goal.

Grammar can be taught directly or indirectly (Farrell, 2003; Master, 2003) and many people who have studied a second language acknowledge that grammar is a central component of any language. Because of the importance of grammar in second language acquisition and therefore, for teachers who work with students attempting to acquire English, the purpose of this article is to report on the availability and content of grammar courses in graduate teacher-preparation programs (i.e., MATESOL or similar) in the state of Florida.

Grammar in Second Language Learning and Teaching

It is an understatement to say that second language methodologies have treated grammar quite differently over the years. In fact, within the context of learning a second language, the role of grammar has ranged at times from inconsequential to detrimental, to tangential to fundamental. Methods may come and go, but all methods deal with grammar in some way.

Methodologies such as grammar-translation and audiolingualism were derived from the importance of grammar and structural patterns. In the strong form of the Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1985) claims that the primary sole ingredient necessary for second language acquisition was comprehensible input. Though many have taken this to mean that grammar is not important, language that contains unfamiliar structures is not comprehensible and therefore cannot be input. However, teachers who are not aware of what ESL grammar points are will hardly be able to modify their language so that it can become comprehensible input. Other scholars, such as Swain (1993), note an important role for input, but went one step further to call greater attention to the role of learner output. Learner output can serve both as a language attempt by the learner as well as in input for others, especially if it is successful in its communicative purposes.

Grammar is important in teaching ELLs of all ages, not just K-12 ESOL. For example, grammar remains a core course in many university and adult intensive ESL programs, it is a central topic in the teaching of composition at all levels, and it is used to determine the readability of texts for ESL learners, especially K-12 textbooks. Therefore, teachers should know not only the basics of English grammar (e.g., nouns, past perfect tense, dependent clauses) but also pedagogical grammar, which refers to both the teacher's knowledge and the learner's developing knowledge of the structure of English (Wang, 2003).

MATESOL Courses

In the United States, MATESOL programs are the primary producers of ESOL teachers. Each state has different requirements for ESOL teachers, and these requirements are reflected in the courses offered in MATESOL programs in that state. In Florida, the Department of Education requires courses (or in-service training) in only five areas: methods, curriculum and materials, culture, applied linguistics, and evaluation. As expected, these five courses form the backbone of most of the MATESOL programs here in Florida.

In addition to these five state-mandated courses, however, MATESOL programs require other courses to give teachers a more complete picture of the second language acquisition process. Some MATESOL courses offer perspectives on theory (e.g., a second language acquisition [SLA] course) or experience in the classroom (e.g., a practicum course). A perusal of the five MATESOL teacher-training programs in Florida that are listed on the Sunshine State TESOL website (www.sunshine-tesol.org) reveals that the programs offer courses in second language research, teaching composition, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), computer-assisted language learning (CALL), sociolinguistics, teaching reading, and grammar.

Improving MATESOL Preparation Programs

The importance of considering learners needs in second language classrooms is well-established (Ferris, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; Nunan, 1988a, 1988b; Rao, 2002; Rifkin, 2000; Spratt, 1999), and surely this same consideration must be given in parallel fashion to "learners" in MATESOL programs, i.e., graduate students. Teacher training programs are most effective when they offer courses that are meaningful to teachers' actual teaching contexts. Unfortunately, many graduate programs—including MATESOL programs—have traditionally focused on research. Not surprisingly, notable scholars in our field, such as Richards (1991), have criticized this traditional top-down approach in many teacher education programs where teaching is seen as an extension of research, instead of vice-versa. Cook (1999) provides a good rationale for a judicious look at research and its potential, yet limited, role in actual teaching methodology. Clearly, it is important to remember that TESOL begins with a T for teaching, not an R for research.

Fortunately, a growing interest exists among scholars in improving graduate TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programs (Amores, 1999; Mullock, 2003; Murphy, 1997; Porter & Taylor, 2003; Ramanathan, Davies, & Schleppegrell, 2001; Reichelt, 2003; Richards, 1998; Wang, 2003). Richards (1998), for example, laments the fact that university faculty in TESOL rely on traditional lectures and large group teaching in second language teacher preparation courses despite the push for alternative teaching methods, including reflective teaching.

Examining challenges in teaching SLA courses in MATESOL programs, Gorsuch and Beglar (2004) called for a greater awareness of faculty development in TESOL and applied linguistics as well as a new view of SLA teachers and students as stakeholders in SLA. Their interviews with current SLA professors revealed that the growth in the SLA field has meant diversification of research areas, which in turn makes it difficult to decide which of these topics should be covered in an SLA course. Graduate students in the survey noted that their SLA course is not user-friendly; students in the survey complained that the academic prose of SLA research was conceptually unclear, extremely detailed, and mired in technical jargon. (For a review of current options in SLA textbooks, see Ortega, 2001).

In a seminal study of the teaching of phonology in MATESOL programs, Murphy (1997) surveyed the content, objectives, and learning tasks of phonology courses offered through 70 MATESOL programs in the U.S. He reported details of the course design, including the focus, activities and tasks, and required texts and readings, as well as suggestions from the instructors themselves regarding ideas for improving their courses. His research highlights important weaknesses in how phonology is (or is not) dealt with in MATESOL programs, ultimately urging increased faculty assistance with helping MATESOL

candidates to apply key concepts to actual teaching, which makes the course material more relevant to classroom teachers.

Jones (2004) examined the role of a research course in an MATESOL program in Australia. This study details how three teachers progressed from novice researchers to teacher-researchers. The study provides an account of the transformation of these students into researchers, showing how their individual research projects were both relevant to the researcher's professional future and useful to the EFL teachers who participated in their studies. Clearly, these projects were often practical applications of language issues, that is, a combined focus on how to teach and what to teach.

In a particularly compelling discussion of how poorly U.S. MATESOL programs prepare students to teach abroad, Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey (1999) cite the real-world needs of classroom teachers. They unambiguously call for more emphasis on practical courses and less emphasis on theory. At the top of their list of suggestions for MATESOL programs is the necessity of "a general unit of courses in descriptive linguistics and English linguistics that would develop an awareness of the nature, structure, and functions of language in general and modern English in particular—including a course in pedagogic and functional grammar" (123).

An influential paper by Ellis (1998) provides an excellent overview of the benefits of combining both grammar teaching and grammar research. The wording in the title of the article, "Teaching and Research: Options in Grammar Teaching." Placing the word *teaching* before *research* is intentional. While Ellis's article is based on SLA research, this research is organized in teaching categories, which he calls "instructional options." As Ellis notes, "Teachers require and seek to develop *practical* knowledge; researchers endeavor to advance *technical* knowledge" (39).

Wang (2003) reports on the results of a survey of pedagogical grammar courses in the United States and Canada. An analysis of 39 questionnaires and 23 course syllabi provides indispensable information about the content and emphasis of these courses. This analysis sheds light on how pedagogical grammar is defined in current TESOL training programs, not just through the course description on the syllabi, but more importantly through an analysis of the tasks and assignments required in these courses.

Porter and Taylor (2003) detail how one of the oldest and largest MATESOL programs in the United States successfully blended theoretical knowledge about grammar with practical experience through the inclusion of a practical teaching component in their pedagogical grammar course, which precedes their actual teaching practicum course. Porter and Taylor urge faculty in other TESOL programs to adopt this pre-practicum teaching experience. Farrell (2003), Larsen-Freeman (2001, 2003), and Master (2003) offer detailed accounts of suggestions for specific types of activities to be used in MATESOL pedagogical grammar courses, activities that help connect current theory with actual classroom teaching.

In a more general study comparing MATESOL students' actual needs with MATESOL course offerings and assignments, Reichelt (2003) interviewed graduates at one MATESOL program to gather feedback for evaluating and potentially revising the program. Though generally positive about their overall education from the program, participants state a clear preference for a stronger practical component, including how to teach grammar.

Research Questions

To learn more about the depth and breadth of attention that Florida MATESOL programs give to grammar courses, we conducted a survey to document the availability, status, and content of such courses, focusing on the following five questions:

1. To what extent do MATESOL programs in Florida offer a grammar course?

2. What is the status of these courses within the program, i.e., required or elective?

3. How often is the grammar course offered during the year?

4. What materials are used in these courses?

5. What specific tasks or assignments are required in these courses?

Method

To determine which universities could be included in this study, both paper and electronic resources were reviewed. A search in Directory of Professional Preparation in Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada: 1999-2001 (Garshick, 1998) found six Florida programs. This information was then cross-referenced with information gleaned from an extensive Internet search, including the current list of schools posted at the Sunshine State TESOL website (www.sunshine-tesol.org). This second step added two more schools to bring the potential study sample size to eight. Individual websites were visited for each school for contact information and a preliminary search of courses offered. Telephone calls were placed to those schools for which the respective websites did not list a specific contact person or there was some question as to the degree level of the program.

Participants

Only programs leading to a Master's in TESOL (i.e., MATESOL) or a Master's in Education (or related field) with a concentration in TESOL were included in this study. The following eight schools met this criterion: Barry University (BU), Florida Atlantic University (FAU), Florida International University (FIU), Florida State University (FSU), NOVA Southeast University (NSE), University of Central Florida (UCF), University of Florida (UF), and University of South Florida (USF).

Instrument

A short survey (see Appendix A) was emailed to each of the contact faculty members at these eight schools. The survey asked whether or not the program had a grammar course, whether the course was required or elective, how often the course was offered, which materials were used, and what kinds of assignments were required. The response rate for this survey was 100%.

Findings

Per the inclusion guidelines of this study, eight schools were eligible to participate in this study. What follows are the survey data as they relate to each of the five research questions.

Question 1: To what extent do MATESOL programs in Florida offer a grammar course?

Of the eight schools in the study, five (63%) have a separate course for grammar. The three remaining schools gave no indication that they have plans to add a grammar course. In fact, several programs, including those that have a separate grammar course, indicated that grammar issues are covered in existing courses.

Question 2. What is the status of these courses within the program, i.e., required or elective?

At all five schools that offer a grammar course, the course is an elective. One school indicated that its grammar course will change from an elective to a required course by fall 2006, and another program indicated that it is considering making its existing grammar course a requirement.

Question 3. How often is the grammar course offered during the year?

Four of the five schools offer the course once per year; one offers it twice per year. At one school, the grammar course is also offered year-round as a correspondence course.

Question 4. What materials are used in these classes?

The five programs that have separate grammar courses utilize a variety of resource materials, including required textbooks or course packets, recommended textbooks, websites, and handouts for the their grammar courses. Table 1 lists the required texts; Table 2, recommended texts; and Table 3, recommended websites. Books by Azar; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman; and Firsten & Killian appear on more course syllabi, either as required or recommended books.

TABLE 1
Required Textbooks

Textbook Author and Title	Number of Programs
Celce-Murcia, M. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course (Second Edition). Boston: Heinle.	2
Firsten, R. & Killian, P. (2002). The ELT Grammar Book: A Teacher-Friendly Reference Guide. Burlingame, CA: ALTA.	2
Azar, B. Understanding and Using English Grammar. (The Series). White Plains, NY: Longman-Pearson.	1
Gilbert, J. B. (2005). Clear Speech: Pronunciation and Listening Comprehension in North American English (2nd ed.) (Student's Book). New York: Cambridge University Press.	1
Hinkel, E. & Fotos, S. (eds) (2002). New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.	1
Williams, J.D. (2005). The teacher's grammar book. (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.	1
Original course packet	1

TABLE 2
Recommended Textbooks

Textbook Author and Title	Number of Programs
Azar, B. (1998). Understanding and Using English Grammar. (3rd ed.). [3 levels] White Plains, NY: Longman-Pearson.	1
Celce-Murcia, M. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course (Second Edition). Boston: Heinle.	1
Murphy, R. (2000). Grammar in Use. [4 levels]. London: Cambridge.	1
Swan, M. & Smith, B. (Eds.) (1987). Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems. New York: Cambridge University Press.	1

TABLE 3
Recommended Websites

Website Address	Number of Programs
http://www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/wworkshop/grammar_handbook.htm	1
http://www.eslgold.com/ site.jsp? _sk=lkYinXAXGaIT6RN1&resource=pag_ex_resources_links_grammar	1
http://www.eslpartyland.com/teachers/nov/grammar.htm	1
http://www.gsu.edu/~wwwesl/egw/index1.htm	1
http://www.longman.com/ae/azar/grammar_ex/materials/index.htm	1
http://www.longman.com/cws/index.html	1
http://www.ohiou.edu/esl/teacher/grammar.htm	1
http://www.ompersonal.com.ar/omexercise/contenidotematico.htm	1
http://www.sitesforteachers.com/	1

Question 5. What specific tasks or assignments are required?

The participants were asked to identify which of the eleven listed tasks or assignments were required in their grammar courses. Space was left for participants to note any other tasks or activities not in this original list of eleven.

Table 4 identifies the eleven tasks and how many of the programs include the required tasks in their respective grammar courses. Only one task is common to all of the surveyed programs—students are required to develop an ESL grammar lesson plan. Four programs require students to do some micro-teaching and evaluate textbooks.

In the category "Final project", three programs gave details about their project requirements. At one program, students complete exercises in the grammar textbook [or workbook] and submit a fully developed lesson plan. At another program, students write a reflection paper based on the insights the various activities have given them through the course. At the third program, the final project requires students to analyze writing samples of ESL students, identify grammar errors, and develop treatment plans.

Only one program indicated something in the category "Other". In this program, the students complete descriptive grammar activities (i.e., "grammar detectives") where they gather data from the real world (e.g., comic strips, TV commercials, ads, overheard conversations, talk shows) to see how the grammar rules in a typical book do or do not apply in reality. They look at the effect of discourse and pragmatics on grammar.

TABLE 4
Required Tasks and Assignments

Task or Assignment	Number of programs
Develop ESL grammar lesson plans	5 (of 5 programs)
Micro-teach in the MATESOL grammar class	4
Evaluate ESL grammar textbooks	4
Observe a grammar class	3
Interview an ESL student	3
Develop materials to teach ESL grammar	3
Complete a final project:	3
Write a research paper	2
Evaluate ESL grammar websites	2
Micro-teach in an ESL class	1
Tutor an ESL student	1
Other	1

Discussion and Conclusion

With the high return rate (100%) of surveys in this study, we feel confident that the information presented in this article has captured an accurate picture of grammar courses in graduate programs within Florida.

Information was presented on the importance of grammar teaching in learning a second language. Grammar teaching, or the teaching of any subject matter, can only occur to the degree that the teacher knows the material and is comfortable enough with both the material and techniques for teaching.

Previous research reports on grammar courses in MATESOL teacher-preparation programs were reviewed as evidence that there is a need for more attention to grammar—whether in a separate course or integrated well into existing courses. Previous research also found that programs seem to assume that grammar is already well integrated into existing courses, but recent graduates report inadequate training in this area.

Based on this information, we believe that the question that we now face is not *whether* to offer a grammar course, but rather what should be included in this course. Through this statewide survey and

in follow-up email correspondence, we were able to compile a significant list of possible grammar course assignments. These activities cover the entire gamut of possible types, from linguistic analysis of actual written texts or speech excerpts to actual teaching of a grammar lesson to graduate student classmates or to ESL students.

Because this research report was written by a TESOL professor and an MATESOL student, it offers a unique perspective on the current question of grammar courses. Based on the information in this article as well as our individual experiences with a graduate grammar course from both sides of the coin, our conclusion is two-fold. One is related to language, the other to teaching.

First, grammar is important and truly merits being covered in a separate course. As noted earlier in this paper, other researchers have complained that it is too easy for MATESOL graduate courses to turn into linguistic analysis, at times along the lines of a particular professor's own research agenda or teaching preferences. In a separate grammar course, however, this prospect is less likely. The professor in a specialized course in grammar is more likely to know both theory and classroom ESL grammar. Our survey indicated that some programs assume that grammar is covered in other courses such as applied linguistics, which is a basic MATESOL course often taught by a variety of professors who may or may not have much experience in actual ESL classroom teaching. Since the professor in a separate grammar course is likely to appreciate the nuances of teaching, learning, and using grammar, the professor is more likely to have a background of both knowledge and experience.

Second, a pedagogic grammar course should cover not only information about grammar (i.e., linguistic analysis) but also, and more importantly, techniques. A pedagogic grammar course should include general information about teaching grammar, such as deductive versus inductive presentations, ways of handling grammatical errors, or even a list of common ESL grammatical errors and why they occur. However, it is also important to cover specific techniques for teaching specific grammar issues,

some of which may vary according to the learners' first language.

For example, consider present perfect tense. How should teachers teach the present perfect? It is certainly not enough to know the form of this tense (have eaten). French speakers have the present perfect form but no longer use simple past in everyday conversation, so they might overuse the present perfect in English. Spanish speakers have the present perfect form, but its usage does not overlap exactly with English, so that Spanish speakers might use a present tense form instead of present perfect (e.g., *I have five years here**). The complicating teaching issue is that present perfect tense actually has several distinct usages in English. It can be used for actions that are still true in the present (e.g., *I have lived here for five years*) and it can be used for actions that are completely finished, as in *I have already eaten*. This obstacle then demonstates the need for specific activities to help teach these points, but the activities hinge on the teacher knowing that this grammar point is indeed a problem for ELLs.

Clearly, it is not sufficient to know the name and function of the twelve verb tenses in English in this case. Linguistic knowledge is not the same as pedagogic information. For MATESOL graduates to be able to teach well, including helping their students with reading, writing, and speaking, knowledge of pedagogic grammar is crucial. Our research indicates that a majority of the MATESOL programs in Florida offer a grammar course. What we would advocate is that all programs have a required pedagogic grammar course combining both language and pedagogy with due emphasis on the T in TESOL.

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Appendix A

Thank you for participating in this brief descriptive study of "Pedagogical Grammar Courses in MATESOL programs in Florida."

To keep this process as simple as possible, just hit reply and answer the 8 questions here in your reply email.

1. Does your TESOL program have a course in pedagogical grammar? _____
(If no, go to #2.)
(If yes, go to #3.)

2. If your program does not have such a course, why is this the case?
(go to #8)

3. If yes, what is the name of the course?

4. Which textbook(s) and/or other materials are used in the course?

5. In a calendar year (3 semesters), how often is this class offered? (i.e., how many sections per calendar year)?

6. Does your course require:
___ observation of a grammar class
___ micro-teaching in the MATESOL grammar class
___ micro-teaching in an ESL class
___ writing a research paper
___ evaluating ESL grammar textbooks
___ evaluating ESL grammar websites
___ developing ESL grammar lesson plans
___ interview an ESL student
___ tutoring ESL student
___ developing materials to teach ESL grammar
___ completing a final project (if yes, please describe here)

Other features of your grammar course not covered in #6

7. What aspects would you change/add to make the best possible grammar course for MATESOL students?

8. These results will be submitted for consideration to be published in the Sunshine State TESOL Journal. Would you like to receive a summary of these results before the article is published?

Thank you for your participation!

Gergana Vitanova, University of Central Florida.

NARRATIVES IN TEACHER EDUCATION: USING AUTOBIOGRAPHY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITIES

This article examines the use of personal, autobiographical narrative in Teaching-English-as-Second-Language courses. Employing narrative as both a method and subject of inquiry, the article reflects current postmodern trends in applied linguistics. Specifically, it links narrative discourse with the development of early teacher identity. The paper outlines three major types of discourses that map out the identities of teachers-in-training in one TESOL program, and offers specific suggestions for teacher educators and administrators

We create ourselves out of the stories we tell about our lives, stories that impose purpose and meaning on experiences that often seem random and discontinuous. As we scrutinize our part in the effort to explain ourselves to ourselves, we discover—or invent—consistent motivations, characteristic patterns, fundamental values, a sense of self. Fashioned out of memories, our stories become our identities.

Drew Gilpin Faust

Introduction

Faust's quotation encapsulates the essence of narrative in general. Notably for this paper, it captures a critical aspect of the way human subjectivities develop. Narratives are not just stories about the past; rather, they function as a cognitive organizer that allows us to make sense of ourselves and to provide identity to individuals.

In this article, I will argue that it is through narrative discourse that emergent teacher identity takes shape, and that teacher educators should exploit this powerful purpose of narrative in the training of both pre- and in-service TESOL practitioners. The notion that narrative constructs and re-constructs the self has found support in the most recent

conceptualizations of identity, particularly the ones that reject an essentialist view of this construct. To elaborate, a humanistic, more traditional approach supports that any individual has an identity, and that this identity is unified, singular, and largely immutable. In other words, we all have an essential core that describes our selves. On the other hand, postmodernism argues that this view is rather simplistic. Postmodernists reject the unified and essentialist type of identity that Humanism embraces, and they prefer to use the term subjectivity. In this postmodern view, subjectivity is constituted through the multiple discourses that are available to a person. As Davies (1999) explains in a useful summary of this approach, we as individuals are constituted through the discourses in which we are being positioned at some point in time; it could be through our own speaking and writing, or through the ways others speak or write about us. We can only be what the available discourses allow us to be. What is particularly important here is that instead of seeing the subject as a singular, autonomous, free-wheeling entity, the postmodern understanding of the self views selfhood as socially constructed, fragmented, and fluid.

Narrative has assumed an important place in the recent discourse on identity. Some scholars, for example, argue that personal identity is not even contained within us but exists only as narrative (Currie, 1998, p. 17). The only way to explain who we are is to "tell a story, to select key events which characterize us and organize them according to the formal principles of narrative... This gives narration at large the potential to teach us how to conceive of ourselves, what to make of our inner lives and how to organize it," writes Currie (p. 17). In fact, in a fashion that resonates with the Russian scholar Bakhtin's (1981) views of language and the self, current theorists believe that personal identity is not holistic and unified; it is not contained in one single nucleus. Instead, it is located in the relation between the self and others.

Thus, in this paper, I suggest that personal, autobiographical narratives provide a fertile ground for externalizing the relationships between selves and different others. My goal here is twofold. First, I will briefly outline the role of narrative inquiry as a method and subject of study in the social sciences and its increasing presence in the fields of applied linguistics and second language acquisition. Then, I will present a specific example of how narrative discourse could be used to encourage the development of early teacher identity in one M.A. TESOL course.

Personal Narratives

Personal narratives have strongly established their presence across disciplines. For instance, scholars in cultural psychology (Bruner, 1986; Mishler, 1986) and education (Wortham, 2001) have all pointed out the relationship between narrativity and human consciousness. Narrative, to Bruner, is not just a story; it is a way of human knowing. In a more recent work on autobiography, the psychologist (Bruner, 2003) equates "self-making" (p. 210) with a narrative act. In these makings of the self, humans draw on individual memories, feelings, ideas, and beliefs. At the same time, much of this process is based in implicit cultural expectations about what we should do or be. In this sense, personal narratives are autobiographic and based on our unique experiences, but they are also a product a particular culture and evaluated through the prism of this culture's values and expectations. "A self-making narrative is something of a balancing act," writes Bruner (2003, p. 218). It is personal, but on the other hand, it must relate to others—"to friends and family, to institutions" (p. 218). In a similar vein, French scholar Barthes (cited in Polkinghorne, 1988) claims that narratives perform significant functions at least two levels. At an individual level, when people narrate their own lives, it helps them to construe what they are, where they currently are, and where their futures are headed. At a cultural level, narrative functions as a transmitter of beliefs and shared values. In my use of students' narratives as a teacher educator, I have relied on exactly this dual function of narrative, on this interplay between the uniquely autobiographical and the social.

The role of the narrative in understanding of the self has been so influential, that scholars have introduced the notion of narrative psychology. Sarbin

(1986), for example, proposes the narratory principle "that human beings think, perceive, imagine, and make moral choices according to narrative structures" (p. 8). To Sarbin and others, the narrative is an organizing principle for human action. In this sense, we each write our own life story; in evaluating our past, we are also constructing our present selves. Rosenwald and Ochberg (1992) have summarized this value of autobiographical narratives:

> How individuals recount their histories—what they emphasize and omit, their stance as protagonists or victims, the relationship the story establishes between teller and audience—all shape what individuals can claim of their own lives. Personal stories are not merely a way of telling someone (or oneself) about one's life; they are the means by which identities may be fashioned (p. 1)

Personal narratives have another important function—they could be transformational. As educational researcher Wortham (2001) explains, in autobiographical narratives, narrators may adopt a specific, more powerful interactional position, and in telling the story from this empowered position, they may transform themselves.

All these values of personal narrative have been recognized by the field of teacher education in general. Narrative, in particular, has been explored in research on teacher education by scholars like Clandinin and Connelly (2000). Stories and story telling, according to their research, demonstrate what teachers know about teaching, their beliefs, moral and socio-cultural values. They help articulate core principles about teachers' instructional practices. Similar to the ways narratives enable selves to make sense of who they are, and what their positions are in the world, stories allow teachers to make sense of their professional worlds and outline their professional positions. In this vein, teachers' narratives have become a tool for teacher development as narrative inquiry allows teachers to connect their professional learning and instructional practices with their life histories as people. This understanding of teaching as an activity of interpretation and reflection has established itself also through the work of Shulman (1987), Carter (1992),

Connelly and Clandinin (1988) and others.

Recently, narrative research has gained increasing significance in the field of second language acquisition (see Pavlenko, A., 2001; Pavlenko, A. & Lantolf, 2000; Norton Peirce, 1995; Vitanova, 2005). Acknowledging the role of narrative approaches to research in psychology and anthropology, Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) investigated the formation of identity through the memoirs of bilingual writers. Pavlenko and Lantolf reject a more traditional, structural approach to second language acquisition and claim that personal narratives are "a legitimate source of data on the learning process by teasing out in a theoretically informed way insights provided by the life stories of people who have struggled cultural border crossings" (p. 158). Norton Peirce (1995), who is also interested in social identity, analyzes the personal narratives of second language learners mainly through interviews and diaries. What is especially significant in her work is that she adopts a poststructuralist approach to identity in her narrative analysis. Building on postmodern theories, Peirce asserts a view, in which the self has a multiple nature, is fragmented, and is constantly changing over time.

In her work on second language learners' agencies, Vitanova (2005) argues that narratives are an essential form of authorship. She takes a somewhat different theoretical approach from other studies that use narratives in that she adopts a dialogical, Bakhtinian perspective to language. In her view, narratives become the interactional space for contesting others' voices, re-accentuating one's utterances with new meanings, and re-inventing the self through another. These recent studies in second language acquisition, though employing different theoretical perspectives in their analysis, have firmly established the role of personal narratives as both a source of data and a method of inquiry.

In TESOL education, in particular, the role of reflective practice has been recognized for some time now. For instance, Richards (1996) points out that we should approach the research in teaching "from the inside" (p. 281), and that by acknowledging real teachers' voices, we should shift our focus to the everyday realities of teaching. According to Richards,

we can accomplish this shift only if we explore teachers' experiences and perceptions. Johnson and Golombek (2002) have taken a specific turn to the narrative in second-language teachers' development. In an edited volume, they present a collection of teachers' stories from the classroom, and then, in a more recent article (2004), they analyzed how these stories reflect the emotional and cognitive development of teachers. As Golombek and Johnson (2004) eloquently explain, "The stories resulting from inquiry enable teachers to organize and articulate what they know and believe about their teaching" (p. 309). Similar to research in teacher education in general, the narratives Johnson and Golombek present come from the classroom; in other words, the reflection is on instructional practices. In contrast, in my paper, I have chosen to analyze a different type of narrative, in which the focus is on the personal and autobiographical.

The Narrative Inquiry

While narrative research in teacher education has been primarily interested in teachers' storied knowledge of teaching, in how the stories reveal what they already know about teaching, I was interested in what narrative can tell us about how professional knowledge emerges from the personal realm and what discourses are implicated in this process. Several questions guided me in exploring the role of personal narrative in TESOL education:

1. How do autobiographical experiences of learning and schooling shape students' emergent teacher identities?

2. What central discourses do students employ in narrative?

3. What is the function of personal narrative in the development of early teacher identities?

The Narrative Discourse Examples

The examples for this presentation come from the narratives written by 25 MA TESOL students in a semester-long course at a metropolitan Florida university. The primary purpose of the course was to introduce students to basic concepts of second language education and to the variety of materials available to teachers of English. Students' backgrounds

were varied, but were primarily pre-service. Their ages varied from 25 to 50.

The narrative assignment allowed for significant flexibility in letting students choose what experiences they wanted to focus on and what past aspects of growing up, learning, or schooling they found most worth exploring. The students determined how these particular aspects contributed to their current beliefs, values, and positions about teaching English as a second language. In addition to the narrative, students wrote reflections on the first day of class and another on the last day of class. Throughout the semester, the instructor and students communicated regularly through email discussions about the value of their reflections and narrative writing. Follow-ups through face-to-face communication or email were conducted with some of the students when clarifications were needed (the clarifications concerned statements made by the students in their written narratives). For the purposes of this paper, only written narratives will be examined, however.

Theoretical Orientations

Because of the wide scope of issues that can emerge in personal narratives, it may feel overwhelming to sort through the data initially. Thus, I have found it helpful to utilize the notion of discourse in relation to identity as a unit of analysis. In analyzing discourse, I was guided by a prevalent assumption in current approaches to identity. These approaches, as mentioned above, have recognized that our daily lives are underscored by the utilization of multiple discourses. One of the major questions I had was what discourses the TESOL students, who participated in this project, invoked when reflecting on personal experiences and how these experiences stirred them on the path of second language teaching.

Accordingly, in the following sections, I will present examples illustrating the types of discourses students engaged in and the way these discourses constituted emergent teacher identities. A word of caution would be helpful here. While I mention the major types of discourses, I should emphasize in the beginning that these discourses are not isolated entities. Instead, they were fluid, constantly intersecting each other, never independent, stand-

alone units. As James Paul Gee (1999) explains in his well-known work, discourses are not units with clear boundaries; they can split into more discourses; they can merge and meld together (Gee, 1999, p. 21). Explaining the role of discourses, Gee offers a useful metaphor. Each discourse, he suggests, may be envisioned as represented on a map of a country where the boundaries are not strictly fixed. Such a map, claims Gee, is "a Discourse grid against which you understand your own and other's thought, language, action, and interaction... It is, as it exists across people and social groups, both the origin and the product of the reality of actual Discourses in the world, aligning and disaligning themselves with each other through history" (p. 23). I have found Gee's metaphor useful in conceptualizing the role and purpose of personal narrative and its analysis. In this vein, the narrative can function as the mediational ground in which we employ different discourses to make sense of relations with others, to connect our individual histories with the present, our deeply personal experiences with the professional and in this way, to map out identities.

So what were the discourses on which the students mapped out their early professional identities?

Personal/Autobiographical Discourse

The realm of what I call *personal/autobiographical* discourse encompassed a multitude of discourses. These discourses included family, community, and schooling. It was in this realm that values and beliefs first originated. At the same time, it was also the realm in which awareness of language and the ways language is used was first realized. One student, for example, located the origin of her interest in literacy and education within her family:

My parents always stressed the importance of literacy and education. Not a day went by without hearing these words from their lips: "An education is the best investment that you can make in yourself and in others." (Ellie)

Another student, for whom English was a second language, chose this learning experience as the basis of her beliefs for language teaching in general:

Considering my background in music education, I don't have a lot of experience in teaching language; however, since I learned English as a

second language when I was an adult, I believe that there are different components that play important roles in language teaching. I believe that listening to native speakers is very important... (Martha)

Some students described circuitous paths on the way to a Master's program in TESOL. Sally, for example, describing her lived experiences, traced her immigrant East European background and her military career and how both ultimately contributed to her decision to enroll in a Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) program. Others positioned themselves as part of a more traditional and even privileged discourse of schooling and learning. A case of point is Tom's story. Tom's interest in language studies originated while he was enrolled in a private college in Florida. In what he describes as a "comfortable atmosphere," he took German and then, French and Russian from engaging, motivated instructors, who were frequently native speakers of the language. Tom's upper-middle class background allowed him not only feel at ease in the classroom, but also made it possible for him to make trips to Europe where he could improve his conversational skills in the foreign languages he was studying. His instructors and their own practices helped formed his early beliefs about how a foreign language should be taught. He remembers, for instance, "the well-enunciated pronunciation pattern" of his native-speaking Russian teacher and the many charts with grammar forms he had to learn in her class. Tom found learning the grammar charts "helpful" and even enjoyable. His language courses and, later, his study programs in Germany, molded his understanding of the importance of linguistic patterns and precision in the acquisition of other languages. On one hand, because of his being able to live in a foreign language and culture, Tom has learned to value the communicative aspects of learning and teaching a language over the years. On the other hand, as the most rewarding teaching experience, in his narrative, he has singled out an occasion in which he helps a student identify and modify a persistent grammar error in her writing:

It was amazing to watch her [the student's]

face change as I explained why she was making the mistake. She is a good student and is very interested in moving forward with her skills. She thanked me more than once, telling me that she had learned so much in the past month of my class, because I was able to rephrase or illustrate the grammar in such a way that she could always understand (Tom).

In the beginning of his teaching career, Tom, the epitome of the good language learner himself, has found that he best identifies and connects with other motivated students in a private language program.

While reading about students' life experiences is certainly fascinating, what is more interesting for the purposes of this paper is the way this discourse of the personal/autobiographical merges with two other central discourses: critical/transformational and professional. Moreover, the connection from the personal to the critical or the professional discourse was seamless, occurring within the same paragraph or even sentence.

Transformational/Critical Discourse

In their narratives, students did not merely recount past events or characters, but reflected critically on them as they positioned their stories in specific social and cultural contexts. Within the realm of critical discourses, students employed discourses of ethnicity and race. One example comes from Janet, who wrote about her years of schooling:

> Still, years through school were often less than positive. Racial violence pervaded my middle school in South Florida (neo-nazi hate groups once spray-painted swastikas on the walls). In my adolescence, I became exceedingly self-conscious of my own difference and quickly lost my interest in learning Spanish or Hebrew—languages I associated with my ethnic background.

Janet, the young woman who wrote the paragraph above, didn't merely narrate a negative experience. In the very same paragraph, we can hear not only her analytical voice, but also an agentive presence. These experiences were also the source of transformational power for Janet and, ultimately, prompted her to choose a career in education.

Still, the racial divisions that I encountered made me keenly aware of the dangers of cultural ignorance and intolerance. From these events, I developed a deep-seated interest in the resolution of such conflicts and a conviction in the value of education as a tool in this process, which would later attract me to language studies and global education.

Janet's narrative discourse is a perfect illustration of the permeability of discourses, in this case—autobiographical discourse intersecting the critical/transformational.

Narratives could be a valuable transformative tool. In narratives, we not only talk about how others position us in different context, but we also get to position ourselves. One female student's narrative provides a good illustration of this phenomenon. Amy was adopted by an American couple from a Chinese orphanage when she was a little girl. She couldn't speak any English when she arrived in the United States, and, thus, she set out on her experience of learning English as a second language. During her childhood, Amy found herself "lost between two worlds, the east and the west." Her adoptive parents attempted to erase her Chinese identity completely. She was not allowed to speak Chinese, to eat Chinese food, or have any contact with anyone remotely looking Chinese. In an attempt for her to learn English quickly, her parents enrolled her in what Amy describes "a very strict Catholic school," in which a preferred technique of teaching English was corporal punishment and humiliation in front of the whole class:

> One teacher made me stand up in class to repeat any word that I did not pronounce correctly. I was not allowed to sit down until I pronounced each word correctly. I often failed and cried... The class would laugh at my Chinese accent and continue to ridicule me before, during, and after school. (Amy)

In these excerpts, Amy invokes two powerful discourses: discourses of exclusion and inequality. Ironically, later in life, when she enrolled in a course in Chinese art and theater in New York City, she felt excluded again; this time by her Chinese teachers and classmates and was labeled as "ABC" (American

Born Chinese). Some literacy scholars have used the term "hybrid identities" (Gutierrez, Baquedano, & Tejeda, 2000) to refer to people belonging to two cultures. Amy, however, was not allowed to develop an identity in either culture.

Amy's personal history as a child and adolescent is more than just an account of her experiences; rather, it shaped her present and her professional choices. These experiences of humiliation and exclusion created the ground for a powerful transformation—a transformation that she chose to take with her to her own second-language students. As an adult, after visiting the Chinese orphanage where she grew up, Amy made an important decision that was not individual:

> I returned to the United States and I decided that I wanted to make a positive change to the traditional educational system. I decided to become an affective, holistic, communicative teacher; help children and adults enjoy learning English as a second language and other life skills... I taught my students to be proud of their international ethnicity and how to survive within the American mainstream society. They learned how to use the power of the English language to improve their life.

In her previous narrative excerpts, Amy is being positioned by others—her parents, her teachers, her native-speaking classmates in a powerless, silent position of someone who looks different and speaks with an accent. In the last example, however, Amy positions herself as an agent. She has assumed this agentive/transformational position not just for herself, but also for her international students. In this way, the personal autobiographical discourse has become critical, and both have shaped Amy's early professional identity.

Appropriation of Professional Discourse

The multiple discourses Amy employs in her narrative articulate and help externalize multiple identities as well. We saw her positioned by others, we saw her reflecting on her powerless position analytically, and finally, we saw her as an agent,

someone who has adopted a critical discourse in her own classroom. At the same time, as the last excerpt illustrates, Amy's narrative reveals that she has appropriated yet another discourse: the discourse of her new profession. This is illustrated by the use of specific terms she uses, in this case "communicative," "holistic," and "affective."

Again, the transitions between these discourses are seamless and fluid. The appropriation of professional discourse is intimately interwoven with the fiber of the personal, and there are many examples that illustrate this. While reflecting on her home-schooling experience, another student, Katie, credited her mother with instilling the most important values and beliefs about learning and teaching—beliefs that this student still held, but now, being enrolled in a TESOL program, she also had the metalanguage to explain or name these beliefs:

> A third important lesson I learned from my mother was the idea of when to correct and when to encourage...Now as a teacher in training, I realize that it is this balance of instruction and encouragement that allows a student to be motivated without early fossilization, whether they be learning a native language or a second/foreign language.

Balance of instruction, fossilization, and motivation are terms that were discussed in this particular course, and it is obvious that Katie has begun to appropriate the discourse of the discipline in this excerpt.

The transition from the personal to the professional was evident, regardless of the experiences students selected to write about in their narratives. Students' personal experiences as learners and their histories as human beings have produced the core of their emergent professional subjectivities. A male student, for example, summarized the value of writing the narrative:

> I feel that my own personal experiences learning second languages have given me an empathy, or at least an understanding of my students and what some of them are seeking.

Conclusion

I have used these examples of narrative discourse to demonstrate that autobiographical narratives can be used as a valuable mediational and even transformational tool in teacher education courses. By enabling teachers in training to explore personal values and connect them to the field of teaching, narratives can function as the bridge between the realm of the personal and the realm of the professional discourse. It allows them to name their beliefs by using the expert pedagogical knowledge they acquire in their current programs of study. To borrow again and expand on James Gee's metaphor, we can envision narrative as the map, on which we use discourses as grids, to fashion out identities and to understand relationships with others. Some students, who came from more privileged backgrounds and described predominantly positive learning and schooling experiences, positioned themselves as linguistic authority figures in relation with their students. Because of her home-schooling experience and her mother's influence, Katie saw herself as a nurturer in the classroom. The grids on the map, however, are not immovable. For example, because of the experiences she lived as a child and adolescent, Amy, the student mentioned earlier in the paper, has chosen to transform the discourses of exclusion, into which she was positioned, into a discourse of power, not just for herself, but also for other immigrant students. Thus, she has affirmed an identity of a social agent in the classroom.

To summarize, scholars across different disciplines—psychology, anthropology, education, and applied linguistics—have claimed that narrative analysis allows for the systematic study of personal meaning. Trainers of second language teachers can tap into the nature of narrative as the mediational ground in which humans use different discourses to make sense of their past experiences and present realities, to enact and re-enact relationships with others (influential characters from their past, like teachers, parents or institutions). In their narrative utterances, they can invoke others' voices: Tom, for instance, embraced the voices of his foreign language teachers in creating his own teacher voice. In contrast, Amy challenged the oppressive voices of her own teachers and classmates, and through this challenge, she re-positioned the grids of her discursive landscape to negotiate a more powerful, agentive presence. In this process of re-living and re-inventing events, positioning and re-positioning selves, teachers-in-training not only discover who they are as human beings but also who they are as professionals.

The goal of this paper has been to show how personal narrative inquiry can benefit teachers-in-training in articulating their evolving professional identities. However, the application of personal narratives can be versatile and used as a tool of teacher development in a variety of contexts. Teacher educators can invite both pre- and in-service teachers to reflect on their life histories, the formation of personal beliefs and values, and interpret how these ideas become incorporated in their pedagogical knowledge and classroom practices. Administrators can encourage their experienced ESOL teachers or teacher trainers, depending on the nature of the department, to write stories about their teaching and initiate a dialogue about their experiences.

In this particular paper, my focus was on personal, autobiographical narratives because I was interested in teachers-in-training. Seasoned teachers, on the other hand, may benefit from exchanging stories about their curriculum and teaching practices. These narratives could be produced as a writing task or could be oral. Some prompts that teacher educators, administrators, and language teachers may use for a narrative task could be:

- Who are the people (teachers, students, writers) that have influenced your attitudes and your assumptions about the process of language learning? About teaching? What does it mean to be a successful teacher, and how have (or can) you become one?
- Memories of the significant literacy events in your life that defined your literacy behavior and attitudes toward language learning and literacy today. What was the role of family, community, and school in this process? Include the people and practices that supported your development. How have these memories influenced your beliefs

about language teaching today and about the teacher you are (or will be)?

- How has your journey as a foreign/second language learner contributed to your current beliefs, attitudes, and expectations about the process of language learning and teaching? What specific experiences led to your decision to become a language teacher and to the idea of what it means to be a successful language teacher?
- If you already teach, please clearly illustrate the connection between these experiences and your classroom practices.

The participants in the assignment could be encouraged to include any supporting materials (e.g., photos) to illustrate their narrative. The length of the writing assignment could be specified, or it could be left up to the narrators. One reason student teachers like this assignment is precisely because of its flexibility. The prompts above could be modified depending on the specific context and the level of experience. In the case of more experienced teachers, as they draw on pedagogical knowledge and instructional wisdom, the power of narratives may be used to revisit existing curricula, revise positions in relation to their students, and if needed, bring a transformation to the classroom.

Most important, by asking teachers (novice or experienced) to engage in narrative reflection, we ask them to re-examine some already established routines and practices. We also ask them to address the most challenging, often mystifying aspects of teaching and learning, which they may not even realize exist, and to bring these issues to conscious knowledge.

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TESOL AND THE EXPLORATION OF SPACE

Because English is one of the dominant languages in space, it is fitting to show how the teaching and learning of English plays a vital role in daring to lead the Earth's global community to the far reaches of intergalactic territories. Humankind's ventures into space have always been closely associated with the English language. From the very first manned high altitude balloon flights that kissed the outer edges of Earth's atmosphere, to the visions of the international colonization of Mars and beyond, this study takes a glimpse of how English has been permanently interwoven into the very fibers of these endeavors. This work demonstrates the importance of English in all aspects of space exploration and emphasizes the need to help preserve and promote the use of English in Space via Education.

TESOL and the Exploration of Space

The theme of this year's TESOL International Convention in Tampa, Florida is "Daring to Lead." What better subject to talk about, then, than the leading role TESOL can take in the exploration of space? Space exploration is a global effort involving many countries in the international community countries such as Japan, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Canada, and Brazil to name only a few. English is the dominant language in space where these members of this global community gather round in order to effectively communicate far beyond the grips of Earth's gravity. Men and women from all of these countries and from all walks of life are participating in a fabulous journey to the unknown. But how do they learn the communal language of this exploration? This paper will look at three major periods in the spectrum of mankind's quest to know the universe and extend itself beyond the cradle of the mother planet. It will show how the teaching and learning of English has played, continues to play, and will play a vital role in leading the human spirit to the far reaches of intergalactic territories. The paper will be divided into three parts, conveniently categorized by the historical development of space exploration.

History

The first space explorers were daring young military men that actually did not quite make it all the way into the depths of outer space; however, they kissed the edges of it and reached the upper regions of the stratosphere to receive magnificent, close-up views of celestial bodies. Manned, high-altitude

balloons made the first pictures of the curvature of the Earth possible. In 1935, Albert W. Stevens of the U.S. Army Air Corps took pictures from his Explorer 2 balloon at a peak altitude of 72,395 feet (Ordway III, Adams & Sharpe, 1971, p. 93).

Navy Commander Malcolm D. Ross and civilian Charles B. Moore reached the upper atmosphere in a United States Navy high altitude balloon. On November 28, 1959, nestled in their balloon gondola appropriately named Strato-Lab, just outside of Rapid City, South Dakota, the balloonists ascended to a record height of 81,000 feet before descending and safely landing near Manhattan, Kansas the following day. They took the English language with them. The event was chronicled by U.S. Navy photojournalist, Lt. Commander Richard Jack Mumford, who laminated the project into articulate words that the entire English-speaking world could understand through the media of press, television and radio (Mumford, U.S. Navy Photo). Subsequently, Commander Ross went on to establish a record manned flight of 113,739 ft. on May 4, 1961 (Ordway III, Adams & Sharpe, 1971, p.93). The race to outer space had begun.

Although these events were just a beginning, manned, high altitude balloons proved to have severe limitations in the ascent to outer space. Several balloon disasters brought the demise of this type of exploration, but not before bringing to humans valuable data necessary to push much further into the stratosphere and beyond. Rocket-powered airplanes (e.g., X-15) and the birth of rocketry discouraged manned high-altitude balloon exploration on earth; however, the future of balloon exploration looks bright for their reconnaissance potential.

The use of rockets for space exploration was the logical step forward, and it was a man by the name of Wernher von Braun who stepped forward and brought the vision of space travel and exploration to a tangible reality. The father of modern rocketry, Wernher von Braun was German, caught in the terrible net of the ruthless Nazi regime. However, to communicate with the people who actually had the resources for space exploration, the Americans, Wernher von Braun, out of necessity, needed to speak English. Because of his genius in rocketry, he needed very desperately to convey his knowledge in English, especially due to the circumstances in which he found himself. To work with Americans and help with his invaluable knowledge of science and technology, Wernher von Braun would have to convey this knowledge in the English language and convey it effectively. He did this by learning English the hard way: total immersion in the culture.

When he first came to the United States towards the end of WW II, his knowledge of the English language was quite limited. However, once Wernher von Braun was in the United States, his extroverted personality allowed him to mix easily in the American culture. Before long, von Braun's knowledge and unyielding enthusiasm for the conquest of space compelled him to convey his message to the masses (Dickson, 2001, p.68). This was accomplished through the media of television. One of the most popular programs of the day (1954), "The Wonderful World of Disney," allowed von Braun to effectively deliver his message. Author Marsha Freeman (1993) described the series in the following way: "The films combined imaginative animation of trips to space stations and the Moon and sequences with actors with appearances by the consulting experts, such as von Braun, to explain the basic concepts of rockets and space travel" (p.235).

Wernher von Braun became a household name in the United States (Dickson, 2001, p. 19). This could be attributed largely in part to his verbal skills and his ability to reach the American public via the English language. He had come a long way from the throes of Hitler's regime to freely speaking English to a people hungry and open to creativity and imagination.

When human beings first started going up into space, they took the spoken English language with them. The first sub-orbital flights were short and most of the language spoken was technical using original expressions such as "A-Okay", "Roger," "All systems go," and "I read you loud and clear." Curiously, each word or expression had its own fraternal evolution. For example, Author Tom Wolfe (1979) explained that the famous expression "A-Okay" "was borrowed from NASA engineers who used to say it during radio transmission tests because the sharper sound of "A" cut through the static better than "O" (p.270).

Not too much time was allotted for looking out the Mercury capsule's window and peering into the blackness of space. What little time was reserved for that produced such awe that words were few and far between. The first words of Alan Shepard, the first American in Space, were, "What a beautiful view" (Wolfe, 1979, p. 261). When orbital flights extended the time in space to over an hour, English language expressions still did not evolve all that much. John Glenn, the first American in orbit, managed to quickly blurt out, "Oh! That view is tremendous" (Wolfe, 1979, p. 320). The final Mercury flight with Gordon Cooper's historic 17 orbits around Earth produced such descriptive, heavily-Oklahoma-accented expressions as, "Feels good buddy... All systems go," "Working just like advertised," and "Down there's the Himalayas" (Wolfe, 1979, p.407).

When human space flight expanded to the Moon, the first experience was still so awe inspiring that words had little effect on describing the experience and the views. On the way to the Moon, Apollo 8 astronaut Jim Lovell said the following: "I'm looking out my center window which is a round window, and the window is bigger than the earth is right now." Mission Control responded, "That must be quite a view." On the same mission, astronauts Anders, Lovell and Borman were so strapped with words upon orbiting the Moon that they simply read to planet Earth the first ten chapters of Genesis from the Bible and left it at that. "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth...." (Barbour, 1969, pp. 150-151).

Neil Armstrong's now famous quote, "That's one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind," was well rehearsed on Earth well before it ever reached the Moon. Astronaut Pete Conrad's first words on the Moon were not too much more articulate. Climbing down from the ladder on Apollo 12's Lunar Lander, the moonwalker stated exuberantly: "Whoopee! Man, that may have been a small step for Neil, but that's a long one for me" (Collins, 1988, p. 156).

Although these words have now gone down in history for the world to ponder, they did little to effectively describe the experience. Neil Armstrong, an engineer by trade, was never a man for words anyway; but his brilliance as a test pilot, astronaut and moonwalker well compensated for any linguistic shortcomings.

When short one-week round trips to the Moon gave way to much longer stints in space, the better the descriptions of the experience became. Long, two-week plus orbital missions of the space shuttles provided space explorers more time to savor the experience and contemplate the significance of Earth's place in the universe and mankind's place on Earth. More vivid, creative, and expressive language started to emerge in the astronauts' repertoire of language and vocabulary. For example, Story Musgrave (1999), legendary astronaut who helped to repair the Hubble Telescope, started writing poetry about the experience of space walking and then having to confront a mammoth vehicle with the planet Earth serving as a backdrop to the scene. Musgrave's many spirited poems, such as "Pockets Filled with a Picnic Lunch," "Spacial Speed," and "Oh Bahamas," capture the very human essence of space flight by using vivid, descriptive adjectives and powerful, animated words that tantalize the senses (Musgrave, 1999).

Of course, Story Musgrave had formal, advanced training in the English language, which probably enabled him to think on a poetic level and write with the beautiful, impressive vocabulary that he uses in his poetry. Even with all his advanced degrees in science, he managed to obtain a Master of Arts degree in Literature from the University of Houston in 1987 (Musgrave, 1999). This also reaffirms astronaut Michael Collins' call for more people with a dominion of language to explore space; "What the space program needs is more English majors" (Farmer & Hamblin, 1970, 121). Story Musgrave heeded this call. The description of planet Earth, captured in written, poetical form by an orbiting shuttle astronaut – like a star streaking across the planet – had come a long way since the last Mercury astronaut crudely blurted out between tasks: "The Himalayas are down there."

The space shuttles also serve as living language laboratories, especially when the crews are comprised of many nationalities for each flight. Although the first space shuttle crew members were mostly Americans, it was not long before it became common practice to find that many space shuttle missions were predominantly

international in nature. Space shuttle crews became a literal potpourri of men and women representing a wide variety of cultures from around the world. They proved to the world that people from diverse countries, backgrounds and genders could live and work in space in peace and harmony for the betterment of planet Earth. The English language was there, serving as a Lingua Franca for all on board.

Each astronaut from a non-speaking English country had to have experienced his or her own relationship with the English language previous to the flight, either by using and studying it from early childhood, taking formal courses in their formal education, or having to take special preparatory crash-courses in order to survive with the other crewmembers. The crew members had to learn the special vocabulary that accompanied the spacecraft itself: for example, the cabinets to store foodstuffs, the kinds of tools used to do repairs, the names of the countless buttons to be pushed on every panel and gadget, etc., etc. Simply knowing the original space flight vocabulary such as "Roger", "A-Okay", "All systems go" and "Read you loud and clear," was no longer sufficient.

The entire space shuttle program is peppered with international flavor. It could never have been the same without this global participation. Other participating countries with international astronauts on board the varying shuttle flights included the following: Canada, England, Spain, Peru, France, Italy, Russia, the Ukraine, India, China and Japan (NASA, n.d.). This potpourri of nationalities gathered around the English language in order to make their missions a success.

The first space mission that really brought two different language speaking nations together is a good example of linguistic collaboration. The Apollo – Soyuz mission in 1975, although not recognized in its time as a monumental accomplishment, really set precedence in the advancement of mankind beyond the borders of its own atmosphere. The coupling of the two very different spaceships and the uniting of the two very different countries with opposite cultures and political ideologies on Earth, brought to mankind a sense of commonality heretofore never experienced

(Hartmann, Miller & Lee, 1984, pp.23-25).

The language barrier was not easy to overcome, however, and both the astronauts and the cosmonauts alike found themselves in very uncomfortable and awkward circumstances in the beginning of their union. The article "An Orbiting Partnership Is Born," succinctly described the tenseness of the situation: "In a 1997 interview, Stafford described how they got around the language problem. 'Each crew would speak his own language, and the other would have to understand,' he said. It just wasn't working, until Stafford and the Russian backup commander had the idea to speak in the other's language. 'So we started,' he said, 'and boy, it worked slick as a whistle'" (2005). These space-faring men from two distinct nations on Earth had to study every aspect about each other, which established a foundation from which all future long-term manned space ventures would have to follow.

The subsequent American space shuttle project is a prime example of this cooperation. However, the project has seen its share of disasters: the Challenger and the Columbia disasters have sparked serious setbacks and delays in the NASA program. Nevertheless, the spirit of humanity persists, and even after these major disasters, the space shuttle program still marches on with renewed vigor and purpose.

The major goal now is to use the shuttles for the final stages of construction of the International Space Station (ISS). The ISS is designed to function as mankind's permanent flagship in orbit, serving as a home for human beings from a wide variety of nations and cultures on Mother Earth. The principal countries involved both financially and materially are English speaking (The United States and Canada); however, Russia carries its own language and customs on board as well, along with other countries of interest such as Japan, Brazil, and the European countries of Italy, France, Spain, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Surely, many languages will be used in the vast array of experiments on board the ISS. Nevertheless, because of the United States' dominant vested interest in the undertaking (in both financial and human resources), English proves to be the Lingua

Franca of the vessel. This requires that the language be a virtual necessity to know and understand by all who visit, whether they are scientists, commanding pilots or just plain visitors.

Visitors in space are becoming commonplace. The first American space tourist, Dennis Tito, seemed to have started a trend. He paid twenty million dollars for his one-week visit to the International Space Station. Escorted by two cosmonauts in their Soyuz 2 Taxi Flight capsule, Russian Yury Baturin and Kazakh Talgat Musabayev (from , (Kazakhstan)), Tito was received by the American occupants of the station in a rather unceremonious manner. In order for Tito to prepare for the visit, he had to undergo training at the Gagarin Cosmonaut Training Center at Star City, just outside of Moscow. Included in his training was a crash course in the Russian language so that he would be able to understand the basics of human space flight. Without it, communication would have been kept at a bare minimum, and the safety of the space flight would have been compromised (Karash, 2001).

Actually, it was Dennis Tito's 10-day Soyuz TM-32 flight on April 28, 2001 that sparked the need for professionals to establish certain standards for space flight for all categories of professionals. Foreign language learning was a high priority. In November of 2001, an official group at NASA was organized to do just that: The ISS Multilateral Crew Operations Panel (MCOP). This panel undertook the responsibility to establish the criteria, principles, and practices of crew selection, and the training and certification of ISS crew members, whether they be professional Astronauts or Cosmonauts, or simple space flight participants such as those from the Expedition Crew Members or Visiting Crew Members (Multilateral Crew Operations Panel [MCOP], 2002).

Apart from general medical and behavioral suitability, the linguistic ability highly ranks in importance for the ability to participate in modern day space flight. The code is quoted as follows: "Oral and reading fluency in the English language is a requirement for all ISS candidates. In addition, the ability to communicate effectively in other languages may be required. Candidates must possess both the capacity and the interest to learn a foreign language."

The code also emphatically states: "The sponsoring agency, in accordance with its internal procedures, will determine if its candidate has the interpersonal and communication skills necessary to function as a successful member of a space flight team in a multicultural environment and has the ability to demonstrate situational awareness to conduct himself or herself effectively in the space environment " (MCOP, 2002).

Even before the training of Dennis Tito, the idea of space tourism was skyrocketing as extremely wealthy individuals and private mega-corporations were gathering keen interests in the idea. Sir Richard Branson, of Virgin Atlantic, was one of these individuals. He and his entrepreneurial partners managed to join forces and forge a space enterprise called Virgin Galactic. The premise of this endeavor is to bring space tourism to the common human being. In the spirit of Henry Ford, for bringing the automobile to the masses, and Charles Lindbergh's flight of his Spirit of St. Louis inspiring the modern airline industry, Sir Richard Branson hopes to create his own legacy by bringing space flight home as a common occurrence. Branson's philosophy is expressed in the following statement: "We hope to create thousands of astronauts over the next few years and bring alive their dream of seeing the majestic beauty of our planet from above, the stars in all their glory and the amazing sensations of weightlessness and space flight. The development will also allow every country in the world to have their own astronauts rather than the privileged few" (The next giant leap, n.d.).

By using their revolutionary space plane, which will not require cumbersome booster rockets with solid fuel to launch a vehicle into space such as NASA's Space Shuttle, the idea is to simply fly the plane into a sub-orbital pattern and return the visitors safely by landing on the concept of a simple airplane landing strip. Furthermore, the 3-day training sessions are so drastically reduced that they hold no comparison with the months and months it requires to train at NASA or at the Gagarin Space Training Center (When can I go, n.d.). The language of instruction will be English; therefore, anyone who would be interested in such an adventure from a non-English speaking country

would have to study and know English at least to a certain degree. Space flight for the common person has truly met its time and place – and the English language is there to meet the challenge.

Another firm, Space Adventures Ltd., has recently set up shop in the state of Florida to begin what they believe will be a very innovative and lucrative program for space tourism. Encouraged by the Governor of Florida, Jeb Bush, this company is presently undertaking a feasibility study to establish sites for offices and a spaceport that will serve the general public interested in becoming "Space Tourists." The company's projected time frame for beginning their 90 – minute flights is in three or four years, costing approximately $102,000 per person (Blake, 2005, p. A1). This is a far cry from Dennis Tito's initial ticket cost. Furthermore, the direct, healthy competition with Virgin Galactic will spark even more human activity in space, all in the spirit of productive capitalism and entrepreneurship.

And this is just the beginning of space tourism. Many creative people envision not just a simple three-hour thrill ride into space, but imagine entire orbiting hotels that can accommodate literally hundreds and eventually even thousands of guests for unlimited periods of time. Surely, the English language will play an integral part in this vision and add completely new dimensions to the terms of hotel management and space tourism. Specialized courses will have to be designed and taught by English language specialists trained in this type of venture.

From the Space Shuttles, the International Space Station, to Space Tourism, the English language accompanies mankind on all these incredible adventures. It can clearly be seen how necessary it is for the English language to be learned and learned well, especially when humans are involved in using the language in such a hostile environment as space.

With so many countries involved in this common goal of safely exploring the limitless boundaries of space, it is absolutely vital that the common language they use is taught and learned effectively. It is therefore the responsibility of English language teachers around the world and related organizations such as TESOL to meet the task head on with imagination and enthusiasm. One of the first and best ways to initiate this enthusiasm is by taking a trip to the Kennedy Space Center itself.

The VIP Kennedy Space Center Tour

Special passes obtained at the Kennedy Space Center can allow visiting groups access to various high-security facilities such as the International Space Station Processing Facility, the Orbiter Processing Facility, and the Vehicle Assembly Building. General Admission passes offer tours through the Apollo Saturn V Center and the IMAX movies. The great number of visitors to the KSC Tourist Complex, speaking dozens of languages throughout the establishment, serves as strong testimony to the global interest in space. The IMAX movies, entitled The Dream Is Alive and The IMAXx International Space Station – 3-D, vividly show the human habitat in space and demonstrate how the international community can live and work as one. The films also illustrate how language plays an important part in this collaboration. Even though many languages are used on board, English prevails as one of the most necessary and dominating languages for the station's day-to-day operations and its long-term survival.

The academic spin-offs of the trip are immeasurable. They can add a whole new dimension to class activities for language learning. The trip initiates expansive windows for discussions and debates. Even the sensitive national debate of whether or not space exploration and space travel is necessary, considering all the problems humans face on Earth, can take precedence in any classroom discussion. Students can be assigned compositions or imaginative role-pays about the Kennedy tour and the grand space venture. Renewed energy in the classroom can restore interest and purpose in learning.

To expose ESL students to the space experience really does not require special treatment. The regular tours of the Kennedy Space Complex can be exciting and educational on an individual basis or in groups. The Kennedy Tourist Complex sponsors free tours for school children throughout the academic year. Sixth-Grade Day, or Eighth-Grade Day, for example are reserved for respective county schools. ESL

groups could do the same, reserving special days and requesting guides specially trained in English language learning to serve as hosts.

If going to the Kennedy Space Center itself were not feasible, then the next best alternative would be to bring the Kennedy Space Center to the classroom. There is a host of videos, films, books, works of art, and posters and picture albums available to take into the classroom that would provoke interest and thought about humankind's ventures into space. NASA itself has a very tastefully designed and comprehensive Website that offers information ranging from the history of NASA to its visions of the future. The Website offers promotional material and even advertises employment opportunities that are related to the agency. NASA also has a television network that provides a myriad of clips, including cartoon skits for children, educational classes on Astrophysics for the more serious minded students, to actual clips of astronauts living and working in the space vessels themselves. The availability of pedagogical materials and ideas for ESL classroom activities is only limited to the teacher's imagination.

TESOL and the Future in Space

Back in the early 1950s, Wernher von Braun had a comprehensive, long-term vision of mankind venturing into space. This dream consisted of first placing a space station into earth orbit, then accomplishing a series of lunar landings, which would eventually lead to establishing permanently manned, lunar outposts, and then finally reaching the ultimate goal of human beings achieving expeditions to Mars by the mid- twenty-first century. In reality, Wernher von Braun's visions were not that far off the target. Although his time frame for all of these plans may have been inaccurate, the genius of rocketry simply could not have foreseen the complexities involved with the funding of the projects, the politics, the public interest, and the technology. Nevertheless, his visions still seem to remain intact, for the International Space Station is still going strong. The finalization of construction is projected by the year 2010; a permanent manned lunar outpost is planned by NASA to be established by the mid 2020s; and finally, the first manned mission

to Mars is projected to be between the years 2040 and 2050 ("50-Year Goal," 2003). With the United States leading a consortium of countries around the world, Americans will take their language with them, meaning that English will play a predominant role in human beings communicating with one another on all of these projects. This will also mean that a great many of the future space explorers daring to partake in this grand adventure will have to know English and know English extremely well in order to survive in the new environment. Effective communication will be vital: a common Lingua Franca will be paramount. The English language will be there.

English will be the dominating communication force in the establishment of Moon bases and the colonization of Mars. The envisioned terra-forming of Mars and the total transformation of the planet will surely entail the accompanying evolution of new languages and dialects branching out from the mother tongue of English. Like the Germanic dialect in centuries past, new literatures will form as well as new philosophies, new sciences & mathematics – in effect, new civilizations of humankind in our solar system. The prospect is extremely exciting and is limited only to one's imagination.

Although English, of course, will not be the only language in space, it probably will be the most prominent language used in order to serve as a common Lingua-Franca for all space-faring beings. From the very beginnings of human space travel, international cooperation has been essential, and the underlining thread of communication for this cooperation with the leading country has been the use of the English language. From the genius of rocket scientist Wernher von Braun, all the way to the internationals occupying the International Space Station, every person associated with this global effort has had his or her own relationship with the English language to a certain degree – whether it be by intensive formal study, or by self-taught methodologies. Whatever the case, just as new technologies evolve with every forward step humans take in space exploration, so will our profession in teaching the English language to international space-faring students. It is our dutiful job as linguists, as

teachers, and as educators to work with the language, to preserve it, to promote it, to help evolve it and carry it to places far beyond what we can ever fathom right now in the present. Teaching English to speakers of other languages will play a vital role in an adventure that is still very much in its infancy.

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PERFORMANCE-BASED ASSESSMENTS IN THE ADULT ESOL WORLD: MEETING STANDARDS AND ACCOUNTABILITY REQUIREMENTS

The primary objective of adult ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Language) programs is to enable adult learners who are not fully fluent and literate in English to become proficient, so that they can meet personal, community, academic, and employment goals. The adult ESOL field is turning to content standards to provide instructional guidelines and learning outcomes to match these goals. The U.S. Department of Education put forth strong recommendations for states to develop and implement content standards that align with appropriate assessments. Selecting an appropriate assessment means considering such factors as reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact, and practicality (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). These criteria are also reflected in the National Reporting System (NRS) guidelines for evaluating assessments (NRS, 2005). This article looks at the characteristics of high quality adult ESL assessments used for NRS purposes and examines two such assessments, the BEST Plus Oral English Proficiency Test and the REEP Writing Assessment.

Introduction

Selecting a valid, reliable, and appropriate assessment for adult English language learners (ELLs) requires careful consideration of a variety of criteria. What language construct does the assessment measure, and how is the construct defined? Does the assessment measure language proficiency, defined as "the ability to use the language effectively and appropriately in real-life situations" (Buck, Byrnes, & Thompson, 1989, p. 11), or achievement, which is more closely tied to classroom instruction and does not necessarily reflect the examinee's potential? What is the format of the test items and types of tasks, and do they support the test construct? Does the test assess authentic skills that are applicable to other contexts?

What research studies support the test's claims for reliability and validity? Can the test be used for accountability, placement, or diagnostics? How can the test inform classroom instruction? How much does the assessment cost, in terms of training, materials, personnel, time, scoring, and technology needs? An assortment of assessments are available to adult English language programs nationwide, measuring everything from speaking, listening, reading, and writing, to grammar, vocabulary, life skills knowledge, and functional literacy – or some combination thereof. How is the best assessment selected for a given adult ESL (English as a Second Language) or ENL (English as a New Language) program's needs?

According to Florida's Department of Education, approximately 126,000 adult students were enrolled in ESL courses in Florida in 2003-2004, or about 35% of the adult education population (http://www. firn.edu/doe/workforce/pdf/booklet_at_a_glance. pdf). ESL and other adult education programs that receive federal funding, channeled through states, are held to the accountability requirements of the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) of 1998 (Mislevy & Knowles, 2002) and represented by the National Reporting System (NRS). The accountability systems in place require the use of approved standardized assessment instruments. Since 1998, federal guidelines have stated that assessment procedures that fulfill the accountability requirements of the WIA must be valid, reliable, and appropriate (U.S. Department of Education, 2001). Content standard, defined as clear statements of what learners should know and be able to do, must be developed and implemented. Federal guidelines recommend that assessments be aligned with these standards (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). The educational functioning levels, which form the basic framework and structure of the National Reporting System for Adult Education (NRS), are still in place, although proposed changes to the Beginning ESL and Advanced ESL functioning levels may affect NRS reporting and assessment scores in the future (see www.nrsweb.org for more information).

As the field of adult English as a second language (ESL) or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) instruction move towards content standards,

program staff and state and national policy makers need to be able to make informed choices about appropriate assessments for adult English language learners. This article examines the concepts of validity, reliability, and appropriateness from a language testing perspective as they apply to the following four assessment issues raised by the NRS:

- What type of language assessment seems to be required by the NRS: proficiency or achievement? What type of assessment would be most appropriate for the NRS?
- What does validity entail for appropriate NRS assessment? What does reliability mean for performance measures meeting the rigorous requirements of the NRS?

The article concludes with a look at two adult ESL assessments used for NRS reporting purposes, the *BEST Plus* Oral Proficiency Test and the *REEP Writing Assessment* (RWA).

Proficiency vs. Achievement?

What type of language assessment seems to be required by the NRS: proficiency or achievement?

For adult English language learners in the United States, the basic reason for learning English is for communicative competence. It is not to know about grammar or sophisticated details of English syntax, or cultural aspects of the land where the language is spoken. All of these skills have their place, but knowing a language involves being able to put all of these pieces together to read for work or enjoyment, participate in conversations with others who speak English, or accomplish other tasks using the language.

Traditionally, achievement testing has been defined as assessing whether students have learned what they have been taught. Today, as the field of education institutes standards, assessment frameworks look not only at what students know about the language, but at what they can do with it in their daily lives. Therefore, for adult language learners, the goal of learning is to develop proficiency. Proficiency distinguishes itself from achievement; when measuring language skills, proficiency is not

necessarily confined to what is taught in the classroom. Language acquisition, or learning new vocabulary and structures, also occurs outside the classroom as learners live, work, and interact with others in an English-speaking environment (Gass, 1997).

The NRS defines six educational functioning levels for English language learners. These levels describe what learners can actually do. For example, learners at the beginning ESL listening and speaking level can

- understand frequently used words in context and simple phrases spoken slowly with repetition, communicate basic survival needs with some help, and
- understand and participate effectively in face-to-face conversations on everyday subjects spoken at normal speed.

These aims are focused on what happens in real life outside the classroom. In language testing terms, the focus of the NRS is on proficiency. The challenge, both for teaching and assessment, is determining the relationship among content standards, curriculum, instruction, and proficiency (versus achievement) outcomes. If content standards define what learners can do in the real world (proficiency), then how do these standards influence what happens in the classroom, particularly when proficiency is being assessed?

Adult learners come to the classroom with a variety of prior educational and life experiences. In acquiring English literacy, learners require different curricula and instructional strategies, depending on whether they have ever acquired literacy in any language, have a high level of literacy in their own language, or are literate in a language that uses a Roman or a non-Roman alphabet (Burt, Peyton, & Adams, 2003). Learners also differ in their opportunities for language acquisition outside the classroom. For example, they may work in jobs where contact with native English speakers or speakers of other languages require them to use English, or they may work in jobs with very little contact with other workers, particularly English speakers. Some learners are able to attend class several times a week and others only once. A couple hours of instruction a week is a very limited amount of time for

developing English language proficiency. What goes on inside the classroom needs to help learners take advantage of what goes on outside the classroom, so that learners can maximize opportunities to increase their language acquisition (Van Duzer, Moss, Burt, Peyton, & Ross-Feldman, 2003).

Classroom assessments, such as reading, writing, or speaking logs, checklists of communication tasks and oral or written reports, can show how learners have mastered curricular content or met their own goals. (See Van Duzer & Berdan, 1999, for a list and discussion of classroom assessments.) The assessments may reflect what the learners can do in the real world. However, without specific valid and reliable links to the NRS functioning levels, these tools and processes may not meet the current requirements to show level gain.

Appropriate Assessment According to the NRS

Knowing that the NRS focuses on what learners can do in the real world, and knowing the challenges to classroom teaching, what type of assessment would be most appropriate?

A good language proficiency test is made up of language tasks that replicate what goes on in the real world (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Performance assessments, which require test takers to demonstrate their skills and knowledge in ways that closely resemble real-life situations or settings (National Research Council, 2002), seem appropriate. A performance assessment generally has more potential than a selected response test (e.g., true-false or multiple choice) to replicate language use in the real world. That potential is realized, however, only if the assessment itself is of high technical quality, not just because it is a performance assessment.

Performance assessments are not easy to develop, administer, score, or validate, because many variables are involved. The Performance-Based Assessment Model (see Figure 1) illustrates the many variables that apply to the development of performance-based assessments. At the base of the model is the **student** (or examinee) whose **underlying competencies**

(knowledge, skills, and abilities [K/S/A]) are to be assessed. To do this, the student is given tasks to perform. Several variables surround these tasks. What is the quality of the task? Is it a good, authentic task, or a poor task? Are conditions provided so that it can be successfully completed? Will the student be given enough time to complete the task? The next concern is the **test administrator**, who may interact with the examinee. The administrator may bring his or her own underlying competencies (knowledge, skills, and abilities) into the student's performance. Does the administrator know what to ask the student to do and how to ask that it be done?

These three elements (student, task, and administrator) interact to produce a **performance**. The performance needs to be assessed by a **rater**. Sometimes, one person may act as both the administrator and rater (e.g., in an oral interview); at other times, the administrator and the rater will be two individuals (e.g., in a writing assessment). Raters bring additional variables. Are they well trained? Do they have the knowledge base needed to rate the performance?

To assess the student's performance, raters need **criteria**, often contained in a scale or a rubric. The rubric needs to be useful and easy to interpret, and it must address the aspects of the performance related to the examinee's underlying competencies that are to be assessed. For example, if writing is being assessed, do the rating criteria relate to characteristics of a good writer (e.g., ability to organize the writing, and ability to use appropriate mechanics)? If speaking is being assessed, do the criteria relate to competencies of a good speaker (e.g., ability to make oneself understood)?

Finally, raters use the rubric or scale to assign a score to the performance. This score has meaning only in so far as it is a valid and reliable measure of what the learner can do. In other words, do the many variables depicted in the diagram work together to produce a score that is a valid indicator of an examinee's ability? Does the performance assessment allow the examinee to give a performance that reflects proficiency in the real world, can be adequately described and measured by the rubric, and can be scored reliably?

Can the assessment be repeated, both in terms of the performance being elicited and the score applied?

Validity

Knowing that all these variables need to be attended to, what does validity entail for an appropriate NRS assessment?

Messick (1989) offers a technical definition of validity: "Validity is an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationale support the adequacy and the appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessments" (p. 11).

This view adjusts the focus of validity from the test itself to include the use of the test scores. One has to ask if the test is valid for this use, in this context, for this purpose. With regard to the NRS, the main questions that need to be answered seem to be the following: How well does the performance elicited by the test align with the NRS descriptors? How well can the test assess yearly progress? Are the performances on the assessment indicative of program quality?

Any assessment used for NRS purposes will be valid only if evidence can be provided that the inferences about the learners, made on the basis of the test scores, can be related to the NRS descriptors, that is, what the learners can do, given their level of proficiency. The assessment must also be sensitive enough to learner gains to be able to show progress, if that is the use to which it is put. In addition, if the quality of programs is to be judged by performances on the assessment, then it must be demonstrated that there is a relationship between the two.

Establishing validity for a particular use of a test is not a one-activity task or study. It is an accumulation of evidence that support the use of that test. It includes such things as examining the relationship between performance on the test and performance on similar assessments, examining test performances vis-à-vis criteria inherent in the NRS descriptors, and examining the reasonableness and consequences of decisions made on the basis of test scores. Each of these examinations requires the collection and analysis of evidence through raw data.

Reliability

What does reliability mean for performance assessments meeting the rigorous requirements of the NRS?

In the field of assessment, the concept of reliability is related to the consistency of the measurement when the testing procedure is repeated on a population of individuals or groups (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999). For example, if a learner takes a test once, then takes it again later, the learner should get about the same score each time, provided nothing else has changed.

As the diagram in figure 1 indicates, a performance assessment has a number of potential sources for inconsistency. These include the assessment task itself, the administrator, the rater, the procedure, the conditions under which it is administered, or even the examinee. For example, an examinee might be feeling great the day of the pre-test, but might be facing a family crisis on the day of the post-test.

The job of assessment developers is to demonstrate that reliability can be achieved even for a complex performance assessment. Accordingly, program staff using the test have a responsibility as well. They have an obligation to administer the assessment in the ways they have been trained, thus replicating the conditions under which reliability can be attained (American Educational Research Association et al., 1999). Programs need to plan for time to train individuals to administer the test, time to administer it, and time to monitor its proper administration. This may mean an additional expenditure of resources and time for staff training so that the test will be administered appropriately each time it is used. Finally, before post-testing, programs must ensure that enough time (or hours of instruction) has passed for learners to show gains.

Measuring Adult Performance Assessments

BEST Plus Oral English Proficiency Test and REEP Writing Assessment (RWA)

To illustrate the above discussions of reliability, validity, and appropriateness in assessments in practical terms,, descriptions of the *BEST Plus* Oral English Proficiency Test and *REEP Writing Assessment* (RWA) follow. Both of these assessments can be used for placement, assessment of student progress, diagnosis, and program evaluation. In addition, the scores from both assessments are correlated to Student Performance Levels and NRS ESL educational functioning level descriptors. As such, they are two of only a few oral proficiency and writing assessments accepted for reporting level gains in the NRS. *BEST Plus* and *RWA* feature high reliability, validity, and applicability to real-world contexts, as required by NRS and language testing criteria for performance assessments.

Real world use

BEST Plus consists of an individually administered face-to-face scripted oral interview. The trained test administrator scores examinees' responses based on a standardized rubric that evaluates listening comprehension, (how well the examinee understood the setup and question), language complexity, (how the examinee organized and elaborated the response), and communication, (how clearly the examinee communicated meaning). The computer-adaptive software selects items of varying degrees of difficulty for examinees, based on their performance on the previous items.

As an oral proficiency test, *BEST Plus* is not linked to any particular curriculum or textbook. Rather, it assesses the ability to understand and use unrehearsed and conversational language within topic areas generally covered in adult ESL courses. Examinees are administered questions drawn from several "folders" of thematically-related questions, dealing with topics like health, family / parenting, consumerism, getting a job, community services, weather, and education. Each thematic folder contains different question types that allow examinees to demonstrate their full range of proficiency.

The *RWA* is a performance-based writing test that uses the real-world skill of writing a letter to a close friend or family member on a familiar topic, such as living in the United States, visiting the home country, or moving to a new city. Examinees begin with standardized warm-up tasks conducted involving authentic brainstorming activities and pair discussion

focused on the writing topic. Students are then scored using the REEP Writing Rubric, which analyzes the examinee's performance on content and vocabulary (comprehensive and comprehensible information), organization and development (paragraph writing and linked ideas), structure (grammar, syntax, verb tense), mechanics (punctuation, capitalization), and voice (personal style, engaging). Test administrators undergo rigorous training on standardizing the test administration, scoring, and annual recertification. Programs that use the RWA can share the scoring rubric with students. This metacognive strategy helps engage students in the process of evaluating writing and improves their understanding of their own writing (Grant, 2005).

Reliability of BEST and RWA

Both *BEST Plus* and *RWA* were developed, standardized, and validated to ensure the highest technical and content quality. Reliability studies show high interrater reliability, high test/retest reliability, and high reliability for equivalent forms for both assessments (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2005; Arlington Education and Employment Program, 2005). Research studies on *RWA* and *BEST Plus* show that level gains in writing and oral proficiency, respectively can reliably be shown within 120-180 hours of instruction for *RWA* and 80-100 for *BEST Plus*.

Validity of BEST Plus and RWA

Both *BEST Plus* and *RWA* have a history of adult ESOL teacher input and work in the development and validation of the assessments, and as such, have strong face validity. The content and topics of these assessments, as well as the difficulty level of each item and writing prompt, reflect those concepts and domains that are covered in adult ESOL courses around the country. These assessments have been correlated to SPLs and NRS functioning level descriptors through standard setting activities and input from the field. In addition, both assessments have been correlated, and consequently validated, to other adult ESL assessments used in the field.

Moderate to high correlations were found between *BEST Plus* and program placement levels of 24 adult ESOL programs nationwide.

Conclusion

Ensuring that language tests for adult English learners are appropriate, valid, and reliable is a challenge. Performance-based assessments are inherently complex to develop and implement. Content standards describe what learners can do with the language. Performance assessments are worth developing and validating because the focus of assessment, both in the NRS descriptors and in the Department of Education's, reflect these content standards.

Meanwhile, as program staffers choose assessments that meet current accountability requirements, they can take the following steps to ensure that valid, reliable, and appropriate assessments are chosen for their learners:

• Review the assessment and technical information provided by the test developer to determine that what the assessment purports to measure reflects real-life tasks. Review the technical manual to ascertain that the test developers have demonstrated that reliability can be achieved. Provide adequate resources to train test administrators and raters to maintain reliability of test administration and scoring.

• Post-test only after an adequate amount of instructional time has taken place to demonstrate level gain.

Presently, assessment of learner gains is based on the NRS descriptors. Over the next few years, content standards will be implemented as well. If we cannot assess learners' performances in light of these standards in valid, reliable, and appropriate ways, the standards will have no practical value.

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Figure 1. Performance-Based Assessment Model
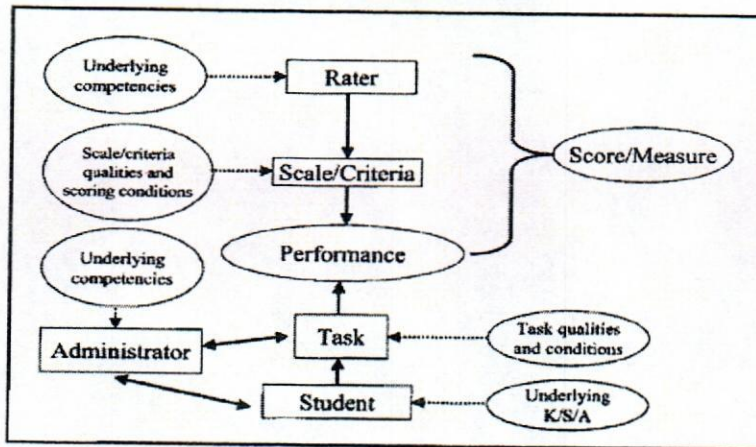
From Introductory Remarks at the 14th Language Testing Research Colloquium on Development and Use of Rating Scales in Language Testing, by D. M. Kenyon, February–March 1992, Vancouver, Canada; from Measuring Second Language Performance, by T. McNamara, 1996, London: Longman; and from A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning, by P. Skehan, 1998, Oxford, England: Oxford University

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AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL READING PROGRAM FOR ADVANCED ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS: BEYOND THE ESOL PROGRAM

An evaluation of the effectiveness of a reading program for intermediate and advanced English Language Learning (ELL) students was conducted at an elementary school in suburban South Florida. This language program was designed for advanced ELL students in third, fourth, and fifth grades. The typical advanced ELL student has basic interpersonal communication skills (social language) but lacks cognitive academic language proficiency (academic language). Seventy percent of the advanced ELL students at this elementary school demonstrated below grade-level reading on the Scholastic Reading Inventory. The aim of this study is to evaluate the benefits of this model reading program and its effect on reading improvement for advanced ELL students in third, fourth, and fifth grades. The results of this study encourage the implementation of reading programs for advanced ELL students to improve reading skills and to further research the area of advanced ELL reading achievement.

Introduction

Throughout the United States, the number of linguistically and culturally diverse students continues to increase rapidly. According to 2000 census data, over 2.6 million foreign-born children were enrolled in elementary and secondary schools in the United States. The number increased to over 12 million students when children who were born in the United States to foreign-born parents were included (Ernst-Slavit, Moore, & Maloney, 2002). Consequently, 36% of the total student population in United States public elementary schools came from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds (National Center of Education Statistics, 2000). In public schools, these students were classified as English Language Learner (ELL) students and differed from the mainstream population in ethnicity, primary language spoken at home, and social class (Au & Raphael, 2000). According to Title VII of the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994, Public Law 103-382 (Improving America's Schools Act, 1994), students were classified

ELL if they had sufficient difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language and those difficulties might deny them an opportunity to learn successfully in classrooms where the language is English.

The growing number of ELL students enrolled in schools across the nation is of concern for teachers, school administrators, and the community as the growth of minority languages has had a significant achievement effect on American schools. The need to provide meaningful instruction to students who are not proficient in English has created difficulties for educators, as ELL students tend to have multiple education needs. Specifically, students from culturally and linguistically diverse populations are often at risk of school failure due to limited exposure to literacy (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000). Even students who come from countries with developed school systems may have limited English literacy skills, as academic expectations of schools in the United States demand more rigorous English preparation.

A wide range of skill levels among ELL students can be found among students who generally are classified as either a beginner ELL student or an advanced ELL student. A beginner ELL student is defined as by the State of Florida Department of Education (FLDOE), as a non-fluent English speaker who has significant difficulty speaking, reading, and writing in English. Conversely, an advanced ELL student may be defined by the FLDOE as a fluent English speaker who displays limited ability to read in English but can participate adequately in discussions in English. The advanced ELL student speaks clearly and is comprehensible to the native English speaker, yet pronunciation errors are still present. Furthermore, these students have difficulty with complex structures. In summary, advanced ELL students are fluent English speakers, but lack a complex vocabulary, academic understanding, and grade level English literacy.

Research has shown that many teachers and educational leaders fully recognize the needs of beginner ELL students, but often fail to recognize the needs of advanced ELL students because they are able to verbally communicate in English (Peregoy & Boyle,

2000). Consequently, the advanced ELL student may be viewed by teachers as being idle or not trying hard enough due to an apparent lack of academic effort and low achievement; however, it is often the lack of English language proficiency that negatively impacts their effort and achievement in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Throughout Florida, elementary advanced ELL students consistently have scored below grade level on the reading portion of the state's mandatory standardized assessment test, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) (Florida Department of Education, 2002). The state of Florida requires all ELL students to take the FCAT after 2 years of ELL instruction. Test results have indicated that many ELL students take the FCAT unprepared for the content rigor. On the 2004 FCAT, only 30% of ELL students achieved reading proficiency, compared to 52% of the general student population in the state of Florida (Florida Department of Education). This reality is reflected in a southeastern Florida school district where only 29% of ELL students reached proficiency on the 2004 reading FCAT, compared to 51% of the entire student population in the district. In this southeastern Florida school district, administrators expected that ELL students would read at the same level as native English speakers following two years of ELL instruction. However, the school district consistently reported a lack of reading proficiency for students who had been in the ELL program for more than two years (Department of Multicultural Education, 2003).

With the growing population of students who spoke other languages and corresponding low achievement scores, reading teachers in the school district are challenged constantly to address the academic needs of ELL children. To help achieve educational parity for ELL students, research findings have recommended that educators adjust reading programs to include second language acquisition information, cross-linguistic transfer, and the integration of cultural aspects (McLaughlin, 1992). Although the FLDOE had not implemented widespread reading programs for advanced ELL

students, one elementary school in southeastern Florida recognized the need and had created a reading program for advanced ELL students enrolled in third, fourth, and fifth grades. The goal of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of this advanced ELL reading program on the reading achievement of advanced ELL students in the aforementioned third, fourth, and fifth grades.

Background and Significance of the Problem

AAA Elementary School (AAAES), located in a suburban city with a population of 100,000 students, opened in August 2002. One year after opening, AAAES became a Title I school, indicating that 40% or more of the students were from low-income families. In 2003, a total of 1,180 students were enrolled at the elementary school with 61% of them qualifying for free or price-reduced lunch. The school had a mixed racial population with 36% of the students being White, 17% Black, 36% Hispanic, and 11% from other ethnicities. AAAES had a large number of ELL students and families who were from foreign countries, and had a primary language other than English. The primary ethnicities of the students were Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, and South American, and these students spoke Spanish as their first language. On the 2003 FCAT reading test, only 23% of the advanced ELL students enrolled in third through fifth grade at AAAES scored at grade-level ability, compared to 66% of the mainstream students enrolled in third through fifth grade. Furthermore, students at AAAES also were assessed using the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI) test. The results of the spring 2004 test showed that only 30% of third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade advanced ELL students scored at or above grade level compared to 74% of the mainstream English-speaking students.

Importance of Reading for ELL Students

Reading proficiency is the most important factor relating to academic competency due to its integral role in academic learning (Peregoy & Boyle, 2000). Throughout the literature, numerous studies and data revealed that reading proficiency for ELL students plays a fundamental role in academic learning and subsequent social and economic opportunities (Gertsen, 1996; Goldenberg, 1994; Lemberger, 1996, 1997; Massey, 2002; Peregoy & Boyle; Reyes et al., 1999). Teaching reading to ELLs is a challenge that has been addressed by a variety of programs, instructional practices, and methods (Moll, 1988). Specifically, Spanish-speaking students comprise 14.4% of the student population in public schools and have presented educators with crucial concerns about teaching ELLs to read (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000).

Methodology

To address the large population of ELL students and the corresponding low reading achievement, in August 2003, AAAES created a reading program for third-, fourth-, and fifth-graders with advanced language proficiency. This program consisted of 90 minutes of pullout instruction utilizing the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) to teach English language skills while simultaneously teaching reading skills. The program teacher was ELL certified by the State of Florida, and trained to use ELL strategies that included paraphrasing, minimizing text, and providing native language support to assist the learning of ELLs. The program was unique because it targeted advanced ELL students who still lacked reading proficiency after 2 years in the ELL program, an initiative not previously attempted in the school district.

The advanced ELL reading program operated over the course of the 2003-2004 school year. Reading achievement of the ELL students in the advanced reading program would be measured by pretest and posttest scores on the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI) and compared to the pretest and posttest scores on the SRI of the advanced ELL students who did not participate in the program. The ELL Coordinator of the school chose students to particpate in the program. The students were chosen based on the number of years they had been in the ELL program and for

their lower test scores on the Florida Comprehensive Reading Test.

Program Description

For the 2003-2004 school year, the southeastern school district in which AAAES was located allocated additional funds to Title I schools for a certified ELL teacher who would specifically teach reading instruction to advanced ELL students. Each individual school had the opportunity to utilize the ELL teacher as a resource teacher, inclusive teacher, or a pull-out teacher. Regardless of the teacher assignment, each school was required to have the ELL teacher instruct advanced ELL students in reading with the desired outcome of improving FCAT reading scores and reading proficiency.

AAAES chose to utilize a bilingual ELL teacher for instruction of advanced ELL students in third, fourth, and fifth grades, thus creating a new program for advanced ELL students. The advanced ELL program was designed to meet the cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1994), needs of ELL students and provide an intensive, instructional process that would reinforce reading skills assessed on the FCAT. The program provided intensive, academic reading instruction to 24 advanced ELL students in third, fourth, and fifth grades and functioned for 90 minutes daily over a period of 9 months. During the 2003-2004 school year, the program staff consisted of a certified Spanish/English bilingual teacher, a supervising ELL coordinator, a Spanish/English paraprofessional, and a Spanish/English language facilitator. While in the program, students were able to communicate in Spanish or English and all written correspondence to parents was provided in both languages. A number of instructional techniques and strategies were utilized to teach reading primarily. A small group, pull-out program was implemented for 90 minutes each day for reading instruction that included several instructional methods. The daily reading block began with 20 minutes of Silent Sustained Reading (SSR), during which students chose a book at their independent reading level to read at their own pace. Following SSR, the teacher conducted a 20-minute teacher read-aloud session,

critically questioning students about the grade level curriculum reading selection. Next, students participated in guided reading for 20 minutes as the teacher listened to each student read out loud at his or her desk; the teacher provided corrective feedback while implementing reading strategies. The teacher also applied a 20-minute direct instruction session using designated FCAT skills including comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. At the conclusion of each 90-minute instructional lesson, the teacher conducted a 10-minute review and summary of the reading lesson.

The Scott Foresman reading curriculum for third, fourth, and fifth grade curriculum was used in the advanced ELL program in 2003-2004. This choice was made by the school district in which AAAES resides and is used by all of the third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students for reading. The Scott Foresman reading curriculum was used by the treatment experiential group during the 2003-2004 school year, and was used by the control group during the 2004-2005 school year. The Scott Foresman reading curriculum included grade level standards for reading, basal reader textbooks, grammar workbooks, phonics workbooks, FCAT practice workbooks, audio cassettes of the reading selections in the basal reader textbooks, leveled readers, written assessments, overhead transparencies for skill lessons, and graphic organizers. This reading series was organized around the Sunshine State Standards used for FCAT testing in the state of Florida. No other curriculum or materials was used in the treatment or control groups for reading.

The ELL coordinator at AAAES selected the 24 students to participate in the advanced ELL reading program based on several criteria from the individual ELL plans of each advanced ELL student in third, fourth, and fifth grades. Students were evaluated on five elements including their SRI Lexile level, norm referenced test reading score, FCAT reading scores, diagnostic test reading score, and language proficiency levels on the ELL plan. All fifth grade ELL advanced students and, all third and fourth grade advanced ELL students not meeting grade level expectations were chosen to participate in the program. Based on

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Reading Achievement SRI Pre scores and Post scores

	Participant Status	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SRI Fall Pretest				
	Non-Participant	26	28.62	744.00
	Participant	24	22.13	531.00
	Total	50		
SRI Winter Posttest				
	Non-Participant	26	24.00	624.00
	Participant	24	27.13	651.00
	Total	50		

Mann-Whitney Test for Reading Achievement

	SRI Fall Pretest	SRI Winter 2004 Posttest
Mann-Whitney U	231.000	629.000
Wilcoxon W	531.000	624.000
Z	-1.575	-.758
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.115	.449

Discussion

After analyzing the results of this investigation, we have deduced several implications that may explain our findings.

The most important implication of this study was the change in the mean reading achievement of the treatment group following participation in the advanced ELL program. Prior to the beginning of the treatment, the mean reading achievement of the advanced ELL students in the treatment group was lower than the mean achievement of the control group. However, following participation in the advanced ELL program, the mean reading achievement of the treatment group was greater than the mean reading achievement of the control group, indicating that the treatment group demonstrated greater reading achievement gains. Although the gain in reading achievement was not statistically significant, the results nonetheless revealed that participation in the advanced ELL program had a positive impact on the reading achievement of the participants. The results showed that the average mean score of the advanced ELLs in the treatment group for the pretest was 340, while the average mean score for the control group for the pretest was 443. Following the implementation period of five months for both groups, the average mean posttest score for the treatment group was 551 compared to 459 for the control group, indicating that the treatment group experienced greater reading achievement over the course of the study. Although the increase in reading achievement was not statistically significant on the Mann-Whitney test, we believe that the change in mean scores was directly related to the effective teaching practices provided in the advanced ELL program. The change in reading achievement by the ELLs in the advanced ELL reading is consistent with research on ELL programs (Cohen, 1998; Johnson, 1999; Krashen, 1993; Ur, 1996).

The writers recommend that advanced ELL programs be evaluated further by conducting a longitudinal study utilizing both qualitative and quantitative data, a more diverse group of advanced ELL students, and a randomly assigned sample of at least 100 subjects in each of the sample subgroups.

To conclude, although the results of this study did not demonstrate statistically significant results to support the original hypothesis, the researchers still maintain confidence that the advanced ELL reading program contributed to improved reading achievement of advanced ELLs. Additionally, we believe that the potential to improve the reading achievement of advanced ELLs is greater in the advanced ELL reading program when compared to regular mainstream reading program due to the smaller class size and the more intimate learning environment.

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U.S. MATH PROBLEM SOLVING: CONSIDERATIONS FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS

This paper addresses the importance of quality math instruction for English learners. ESOL adaptations to math lessons and problem solving are important so that all students will be able to compete in our high-tech world in the 21st Century. Three objectives need to be considered when teaching math: language, content, and learning strategies. This paper demonstrates how the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is applied in a sample math lesson and shows the benefits of process and problem solving using language, content, and learning strategies. This paper challenges all K-12 mathematics teachers to maintain a partnership with English teachers to further language skills when tackling math problems.

Introduction

K-12 Schools in Florida, as well as other states, are faced with similar situations where teachers feel inadequately prepared to work with students who are native speakers of languages other than English. Many states, schools, and colleges of education are addressing this very concern by looking at research on teaching English to speakers of other languages, also referred to as Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).

Since the inception of the META Consent Decree in 1990, Florida elementary and secondary school teachers are required to receive training in TESOL that is commensurate with the content and grade level they teach. At a minimum, this training must involve three university credit hours (or sixty inservice points). The secondary content area teachers (e.g., mathematics or science) are required to take a three credit hour course or fulfill 60 inservice points. The state-approved TESOL Endorsement program in Florida consists of fifteen credit hours in TESOL methods, evaluation, and multicultural education. (Ariza, Morales-Jones, Yahya, & Zainuddin, 2002). About two years ago, an amendment to the Consent Decree on Section IV, Personnel, was implemented. As a result of this change, teachers who pass the

TESOL test will be required to take only six credit hours instead of fifteen to be TESOL endorsed. With the increase of English language learners (ELLs) in Florida, K-12 math teachers need to be well trained to teach effectively so that all students are skilled and confident in their ability to do mathematics.

According to the most recent Census Brief, Hispanics and Asians will account for 61 percent of the population growth from 1995 to 2025, that is, 44 percent will be Hispanics and 17 percent will be Asians. California will gain 12 million Hispanics. The Asian population is expected to increase from 3.6 million in 1995 to 9.1 million in 2025. Other projections show that Texas, Florida, Georgia, and California will gain more second language learners. The diversity of the U.S. population will continue to impact ESOL program enrollments (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.).

In today's high-tech world, it is important that all our young people, including the large ESOL population in the U.S., grow to become confident in their ability to do mathematics in a globally competitive world. The task of teaching ELs can be daunting, especially for secondary mathematics teachers. Often, the challenge of meeting the needs of these students is so overwhelming that teachers unintentionally end up letting ELs fall through the cracks of a system that cannot cope with the needs of the English learner. Sometimes, content area teachers are of the opinion that it is not their job to teach the English learner the English language and that it is the job of the English teacher. As language is a vehicle for content delivery, it is unrealistic to separate the teaching of language proficiency skills and content area skills. Second language learners attain a higher achievement in learning a second language when they learn it in meaningful ways.

The Importance of Mathematics in the 21st Century

A changing economically competitive world has necessitated reform in mathematics education. Dawson (Internet n.d) has found that Americans often are not qualified for many high-tech jobs and that companies seek employees outside the U.S., requiring special H1-B Visas. Dawson (Internet, n.d.) contends that our K-12 educational system is not preparing students for future studies in math and science. Lane (1999) emphasizes the critical importance of mathematics and science education for our young people and the contribution they will make to our nation's economy and overall well-being. Lane asserts that we must support high quality mathematics and science education in every way we can so that we are ensured an adequately trained talent pool for our country. Much of the research conducted by the Board of Directors of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) in the mid-1980s indicated that the mathematics curricula for elementary and secondary schools in the United States could be more effective. NCTM's response to the need for change was the publication of *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* (Standards) in 1989. The NCTM suggested that standards would improve nationwide test scores in the area of mathematics. Most often, current teaching practices in mathematics classrooms do not provide sufficient critical thought needed to compete in an ever advancing technological age. In its revised version of standards for teaching mathematics, NCTM (2000) included "Equity" as one of its six principles for teaching mathematics so that there are high expectations for ALL students, including the ESOL population. Steen (1999) points out that national and international studies show that many U.S. students leave high school with far below even minimum expectations for mathematical and quantitative literacy.

Neunzert (2000) believes we have to understand ourselves as MINT-professionals, where MINT is M=mathematics, I=informatics, N=natural sciences, T=technology. Neunzert feels that mathematics is critical for people living in the 21st Century to be successful. In the book, *Decartes' dream: The world according to mathematics* (Davis & Hersch, 1990), the authors discuss how computers have made mathematics the most important discipline to study. They take an incisive look at how math is applied in the real world today, particularly the influence of computers on mathematics, science, and society. Davis and Hersch (1990) believe we are drowning

in digits and depend constantly on math for our high-tech lifestyle. They purport the idea that math is everywhere, in business, in warfare, and is a propaganda tool in social sciences. Dawson (Internet, n.d.) cites that fewer Americans are studying math, science, and technology fields, yet the demand for these fields with technology skills is growing. It is estimated that by 2008, the top three areas of employment growth will be in technology fields: computer engineering, 108%, computer support specialist, 102%, and systems analysts, 94%. If the U.S. cannot produce and attract sufficient workers from the U.S. in the areas of math, science, and technology fields, the country is left with the alternative to seek outside the U.S. for qualified workers. The U.S. has led the world in the *Information Age*. This success can only continue if we can solve some of the technology labor shortages and start preparing our children better for the digital world by allowing them to see math as a human endeavor that will encompass a large part of their future. Having said this, our ESOL population may need some special accommodations to reach this level.

A Look at Mathematics Problem Solving

Regardless of their length of stay in the U.S., (e.g. they could have been in the U.S. for only two days) ELs in grades 5,8 and 10, are expected to take the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). Florida requires all of its public school students to pass this high stakes test to be promoted to a higher grade level or to graduate from high school.

Examine the following mathematics question on the 5th Grade FCAT Test:

Herb bought a candy bar for $0.75 and a package of gum for $0.50. What else do you need to know to find out how much change Herb should receive?

A. How many sticks of gum were in the package
B. Where he bought the gum
C. The size of the candy bar
D. How much money he gave the clerk

This type of question may not test the content knowledge of the students, even if the students have the mathematical knowledge to answer correctly. The structure of the question is extremely complex, involving multiple cases of what linguists call *long-distance wh- extraction*. This type of linguistic structure poses a special burden on cognitive resources devoted to language processing (Stabler, 1994), which introduces a particular processing difficulty for second language learners (Juffs & Harrington, 1995, 1996; Myles, 1996).

How is it possible for content area teachers not to address the language objectives in their lessons? It is inevitable that content area teachers must weave language goals into their lessons so that their ELs can be successful in their learning of the content areas such as mathematics and science.

Key Points for Teaching Math to ELs

Key questions that mathematics teachers should raise in teaching their lessons to ELs are:

a) What is my ELs' English language proficiency level?
b) How much math knowledge do my ELs have in their previous schooling?
c) Are there differences in the presentations of the math concepts in their country?
d) With a theme in mind, what kinds of cultural and interdisciplinary connections can I make within these lessons?
e) How can I successfully incorporate the teaching of English language skills and learning strategies in my math lessons and problem solving?
f) Which ESOL strategies should I select that are appropriate to my ELs' needs and will truly yield the best results?

The CALLA approach (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) advocated by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) is one approach that will incorporate all of the above considerations. CALLA considers these three main components in teaching any concepts: the concept itself, the language appropriate

within the context of the concept, and the strategies that can help the ELs learn the concept. According to Chamot and O'Malley (1994), ELs learn mathematics using CALLA based on these four key ideas: a) link language of math word problems and solutions; b) have mentally active students; c) verbalize the steps to problem solving in mathematics; and d) incorporate learning strategies and math problem solution steps.

Analyze a sample mathematics lesson plan with problem solving that accounts for all of the above concerns using CALLA:

Grade level: 3rd
Math Standards: MA. B.3.2.1
The student estimates measurements in real-world problem situations.

Language Standards: LA. B.1.2.1
The student prepares for writing by recording thoughts, focusing on a central idea, grouping related ideas, and identifying the purpose for writing.

Math and language objectives:
A. Students will estimate or predict what the measurement of the object is.
B. Students will learn and correctly use vocabulary related to a metric system.
C. Students will measure with metric rulers to determine the length of objects.

Pre-teaching of concepts through language arts:
In meeting the language objectives, use a reading passage, song, or poem that meets the grade and language proficiency levels of students. Students' interest will be tapped and their schema will be activated by reading to them the metric poem. Use realia (real objects), a bilingual dictionary, or TPR (Total Physical Response) for action words to explain words students do not understand.
Brainstorm using a mapping strategy. Look for answers related to items measured in the metric system, tools used in measuring metric, and units

used to express metric measurement.
1. Name some things you can measure in the classroom.
2. Name tools with which you can measure.
3. Name some units of measurement.

Experiencing the learning of the concept through hands-on activities:
Group students according to ability/language proficiency levels and set up two math centers. More math centers with varying tasks can be used.

Math Center #1
In this center, students are shown real objects to be estimated and measured (e.g., a pencil, a book, a glass of water, a table, and their own height and weight) and tools to measure the objects.
Have students record in their journal their estimates of the measurement of these objects. Allow students to use construction paper 1-centimeter squares to place across the objects to determine the actual measurement.

Math Center #2
In this center, students work in pairs to write word problems using the experience they had in center one. Students will use vocabulary they have learned from the reading passage or poem at the beginning of the lesson. Students will be shown models of the finished product.

Reviewing and assessing the learning of the concept.
Students will write/draw about the concept they learned in their journal and will solve the word problems generated by different groups in center two.

Using CALLA to teach math concepts not only benefits ELs, but also assists mainstream learners as the method attends to the teaching of content, language and strategies simultaneously.
In the example of the math lesson above, a teacher addresses the concepts (metric measurements),

language (vocabulary and word problems in learning the metric system through a reading passage or a poem) and strategies. Strategies involve these domains: **metacognitive, cognitive**, and **social affective**. Metacognitve strategies include: a preview of vocabulary in reading passage /poem/song; grouping of items measured, elaboration and transfer; relating new information to what is already known, e.g., types of measurements used in ELs' home country, (some may have already been familiar with the metric system); imagery: and visual images that are mental or actual to understand and remember new information (for example, mnemonics). **Social affective techniques include**: cooperation, working together with peers to solve math problems, gathering information, checking a learning task, or getting feedback on oral or written performance; self-talk, using mental techniques to boost one's own confidence and reduce anxiety when completing task, (for example, verbalizing the thought process of solving a math problem). This social affective strategy is easily utilized by the teacher when math centers such as the above example are arranged. Setting up these centers enables teachers to meet the individual needs of the ELs, especially those who are at the lower language proficiency levels. This construct frees the teachers from whole class instruction and allows them to give the ELs some individual attention. Teachers need to remember that immigrants, refugee students, English learners in general are individuals with their own unique perspectives on problem-solving, and will not approach problems in the same manner. We must listen to and understand each student's approach to solving problems. Educators must remember that the depth and clarity of a teacher's multicultural lens can make or break a students' ability to learn (Kilman, 2005). As educators, it is our primary obligation to reach all students in our classrooms.

Assessment and Problem Solving

Assessment is an important component of a lesson and students can be assessed using the CALLA approach as well. Keeping a math journal and completing a simple project are excellent ways for practical application of introduced concepts. Projects can be: finding objects at home to measure using the metric system; researching about the countries in the world that use the metric system (a multicultural element within the lessons) and solving peer generated word problems. These projects are good examples of alternative assessments, which are a more meaningful measure of students' capabilities and comprehension of concepts than the standardized test format. However, this is not to imply that students should not be exposed to samples of high stake tests, such as FCAT, that they will eventually take. Observations and evaluations of students' performance can be made by using a rubric.

Currently in math instruction, the primary focus is on process and problem solving, as opposed to single answers and computation. Teachers can incorporate more problem solving approaches to instruction as well as rubrics that grade based on the process rather than just providing the correct answers only. Reys (2004) and NCTM (2000, 1995 & 1989) suggest that teachers need to see that methods and tasks for assessing students' learning should be aligned with the curriculum's goals, math content, instructional approaches and activities, including the use of calculators and manipulatives. Reys (2004) and NCTM (2000, 1995 & 1989) feel that assessment should allow for multiple sources of information with tasks that show different kinds of math thinking, in addition to presenting the same math concept or procedure in different contexts, formats, and problem situations. Also, appropriate assessment methods and uses need to be taken into consideration based on the type of information sought, how the information will be used, and the degree of developmental level and maturity of each student. Teachers need to employ alternative forms of assessment in math classes, as suggested by Reys (2004), such as observations, questioning, interviews, performance tasks, self-assessments of students, work samples, portfolios, writing samples, paper and pencil tests, and standardized tests. Schools need to shift toward assessing students' full mathematical power by giving students multiple opportunities to demonstrate their full mathematical understanding, aligning assessment with curriculum and instruction,

and regarding assessment as continual and recursive (NCTM, 1995). With less of an emphasis on right or wrong and more of an emphasis on process, teachers can help to create a population of students who can show competence in mathematics.

Summary

In conclusion, teachers should be tireless in exploring the best means of reaching all their students and to do this is to experiment with new approaches. We recommend that math teachers explore many approaches that exist, but especially CALLA. Although CALLA is an approach that is popular in the language teaching and learning field, its benefits extend to teaching in other content areas, such as in mathematics instruction. Many factors inside and outside of school influence students' level of achievement; the quality of classroom teaching is key to improving students' learning (National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching for the 21st Century, 2000). Much of mathematics is taught through working on mathematics problems (TIMSS Video Mathematics Research Group, 2003). Math teachers need to take ESOL issues into consideration when planning effective instruction.

In light of current concerns for all students, including the ESOL population, to achieve at a level consistent with or above national and international scores on math assessment tests, educators may need to take a more proactive role in encouraging students to become excited about math. When students see themselves as successful and confident, they are more likely to become mathematical problem solvers. In this technological era, all students require much knowledge related to mathematics and problem solving. As mathematics teachers, we need to be diligent in preparing our ESOL population so they may possess mathematical expertise in our high-tech globally competitive world.

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Reviewed by Sherrie Sacharow

THE LATINA'S BIBLE: THE NUEVA LATINA'S GUIDE TO LOVE, SPIRITUALITY, FAMILY AND LA VIDA. (1ST ED.)

BY S. GUZMAN, THREE RIVERS PRESS, 2002

The Latina's Bible is tart, timely and terrific reading. This title is reviewed from the perspective of teachers and school librarians who are trying to find titles for young English language learners. The book is an 'information and advice' format told by the author, a female Latin American journalist, and focuses on Latin teenage girls and their assimilation and relationship to their culture through language and customs. Although it is recommended for grade 10, it might be very useful by grade 8. Readability is high for cross-cultural Latinas as the book addresses fears, myths, and commonly held beliefs that concern women in Latin cultures. It challenges and offers Latinas a path to success in the modern two career couple, or comforts those who choose to live in the traditional household.

This book addresses taboos such as physical and sexual abuse, and raises consciousness about homosexuality in the Latin community. The reader is offered a common sense, factual look at Hispanic gender inequality, along with the consequences and choices for students. The layout of the book is done with short encyclopedic entries that display factual information and advice. An interspersing of Spanish and "Spanglish" make the patois familiar and trustworthy for students who are truly torn between two cultures and languages. The book has facts, statistics, biographical vignettes, web sites, and bibliographies. This title is appropriate for any high school in South Florida, and it is probably going to be a very popular title for young learners in many other locales. From a non-fiction genre, this book reflects the variety of cultures of Latin Americans, includes current teen gender issues, issues of career potential, and warrants special attention as an excellent application for English language learners.

For teachers looking to offer students culturally relevant literary works, this book fulfills the following Florida Sunshine State Standards and competencies:
1. Evaluate information in order to draw inferences. (LA.A.1.4.4) (LA.A.2.4.6) (LA.A.2.4.8)
2. Highlight keywords in a text to construct meaning. (LA.A.1.4.1) (LA.A.1.4.2) (LA.A.1.4.3)
3. The student will demonstrate an ability to organize information and increase reading potential and

is able to use appropriate pre/post reading strategies to facilitate text comprehension .(LA.A.1.4.1) (LA.A.1.4.2) (LA.A.1.4.4) (LA.A.2.4.8)

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Reviewed by John Graney

WRITING PROCESSES AND STRUCTURES: AN AMERICAN LANGUAGE TEXT

BRIAN ALTANO
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN PRESS, 2005

Intermediate ESL writing textbooks sometimes seem somewhat insubstantial. They enable teachers to work with the rhetorical modes, practice the appropriate grammar, provide a few examples, and finish with some suggested topics for further writing. When teaching a fifteen or sixteen week semester course, a textbook that provides more than just the essential grammar and writing practice is a must. It is a further benefit if the textbook contains interesting readings beyond the model paragraphs that can be responded to while offering different topics for exploration. *Writing Processes and Structures*, an ambitious book, meets those criteria, in addition to offering several different activities for vocabulary acquisition and journal writing.

Writing Processes and Structures consists of seven parts, along with an appendix and answer key. The first part is called The Basics, and it covers working with Microsoft Word, parts of speech, sentence types and punctuation, basic definitions, journal types, and peer evaluation. Parts 2 through 6 cover paragraphs in five rhetorical modes: description, narration, process, comparison and contrast, and persuasion. The final part introduces the essay. Each part consists of 10 elements. The ten elements include the paragraph type

or essay described, vocabulary acquisition activity, grammatical skill, writing skill focus, journal type, graded writing assignment, summary, reflections on progress, assignment checklist, and journal summary. The appendix consists of paragraph type summary charts, journal types and additional suggestions, and student paragraphs. The answer key, true to its name, provides answers for many of the grammar and writing exercises.

As is clear from the above summary, this book contains much for the teacher to use in a writing class. The author provides some excellent writing exercises. Each writing chapter opens with a set of journal writing prompts, which I have used for students to put in their blogs, as well as additional writing activities at the end of the chapter for graded writing. The topics at the end of the chapter usually have more scaffolding with support for various parts of paragraphs, in addition to readings that lead into a writing activity. The readings include paragraphs from Sherlock Holmes and a travel brochure in the description chapter; the Guy de Maupasant story, *The Diamond Necklace*, in the narration chapter; and recipes in the process paragraph chapter, along with speeches by John F. Kennedy, Franklin Roosevelt,

and Abraham Lincoln. Each chapter includes several readings to which the students can respond. Also, ten types of journal activities are offered, including creative listings and dream journals, a four-entry journal, and a memorandum journal. Also, the author has done a fine job of showing students how to develop a paragraph with a clear thesis statement and strong supporting facts.

Grammar structures and vocabulary acquisition sections sustain the writing activities section. The grammatical structures introduced in the chapters often correspond well with the writing mode. Much work is devoted to punctuating sentences, subject-verb agreement, independent clauses, and connectors. The vocabulary acquisition activities include connotation and literal meaning, along with verbs, nouns, adverbs, and dictionary use to determine the correct meaning for words that have several meanings and more than one part of speech, such as *rose*, *bump*, and *blame*. In addition, many of the paragraph activities include vocabulary items to demonstrate appropriate use.

While the book contains more than most writing teachers will be able to use in one class, unless they only teach the entire book, it is not a perfect book. Some of the problems involve proofreading errors such as on page 163, the connector for the activity is _or example_; on page 199, the sentence pattern leaves out a comma ; and on page 225, item number 3, the word to be looked up, rose, is not bolded. These types of errors should be corrected in a second edition. The persuasion paragraphs examples reinforce some types of writing that I try to get my students beyond, including a topic sentence that begins, "There are three reasons why..." In a book with so much substance, an index would be very helpful for teachers to find targeted work. Also, the chapter that illustrates *comparison and contrast* paragraphs is the content that we teach called *contrast* paragraphs, which causes some confusion for students.

I have used this textbook for two semesters and have yet to figure out how to use it most effectively. I hasten to add that this is not the fault of the book. The book is so rich in activities and ideas that it may take teachers a while to get comfortable with the sheer volume of its content However, it can be used "out of the box," so to speak, without a great deal of supplementation. Of the books currently on the market, this one clearly goes a few steps beyond its competitors and sets a new standard by including vocabulary acquisition in a textbook geared for writing.

The Author

John Graney is an Associate Professor of ESOL at Santa Fe Community College in Gainesville, FL.

Reviewed by Tiffany Patella

ROSETTA STONE PROGRAM FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

FAIRFIELD LANGUAGE TECHNOLOGIES, 2004

When one decides to learn a foreign language, many options are available to become proficient in the language. One of the most familiar and widely used exercises for language learning, especially in schools, is memorization of vocabulary lists and conjugated verbs. As a language learner myself, I know how intimidating and futile this method can be for students to attain language proficiency. Developers of the *Rosetta Stone* program took these shortcomings into consideration when they developed their program and software.

The *Rosetta Stone* language learning program consists of two levels, each on its own CD-ROM. Each level has about eight units, and each unit has 11-12 lessons. Each lesson uses skills necessary to learn the language in a certain combination at first, gradually becoming more advanced. The acquisition of skills is arranged in the following order: listening and reading; listening; reading; speaking; and writing. Several different settings allow the student to adapt the program to his or her own learning style and abilities. These settings include delay, time, and test functions, as well as the ability to preview lessons and

have the lesson guided, if the student is not familiar with the material. The test function after each phase is especially helpful; it records the student's score, time, and lesson completion. This setting assists in keeping track of progress and allows the student to remember where he or she left off when the program was last in use.

The settings and the lesson arrangement are useful elements of the program, but they are not the highlight. The factor that sets the *Rosetta Stone* program apart from other language learning programs is the method of delivery. The main principle of the *Rosetta Stone* is not to have the student memorizing long lists of vocabulary or ineffective charts of verb conjugations. *Rosetta Stone* seeks to teach language the way that most people learn their mother language, through the natural environment. This feat is achieved through seeing and hearing words, sentences, phrases, etc., and learning to associate the words and sentences that are heard, seen, and written with the picture of that object and/or action.

At the start of the program, the student will become familiar with nouns. The screen will show

four pictures of objects, for example: a man, woman, boy, and girl. When the program indicates the *man*, the picture will be highlighted, the word man will appear on the top of the screen, and a native English speaker will say the word *man*. After the student is acquainted with these objects, the program will move on to actions. The pictures will then show objects doing something, for example: The *man is jumping*. The same indications will follow throughout the lesson. Later, the student will be asked to identify the picture that shows what the speaker is saying, or indicate what is written on the screen, or type what is shown in the picture. The different combinations of listening, reading, speaking, and writing the language reinforces the new vocabulary and allows the student to own the new language knowledge.

As a second language learner, I appreciate knowing the conjugations of verbs. However, as a computer teacher, I highly recommend this program as a more natural approach to language learning through technology. The *Rosetta Stone* program encompasses all of the skills necessary for a student to learn the English language in a way that parallels native language acquisition. The program is an easy to use, comprehensive guide for students to attempt the English language.

The Author

Tiffany Patella teaches at Bennett Elementary School in Fort Lauderdale, Florida as a computer teacher for grades PK-5. Bennett Elementary is a Title I inner city school where much of the population speaks English as a second language. She is currently working on her M.Ed. in Social Foundation of Multicultural Education.

The Sunshine State TESOL Journal

The *Sunshine State TESOL Journal* is a refereed journal published annually by the Sunshine State Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. The main purpose of the Journal is to provide a forum for TESOL professionals to share ideas and research on second language teaching and learning. The *Journal* welcomes submissions of manuscripts based on research projects, classroom practices, conference presentations, and other professional activities of substance and interest to the general membership.

A double-blind review process is used in which submitted manuscripts are distributed by the editor to two-three reviewers with expertise in the areas addressed in each manuscript. Written comments by reviewers and a recommendation on acceptance are returned to the editor, who then communicates the comments and decision on acceptance to the authors.

Manuscript Guidelines

- The manuscript should appeal to the instructional, administrative, or research interests of educators at various levels, such as adult education, or K-12 issues.

- The manuscript should be substantive and present new ideas or new applications of information related to current trends in the field.

- The manuscript should be well written, clearly organized, and carefully proofed.

- A complete reference list should be supplied at the end of the manuscript, and the entire manuscript should be formatted according to guidelines in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th Ed.* (2001).

- Manuscripts should generally be no longer than 15-20 double-spaced pages.

- An abstract of 150 words or less should accompany each manuscript.

- A biographical statement of 50 words or less should be included for each author. Information should include current job or title, institution, degrees held, professional experience, and any other relevant information.

- Three copies of the manuscript should be submitted with no names indicated. Please include a cover letter with the name, postal and e-mail address, and phone number of the first author (or other contact person) clearly noted.

- Manuscripts may be submitted in electronic format on a 3.5 floppy or 100MB zip disk, or as an e-mail attachment. Please use a Macintosh-compatible program (e.g., Microsoft Word). Camera-ready figures and tables are requested.

- Send manuscripts to *Dr. Eileen N. Whelan Ariza, Journal Editor, Florida Atlantic University, Department of Education, 777 Glades Road, Boca Raton, FL 33431 or e-mail to eariza@fau.ed*

DEADLINE FOR SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS FOR THE <u>2007 ISSUE</u> IS NOVEMBER 15, 2006.

Call for Papers

Sunshine State TESOL Journal Fall 2006
Special Topics Issue: ELL Assessment and Accountability: Trends and Issues

The board of the Sunshine State TESOL Journal invites you to submit manuscripts for publication in a Special Topics issues on Assessment and Accountability: Trends and Issues for ELLs. This publication would address research and scholarly discussion of ways that current accountability system shape the schooling experiences of ELLs and teachers of ELLs, creative and innovative ways of assessing ELLs' academic, language, and literacy progress (in L1 and L2) as well as approaches to assessing teacher preparation for linguistically and culturally diverse learners.

- Manuscripts should be well written, clearly organized, and carefully proofed.

- References should be supplied at the end of the manuscript, and the manuscript should follow the format guidelines described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th Ed. (2001).

- Manuscripts should be no longer than 12-15 double-spaced pages.

- An abstract of 150 words or less should accompany each manuscript.

- A biographical statement of 50 words or less should be included for each author. Information should include current job or title, institution, degrees held, professional experience, and any other relevant information.

- Three copies of the manuscript should be submitted with no name indicated on the manuscript. Please include a cover letter with the name, postal and e-mail address, and phone number of the first author (or other contact) clearly noted.

- Manuscripts may be submitted in electronic format on a 3.5 floppy or 100MB zip disk, or as an e-mail attachment in Microsoft Word or Rich Text Format. Camera-ready figures and tables are requested.

DEADLINE FOR SUBMISSIONS IS July 1, 2006.

A panel of TESOL professionals referees the Sunshine State TESOL Journal. Please send manuscripts to: *Dr. Eric Dwyer, Florida International University: eric.dwyer@fiu.edu*

Book Review Guidelines

📖 Materials reviewed must have been published in the past three years.

📖 Reviews should be a maximum of three double-spaced pages.

📖 Each review must include complete bibliographic information, a description of the book/material, the audience for whom it is designed, and how well it accomplishes its purposes.

📖 A cover letter should provide the author's name, postal and e-mail address, telephone number, and a brief (25-word) biographical statement.

📖 Reviews should be submitted on a 3.5 floppy or zip disk or as an e-mail attachment in a Macintosh-compatible program (preferably Microsoft Word).

📖 Send reviews to Dr. John M. Graney, Book Review Editor, Santa Fe Community College, 3000 NW 83rd St, Gainesville, FL 32606 or e-mail to john.graney@sfcc.edu

DEADLINE FOR SUBMISSION OF BOOK REVIEWS IS FEBRUARY 2, 2007.

Sunshine State TESOL Graduate Student Research/Publication Grant

Who's Eligible: All current SST members who are enrolled in a TESOL, TEFL, Linguistics or related graduate program and who are currently completing a masters or doctoral thesis or a substantial research paper relevant to the fields of ESL or EFL.

Purpose: To support graduate studies in the field of ESOL and to support the development of projects with direct application to second language classroom instruction.

Amount: One award of $500. $250 upon selection and acceptance of the award and the remaining $250 upon submission of the research project in article form to the SST Journal.

Criteria: Applications are evaluated in terms of (a) the merit of the graduate study project, (b) reasons for pursuing graduate studies, and (c) financial need. Preference is given to projects with practical classroom applications.

To Apply: Send three copies of each of the following: (a) a three-page (maximum) description of your graduate study project including (1) the name of the institution where the project will be or is being done, (2) a statement of purpose of the study, (3) a description of what is to be done and why, (4) a statement of the project's practical application, and (5) your qualifications to undertake the project; (b) a two-page (maximum) letter of application including (1) an explanation of your reasons for pursuing graduate studies, and (2) a statement of financial need; (c) a current curriculum vitae; (d) a 50-word bio-data summary; and (e) your e-mail address.

Supporting Documentation: With your application, enclose one sealed letter from your graduate project supervisor that (a) describes and comments on the merit of the project and (b) indicates the status and confirms approval of the project.

Additional Comments: This award is intended to support the final analysis and writing of the research project. The recipient of this award is expected to submit the results of the project to the SST Journal within one year of the date the award is received.

Due Date: Applications must be received on or before March 15, 2007.
This could be your award—apply!

Send Applications and Direct All Inquiries to: Mabel Magarinos, 445 West Amelia Street, 6th Floor, Orlando, FL 32801-1127 or e-mail to: magarim@ocps.net

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