The Effects of Integrated Language-Based Instruction in Elementary ESL Learning

YOUB KIM
Vanderbilt University
Teaching & Learning
361 Wyatt Center
Nashville, TN 37203
Email: youb.kim@vanderbilt.edu

The purpose of this research study is to compare the effectiveness of 2 different instructional approaches to language instruction—integrated (oral plus written) versus oral-only instruction—in developing oral language skills of young students learning English as a second language (ESL). Drawing upon 2 competing research perspectives on young ESL children's English language learning, this study examined the question "Does integrated, language-based intervention lead to greater gains in the oral language development of focus ESL students than oral language-based intervention?" The study participants were 2 beginning ESL students—one from Korea (Yun) and one from China (Yang)—enrolled in kindergarten in a multicultural school in a Midwestern state (student names are pseudonyms). Results from the 2 focus students' performances on multiple oral language assessment measures showed that integrated, language-based intervention led to greater gains in the focus students' oral language development than did an exclusively oral language-based intervention. Thus, the key instructional issue is not whether literacy should be used for beginning ESL students, but rather in what ways is literacy most effective in supporting ESL students' language and cognitive development.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY IS to understand the role of English reading and writing in the oral language development of lower elementary students learning English as a second language (ESL). One of the key instructional challenges of teaching young ESL students is helping them develop the oral language skills required to participate in classroom activities. Because school-based oral language skills—also called "academic English"—are cognitively more challenging than conversational English and require greater linguistic abilities, an important question is, "What kinds of instruction support the development of beginning ESL children's academic English?" Indeed, just such a question has captured the attention of policy makers and researchers alike (e.g., August & Hakuta, 1997; Cummins, 1986; McLaughlin, 1985; Snow, Cancino, Gonzalez, & Shriberg, 1987; Snow, Tabors, Nicholson, & Kurland, 1995; U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

This research study draws from two extant research perspectives on the role of English written language on young children's oral language development in ESL. Researchers in general agree that students' native language competence is an important linguistic and cognitive tool in the development of academic English (August & Hakuta, 1997; Cummins, 1979, 1986; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), but there has been a continuing dispute for three decades over whether written English, instantiated as reading and writing exercises, can or should be used to develop academic oral English for beginning ESL students who possess minimal oral and written language skills. For example, one group of researchers has proposed that an adequate level of oral language is a prerequisite for literacy instruction in English (Mills, Cowen, & Guess, 1977; Snow, Burns, & Griffin; Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986), whereas others

The Modern Language Journal, 92, iii, (2008)
0026-7902/08/431–451 $1.50/0

have argued that ESL students can develop oral language and literacy skills simultaneously (Elley, 1991, 1994; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Fitzgerald, 2001; Gersten, 1996; Goodman, Goodman, & Flores, 1978; Hudelson, 1984, 1986; Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001).

To bridge the gap between these two conflicting perspectives and contribute to the study of effective language and literacy instruction for ESL students, I conducted a small-scale intervention study: I studied two ESL students (one Korean and one Chinese native speaker) enrolled in kindergarten in a public elementary school in the midwestern United States between September of 2002 and May of 2003. I provided two different types of instruction (i.e., integrated and oral language-based instruction) to the focus students for 10 weeks (February through April 2002), followed by 6-month observations in their classrooms. I compared the effectiveness of the two instructional approaches in developing the students' oral language skills. Research results from the 10-week intervention show that both ESL students performed better while they received the integrated language-based instruction. Thus, this study suggests that English reading and writing can serve as an effective scaffolding tool to develop oral language skills for young ESL students with minimal English oral language skills.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study highlights the importance of understanding young ESL students' unique strengths and challenges in English language learning. There is an implicit assumption in ESL research that the language learning processes of young ESL students are like those of native speakers of English. ESL researchers who hold this view argue that learning ESL requires the kinds of language input that young children receive from their caretakers in learning their first language (e.g., Krashen, 1985) and that ESL students should first be introduced conceptually to easy language skills, then to more complex ones (e.g., Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986). The process of learning a first language may be similar to that of learning a second language in the sense that language learning requires a coordination of linguistic, cognitive, and social factors, but when we examine currently available empirical evidence regarding the oral language and literacy development of young ESL children, there is a distinct difference between learning English as a second language and learning it as a native language.

ESL Students' Oral Language Development

Case studies conducted in the 1970s shed light on understanding young ESL students' oral language development. Researchers found that young ESL children develop "formulaic utterances, conversational strategies, and a highly simple code . . . sufficient for everyday social context" (van Lier, 1999, p. 10). For example, Hakuta (1974) studied a 5-year-old Japanese girl who learned English in an informal learning context (i.e., in her neighborhood) for 60 weeks. He identified three word chunks, which he called "prefabricated patterns" (Hakuta, 1974, p. 296), based on her spontaneous speech data: (a) "gonna" to represent "am/are/is gonna," (b) "do you" as in "what do you do," and (c) "how to" in embedded "how" questions as in "I know how to do it." For example, the child's utterances using the three prefabricated patterns involved "I gonna make 'nother baseball" (Hakuta, 1976, p. 325), "What do you doing, this boy?" (Hakuta, 1974, p. 293), and "I know how do you write this" (Hakuta, 1976, p. 328). The existence of these prefabricated patterns suggests that the child did not develop syntactic knowledge that governs the sentence structure. Among the child's speech samples over a period of 60 weeks, these prefabricated patterns constituted over 50% of her total oral production (Hakuta, 1976). Thus, young ESL learners seem to learn grammatical structures as chunks without conceptual understanding of how parts can be analyzed and used in a new linguistic context (Hakuta, 1974, 1976; Itoh & Hatch, 1978; van Lier).

Two other groups of scholars made similar observations regarding ESL students' limited progress in acquiring syntactic complexity in English oral language skills. Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) included a brief description of Huang's study of Paul, a 5-year-old Chinese child. Paul attended an American nursery school for 4 hours each morning, and it was the only place he had contact with English. Based on the description, Paul's speech included mostly word chunks, such as "Are you ready?" "I see you," and "very good" during the first 2 months of his exposure to English (Wagner-Gough & Hatch, p. 298). They also reported the speech of Homer, a 5-year-old Iranian child who extended the usage of "What's this?" to mean "identification (e.g., this is Elmer), advice or help (e.g., what should I do now) or command (e.g., stop pushing sand in my tunnel)" (Wagner-Gough & Hatch, p. 301).

These findings, largely from case studies from three decades ago, have been confirmed in

more recent work. While studying two 6-year-old Spanish-speaking children of Puerto Rican origin who were in a mainstream classroom with pullout ESL support, Weber and Longhi-Chirlin (2001) concluded that "both children advanced in speaking English, but not far beyond fixed expressions and simple syntax, as observed in other learners in their first year in learning English" (p. 44).

Taken together, although young ESL children effectively communicate with their interlocutors, they do not develop a wide range of linguistic knowledge after 1 year of exposure to a new language (i.e., English) in an informal language learning context (e.g., the neighborhood) (August & Hakuta, 1997; van Lier, 1999). Thus, "second-language learning is not easy and automatic for children" (McLaughlin et al., 2000, p. 5). The second language learning processes of young children—especially the development of advanced oral language skills required for successful participation in school activities—take time and effort, and thoughtful consideration of these research findings is a prerequisite to designing effective instruction for young ESL students.

ESL Students' Literacy Development

Unlike children who are learning English as a first language, studies on early elementary ESL students' literacy development suggest that they develop literacy skills appropriate for their instructional contexts without first acquiring sufficient proficiency in oral language. Two research studies are relevant here. As mentioned previously, Weber and Longhi-Chirlin (2001) studied two 6-year-old Spanish-speaking children in a school that grouped children based on their ability to understand the concept of print in their native language, Spanish. The children were in classrooms in which teachers used basal texts for reading and provided writing experiences in a controlled way (i.e., dictation) while encouraging ESL students' participation in class activities and providing necessary instructional support. Weber and Longhi-Chirlin found that both children developed highly accurate decoding skills and their oral reading was generally smooth and steady, although neither of them seemed to be successful in predicting and comprehending written texts or expressing their own ideas in different types of writing. The literacy skill development of these two children was sufficient for them to keep up with the class and meet the teachers' expectations for text comprehension and writing. The authors noted that the two Spanish-speaking children developed English literacy skills without fully developed oral language in English. Similar observations were made in Fitzgerald and Noblit's study (1999) on their own teaching in a first-grade classroom. In their report of two Spanish-speaking students from Mexico, they noted that the students' English reading and writing development surpassed their English oral language development.

A close examination of young ESL students in these two studies suggests that ESL students could develop literacy skills without an "appropriate" level of oral language proficiency in English. ESL students' literacy skill development also reflects teachers' assumptions about reading and writing. Studies on ESL children's oral and written language skill development together indicate that ESL students are motivated to communicate in English with English speakers using available linguistic resources in a creative way. They do so by drawing from their linguistic knowledge in their native language or making sense of linguistic input from their surroundings (e.g., classrooms).

As I have described thus far, individual cases in ESL research have provided important insights in understanding characteristics of young ESL students' language and literacy learning processes. These cases show distinct differences between ESL learning and learning English as a first language. The case studies also are suggestive of the possibility that literacy can be used to develop oral language for young ESL learners. However, it is not quite as easy to draw inferences on the role of instructional approach from these case studies because the students were exposed to only one type of instruction, and their learning of both oral and written English language skills may have been due to their teachers' effective teaching.

To understand the type of instruction that effectively supports the development of beginning ESL learners' academic English, a study is needed that compares the outcomes of ESL students' language learning using different instructional approaches. With this purpose in mind, I conducted a small-scale, exploratory intervention study to closely examine the effectiveness of two different instructional approaches on ESL oral language development.

METHOD

Overview

This study is part of a larger study that used a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Drawing from my personal experience as an ESL learner and a parent of two

Korean and English bilingual children as well as professional experience as an English teacher and ESL researcher, I felt it was important to understand individual ESL students in their learning contexts. In school settings, classroom instruction may be the most important source of language input for young ESL students, as noted in Wagner and Hatch's study (1975); teacher expectation and cognitive demand in the classroom may affect opportunities for language and literacy development for young ESL children, as noted by Weber and Longhi-Chirlin (2001). Between October and December, I visited two focus students' general education classrooms every 2 weeks during morning activities between 10:30 a.m. and 12:15 p.m. and observed them to understand their language learning opportunities in school as well as their evolving oral and written language knowledge in English (see the *Setting* section for a fuller description of general education classrooms). During that time, I also observed their ESL classroom once a month and interviewed their ESL teacher. To examine the effectiveness of instructional approaches in developing the two students' oral language in English, I conducted an intervention study that provided two different types of instruction to the students for 8 weeks and a 2-week preassessment and postassessment period that was established to collect extensive information on their oral language skills using various assessment tools (see Table 4).

In designing the intervention study, I attempted to extend the scope of case study research methodology (van Lier, 2005). I considered methodological concerns about case studies within the scientific research community, acknowledging that observational bias can muddle case study findings (McLaughlin, 1978) and that observations can be opportunistic (Pearson, personal communication, 2000). With that in mind, I used the logic of a single-subject study to conduct a more controlled investigation (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Kamil, 1995; Kazden, 1982; Kratochwill & Levin, 1992; Yaden, 1995). This intervention study was specifically designed to explore the effectiveness of two instructional approaches on ESL oral language development, but it is important to note that it was a part of a larger study that included extensive descriptive observations of these students, along with others, in classroom settings.

Setting

Spring Valley Elementary School (pseudonym) served as my research site. It is a public school located in a midwestern state with a population of 240 students in Grades K–5. During my research period, the majority of students were children of international graduate students or visiting scholars in the neighboring university, representing over 20 different languages and cultures. Among ESL students, who constituted approximately 80% of the student population, 27% were qualified for additional ESL support due to their limited English skills. To accommodate the diverse cultural and linguistic needs of such a high percentage of ESL students, especially of those who spoke minimal English when they first entered school, two ESL teachers coordinated and implemented a pullout ESL program to complement general classroom instruction.

ESL instruction took place in small groups outside of the general education classroom. The length of ESL instruction usually lasted less than 1 hour per day (with some variation based on the needs of the students), 5 days a week. During the remainder of the day, ESL students studied in general education classrooms. The ESL program provided a supportive, small-group learning environment, and both oral and written languages were used for instruction and class participation. During the interview at the end of May, Mrs. B, who taught both focus students, described how she organized reading activities into a progression of "read to, with, and by" activities in which the teacher gradually released the responsibility of reading to the students as they gained more control over their language and literacy skills. Students also were given opportunities to write their weekend experiences at the beginning of the week and a second writing opportunity on Friday when they seemed to feel comfortable with reading the texts. Although writing was the least implemented activity among the four language skills, ESL students were given many opportunities to develop both oral and written English language skills.

The general classrooms implemented a balanced literacy program requiring the use of all language skills in classroom activities. Oral and written language skills were used in all class activities. For example, kindergartners used both oral and written language skills as they engaged themselves in whole-, small-, and independent-group activities. The classroom's daily routines included extensive written language use. When kindergartners arrived in the morning, for example, they were given time to read books independently before they came to the carpeted area to read the day's schedule and calendar as a whole group. Mornings were spent on recognizing their names

and shared writing to learn to write their names, sight words, and common English phonograms (e.g., -at in cat or -ch in March). Students participated in small-group reading and writing activities. They read alphabet books, poems (printed in large font) focusing on rhyming words as an entire class, and independent reading books as a part of guided reading group activities. Teachers implemented a wide variety of reading activities throughout the day, such as shared reading, guided reading, and independent reading, and they highlighted reading for various purposes, including reading for enjoyment. They also read to the students to introduce new concepts in content areas, such as butterflies for science and patterns for math; this occurred mostly in the afternoons.

Study Participants

Two focus students, Yang and Yun, were chosen for the study. They were placed in two different kindergarten classrooms within the same school. Because multiple factors influence ESL learning, I chose two "instrumental" (Stake, 2000, p. 437) cases[1] to compare the effect of instruction on the oral language development of each student among integrated language-based and oral language-based interventions. Student selection criteria included (a) grade level, (b) native language background, (c) length of schooling in the United States, (d) English oral and written language proficiency, and (e) literacy skills in their native languages. Preference was given to the students who were enrolled in kindergarten classrooms, spoke Asian languages as a first language (in this case, Korean and Chinese) with emergent literacy skills, resided in the United States for less than 6 months at the time the study began, and possessed emergent English oral and written skills. Given the emphasis on oral and written language integration in the ESL and general education classes, I wanted to minimize its effect on the two focus students, hence the desire to select newcomers to the school. I shared these selection criteria with regular and ESL teachers, and the teachers recommended two students. Once the focus students were chosen, they were observed in their classrooms during the fall in order to understand their personalities, classroom learning environment, and, most importantly, to get an impression of their oral and written language skills in English. Classroom observations were conducted from the beginning of the school year until the intervention study began, and observational data were used to describe the students.

Yang. Yang was 6 years, 8 months old when she began participating in the intervention study. At age 6, she emigrated from China with her younger brother and lived with her grandparents and uncle's family in the United States. She was very close to her brother, who was in kindergarten. Yang was originally placed in the first grade. However, because she appeared withdrawn and did not seem interested in learning, the school principal considered her emotional need to be close to her brother and moved her to a kindergarten classroom next to her brother's. Once she was situated in the new room, Yang began to exhibit an outgoing personality. At the beginning of the school year, she used her emerging English, such as "hi" and "bye," to talk to her classroom teacher and familiar visitors to the class. She also possessed emerging English writing skills, as her journal entry in late November showed that she used letter names to represent a syllable of a familiar word (see Appendix A). Yang's native tongue is Cantonese. According to a Cantonese native speaker (a graduate student of a neighboring university) who assessed Yang's native language skills in December through general conversation, Yang's oral language skills in Cantonese were "normal" for her age level and her literacy skills in her native language were below her age level. For example, she was not able to recognize the written characters of "left," "right," and "ball," which young Chinese children at her age commonly encounter. However, she was able to write her own name and the names of family members such as her mother and brother. She also was able to write part of her father's name.

Yang had no formal schooling experience in her home country. In China, she attended a preschool, which was more like a daycare center, according to her aunt (Yang's aunt, interview, June 7, 2002). She learned Chinese songs and dances at the preschool. She received informal instruction in Chinese from her extended family members in China and in the United States. For example, her maternal grandmother taught her numbers in Chinese. After her arrival in the United States, she learned to read and write in Chinese for a short period of time (i.e., less than half an hour) every week. Her grandfather and uncle read Chinese stories or poems to her. Her uncle taught her how to write Chinese characters. According to her aunt, Yang spent a lot of time watching children's television programs, including

Blue's Clues and programs on the Discovery Channel (Yang's aunt, interview, June 7, 2002).

Yun. Yun, the other focus student, came from Korea when she was almost 5 years old. She and her family came to the United States with her father, who was a visiting scholar. Like Yang, Yun did not have formal schooling experience in her home country. She participated in swimming and art programs in Korea for a total of 1 year. Although her mother described her as active and expressive, Yun's personality at school was marked by her shyness. She seldom spoke a word to her peers or visitors in the classroom. When classroom visitors said greetings to her, she often ducked her head while smiling. Her shyness persisted throughout the school year, but the tendency was more apparent in the beginning during small group literacy activities. Yun went to a writing center and stood there leaning against a bookshelf nearby. When a child asked Yun if she wanted a piece of paper, Yun nodded her head. A few minutes later, I asked Yun a few questions regarding which small group activity she liked the most. She did not respond to any of my questions. She only shook her head (class observation, February 27, 2002).

Yun began the intervention study at the age of 5 years, 3 months. Although she exhibited minimal oral and written language skills in English, she seemed to understand that she could combine letters to compose a message. For example, her writing journal entry in early November showed that she used a string of random letters (see Appendix B). During the intervention study, Yun's oral language skills in Korean were at her age level, and her literacy skills in Korean were emerging. For example, she was able to write her own name and "ball" in Korean, but she was not able to write any part of basic words like "cat" or "dog." While she was in the United States, her mother taught her reading and writing in Korean for about 2 hours a week at the beginning of their stay and 5–6 hours a month toward the end of their stay in the States. According to her mother, Yun was better at reading than writing in Korean. She was only able to write simple words such as "lion" or "apple," which do not have ending consonants (Yun's mother, interview, June 5, 2002). Table 1 summarizes information on the 2 focus students.

To guard against the possibility that students might enter kindergarten with rich experiences in the written language register of their home language, it was important to select students with minimal formal schooling and, hence, minimal written language instruction, in their home country. On the basis of interviews and observations early in the year, I believe I succeeded in that attempt.

TABLE 1
Student Information

	Yang	Yun
Age	6 years, 8 months	5 years, 3 months
Nationality	China	Korea
Native Language	Cantonese	Korean
Literacy Skills in Native Language	Emergent	Emergent
Personality	Outgoing	Extremely shy
Prior Schooling Experience	No formal schooling	No formal schooling
Beginning English Proficiency	Minimal	Minimal

Intervention Study Procedure

The intervention research procedure involved a sequence of preintervention assessment, intervention, and postintervention assessment for a duration of 10 weeks between February and April 2002. The primary focus of preintervention and postintervention assessment periods was to collect information on individual focus students' English oral language proficiency. To this end, the Woodcock-Munõz Language Survey (W–M; Woodcock & Muñoz-Sandoval, 1993) was used as a formal assessment measure, and picture descriptions were used as an informal assessment measure. During the intervention, a daily oral language assessment was administered right before and immediately after each treatment to identify treatment effects.

The two focus students received two different types of instruction: integrated (treatment OW) and oral language-based (treatment O), and each type of instruction was repeated twice for each student, but in a different order. An extensive use of written language marks the difference between the treatments; in all other areas—such as content focus and vocabulary emphasized—the instruction was identical. For example, during integrated language-based instruction, I read books while pointing to the words and sentences on each page. I also gave the students opportunities to write and read books used for lessons or texts that they created. Reading and writing by students were important components of integrated language-based instruction. During oral language-based instruction, however, I read and explained the content of a book while pointing to pictures on each page, and

students were not given opportunities to read or write. Instead, games were used to give the students opportunities to review what they learned during the lesson. There was no reading or writing by students during oral language-based instruction. Only pictures in books or picture cards were used to make the content of conversations comprehensible to the students and facilitate oral conversations on a focal theme.

To minimize the transfer of learning effects between oral language-based and integrated language-based instruction, treatment was counterbalanced across students. Each of four different themes—food, places we live, clothing, and transportation—was organized into either oral or integrated, language-based instruction. Each theme was taught for 2 weeks. More specifically, Yang learned the "places we live" and "clothing" themes in the integrated treatment and learned "food" and "transportation" themes in the oral-only treatment. The combination of themes and treatments was reversed for Yun. As such, the order of treatments crossed over between students to control for the effect of treatment sequence. Table 2 summarizes themes and types of instruction by student.

Intervention

Instructional intervention within each treatment involved two themes and 12 instructional sessions for each student. Each instructional session consisted of a 30-minute mini-lesson and daily preassessment and post assessment of oral language use that lasted 2 minutes, 50 seconds (see a description of assessment measures in the *Assessment Measures* section). There was an exception regarding the length of instructional time. Lessons during the first and last session of each theme lasted for 20 minutes, and the rest of the lessons were 30 minutes in length, as just described. These adjustments were made because students were given thematic assessments during the first and last session of each lesson.

The purpose of each lesson was twofold. The primary objective was to expand students' vocabulary in the four themes (i.e., food, places we live, clothing, and transportation), which were chosen because of their familiarity to the children (Herr & Libby, 1995; Kostelnik, 1991). Children encounter items within these four themes on a daily basis, so it seemed reasonable to assume that they needed to understand and use the vocabulary in daily communication.

TABLE 2
Themes and Types of Instruction

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

The secondary instructional objective of each lesson was to help focus students use a complete sentence involving more than one word. Classroom observations prior to the intervention study showed that the students used one-word utterances. For example, Yang mostly nodded or gave one-word responses to her classroom teacher's questions in October and November. The teacher provided instructional support by asking her to repeat a request in a full sentence (class observation, November 16, 2001). However, Yang's one-word utterances persisted through December. Yun also used one-word utterances when she responded orally. In November, when I asked Yun what she was doing, she said, "computer" (class observation, November 7, 2001). Although Yun's one-word response in this case was pragmatically acceptable in daily conversations and one may argue she was doing fine in learning English language skills, Yun did not display verbal responses consistently, and this called for instructional support. During most class observations between October and December of 2001, Yun nodded or followed the teacher's directions without any oral response.

To support focus students' use of complete sentences, five key sentence structures were chosen for instruction: "I like," "I eat," "I ate," "I see," "I saw," and "I went." These sentence structures were incorporated into the lessons between Days 4 and 6 for each theme. More specifically, "I went" and "I saw" were selected for transportation; "I like" was selected for the clothing theme; "I like," "I eat," and "I ate" were selected for the food theme; and "I see" and "I saw" were selected for the theme of places we live. Among them, Yang produced the "I see" sentence structure during the posttest on day 3 of the first oral language treatment (before the instruction on the form was given), suggesting that she already knew the sentence structure.

Integrated language-based instruction generally consisted of four steps: (a) teacher's reading of a story or pictures related to each theme (see Appendix C); (b) focus instruction, including a pre-journal writing activity for the purpose of elaborating oral language and journal writing; (c) students' reading of their own journals; and (d) a review of words and key sentence structures studied in each theme. The first three steps took place during each instructional session, and the fourth step occurred during the last instructional

session of each theme. In other words, the last session of each theme consisted of reviewing words and key sentence structures presented in previous lessons through the use of reading and writing. As such, reading and writing were an integral part of instruction during integrated language-based lessons. I read the text while pointing to the words and pictures on each page. The students wrote words or sentences. As a review activity, the students read what they wrote independently or with me.

For example, during the first integrated lesson on March 18, 2003, I conducted a lesson on places we live (see Appendix D). Once initial assessments were done, Yang and I began the lesson by looking at pictures of different rooms in the *Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids* (Keyes, 1998) for the first 6 minutes. We looked at rooms such as bedrooms, a living room, a kitchen, and a bathroom. We also looked at items that can be found in those rooms, such as a dresser, a sofa, a stove, and a bathtub. While looking at the pictures, we read the names of the objects. Then, I asked Yang to draw a picture of her favorite room with furniture in it and to write English words for each object; this journaling activity lasted about 8 minutes. While Yang was drawing and writing object names, I asked her to add details on the picture of her favorite room to encourage her to write more. For the remainder of the time (about 3 minutes), I asked Yang to read what she wrote in her journal; we read the words together, and we then reviewed the words in the pictures of the *Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids* (Keyes).

Oral language-based instruction was matched to the integrated language-based instruction. Unlike integrated language-based instruction, however, students were not involved in reading and writing during oral language-based instruction. Books or pictures were used as an auxiliary tool to support oral interactions between the focus students and me. Oral language-based instruction primarily involved (a) the student listening to my explanation of pictures or a story while looking at the pictures in the story, (b) focused instruction through a language game or oral conversation between the student and me regarding the main idea of the story as a way to elaborate oral language, and (c) an oral review of what the student and I studied that day. The last instruction session of each theme focused on an oral review of words and sentence structures learned in previous lessons. Picture cards were used to facilitate reviewing words from previous lessons.

For example, during the first oral language lesson on March 5, 2003, I conducted a lesson on fruits and vegetables as a part of the food theme (see Appendix E). For the first 6 minutes, I showed pictures of fruits and vegetables and said their English names, and Yang sometimes repeated after me. Then I introduced a concentration game, which consisted of laying picture cards upside down on the table, each player taking a turn to pick a card, saying the name of the object in the picture, and finding another card that matched the picture. The game, which lasted about 11 minutes, was intended to review object names and elaborate on oral language. For the last 2 minutes, Yang and I reviewed the English names of fruits and vegetables while viewing the pictures and selecting the pictures of our favorite fruits and vegetables.

Assessment Measures

To compare the effects of each type of instruction, the same outcome measures were used for preassessment and postassessment. For example, assessment tools used for preintervention and postintervention were the same. Most importantly, the same oral language assessment tool was used for daily preassessment and postassessment sessions.

Picture descriptions were used to assess a combination of vocabulary and syntax. Picture description tasks during baseline phases and daily lessons within the intervention phase assessed children's ability to provide an oral description regarding objects and events in a picture that I selected for them. The baseline picture description was not timed, but only the first 25 tape counts (or 2 minutes, 50 seconds) of student responses were used for analysis in order to make test administration time consistent with daily picture description tasks. Daily picture description tasks were timed, and each was administered for 2 minutes, 50 seconds (or 25 tape counts).

Daily picture description tasks were used as oral language assessment tools to measure treatment effects on a daily basis. They were the primary assessment tool. There was no language input or interaction other than each focus lesson; therefore, it was assumed that the difference in student performance on the preassessments and postassessments on picture description tasks best represents students' learning during the lesson (i.e., treatment effect) among all assessment tools used for the intervention study. A total of four different pictures were used for each theme. The four pictures included three different representational types of pictures. Type One involved two real-life pictures from a commercial calendar entitled

Defining Moments (Immunex Corporation, 2001). Type Two consisted of two colorful illustrations from *Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids* (Keyes, 1998), a commercially developed picture book developed for ESL students. Type Three involved black-and-white, two-tone illustrations from *Composition Through Pictures* (Heaton, 1966), a picture book developed to guide composition for ESL students. In summary, one picture from either Type One or Three and three pictures from Type Two were chosen for each theme. For each treatment (i.e., two themes), a total of eight pictures were chosen from the three sources just described. The eight pictures included one picture from Type One, six pictures from Type Two, and one picture from Type Three.

General prompts used for daily picture description tasks were "Tell me what you see in this picture," "What do you see in this picture? Please tell me," or "Can you tell me what you see in this picture?" I gave one of these three prompts to the student when a picture was shown to her. If the student did not say anything after a few minutes, I repeated one of the prompts. For incidences when a child did not produce any words orally even after general prompts were given a couple of times, I pointed to a specific object in the picture and asked what it was.

The baseline picture description was used as an informal assessment tool administered during preintervention and postintervention assessment phases. The purpose of the assessment was to measure focus students' oral language development before and after the intervention. Students were shown two different series of pictures and asked to describe them. Each series of pictures was chosen from the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay, & Hernández, 1976) and pre-Language Assessment Scales (preLAS; Duncan & De Avila, 1998). Pictures in preLAS included four sequential illustrations of a snail and an earthworm that encounter a rainstorm while wandering through the woods. Pictures in the Bilingual Syntax Measure showed three serial scenes of a king at a dining table: While the king took an apple from his servant, the king's dog ate the food on the king's plate.

An initial prompt provided to the focus students for baseline picture description included "What do you see in these pictures?" Then follow-up questions were asked while pointing to each picture. If the students did not reply to the initial prompt, I pointed to an object or a person and asked what the picture was. Follow-up questions included "What is going on in this picture?" or "What happens here?" or "What is he doing?" while pointing to the picture of the king in the Bilingual Syntax Measure.

Clarification questions also were asked when the students' oral responses were unclear. For example, during the pretest on March 4, 2003, when I pointed to a picture in which the king places an apple on the plate his servant is holding and I asked what was going on, Yang said, "Not apple." I followed up by asking, "Not apple? So he doesn't want an apple?" As explained earlier, while the baseline picture description was not timed, only the first 25 tape counts (or 2 minutes, 50 seconds) of student responses were used for analysis in order to make test administration time consistent with daily picture description tasks.

Scoring and Analysis

The scoring of daily picture descriptions was additive. Based on the operational definition that oral language proficiency refers to a student's ability to articulate her ideas appropriately in response to a given question using accurate words in a grammatically appropriate sentential structure within a reasonably limited time, students' oral responses were analyzed with respect to five areas, and their qualitative and quantitative aspects were considered for scoring as described in this section. Scores were computed for each utterance and aggregated per each testing session. Instructional effects were calculated by deducting sum scores of postassessments from sum scores of preassessments. Getting positive numbers as a product was assumed to represent that a specific instructional session was effective.

The five areas considered for scoring each utterance included (a) the total number of words in focus students' utterances; (b) pragmatic acceptability (i.e., whether students' responses were appropriate for the teacher's questions); (c) semantic acceptability (i.e., whether the students' responses accurately described what was in a picture); (d) syntactic acceptability (i.e., whether the sentential structure of the students' utterances was grammatical); and (e) the absence of prompting. One point was given for each comprehensible word per utterance, and the range of the sample was between 0 and 15. Then a maximum of 2 points per utterance was given for each of the five areas mentioned. Two points were given for an appropriate response for each area. One point was assigned for an acceptable response, and 0 points for an unacceptable response. The range of the sample for the number of words per assessment session was between 0 and 71, between 0 and 40 for grammaticality, between 0 and 21 for

semantic acceptability, between 0 and 23 for syntactic acceptability, and between 0 and 39 for the absence of a prompt. In addition, the length of testing time also was considered for scoring. Two points were assigned if a testing session lasted for fewer than 25 tape counts (or 2 minutes, 50 seconds), 1 point for 25–30 tape counts, and 0 points for over 30 tape counts. A score for the length of testing time was given for each testing session.

An Example of Scoring

Yang produced "Onion," "Apple," "Pizza," and "I see apple" during the postassessment on the first day of the oral language-based instruction phase. Among the items mentioned by Yang, pizza was not present in the picture, and she uttered "apple" while pointing to red peppers in the picture. Thus, she did not get any points for the semantic acceptability of these two words, although she received 1 point for each word she uttered. Consequently, Yang's score for the total number of words was 6, and the sum of pragmatic scores was 8, assigning 2 points for each of the four utterances. A total of 2 points was given for semantic acceptability for the two appropriate utterances, and a total of 4 points was given for syntactic acceptability, assigning 1 point for each of the four utterances. After 2 points were assigned for the length of testing time, the sum for Yang's Day 1 oral production was 23 out of 40 maximum points for the four utterances.

Analysis of student oral responses on the baseline picture description assessment involved computing fluency and accuracy and comparing the focus students' performances in these two areas between preassessment and postassessment. Fluency was calculated by measuring the mean length of comprehensible utterances (MLCU). To assess the focus students' syntactic maturity, the number of words in each utterance was counted (O'Hare, 1973). It is important to note that morphemes were not counted independently. For example, the only word that Yang used in a plural form was "pizzas" during the preassessment baseline picture description. Because Yang did not use a plural form for two apples in the picture, she did not seem to understand that "–s" can mean more than one thing at that point. Rather, she seemed to have memorized the words as a chunk. Thus, Yang's one-time use of the plural morpheme "–s" was not counted independently.

Accuracy was expressed as a percentage of the total possible score. For example, Yang produced, "Pizzas," "No, yummy food," "Eating," "Doggie," "Not apple," "The doggie eat it," "The apple," "Down," and "Not turkey" during preassessment. The maximum possible score based on the grading rubric was 201, and the student's performance score was 127. When Yang's performance score was divided by the possible maximum score of Yang's utterances, the result was 78%, and this score represented Yang's accuracy for the preassessment.

RESULTS

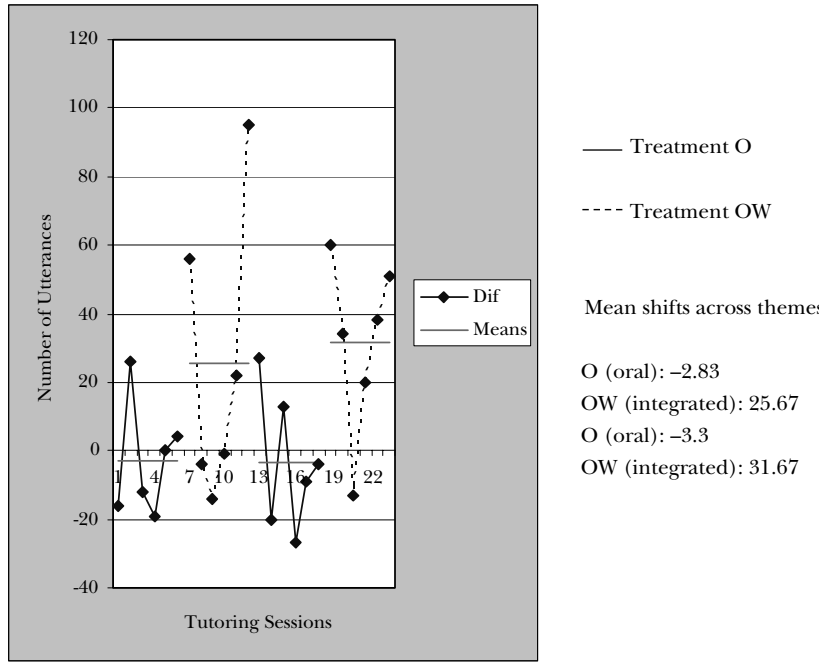
Daily Oral Language Assessment

To understand the effects of the two different types of instruction, differences in focus students' daily oral language performances between preassessments and postassessments were computed. If the difference score was positive, it was assumed that the instruction was effective. If the difference score was negative, it suggested that the instruction somehow influenced the students to utter less during the postassessments. Although it runs counter to common sense to have negative learning, one can imagine why a student would talk less about a picture after an intervention session than before (e.g., he or she might think the interviewer already knows what is in the picture); but the topic is quite complex, and the meaning of negative difference scores is discussed in greater depth in the discussion section. Daily difference scores were plotted in a graph for visual analysis. A mean of daily difference scores was calculated for each theme, and mean shifts across themes were observed.

Yang. The graph in Figure 1 shows the score for each of 24 sessions. Solid lines represent oral language-based instruction (treatment O), and dotted lines represent integrated language-based instruction (treatment OW). There is a line break between the four phases of the entire intervention. As stated earlier, the range of the sample for the number of words per assessment session was between 0 and 71.

Recall that the basic unit of analysis for the daily measures was the difference in the scores of a picture description task administered immediately before and immediately after each daily lesson, the assumption being that if scores increased, then the daily lesson had a positive impact on language growth. A visual analysis showed a wide day-to-day fluctuation in difference scores. The range between the highest and lowest difference scores was smaller during the oral language-based instruction, but two thirds of the scores were negative. For the integrated language-based

FIGURE 1
Differences in Yang's Oral Production Between Preassessment and Postassessment



Note. O = oral; OW = integrated.

instruction, Yang's difference scores show a continuous upward movement from Time 3 (i.e., the third tutoring session). Across these variations, however, a clear pattern emerged: The daily difference scores were positive whenever integrated language-based instruction (i.e., OW, dotted line, Figure 1) was introduced. Shifts across themes show the same pattern. The mean of the difference scores for the first O treatment was −2.83. The mean of the difference scores for the first OW treatment was 25.67. The mean of the difference scores for the second O treatment was −3.5, and the mean of the difference scores for the second OW treatment was 31.67. The means shifted up and down depending on treatments. Clearly, the OW treatment led to upward mean shifts, and the O treatment led to downward mean shifts as shown in preassessment and postassessment (see Figure 1).

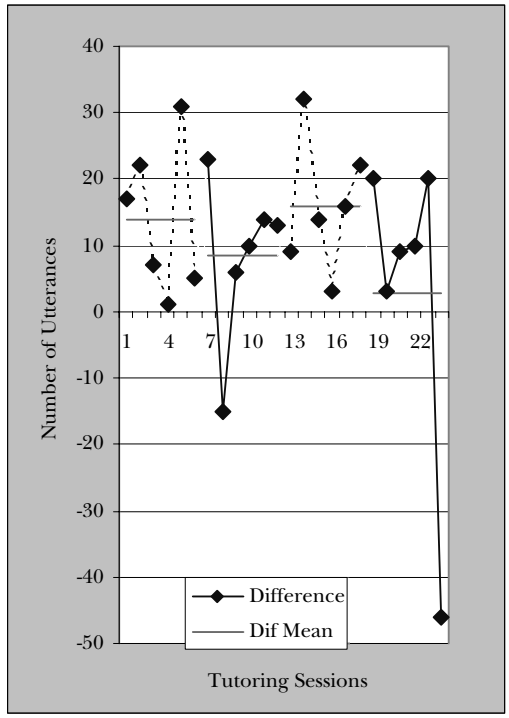
Yun. Although difference scores fluctuated, Yun's oral language performance showed a different pattern from Yang's. The range between highest and lowest difference scores was smaller during the integrated language-based instruction. Most of the difference scores were positive, except for 2 days during oral language-based instruction when the scores dropped significantly. Despite these two lowest scores, the means of difference scores for all themes were positive. Unlike with Yang, there was no clear pattern. When the first oral language-based instruction (treatment O, solid line, Figure 2) was introduced, difference scores moved upward. However, the difference scores moved downward whenever a new mode of instruction was introduced for the second time, regardless of the type of treatments. The mean of the difference scores for the first OW treatment was 13.83. The mean of the difference scores for the first O treatment was 8.5. The mean of the difference scores for the second OW treatment was 16, and the mean of the difference scores for the second O treatment was 2.67. Upward mean shifts were observed during OW treatment, and downward mean shifts were noticed during O treatment, as shown in preassessment and postassessment (see Figure 2).

A summary of individual and combined means for treatments and themes for both students is included in Table 3.

Preintervention and Postintervention Assessment

Results illustrated that Yang made gains in most English oral and written language assessment measures between February and May 2003.

FIGURE 2
Differences in Yun's Oral Production Between Preassessment and Postassessment



Note. O = oral; OW = integrated.

During the same period, Yun also made gains on one language test (W–M), but her performance remained the same in baseline picture description assessment measures. Furthermore, because she produced little oral language during the informal assessments, it was difficult to generalize about Yun's oral language development.

Yang. Yang made progress on both standardized and nonstandardized measures. On oral and reading/writing tests of the W–M between preassessments and postassessments, Yang improved to Oral Level 4 from Level 3. She also made progress in reading and writing by scoring 432 points—up from 422.5 points—although she stayed at Level 5. Yang's accuracy in picture description tasks increased to 78% during postassessment from 63.2% during preassessment. The mean length of comprehensible utterances also increased to 2.9 words from 1.7 words. In other words, Yang's responses during postassessment consisted generally of three words, and they were at least one word longer and 15% more accurate than during preassessment.

Yun. Yun's performance on standardized tests shows that she made some progress in English skills. Yun was at Oral Level 3 and Reading and Writing Level 4 in the beginning of this study, but her oral skill improved to Level 4 and her reading and writing skills improved to Level 5 during postassessment. However, Yun did not make progress in baseline picture description tasks. Her MLCU was the same for both preintervention and postintervention assessments, and her accuracy slightly decreased from 63.6% to 59%, suggesting that her syntactic fluency and accuracy may have been the same. (See Table 4.)

Summary

This small-scale intervention study aimed to examine the question, "Does integrated language-based intervention lead to greater gains in the oral language development of focus ESL students than oral language-based intervention?" The results of multiple oral language assessments administered during preintervention and postintervention and intervention phases showed

TABLE 3
Individual and Combined Means for Phases, Treatments, and Themes

		Yang		
Phases	1	2	3	4
Theme	Food	Places We Live	Transportation	Clothing
Treatment	O	OW	O	OW
Mean Pretest	38.5	51.5	99	120.17
Mean Posttest	35.67	77.5	95.67	151.83
Difference	−2.83	25.67	−3.3	31.67
		Yun		
Phases	1	2	3	4
Theme	Food	Places We Live	Transportation	Clothing
Treatment	OW	O	OW	O
Mean Pretest	24.83	55.17	60.5	68.66
Mean Posttest	38.66	63.67	76.5	71.33
Difference	13.83	8.5	16	2.67
		Both students		
Treatment	Integrated	Oral	Integrated	Oral
Mean Pretest	38.17	46.84	90.34	83.83
Mean Posttest	58.08	49.67	114.17	87.5
Difference	19.91	2.83	23.83	3.67

Note. O = oral; OW = integrated.

an interesting pattern: The two students' oral language performance fluctuated depending on the instructional approach, although both made progress in learning English oral language skills during the research period, and integrated language-based intervention led to greater gains in their oral language development than did oral language-based intervention.

Although Yang made progress in her oral language abilities between preintervention and postintervention assessment phases according to the results of the W–M and baseline picture description tasks, her oral language performance was influenced by the type of instruction. Yang's performance on daily oral language assessments clearly exhibited that integrated language-based instruction led to greater treatment effects than oral language-based instruction. The assessment results of Yun were similar to those of Yang. Like Yang, Yun's performance on the W–M suggested that she made progress in English oral language between two baseline phases, although the results of the baseline picture description assessment showed that her fluency remained the same and her accuracy decreased. Taken together, the results showed that integrated language-based instruction led to greater gains in the two students' oral language performance than did oral language-based instruction.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Considering that this is a small-scale exploratory intervention study with two ESL

TABLE 4
Preintervention and Postintervention Assessment Summary

	Woodcock-Munõz		Baseline Picture Description	
Yang	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
	Oral Level 3	Oral Level 4	63.2% accuracy	78% accuracy
	R & W Level 5 (422.5 points)	R & W Level 5 (432 points)	1.7 MLCU	2.9 MLCU
Yun	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
	Oral Level 3	Oral Level 4	63.6% accuracy	59% accuracy
	R & W Level 4	R & W Level 5	1.0 MLCU	1.0 MLCU

Note. R & W = Reading and Writing; MLCU = mean length of comprehensible utterances.

students, it is important to note that findings may not be generalized to other ESL students. However, findings do suggest the positive role that reading and writing can play in the development of oral language for lower elementary ESL students, and there were a few interesting findings that warrant more thorough discussion.

To begin, it is important to consider the role of literacy (i.e., reading and writing) in beginning ESL instruction. Research findings revealed that both students made the greatest language gains during the second phase of integrated, language-based instruction. Because the focus students studied different themes (i.e., "clothing" for Yang and "transportation" for Yun), it is reasonable to conclude that it was not the specific content but the literacy activities (i.e., reading words, writing in journals) that were responsible for the positive language learning outcomes. Conceptually, the emergent literacy perspective helps us understand the fact that literacy development is a lifelong process, and literacy is not a skill but a way of thinking and interacting with learning environments (Ferreiro, 1986; Olson, 2002; Yaden, Rowe, & MacGillivray, 1999). The key instructional issue, then, is not whether literacy should be used for beginning ESL students, but rather what ways of using literacy are most effective in supporting ESL students' language and cognitive development.

As we ponder the issue of effective ways of using literacy for beginning ESL students, we can think of the types of texts that are more accessible and pragmatic to them. Recall the use of informational texts and students' own writing in integrated language-based instruction in this study, which led to greater gains in oral language performances for both students. Because ESL students often lack English vocabulary to meaningfully participate in classroom activities, it is helpful for teachers to use informational texts with vivid illustrations and pictures (Hadaway, Vardell, & Young, 2002; Rueda & Garcia, 2001). Students' own writing also can be very useful because it can provide them with opportunities to record what they want to know and share what they know with teachers and peers, and the writings can then be used to further their language and cognitive development (Hiebert, Pearson, Taylor, Richardson, & Paris, 1998).

An equally important pedagogical implication is to provide customized ESL instruction that meets the needs of individual ESL students. Although ESL students may share the need to learn English in order to succeed in U.S. schools, they also may come from vastly different cultural backgrounds and home experiences; in other words, they may possess diverse cognitive and social strengths and needs, and one size may not fit all in ESL instruction (Orellana, 2001, 2003; Yau & Jiménez, 2003). From a cognitive perspective, moving beyond a one-size-fits-all approach means teachers must consider student characteristics like age and incoming language achievement. Although great caution was taken to select two focus students who possess similar characteristics, Yang was a year and a half older than Yun, despite the fact that they were both in kindergarten. Interestingly, Yang's writing sample showed that she developed an emerging understanding of letter–sound correspondence by representing the sound of "ginger" with "jnjr" in her writing in late November. In contrast, Yun's writing sample from early November did not show her understanding of letter–sound correspondence, as she used a string of random letters. Considering that both students possessed similar language and literacy knowledge in their native languages at the beginning of the year—although this is only speculative—Yang's age might very well have something to do with her cognitive ability to develop letter–sound relationships in the English language. Data showed that Yang developed this literacy knowledge (i.e., letter–sound correspondence) more quickly than Yun; it could be that Yang had reached a level at which she could benefit from integrated language-based instruction based on this essential knowledge. Thus, it would be important to investigate how age plays a role in language and literacy development for ESL students in school contexts, and, of course, how age interacts with second language competence. For example, upper elementary students face greater challenges in U.S. classrooms, especially if they are new to the country, as they need to develop English language, literacy, and content knowledge. One might use "prefabricated patterns" or language chunks to help these students develop language, literacy, and content knowledge and examine how long it takes them to internalize a complex English syntactic structure commonly used in classroom contexts and develop fluency and reading comprehension of texts.

Although ESL research has not established a definitive relationship between personality and language learning, research findings from this study suggest that personality might be a factor that influences effective language instruction and assessment. The two focus students possessed very different personalities: Yang was outgoing, and she initiated language interactions with strangers (e.g., me, the researcher). However, Yun was extremely shy, and she hardly spoke even though we

shared the same native language background. Because measuring the effectiveness of the type of instruction on student language learning relied on student oral production on a picture description task, their differing personalities may have affected effective language assessment. More specifically, it is not quite clear whether Yun was able to show her developing competence in English because of her shyness. For example, on the 2 days when Yun's difference scores dropped significantly (Time 2 of the first O treatment and Time 6 of the second OW treatment), she just did not respond to my prompts during the postassessment. When I tried to encourage her to look at the picture, Yun shook her head and did not reply. Lessons focused on learning common object names of a theme in their environment, and she was able to show her emerging knowledge on other days; therefore, it is reasonable to state that it is not the content but her personality that played a role in her language learning outcome. A key issue here is that teaching is interactive (August & Hakuta, 1997). If ESL students do not show what they know, it is difficult for teachers to understand how to craft effective instruction for them. Thus, it is important to consider the role of personality in future research on effective ESL instruction and assessment. For example, what types of classroom learning activities provide meaningful opportunities for interaction for shy students? What types of tasks invite shy students to show their developing knowledge in English? Do small-group activities lead to better language outcomes for a group of students who tend to show outgoing personalities? How can we create a scope and sequence of classroom activities that promotes the language development of ESL students of all personalities?

Research findings from this study are consistent with the view that language learning is not linear. Difference scores of both focus students fluctuated in terms of range and variability on a daily basis, across themes and types of instruction. These variations highlight the importance of constructing valid language assessment measures. As Bernhardt (2001) noted, that "syntactic errors actually increase with learning time is evidence that as learners become more sophisticated in their use of language they make more sophisticated errors" (p. 798). This means that focusing only on the development of syntactic accuracy gives an incomplete picture of individual students' language development. Neither can fluency be used as a single indicator for ESL students' language development. For example, while administering the Qualitative Reading Inventory with ESL students, I noticed that these students often decode fluently without comprehending a text. A veteran ESL teacher validated my insight. One of the ways I coped with this issue was to analyze student utterances based on their fluency and accuracy. Because it helped me to take a close look at the two focus students' language development, the next step would logically be to study a larger group of ESL students and discern any pattern in their fluency and accuracy development as well as to analyze a correlation with other standardized measures.

Finally, the role of school instruction in ESL students' language development merits more thorough discussion. It is reasonable to conclude that the two focus students' oral language proficiency in English improved based on their performances on various ESL assessment measures; however, it is not easy to pinpoint what played a key role in their English language learning. Data from parent or guardian interviews clearly indicated that neither focus student received any type of formal English oral language instruction at home. Instead, the students relied mostly on school instruction and English reading at home as well as viewing English-language television programs. In school contexts, focus students participated in extensive literacy activities, including structured language instruction, journal writing, and independent reading. Taking this information into consideration, it seems evident that school instruction was an important source of language input for the students in developing their English skills, although there is no data delineating a clear causal relationship between language input provided in school contexts and the two students' language development in English. If we want educational research to play a role in improving schooling for ESL students in American public schools, more careful research studies are necessary to understand the specific roles of school instruction in the development of ESL students' language development, especially considering that there has been minimal attention to the role of school instruction for young students in ESL research (van Lier, 1999).

Undoubtedly, language learning is a complicated issue. The existence of varying perspectives on second language development attests to this complexity (Snow, 1992). Research knowledge accumulated in various disciplines related to second language research has indicated that language learning takes place in a social milieu, and understanding ESL students' language development requires thoughtful investigation of various factors related to student learning, teaching, and the context in which ESL learning and teaching occurs. Consideration of these complex factors can be a daunting task, and it presents

interesting intellectual challenges. In an effort to tackle these challenges, this study used mixed methods to understand the effectiveness of two different instructional approaches on two ESL students, revealing as a result interesting individual differences in the extent to which integrated, language-based instruction has an impact on oral language development. Future ESL research should consider, in addition to identifying research areas that have not been studied, new methodological and conceptual possibilities to successfully meet just these types of challenges.

NOTE

[1] Stake (2000) explains that the purpose of instrumental cases is "mainly to provide insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization. The case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else. The case still is looked at in depth, its contexts scrutinized, its ordinary activities detailed, but all because this helps the researcher to pursue the external interest" (p. 437).

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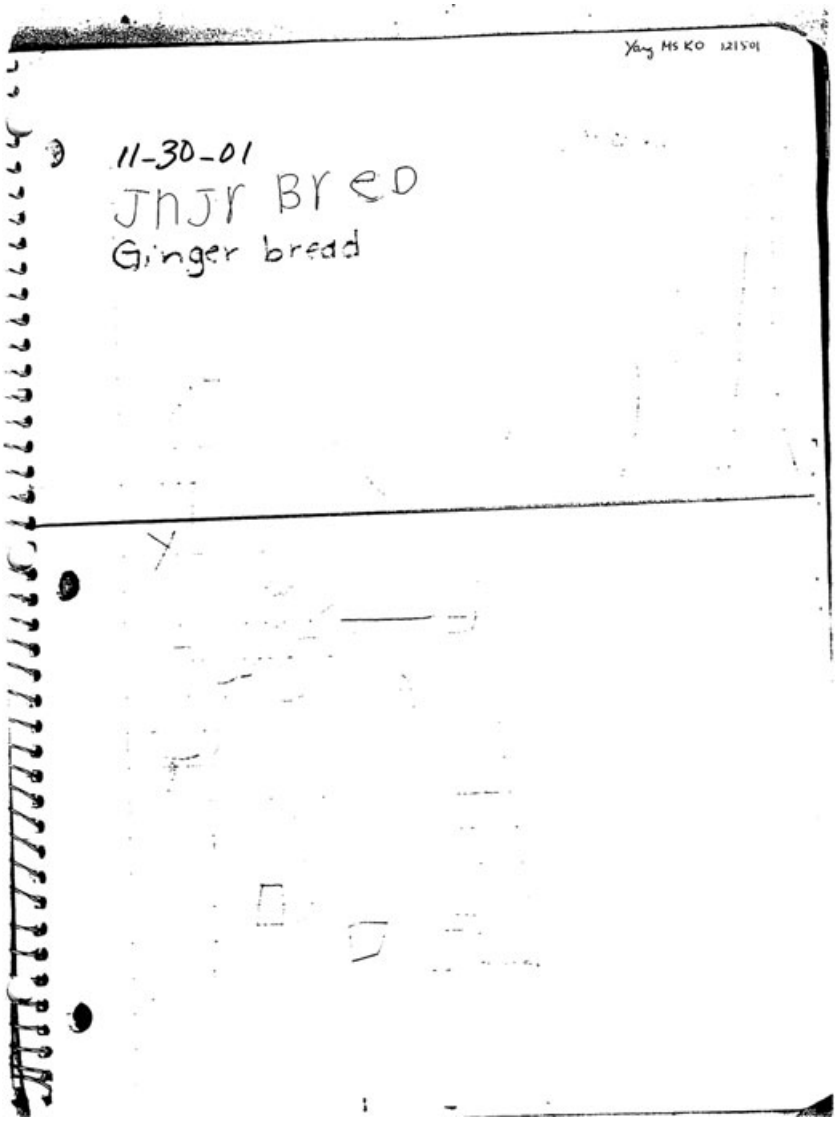
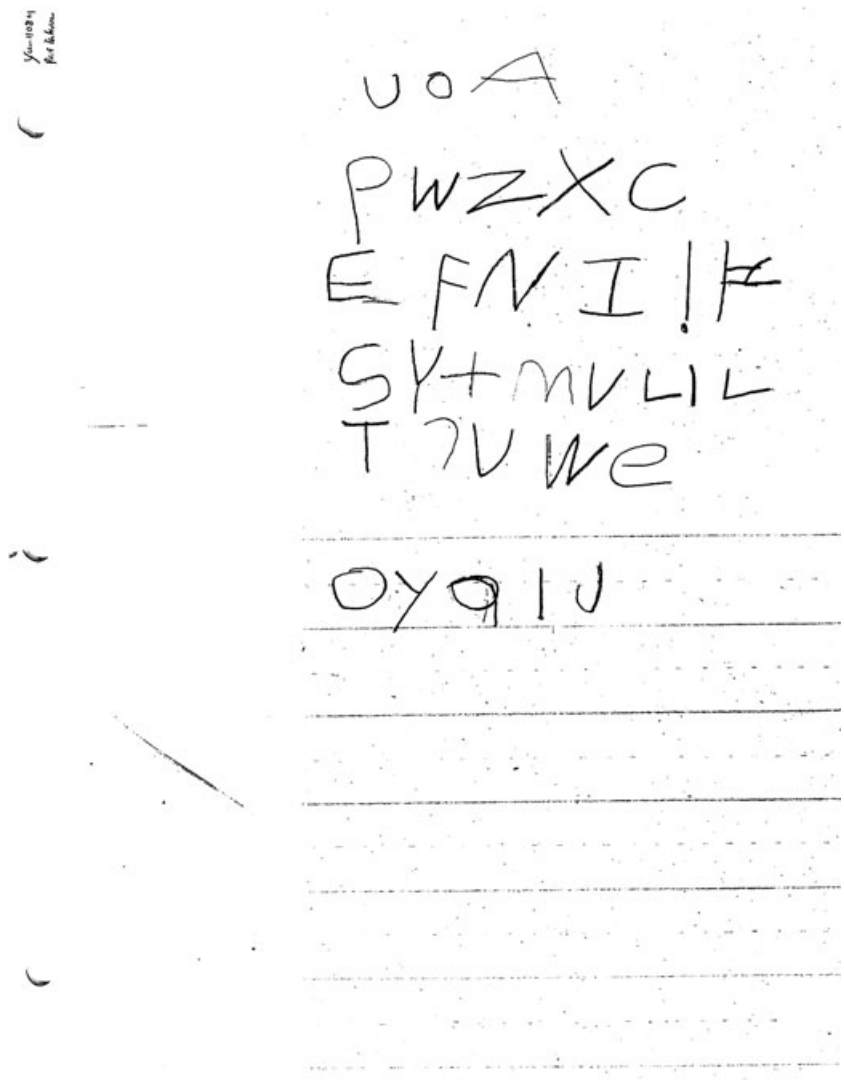
APPENDIX A
Yang's Writing Sample



APPENDIX B
Yun's Writing Sample



APPENDIX C
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APPENDIX D
First Integrated, Language-Based Lesson on Places We Live

For the first 6 minutes, Yang and I began the lesson by looking at pictures of different rooms in the *Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids* (Keyes, 1998). We looked at rooms such as bedrooms, a living room, a kitchen, and a bathroom. We also looked at items that can be found in those rooms such as a dresser, a sofa, a stove, and a bathtub. While looking at the pictures, we read the names of the objects:

Youb: This is a kitchen. (Yang repeats the target word.)
Youb: This is a kitchen. There is a stove. (Yang repeats the target word.)
Youb: (pointing to the word "stove" on the page) Stove. (Yang repeats.)
Youb: Where is the stove in the kitchen?
Yang: Tove.
Youb: No, stove. (Yang repeats the target word.)
Yang: (pointing to a picture of a table) Table.
Youb: Yes, that's a table.
Youb: (pointing to the word "sink") This is a sink. (Yang repeats the target word.)
Yang: (pointing to a picture of a toilet) Sink.
Youb: (pointing to the pictures of toilet and sink) No, this is a toilet. Sink is right here.

After I introduced new words, I asked Yang to draw a picture of her favorite room with furniture in it and to write English words for each object; this journaling activity lasted about 8 minutes. While Yang was drawing and writing object names, I asked her to add details on the picture of her favorite room to encourage her to write more.

For the remainder of the time (about 3 minutes), I asked Yang to read what she wrote in her journal; we read the words together, and we then reviewed the words in the pictures of the *Oxford Picture Dictionary for Kids* (Keyes, 1998):

Youb: Can you explain your picture to me? Where is this?
Yang: House.
Youb: Can you write house? (a short pause) Can you say house?
Yang: House.

APPENDIX E
First Oral Language-Based Lesson on Food

For the first 6 minutes, I showed pictures of fruits and vegetables in *Eating the Alphabet* (Ehlert, 1989) and said their English names. Yang sometimes repeated after me:

Youb: (turning to a page that shows fruits and vegetables that begin with "I" and "J") What is this? This is a very spicy pepper. What is it? (Yang does not reply.)
Youb: People call them jalapeños. (Yang repeats the target word, and Youb repeats it one more time.)
Youb: What is this?
Yang: Onions.
Youb: Well, people call them "cucumbers."
Youb: What about this one?
Yang: I don't know.

Youb: They are called "kiwi fruits." (Yang repeats the target word.)
Youb: What is this? Do you know? (Yang hesitates for a second.)
Youb: It is a yellow fruit. (after waiting for a second) It's a lemon.
Yang: I . . . I . . . I . . . I . . . know it. (She laughs.)
Youb: You know lemons? That's great!

I then introduced a concentration game, which consisted of laying picture cards upside down on the table, each player taking a turn to pick a card, saying the name of the object in the picture, and finding another card that matched the picture. The game, which lasted for about 11 minutes, was intended to review object names and elaborate on oral language.

For the last 2 minutes, Yang and I reviewed the English names of fruits and vegetables while viewing the pictures and selecting the pictures of our favorite fruits and vegetables:

Youb: Can you choose pictures of your favorite fruits or vegetables? (Yang chooses a picture of grapes.)
Youb: I like grapes, too.
Youb: (pointing to a picture of an apricot) Do you like apricots?
Yang: I don't like it.

Further Instructions for Manuscript Reviewers

Here at the *MLJ* editorial office, we continue to work toward streamlining various aspects of our online manuscript processing system, Manuscript Central (http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/mlj). One such aspect is the reviewer form, or score sheet, which provides guidelines to our expert referees for reviewing submitted manuscripts. In its current form, this score sheet simply requires that reviewers indicate their overall recommendation for publication (i.e., a choice of Accept, Minor Revision, Major Revision, or Reject), and it provides space for them to insert comments specific to the Editor and the author(s). Many of you have asked us for more specific guidelines, so we are working on a more detailed format for the reviewer score sheet, which we hope to implement soon. In the meantime, our general guidelines are as follows: We ask that you include positive comments about the article as well as specific suggestions for improvement. The *MLJ* strives to give author(s) detailed feedback for both accepted and rejected articles. Critiques of at least one full page considering the following aspects are thus requested: importance of the topic or issue discussed; review of relevant literature; research design, procedures, and statistics (if applicable); clarity of writing, including tables, figures, and examples; appropriateness of conclusions drawn/recommendations made; and contribution of the article to the profession.

We thank our expert reviewers for their participation in our review process and their contribution to the high quality of our journal.