

THE EFFECTS OF USING CHILDREN'S LITERATURE WITH ADOLESCENTS IN THE
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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This study provides quantitative and qualitative data about the effects of using children's literature with adolescents in a language classroom and the role of children's literature in students' second/foreign language development, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. The study presents qualitative data about the role of children's literature in developing more positive attitudes toward reading in the second/foreign language and toward reading in general. With literature being a model of a culture, presenting linguistic benefits for language learners, teaching communication, and being a motivator in language learning, this study presents empirical data that show that inclusion of children's literature in adolescents' second/foreign language classroom promotes appreciation and enjoyment of literature, enhances the development of language skills, stimulates more advanced learning, and promotes students' personal growth.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The arguments about using literary texts in the elementary school classroom have been numerous and varied. These arguments range from the notion of rejecting literary texts as having no practical value to the consideration of the desirable role of literature in the elementary school, and in language arts classrooms in particular. According to the report by Schloss (1981), in which she analyzed the thoughts of authorities and educators in Canada, Great Britain, the United States and Germany over the period of 100 years, the opponents of using literature in the elementary school classroom were pointing out the negative influence literature had on students. They claimed that literature in the classroom was hindering students' development, interfered with education for citizenship, and was either too moralizing or immoral. In addition, they argued that the difference between the language of these texts and everyday speech was too great. On the contrary, the supporters of the use of literature in the language arts classroom considered literature essential in promoting students' personal development. They stated that together with literature being a source of pleasure, it served as a source of information, which could be used to supplement or even teach other subjects. Literary texts were considered as a means to teach the language and the culture of the people who speak it.

In the last 20 years, the focus of researchers shifted toward the direction of literature-based instruction. The contributions made by children's literature to elementary students' language, cognitive development, personality, and social development are significant and have been well documented. Researchers have explored the role of children's literature in primary language development and corroborated that using children's literature in the elementary classroom is an effective learning technique, because stories feed children's imagination,

develop listening and oral comprehension skills, extend vocabulary, enhance reading and writing achievement, and raise the level of language proficiency in general (Allen, 1995; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Barnitz, Gipe, & Richards, 1999; Beck & McKeown, 2001; Bitz, 2004; Chew, 1986; Cianciolo, 1987; Cline & Necohea, 2003; Cullinan, 1989; Damico, 2005; Dixon-Krauss, 2002; Dole, Sloan, & Trathen, 1995; Elley, 1989; Funk & Funk, 1992; Galda & Liang, 2003; Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993; Gardiner, 2005; Gibbs & Earley, 1994; Gottfried, 1985; Groff, 2002; Hill, 1986; Hoffman, Roser, & Battle, 1993; Huck, 1992; Ivey & Fisher, 2005; Johnson, N. J. & Giorgis, 2004; Johnson, T. D. & Louis, 1987; Kihn & Stahl, 1998; Kooy, 2003; Krashen, 1993b; Langer, 1995; Lehman, 1995; Martinez & McGee, 2000; Meyer & Wardrop, 1994; Morrow, 2005; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, & Smith, 1997; Neuman, 1999; Odland, 1969; Rothlein & Meinbach, 1991; Short, 1997; Skillings, 1995; Tway, 1985; Walmsley, 1992; Wolf & Heath, 1998).

For example, Morrow et al. (1997) believe that involvement in children's literature aids in constructing meaning from text by encouraging discussions, role playing, and retelling and rewriting of stories. Walmsley (1992) stated that a literature-based elementary language arts curriculum offers significant advantages to all readers. In addition to developing the strategies typically taught in reading programs, meaningful experiences with literature also teach children strategies for processing literary texts. According to Funk & Funk (1992), children's books not only assist in language development, but they also bring pleasure and help children escape from undesirable situations, stimulate young learners' imagination, and help them understand themselves and others.

All of these factors should be welcomed by school teachers whose primary goal is not only to provide teaching of reading and writing skills, but also to enhance children's personal development. As Cary (1997) explained,

Teachers are a wonderfully diverse bunch of folks. We differ on everything from background and curriculum interests, to grade preference, management techniques, and teaching style. Regardless of the differences, however, we share a common, overarching goal: we all want to do right by kids. Teachers everywhere search for ways to include and invite all students into the world of learning. For kids who speak little or no English, we can now apply new understandings about how to open the door to their learning. (p. 7)

This desire to "do right by kids" (Cary, 1977, p. 7) has been a driving force for educators all over the world. According to Funk and Funk (1992), if educators perceive curriculum as complex and intricate, and if curriculum is composed of all the experiences and activities that should occur under the realm of schooling, educators must view children's literature as an integral part of the elementary school curriculum, since it can provide these experiences and activities.

Literature-based instruction has been widely employed in elementary education. Teachers acknowledge the vast benefits of high quality children's literature and despite the *back to basics* movement, which has been on the agenda of opponents of using literature-based curricula, these teachers aspire to make sure that children "learn to read by reading" (Harker, 1980, p. 163). Still, high-stakes standardized testing that has increasingly provided the basis for today's curriculum development does not find a crucial role for literature-based instruction. Children's literature has not yet taken its desirable place.

In addition, in countries like the United States of America, where the number of immigrants has been gradually increasing, teachers are not always prepared for students who

come from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Traditional methods do not always work for English language learners, and educators continuously search for new methods that will enhance second language development of students. One of the questions that second language teachers ask is that if the use of children's literature is so beneficial for primary language development, and if children's books enhance students' language development, could books not provide an essential foundation for second language learners?

According to Ghosn (1998), there are some arguments in favor of integrating literature into English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) classroom. The most important argument is that carefully selected children's literature could provide a medium through which children might access the new language. Ghosn stated that the use of children's literature in the English language targeted classroom could promote the development of "language and critical thinking skills, intercultural awareness and emotional intelligence" (p. 8).

ESL teachers have explored the issue of using children's literature with their students. As Funk and Funk (1992) stated, numerous studies have shown that children's literature promotes second language development by "conveying language, enhancing cognitive growth, and giving meaning to the objects and experiences children encounter in their life" (pp. 42-43). Barnitz et al. (1999) described the linguistic rationale, as well as the cultural benefits of using literature in second language literacy instruction. They base their analysis on studies conducted by various researchers and practitioners. Although, as Ho (2000) specified, children's literature "has been read and researched and reviewed, studied and integrated in universities, critiqued, translated, illustrated, rewritten in simpler versions, promoted and publicized, discussed and presented and adapted for all sorts of media and format" (p. 259). The question still remains as to whether or not it is being widely used in the ESL/EFL classroom. If educators are aware of the vast benefits

of the use of children's literature for language development, do they incorporate literature-based instruction into language teaching? If the use of children's literature enhances primary language development, will it give impetus to second language development? Will children's literature work with all ages of second language learners? Do second/foreign language teachers of adolescents also use literature in their language classroom?

Statement of the Problem

Nowadays, teaching English as a second/foreign language in secondary education is dominated by grammar-based approaches (Cook, 2001; Franklin, 2004; Freeman & Freeman, 1998; Gebhard, 1999). Though there is a significant turning point for secondary language instruction, there is not enough empirical data indicating the use of children's literature with adolescents and adult English language learners. This study investigates the role children's literature plays in adolescents' English as a second/foreign language classroom, including the development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, and its role in adolescents' attitudes toward reading in the second/foreign language and toward reading in general.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether the use of children's literature in the English as a foreign language classroom would enhance adolescent learners' English language development, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. In addition, the study analyzed adolescent language learners' attitudes toward reading in the foreign language and toward reading in general.

Research Questions

The two core questions that the study sought to answer were as follows:

1. Is there a significant relationship between the use of children's literature in a balanced literacy instructional approach and the language development of adolescent language learners' of English as a foreign language, including the development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills?
2. Is there a significant relationship between adolescent English-as-a-foreign-language learners' attitude toward reading in the foreign language as well as reading in general and instruction using children's literature?

Statement of Hypotheses

The following directional hypotheses were tested during the study:

1. The use of children's literature will result in a higher level of oral language development for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.
2. The use of children's literature will result in a higher level of reading achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.
3. The use of children's literature will result in a higher level of writing achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.
4. The use of children's literature will result in a more positive attitude of adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language toward reading in the foreign

language as well as toward reading in general as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.

Significance of the Study

According to the U.S. Census Bureau ("U.S. Census Bureau: Ability to speak English," 2000), as of April 1, 2000, around 47 million U.S. residents speak a language other than English at home. This constitutes one in every five residents of this country. Demographic forecasters predict that the population of those whose native language is other than English will continue to rise. In this situation, teachers acknowledge the fact that if they do not have a large number of students who speak languages other than English now, there are good chances these learners will be part of their classroom in the nearest future. As a result, educators turn to extensive research to explore the latest findings in various areas, including the area of second language acquisition and teaching, bilingual education, cognitive psychology, and pedagogy (Cary, 1997).

This study provides empirical data about the effects of using children's literature with adolescents in the language classroom and the role of children's literature in students' second/foreign language development. The study also presents data about the importance of motivation in language learning, which, according to Hill (1986), is one of the most important justifications for including literature. These data can be used as a basis for curriculum development in the English as a second/foreign language classroom, specifically in secondary and adult education.

In addition to providing data about the effects of using children's literature in the language classroom, this study presents qualitative data about participants' use of their native language in the course of acquiring the second language. These data could be used in further

research about the role of primary language in the second/foreign language acquisition. I am fluent in two languages – the participants’ primary language and English – and provided English-as-a-foreign-language instruction utilizing participants’ primary language as a medium. As explained by Braine (1999), a researcher who knows the participants’ cultural background, understands differences between the first language and the target language, and is aware of the negative transfer and psychological aspects of learning is more able to effectively engage participants in the purpose of the study.

If the study had been conducted in the country where the target language is spoken as the primary language, the excessive exposure to the target language could have contaminated the data. By conducting the research in the country where I could provide English-as-a-foreign-language instruction with the aid of the participants’ primary language, I was able to control for several variables which could be crucial for data validity. These variables are as follows: (a) age; (b) motivation of having a teacher from the United States; (c) social, cultural, and educational background; and (d) type and amount of language exposure (Jarvis, 2000).

One of the most significant aspects of the study is that through statistical analysis and qualitative measures, this research provides data about the value of children’s literature in language instruction in general and in secondary education in particular. With literature being a model of a culture, presenting linguistic benefits for language learners, teaching communication, and being a motivator in language learning, this study presents data that show that inclusion of children’s literature in adolescents’ second/foreign language classroom promotes appreciation and enjoyment of literature, enhances the development of language skills, stimulates more advanced learning, and promotes students’ personal growth.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were imposed upon this study:

1. The results of the study might be confounded by the prior semester's teacher influence. I taught the participants during the second school semester, and some of the student achievement could be attributed to the first semester teacher's instruction.
2. The participants were not selected randomly. Due to the existing subdivision of the major areas of study in the college and the corresponding scheduling issues, random assignment was not feasible.
3. Non-random selection of the participants might have affected their level of achievement, since the intact group setting has a developed set of predetermined communication rules.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made in relation to this study:

1. The treatment and the control group participants' level of target language (English) was at the intermediate level of English language proficiency at the beginning of the study.
2. Participants in both treatment and control groups were literate in their primary language (Ukrainian).
3. Participants in both treatment and control groups were from families of a middle-class socio-economic level. This assumption was based on: a) observations of participants' neighborhood; b) participants parents' occupations; and c) the fact that participants' parents were able to pay high tuition for their children to go to a private institution, since there are no scholarships available.

4. Participants in both treatment and control groups belonged to the same cultural background.
5. Teachers of both treatment and control groups do not have an established English-as-a-foreign-language curriculum and use different textbooks each year, depending on the teachers' beliefs and strategy priorities. Therefore, the use of different materials for the study would not present a crucial change for the participants.
6. The Reading Proficiency Text in English (RPTE) is a valid and reliable measure of annual growth in English reading proficiency of second language learners.
7. The Idea Oral Proficiency test (IPT Oral) is a valid and reliable measure of oral proficiency in English of students whose native language is other than English.
8. The Idea Proficiency Test in Reading (IPT Reading) is a valid and reliable measure of reading proficiency in English of students whose native language is other than English.
9. The Idea Proficiency Test in Writing (IPT Writing) is a valid and reliable measure of writing proficiency in English of students whose native language is other than English.
10. The Attitude toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General Questionnaire is a valid and reliable measure of students' attitude toward reading in the target language and toward reading in general.
11. The Attitude toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General Interview Protocol is a valid and reliable measure of students' attitude toward reading in the target language and toward reading in general.

12. The collection of samples of students' work is a valid and reliable measure of students' target language proficiency growth.
13. The choice of the children's literature used with the experimental group participants matched the goals and objectives of the targeted curriculum.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are identified and defined as they are used in this study, to support the readers' understanding of the study.

1. *Attitudes toward Reading in English Interview Protocol*. A set of questions protocol that was used to analyze participants' attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general.
2. *Attitudes toward Reading in English Questionnaire*. The questionnaire that measured subjects' attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general.
3. *Bilingual education*. In the United States, the term is used to refer to education in a child's primary language for (a) the first year or (b) however long it takes; followed by mainstreaming in English-only classes.
4. *Collection of samples of participants' work*. A collection of samples of participants' work, including journal writing, responses to writing prompts, reading-writing connection projects, and book reports that documented participants' achievements in language learning.
5. *English as a foreign language (EFL)*. The term is used to refer to the learning of English by speakers of other languages in a non-English-speaking region.
6. *English as a second language (ESL)*. The term is used to refer to the learning of English by speakers of other languages in the English-speaking region.

7. *English language targeted classroom*. The classroom where English is taught as a second or foreign language.
8. *English to speakers of other languages (ESOL)*. The term is used to refer to the learning of English by speakers of other languages in the English-speaking region.
9. *First language*. The term is used to refer to the learners' native language.
10. *First language acquisition (FLA)*. The term is used to refer to the development of primary language in children.
11. *Foreign language teaching (FLT)*. The term is used to refer to teaching of English as a foreign language.
12. *The Idea Proficiency Tests in English (IPT)*. The IPT are designed to evaluate proficiency in English for children from the age of three years through the 12th grade. The Reading/Writing test may be given independently of the Oral test, but both tests would be needed for an overall assessment of language ability.
13. *Limited English proficiency (LEP) students*. The term is used to refer to students who are learning English and do not show a high level of English language achievement, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
14. *Primary language*. The term is used to refer to the learners' native language.
15. *Reading Proficiency Tests in English (RPTE)*. The RPTE are designed to measure annual growth in the English reading proficiency of second language learners, and are used to provide a comprehensive assessment system for LEP students. LEP students in Grades 3-12 are required to take the RPTE until they achieve a rating of advanced.
16. *Second language acquisition (SLA)*. The term is used to refer to second language development in children and adults.

17. *Second language*. The term is used to refer to the other-than-native language.
18. *Target language*. The language that is being taught in the classroom as second or foreign to the native language.
19. *Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS)*. The TAKS is the test that measures the statewide curriculum in reading at grades 3-9; in writing at grades 4 and 7; in English Language Arts at Grades 10 and 11; in mathematics at Grades 3-11; in science at grades 5, 10, and 11; and in social studies at grades 8, 10, and 11. The Spanish TAKS is administered at Grades 3 through 6. Satisfactory performance on the TAKS at grade 11 is prerequisite to a high school diploma.
20. *Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS)*. The TEKS comprise the state-mandated curriculum that establishes what every student, from elementary school through high school, should know and be able to do.
21. *Qualitative measures*. Measures that refer to the use of the qualitative analysis that focuses on how individuals and groups view and understand the world and construct meaning out of their experiences; it is essentially narrative-oriented.
22. *Quantitative measures*. Measures that refer to the use of numerical and statistical techniques rather than the analysis of verbal material.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In the review of the literature, I examined the publications from the last 30 years, beginning with 1975. In order to follow the development of educational trends in the area of first and second language acquisition and the use of literature in the classroom, I also reviewed some publications that remain classic in the educational research and date before 1970's, including Dewey (1929/1997), Vygotsky (1934/1986), Rosenblat (1938/1995), Fries (1945, 1963), Gardner & Lambert (1959), Piaget (1965), and Chomsky (1972).

The chapter is divided into five pertinent sections. The first section follows the history of teaching literature in the classroom and presents a theoretical background for literature-based instruction. Section two analyzes the benefits of using children's literature for first and second language acquisition. The comparison of first and second language acquisition, their similarities and differences, is presented in sections three and four accordingly. Section five investigates the role of motivation in second language acquisition. Finally, section six discusses the benefits of using children's literature with adolescent and adult language learners.

Historical and Theoretical Background of Teaching Literature in the Classroom

History of literature-based instruction

What is literature? According to the definition in the online encyclopedia *Wikipedia* (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literature>), literature is “an acquaintance with letters” (Introduction, ¶ 1) from the Latin word “littera,” which is an individually written character. The term has come to identify a collection of written texts. Texts are written in a given language and represent the combination of letters, or symbols, i.e. *words*, in that language. Reading would

mean understanding and using the words. But to understand the words in isolation is not enough. According to Rosenblat (1938/1975), to fully understand a written word would mean to recognize its implications in a context that is significant for human beings. Rosenblat states that:

It requires linking the word with what it points to in the human or natural world. This involves awareness of the sensations it symbolizes, experiences out of which it springs, the modes of feeling or practical situations with which it is associated, the actions it may imply. (1975, p. 106)

As Cullinan (1989) pointed out, “literature *is* language, and children’s language grows through experience with literature” (p. 97). Literature provides this experience and the context that nourishes understanding and triggers language and personal development. If all this is true, incorporating children’s literature into instruction should have been essential for curricular developers over time. Still, it took many years, more precisely centuries, for educators to realize the tremendous benefits of literature in education. Table A1 outlines the history of literature-based teaching in the United States. As compiled by Skillings (1995) and Morrow (2005), this history traces the development of a literature-based curricula that began with the 17th century and evolved into major debates and movements of the last two decades of the 20th century. Also, the direction of modern literature-based curricula is presented in the table (See Appendix A, Table A1).

Theoretical frame for literature-based instruction

It is obvious that many changes have occurred in the attitudes of educators during the last four centuries. These changes reflected scientific thought and ongoing research that was a guiding force for curriculum development. The main question that scientists have tried to answer is whether learning is primarily “a matter of the nature or the nurture of the child” (Morrow,

2005, p. 4). Three outstanding philosophers and educators of the 1700's and 1800's, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Johann Pestalozzi, and Friedrich Froebel, made valuable contributions into research that was seeking an answer to this question.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (as cited in Doyle & Smith, 1997; Morrow, 2005) was the first philosopher who suggested that a child's education should be natural, and that children should only learn things that are developmentally appropriate. He believed that children learn through curiosity, and that formal instruction can interfere with development. Rousseau suggested that children should learn with as little intervention as possible. Therefore, educators should use strategies that coincide with a child's readiness to learn.

Another philosopher, Johann Pestalozzi (as cited in Morrow, 2005; Smith, 1997b) was influenced by Jean-Jacques Rousseau's ideas but added a new dimension. Pestalozzi did not believe that children could learn on their own, i.e., without help of adults. He believed that children could teach themselves to read as long as teachers and parents created an environment in which the reading process could grow. He believed that the natural potential of a child would develop through sensory manipulative experiences. Therefore, he designed lessons where children learned through manipulating objects – through touching, smelling, comparing size and shape, and using language.

Friedrich Froebel (as cited in Morrow, 2005; Smith, 1997a) was the first educator who used the word *kindergarten* (*children's garden*, in German) and designed a curriculum for young children, emphasizing the importance of play in learning. Froebel believed that adults should play an essential role in organizing and guiding children's activities. As in Pestalozzi's school, children in Froebel's kindergarten used manipulatives and explored them through psychomotor

and cognitive activities. Froebel assigned a significant role to *circle time*, where children had an opportunity to sing songs and learn new ideas through discussion.

The 20th century was marked by the work of many prominent educators. John Dewey's philosophy of early education that led to the concept of a child-centered curriculum had a great impact on American education, especially from the 1920's to 1950's (Cox & Zarrillo, 1993; Dewey, 1929/1997; Morrow, 2005). Dewey believed that children learn best through play and in real-life situations and that curriculum should be built around the interests of children. Dewey emphasized (1929/1997) that social interaction encourages learning and that children's interests play one of the most significant roles in learning.

The idea of the role of social interaction in the development of a child, including language development, has been one of the theoretical platforms for research in language acquisition. From the moment of birth, the child is surrounded by language. The development of oral language makes further development of reading and writing possible. One of the observations that researchers made is that children are active participants in language learning. They involve themselves in problem solving by creating hypotheses based on the information they already have, and then by interacting with people who surround them and generate language (Morrow, 2005). Bandura's social cognitive theory (as cited in Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001) emphasizes the impact that social interaction has on children's development, specifically on such cognitive processes as language and memory.

Children are not passive learners of language. They construct and reconstruct their language in the process of learning. Research has shown that children play an active role in their language acquisition by constructing their language (Bruner, 1983; Diaz, n.d.; Funk & Funk, 1992; Gaskins, 2003). Children who are exposed to rich language environments where adults

assist in construction of language develop better oral language skills as compared with those who do not have a rich social context opportunity. As Bruner (1983) pointed out, “You don’t acquire language abstractly: you learn how to use it. You use it to communicate, to put order into events, to construct realities” (p. 163). According to Bruner, communication provides the engine for language acquisition.

Bruner’s constructivist theory goes along with Piaget’s cognitive development theory and Vygotsky’s social development theory. Piaget’s theory builds on the principle that children develop through their activities (as cited in Funk & Funk, 1992; Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001; Morrow, 2005; Piaget, 1965). Children talk about themselves and about their activities. By engaging in various activities, interacting with the environment, and, more importantly, participating in the construction of the environment, children develop their cognitive processes, including language development, through touching, hearing, tasting, seeing, and smelling. Only by using teaching methods that actively involve students and present challenges is it feasible to enhance cognitive development.

According to Vygotsky, learning occurs when children acquire new concepts, which are mental structures in which we store information (as cited in Morrow, 2005). Social relationships serve as a basis for acquisition of mental functions. In order to build a new concept, children need to interact with others who assist them with completing the task by providing feedback and guiding them toward problem solving. Language is an important device through which communication occurs. Parents and teachers provide the language necessary for the solution of a problem. Learning occurs when children internalize the language and activities into their world.

The most significant contribution into language acquisition research is Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development – ZPD (as cited in Hawkins, 2004; Morrow, 2005; Vygotsky,

1934/1986, 1978). When children perform a task, they can do some part of it on their own, but not all. They need help from a more knowledgeable person, who *scaffolds* the new ideas by assisting them in completing the task. Vygotsky defined ZPD as, “the discrepancy between a child’s actual mental age and the level he reaches in solving problems with assistance” (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 187). The ZPD is “a range of social interaction between an adult and a child” (Morrow, 2005, p. 77), the difference between what children can do on their own and what they can achieve with the help of adults. Children can perform within this range only with assistance from adults. When a child can function independently, proximal development ends. Therefore, the role of adults is crucial in children’s development. Adults need to interact with children by motivating, encouraging, and providing emotional and instructional support. Adults need to keep tasks within children’s ZPD slightly higher than the level of independent functioning in order to provide challenge and for learning to occur.

Vygotsky’s ZPD influenced Krashen’s *comprehensible input*, which is a part of his second language acquisition theory (Krashen, 1981, 1982b, 1985). Krashen presented his theory in five hypotheses: 1) the Acquisition-Learning Distinction Hypothesis, 2) the Natural Order Hypothesis, 3) the Monitor Hypothesis, 4) the Input Hypothesis, and 5) the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Krashen constituted his Input Hypothesis as “the most important part of the theory” (Krashen, 1985, p. vii). In this Hypothesis, Krashen attempted to explain how a second language is acquired. According to Krashen, if the current competence level of a language acquirer is stage i , then the next level can be presented as $i+1$. A necessary condition to move from stage i to stage $i+1$ is that the acquirer understands input that contains $i+1$, where *understand* means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message. In other words, we understand and acquire what “is a little beyond” (Krashen, 1987, p. 21) where we are now. This

understanding is feasible not only due to our linguistic competence, but also because of our knowledge of the world and the context of the language.

Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis seems also to have been influenced by Vygotsky. Vygotsky's idea of *internalizing* the language and Krashen's idea of *acquiring* the language are based on the same principle, interaction with others (Schutz, 2004). According to Krashen (Krashen, 1981, 1982b, 1985, 1992, 1993a, 1999; Krashen & Terrell, 1983), competence in a second language can be developed in two ways – *acquiring* the language and *learning* the language. The first way, *language acquisition*, is a subconscious process, similar to the way children develop competence in their first language. Krashen (1982b) considered the results of language acquisition also to be subconscious. People who acquire a language usually are not aware of the grammar rules of the language, but they “are aware of the fact that they are acquiring language for communication” (p. 10). They have a “feel” for correctness. Krashen goes on to say that language acquisition can be described as “implicit learning, informal learning, and natural learning. In non-technical language, acquisition is ‘picking-up’ language.” On the other hand, *learning* is “conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them” (p. 10).

Another significant hypothesis specified by Krashen as a part of his second language acquisition theory is his Affective Filter Hypothesis. According to Krashen (1981, 1982b, 1985), *affective factors* enhance or delay second language acquisition. Krashen identified these affective factors as follows: *motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, empathy, attitude toward the classroom and teacher, and analytic orientation*. Krashen named these affective factors “attitudinal factors” (1981, p. 21). Krashen stated that these attitudinal factors, or “affective variables,” are related to the process of second language acquisition “by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the

strength or level of their Affective Filter” (Krashen, 1982b, p. 31). In other words, if these factors (high motivation, high self-esteem, low anxiety, positive attitudes) are optimal for second language acquisition, the learner will have a lower affective filter and will tend to obtain more of the knowledge and skills taught. On the other hand, learners with low motivation, low self-esteem, high anxiety level, and negative attitudes will have a strong affective filter and will tend to acquire less knowledge and skills.

There is an ongoing debate within the field of second/foreign language acquisition pertinent to Krashen’s theories, regarding the role of comprehensive input and affective filter in particular. Although many educators concur with Krashen’s theories (Adunyarittigun, 1993; Dodson, 2000; Ehrlich, 1989; Haulman, 1985; Judd, Tan, & Walberg, 2001; Kang & Dutton, 1994; Kossuth, 1985; Lafford, 1987; Laine, 1987, 1988; Loschky, 1994; Mizuno, 1998; Moustafa, 1987; Pica, 1989; Rodrigo, Krashen, & Gribbons, 2004; Schmidt, 1996; Spurlin & Blanco, 1998; Thorpe, 1994), there are others (as reported below) who disagree and suggest that both comprehensible input and affective filter are not significant factors in second/foreign language acquisition and that Krashen’s acquisition/learning distinction “represents only a partial description of the processes involved in second language acquisition” (Johnson, K., 1995, p. 83). For example, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1994) pointed out that both of Krashen’s hypotheses, the Input and the Affective Filter hypotheses, are not feasible to test, and there is no explanation why the affective filter does not exist in children, but comes into effect only at puberty. Schumann (1994) argued that affective factors are not independent mechanisms and that they interact with cognition to promote or inhibit second language acquisition. Ellis (1998) and Laufer (2005) opposed Krashen’s view that there should not be direct grammar teaching in the classroom and reported that teaching grammar, or “form-focused instruction” (Ellis, 1998, p. 39),

significantly contributes to language learning. Gregg (1984, 1988) refuted Krashen's claim that learning could not be used in comprehension, but only in production. Richard-Amato (1996) emphasized that Krashen's theory posed theoretical problems regarding the validity of the acquisition/learning distinction.

Nevertheless, whether one supports Krashen or not, the context in the language classroom should be natural, where there is a lot of communication. Communication produces a meaningful and understandable language context, which is how Judd et al (2001) defined comprehensible input. Gregg (1984), being one of the opponents of Krashen's theories, still concurred with Krashen on the importance of comprehensible input, as indicated below:

I agree with him that most language learning is unconscious, that comprehensible input is vital for learning and that teacher's most important job is to provide that input, that affective barriers can prevent successful acquisition of a second language, and that a teacher has the duty to try to lower those barriers wherever possible. (Gregg, 1984, p. 94)

A classroom that provides comprehensible input is the classroom where: (a) instruction is relevant, interesting and motivating; (b) the focus is on meaning and not on form; (c) there is no structured grammar instruction; (d) language learners have opportunity to converse in the target language and judge themselves at the level where they are at this particular moment; (e) learners construct meaning by engaging in a variety of activities which enhance development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills; and (f) the focus is on quantity of production, which gradually grows into quality with appropriate teacher's guidance. Literature-based instruction can provide this type of classroom and this sort of comprehensible input (Elley, 1991; Gass, MacKey, & Pica, 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Mackey, 1999; MacKey & Philp, 1998; Oh, 2004; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987).

Benefits of Using Children's Literature for Language Acquisition

Effects of literature on literacy development

Why use literature in the language classroom, be it the first or the second language classroom? In many countries around the world, literature is highly valued. "Literature plays a critical role in our life, often without our notice. It helps us to explore both ourselves and others, to define and redefine who we are, who we might become, and how the world might be" (Langer, 1995, p. 5). Stories provide us with something more significant than dry drill-teaching – they provide us with the meaning of our world and the world around us.

As we read and tell stories through the eyes of our imagined selves, our old selves gradually disappear from our recollections, our remembrances of yesterday become firmly rewritten, and our new selves take on a strength and permanence that we believe was and is who we are. All literature – the stories we read as well as those we tell – provides us with a way to imagine human potential. In its best sense, literature is intellectually provocative as well as humanizing, allowing to use various angles of vision to examine thoughts, beliefs, and actions. (Langer, 1995, p. 5)

According to Langer (1997), literature does not only invite students to reflect on their lives and learning, but also to engage in literate activity. When students read literature, they are exposed to "horizons of possibility" (p. 607). They raise questions, recognize problems and look for causes and solutions, reflect on ideas, and make connections. Literature encourages students to talk, thus developing their listening and speaking skills. High quality literature encourages students to read more, thus developing their reading skills. Literature encourages students to reflect on what they read and to share their thoughts in writing, thus developing their writing skills.

In first language acquisition, surrounding children with a book environment is crucial. Exposure to print develops cognitive skills and a knowledge base and provides a meaningful environment, in addition to language development (Damico, 2005; Dwyer, 1976; West, Stanovich, & Mitchell, 1993). Elley, Cowie, & Watson (1975) pointed out that availability of a large variety of good books has a very beneficial effect on reading habits and skills of children who have not been exposed to books before. Children start experiencing more enthusiasm and a greater tendency to read. Test results show more positive feelings and attitudes toward school, as well as improvement of reading and writing skills.

In addition to improving reading and writing skills in general, literature presents an excellent source of vocabulary. In Beck and McKeown's (2001) research, students took advantage of the sophisticated words found in books by using them as a source of explicit vocabulary activities, which resulted in a significant increase in vocabulary. Chomsky (1972), Dole et al. (1995), Kuhn and Stahl (1998), and Dixon-Krauss (2002) described several studies that investigated the effect of text context on vocabulary development. They concluded that the vast majority of learned words did not come from direct instruction but were learned incidentally, by encountering them in the literary text. Elley (1989) stated that reading stories aloud to children is a significant source of vocabulary acquisition, and that teachers should include literature in their language instruction on a regular basis.

Because of the effect literature has on literacy development, it is imperative to integrate it into content area curricula. According to Morrow et al. (1997), integrating literature in all content areas shows an increase in language skills development as well as content area knowledge improvement. The integrated language arts perspective involves incorporation of reading, writing, listening, and speaking into content areas and using literature as the major

source of instruction. The content areas provide contexts where shared oral experiences, reading, and writing are used for the purpose of facilitating the knowledge of the content.

It is important to put special emphasis on the role that the connection of reading and writing plays in language development. “To say that writing is reading appears to be patently obvious. After all, writing is intended to be read, if only by the writer” (Tway, 1985, p. 1). Indeed, what is the purpose of writing if not to be read? When children are surrounded by print materials from the moment of birth, they begin to relate to graphemes almost as soon as they begin to relate to phonemes. As children grow, they participate in an oral environment by producing some age-appropriate utterances. At the same time, they start scribbling, which can be considered an early attempt at writing. As children develop, they discover that sounds correspond to certain letters and they start putting these sounds on paper; they use so-called *invented* spelling. Pretty soon, children discover that writing *is* reading and *visa versa*. Tway (1985) emphasized that writing should be supported and encouraged from the preschool years, and that reading and writing should be taught inseparably in the school curriculum. Literature is the model for writing, and it provides “a springboard for children’s writing” (p. 6). The most significant implication of the reading-writing connection is that in order to teach reading and writing, teachers must surround children with literature (Eckhoff, 1983; Hao & Sivell, 2002; Johnson, N. J. & Giorgis, 2004; Perez & Torres-Guzman, 2001; Stasz & Bennett, 1997; Tway, 1985; Wolf & Heath, 1998).

In second language acquisition, primary language literacy can be a natural part of the ESL classroom. It starts with meaningful conversations between second language learners and evolves into reading and writing experiences that foster language and literacy development (Ernst & Richard, 1995; Langer, 1997). When students are engaged in meaningful activities, they

learn best by integrating their new knowledge into what they already know. Second language learners know their primary language and use it to make sense of what they need to learn. Literature provides a context that is beneficial for both second language and primary language literacy (Langer, 1997). As to second language literacy, literature is a starting point for the development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Children who read and have been read to show greater oral and written communicative competence as compared with those who are not introduced to reading materials. They show increase in vocabulary (Coonrod & Hughes, 1994; Rott, 1999; Wang & Guthrie, 2004) and dramatic increase in reading comprehension (Barnitz et al., 1999; Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 1998; Groff, 2002; Holden, 2003). By providing an excellent model for second language learners, children's literature directs their language production (Coonrod & Hughes, 1994; Toman, 1991-1992).

Furthermore, an important benefit of the use of children's literature in second language learning is the cultural context that literature provides. Through literature, language learners are introduced to the new culture and construct the meaning of the new language environment (Cianciolo, 1987; Ghosn, 1998; Perez & Torres-Guzman, 2001). According to Ghosn (1998), in addition to providing a motivating meaningful context for language learning and facilitating integration of language skills, literature exposes language learners to the target language culture and promotes academic literacy. Perez and Torres-Guzman (2001) emphasized that linguistic, situational, and social-cultural contexts that literature provides contribute to second language literacy development.

Reading aloud and language acquisition

Reading to children has a vast effect on language acquisition, both for first and second languages. Several studies have emphasized the role of reading aloud for development of

language capabilities (Cheng, 2001; Chew, 1986; Fasick, 1973; Huck, 1992; Meyer & Wardrop, 1994; Rothlein & Meinbach, 1991). For example, Chew (1986) discovered that in addition to the sense of security and the physical closeness to adults, children, when being read to, feel that they begin to perceive story construction, get acquainted with print, and begin to develop a prior knowledge base, which is so essential for further learning. Stories for young children offer similarities of story patterns, repetition of words and ideas, and opportunities to play and experiment with language.

Meyer & Wardrop (1994) recommended reading to children if they have poor vocabulary, struggle with comprehension, have negative attitudes or lack motivation, or have second language acquisition problems. “Reading to children is to literacy education what two aspirins and a little bed rest was to the family doctor in years gone by” (p. 69). Meyer & Wardrop suggested that reading to children not only prepares them for learning to read but also teaches them to read. Reading to children develops their oral language ability that affects their reading skills; develops their knowledge base; exposes them to new word meanings, encouraging incidental learning; and provides various interactional patterns that enhance vocabulary growth.

According to Huck (1992), children gain the following benefits from listening to adults reading to them: (a) children learn that reading is pleasurable; (b) children learn about the structure of stories; (c) children learn the concept behind print; (d) children begin to build a frame of reference for literature, learning about authors and illustrators and different genres; and (e) children learn new words and increase their vocabulary. “What a lot children can learn by listening to a variety of stories read well by an enthusiastic teacher!” (Huck, 1992, p. 4).

Fasick (1973) claimed that several studies had shown that children who had been read to during their preschool years proved to be more successful in achieving language requirements of

the classroom. Rothlein and Meinbach (1991) also pointed out that children who are read to are significantly ahead of children who do not have this opportunity. According to Rothlein and Meinbach, language is developed through reading aloud, “Reading aloud to children is a valuable activity that improves listening, verbal, and written skills and fosters a lifetime love of books and reading” (p. 4). Reading to children sparks their imagination and gives them ideas to write about in the future. Reading aloud develops processes that are vital to reading – concept and knowledge building and critical thinking skills. In addition to language acquisition benefits, reading aloud helps support children’s emotional well-being and helps build their self-confidence, establishing a mutual bond among listeners and the reader. Rothlein and Meinbach emphasized that reading aloud should be an integral part of daily classroom activities.

Picture books and language acquisition

Language teachers have employed a variety of strategies to enhance reading comprehension. One of the strategies that has proven to be successful is mental imagery. According to Gambrell and Jawitz (1993), when children construct mental images, they use their prior knowledge and develop critical thinking skills. Construction of mental images during reading enhances their abilities to remember what they read, construct inferences, and make predictions. This constructive process prompts language learners to construct relations between the parts of the text and the learners’ knowledge and experiences. The relation between the reader and the text is irrefutable. As Gambrell and Jawitz (1993) pointed out, illustrations to the text play a similar role to mental images and increase comprehension of the text as well.

According to Sipe (1998, 2000), illustrations in picture books can be viewed as the transaction between two sign systems – the visual sign system of the illustration sequence and the verbal sign system of the printed word. Learning to read these sign systems is just like

learning to read written language. Those two systems compliment each other and aid in meaning construction.

Cianciolo (1987) specified the following six functions of picture books in the beginning reading process development:

1. Picture books offer a great deal of experiences that enrich children's worlds. It is the responsibility of educators to provide these experiences, so that children can "satisfy their drive and need for intellectual stimulation" (p. 50).
2. Picture books give an example of Standard English and put learners in situations that permit them to see, hear, and use the language. Children are able to use this language to express ideas for which they do not have words in their own reading, writing, and speaking vocabulary.
3. Through experiences with picture books, children learn the possibilities of language to reflect the environment with the help of figurative language and carefully chosen descriptors.
4. Picture books offer opportunities to learn about aspects of children's cultural heritage and the cultural heritage of others.
5. Picture books help develop imaginative and creative thinking powers in children. While responding to a literary selection, children utilize their developmentally appropriate abilities to reflect on the situation and their emotional involvement.
6. Picture books provide opportunities to learn about the structure or grammar of literature, which helps them acquire such reading strategies as self-monitoring and predicting.

Cincialo concluded that picture books play an integral role in shaping the attitudes and skills associated with the beginning reading process.

In second language acquisition, picture books serve as a source for language stimulation (Appelt, 1984; Bitz, 2004; Bloem & Padak, 1996; Gambrell & Sokolski, 1983). Any time language learners listen, speak, read, or write they use language. The more opportunity language learners have to listen, speak, read, or write, the more language they produce and understand. Picture books provide the springboard for all four language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing. When language learners look at the illustrations and talk about the book, when they read the text and write their own close captions under the pictures, they are exposed to language experiences that are truly authentic and stimulating.

Children's literature and rich language environment

When we think of the ways literature enriches our language, we think of literature as being an authentic material. Unmodified language, even if it is the language of children's books, is a good example of the complex language structures that language learners can come across outside the classroom. Cudd and Roberts (1993) stated that children who do not listen to or read books do not have exposure to the complex syntax found in written language and to the rich vocabulary that comprises literature. Without this exposure, children are not able to understand writers' syntactic constructions and, therefore, are not able to use appropriate constructions to convey meaning in their own writing.

In the literature-rich classroom, students have opportunity "to draw upon a richer fund of language" (Cullinan, 1992, p. 426). As Cullinan pointed out, children use the language around them. If they come across interesting and rich language, they will use it later in their oral and written language production. Therefore, we need to provide an environment rich in the beautiful

language of literature and make sure that language learners have a lot of opportunities to experiment with language.

The variety of genres that literature offers is a good source of rich language exposure, especially in the ESL classroom (Heath, 1996). Poetry, short stories, fairy tales, novels, and drama are often used in combination with art, music, and oral dramatic readings. Use of different genres of literature in the language classroom generates essentials of language learning – writing and rewriting, listening to students’ own words and the words of others again and again, reading aloud to others, and reshaping the efforts for the words to mean exactly what the learners want them to mean. “Literature has no rival in its power to create natural repetition, reflection on language and how it works, and attention to audience response on the part of learners” (Heath, 1996, p. 776).

Special emphasis should be placed on the use of poetry in the second language classroom and its role in language development. Hadaway, Vardel, and Young (2001) advocate that poetry is an ideal “entry point to language learning” (p. 799). They specify the following benefits of poetry for the ESL classroom: (a) reading and rereading of poetry through reading aloud and choral reading promotes fluency; (b) the language of poetry is manageable due to short lines and brevity, which makes it less intimidating; (c) rhythm, repetition, and rhyme in poetry help readers grasp the meaning with more ease; (d) poetry can serve as a powerful springboard for the introductions of concepts and content across the curriculum; (e) by providing a source of brief character sketches, scenes, and stories, poetry can serve as a prompt of narratives – oral and written; and (f) poetry offers a beginning for a variety of writing opportunities. Hadaway, et al. (2001) concluded that because of the strong oral quality of poetry, the sense of sound of the words, and artful, yet natural language, poetry should be an integral part of the second language

classroom. Poetry will enrich the language and will provide a lot of opportunities for sharing language experiences.

Similarities in First and Second Language Acquisition

There is an ongoing debate to answer the question about whether people acquire their first language in the same manner as the second. What is a child learning when he/she acquires the language? And what is the nature of language? When we speak only of the definition of the term *language*, we usually refer to its verbal features, written and oral, and to its function in communication. When we want to refer to the concept of teaching and learning the language, we need to consider more complex factors that come from the field of linguistics, i.e., the language system and its relationship with the environment where the language is learned. Accordingly, when we want to compare first and second language learning and teaching, we need to look at whether or not there are commonalities and discrepancies in the way the system is being utilized (Hadaway, Vardel, & Young, 2002; Saville-Troike, 1976).

Universal grammar followers believe that children are born with an innate ability to learn languages and that this ability guides children's language acquisition (Chomsky, 1988; White, 2003). Chomsky (1988) defined universal grammar as "a theory of the language faculty" (p. 61) and stated that universal grammar attempts to formulate the principles of the language faculty. According to universal grammar principles, (a) language capacity is specific to humans; (b) the ability to acquire language is independent of intelligence; (c) the patterns of acquisition are universal across different children, languages, and cultures; (d) children show creativity beyond the input they are exposed to; and (e) language is acquired relatively easily and without instruction (White, 2003).

Indeed, research shows that there are certain similarities in the acquisition of native and second languages. To begin with, the *processes* that first and second language learners go through while acquiring language seem to be similar. Second language learners go through the same *universal stages* as first language learners, while acquiring linguistic structures (Fender, 2001; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Gersten & Geva, 2003; Kalnitz, 1978; Richard-Amato, 1996; Wade-Woolley, 1999). Examples of these similar stages are as follows: (a) the use of memorized chunks before the learners actually know the rules; (b) the use of patterns of language when the learners express a semantic idea but do not know the appropriate linguistic form; (c) the use of so-called “dummy verbs” (Kalnitz, 1978, p. 3), which language learners use to express all verb meanings; and (d) the similar manner in which native and second language learners integrate words into larger units of meaning and process sentences (Fender, 2001). Wade-Woolley (1999) pointed out similarities in the activation of phonological processes in first and second language learners, which is the key for fluent reading. Perfetti, Zhang, and Berent (1992) suggested that “the use of phonology is a general characteristic of reading that exists across writing systems” (p. 227). Gersten and Geva (2003) also indicated that both first and second language learners develop phonological awareness – a necessary pre-reading skill – in a similar fashion.

Another similarity of first and second language acquisition is that first and second language learners use the same *language acquisition strategies*. According to Hudelson (1984) and Kamhi-Stein (2003), reading comprehension in a first and a second language is influenced by background knowledge and the cultural background of language learners. Another reading strategy that seems to be the same in first and second language acquisition is a think-aloud strategy, which aids in reading comprehension (Block, 1986). The processes of reading and writing interact in both first and second language acquisition, and writers use the same

composition strategies, which depend on their experiences and the topics (Lay, 1982; Raimes, 1985). Koda's (1990) study verified that cognitive strategies transfer during second language reading, i.e., second language readers from different first language orthographic backgrounds utilize their first language strategies in reading English as a second language.

Innate principles point of view

An important similarity of first and second language acquisition is the *order of language acquisition*. Some researchers support the view that language is acquired through innate principles, while others contend that language is learned more inductively. Proponents of the *innate principles view*, such as Asher (1972), believe that children first acquire listening skills in the order of language acquisition. Asher reported that the sequence of acquiring listening skills before speaking is the same in first and second language acquisition, because the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language. In Hudelson's (1984) findings, the order of acquired skills in the first and second language is the same as Asher's (1972), listening, speaking, reading, and writing respectively.

Another aspect in the order of learning language is *morpheme acquisition*. Although the order of first and second language learners' understanding of morphemes is not reported to be exactly the same, on average, there are many similarities, with acquiring *-ing* forms first, then plural, irregular past, regular past, 3rd person singular, and possessive forms later. There is a similar order of acquiring some syntactic structures as well, according to the innate principles view, with predictable stages in the acquisition of *wh-* questions and subject/verb inversion (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Krashen, 1982b; Richard-Amato, 1996).

Connectionist point of view

In contrast to the innate principles view, Goldschneider and Dekeyser (2001) present a psycholinguistic explanation. They contend that language acquisition is more inductively acquired. From their meta-analysis of 12 primary studies they concluded that the following five determinants affect learning of a second language: 1) perceptual salience (phonetic substance, syllabicity, and sonority); 2) semantic complexity; 3) morphological regularity; 4) syntactic category; and 5) frequency. They concluded that much of the variance in language acquisition may be understood through the above five determinants. They proposed that the data supported a connectionist view of language learning based on inductive learning rather than guided by innate principles.

Differences in First and Second Language Acquisition

General differences in first and second language acquisition

When a person decides to learn a second language, he/she already possesses one language. Therefore, the first most obvious difference in first and second language acquisition is the *task of the language learner*. This difference in task makes the process of second language learning qualitatively different than the process of first language learning (Ravem, 1968). Cooper (1970) claimed that even if first and second language learning is similar, it is not correct to say that it is identical. Cognitive differences in first and second language learners make perception and production different. For example, a second language learner's ability to read in the first language will be utilized in second language learning. The ability of a second language learner to reason can make him/her dissatisfied with teaching material that has simplified content.

Prator (1969) pointed out the basic differences between acquiring the first language and learning the second. One of the major differences is the *amount of time* that the learner has available for acquiring the second language. While children have all the years they need to

acquire and experiment with their native language, second language learners have a limited amount of time they need to start using the second language meaningfully. The rate at which second language learners acquire the second language depends on the amount of time they actually use the new language.

Since second language learners begin acquiring the second language at a more mature time, Prator (1969) suggested that there are differences in *motivation* and *life experience*. He believed that in most cases, the motivation of children is pretty high – their existence depends on their ability to use the language. With second language learners, the success of language acquisition will be associated with their natural motivation for the second language production. In regard to life experience, the person acquiring the second language usually brings more sophisticated concepts to language learning than he/she brought to acquiring the first language.

Ervin-Tripp (1974) also stated that the presence of life experience makes the difference in first and second language acquisition apparent. In her research, the more experience language learners had, and the older they were, the easier second language acquisition became because older learners have more efficient memory heuristics related to their greater knowledge. In addition, older learners are smarter in their ability to solve linguistic problems.

Dornyei & Skehan (2003) and Dornyei (2005) pointed out that *individual differences* pertinent to any learner, such as *personality*, *ability/aptitude*, and *motivation*, are also relevant in second language acquisition. According to Dornyei (2005), individual differences in second language acquisition are more conspicuous than in the native language, “since we find considerable more variability in the learning outcomes and language use characteristics of L2 learners than their L1 counterparts” (p. 25). Dornyei emphasized that *aptitude* is indeed a variable strongly correlated with second language proficiency, being a predictor of academic

success in general. Dornyei considered such personality traits *extraversion/introversion* dimensions and emphasized that there is “commonsense relationship between extraversion and language use” (p. 25), with extraverts being more talkative and introverts using more careful grammatical structures. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) also suggested that extraversion does affect production in first and second language, although it may not predict success in second language acquisition.

Child-adult differences in second language acquisition

Krashen (1982a) claimed that the main difference between first and second language acquisition lies in *the inherent differences between children and adult language learners*. Krashen’s Theory of Second Language Acquisition, with its five hypotheses (Krashen, 1981, 1982b), has been a central theme in all of his second language research. One of the main emphases of Krashen’s research has remained the research with adult second language learners. In the description of his theory, Krashen has always distinguished between children and adults regarding second language learning and acquisition. Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1982) presented three generalizations concerning the effect of a second language learner’s age on rate and attainment in second language acquisition. They pointed out that adults proceed through the early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children, where time and exposure are constant. In addition, older children acquire language faster than younger children in the early stages of syntactic and morphological development, where time and exposure are held constant. Finally, those learners who begin natural exposure to second language during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those who begin learning a second language as adults.

Krashen (1982a) attempted to explain these generalizations by presenting *neurological, cognitive, affective, and input* explanations for child-adult differences. Krashen's Neurological Hypothesis is that "there are clear neurological differences between child and adult brains, and these differences are directly responsible for child-adult differences in language acquisition" (p. 203). Krashen based his hypothesis on the cerebral dominance research done by Lenneberg in 1967, who proposed a "biological explanation" for child-adult differences in the attainment of the second language (as cited in Krashen, 1982a, p. 205).

The Cognitive Hypothesis uses Piaget's term "formal operations," which is related to "linguistic puberty," to an important event in the development of cognition. This event generally occurs at around the age of 12. According to Piaget (as cited in Krashen, 1982a, p. 207), at this age the child is able to think abstractly, and for the first time is able to relate abstract ideas to each other without referring to concrete objects. Krashen's cognitive hypothesis states the following:

The ability to think abstractly about language, to conceptualize linguistic generalizations, to mentally manipulate abstract linguistic categories, in short to construct or even understand a theory of a language, may be dependent of just those abilities that develop with formal operations. (p. 209)

Therefore, cognitive differences between children and adults predict some child-adult second language acquisition differences. As Bialystok (2001) stated, "the conclusion that general cognitive processes are at the very center of language acquisition is inescapable" (p. 88).

Regarding the Affective Hypothesis, Krashen (1982a) pointed out that the idea that child-adult differences in second language acquisition are due to affective changes is very popular. Krashen drew generalizations about the significance of the relationship between affective

variables and adult second language acquisition. He concluded that affective variables relate directly to acquisition, not conscious learning. If the formal operations can be amenable for adults' faster progress in the earlier stages, the affective variables can be accountable for children's superiority when speaking of "ultimate attainment" (p. 216) in second language acquisition. According to Krashen, the affective filter is strengthened around puberty. Affective factors do not affect the actual functioning of the language acquisition device. They affect the strength of the affective filter, that is, how much input the learner gets and "whether this input gets it" (p. 216).

Finally, Krashen (1982a) explained the Input Hypothesis as predicting child-adult differences in second language acquisition. In his opinion, younger children tend to get simpler input and more help from native speakers in second language acquisition, while older learners have to work harder to get native speakers to provide comprehensible input. This fact could be a "powerful factor in predicting older acquirer's superiority in rate of acquisition, and probably helps to predict older-younger differences in general" (p. 218).

Conclusion

So, how can language teachers use to their advantage these differences between first and second language acquisition and the differences between child and adult language learners? Krashen (1982a) stated that the adult remains an excellent acquirer of the second language when he/she is provided with the input he/she needs in a situation with a low affective filter. "If the filter is up, the best input will be ineffective. If the filter is down, the adult can regain many of the advantages the child enjoys" (p. 220). In order to lower the affective filter, the environment should be as close to natural as possible (Haulman, 1985; Kang & Dutton, 1994; Kossuth, 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Laine, 1987;, 1988; Spurlin & Blanco, 1998; Thorpe, 1994). As Ghosn

(1997) pointed out, if workbooks, fragmented skill lessons, and worksheets are not the best way for first language learners to develop their language skills, they should not be appropriate for second language learners. Language is an interactive process, and second language learners need to interact in a meaningful and interesting context and to play with the language while developing vocabulary and language structures. Literature-based instruction can provide this type of context and can minimize the differences that exist between first and second language acquisition (Elley & Manqubhai, 1983; Fitzgerald, 1993; Ghosn, 1997).

Role of Motivation in Second Language Acquisition

Motivation and second language acquisition

There is a number of researchers (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Haulman, 1985; Kang & Dutton, 1994; Kossuth, 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Laine, 1987, 1988; Skehan, 1989; Spurlin & Blanco, 1998; Thorpe, 1994) who acknowledge the significance of the affective side of learning. “Although psychologists have traditionally considered emotion to be the Cinderella of mental functions, today a reversal of this trend is evident” (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 1). Arnold and Brown specified that both the cognitive and affective sides of learning construct a foundation for the learning process: “neither the cognitive nor the affective has the last word, and indeed, neither can be separated from the other” (p. 1). In Arnold and Brown’s (1999) research, understanding of affect in language learning is important not only because it can lead to more effective language learning, but also because it is important to pay attention to how we can overcome problems caused by negative emotions and create more positive emotions that can facilitate language learning. When negative emotions, such as anxiety, fear, stress, and anger are present, optimal learning can be compromised. In Krashen’s (1981) research, affective factors, or “attitudinal factors” (p. 21) can either enhance or delay second

language acquisition. Among these factors – *motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, empathy, attitude toward the classroom and teacher, and analytic orientation* – motivational factors play a central part, with the rest of the factors being interrelated with them.

As Skenan (1989) pointed out, Gardner's (1985; Gardner & Lampert, 1959) work on the role of motivation in language learning has influenced all further research in this area. Based on Gardner's research, Krashen (1981) distinguished between *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. Integrative motivation is defined as the "desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language" (p. 22). The presence of this motivation should encourage the learner to interact with speakers of the second language out of basic interest (Benson, 1991; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Finegan, 1999; Norris-Holt, 2001). Integrative motivation relates to second language acquisition in situations where intake is available, i.e., in the ESL environment in the United States. According to Krashen (1981), the presence of integrative motivation predicts a low affective filter because learners with this type of motivation will not feel any threat from representatives of the second-language-speaking group, which will make learning more receptive. Language learners with integrative motivation value interaction for its own sake, not for any practical reasons.

The presence of instrumental motivation should encourage language learners to interact with speakers of the second language for some practical purpose (Hudson, 2000; Norris-Holt, 2001). According to Krashen (1981), with instrumental motivation, language acquisition can slow down as soon as the goal of acquisition is achieved. The presence of instrumental motivation predicts a stronger affective filter, which will predict less success in the long run. It has been reported that only a presence of integrative motivation will predict more success in

second language acquisition (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Ellis, 1997; Norris-Holt, 2001; Taylor, Meynard, & Rheault, 1977).

In Krashen's view (1981) the situation of second language learning in the United States, where English language input is plentiful, presence of integrative motivation facilitates second language acquisition. However, in the situation of teaching English as a foreign language, where the opportunity of English language intake is not as elaborate, the effect of integrative motivation is weaker and it is imperative to provide an environment which will facilitate integrative motivation and lower the affective filter, one of the main inhibitors of language learning.

While discussing the role of motivation in second language acquisition, it is vital to emphasize the significance of two other constructs of motivation, *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. Extrinsic motivation comes from the desire of a learner to get a reward or to avoid punishment. On the other hand, when intrinsic motivation is present, learning becomes its own reward (Arnold & Brown, 1999). In the teacher-directed classroom, where the emphasis is on grades, tests, and competitiveness, schools encourage extrinsic motivation. The development of intrinsic motivation should be an optimal goal of language teachers. Arnold and Brown gave some suggestions to stimulate the growth of intrinsic motivation in the second language classroom, including: (a) helping learners develop autonomy by learning to set personal goals and to use learning strategies; (b) encouraging learners to find self-satisfaction in a task well done; (c) facilitating learner participation in determining some aspects of the program and giving opportunities for cooperative learning; and (d) involving students in content-based activities related to their interests and focusing their attention on meaning and purposes rather than on verbs and prepositions.

Another concept that is very closely related to intrinsic motivation is the concept of *flow*. Flow is a state of effortless movement of psychic energy or “optimal experience” (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 15). Flow is connected with affect. As Goleman (1995) pointed out, flow is an ultimate agent in utilizing emotions in performance and learning. When emotions are in flow, they “are not just contained, but positive, energized and aligned with the task at hand” (as cited in Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 15). Flow always feels very good, and therefore, it is intrinsically rewarding. Flow is the state when people become absorbed in what they are doing and pay undivided attention to the task.

Arnold and Brown (1999) pointed out that in second language learning, the enjoyment of learning is not present in the initial stage. In this case, extrinsic motivators, such as grades, are important. But the ultimate goal of language teachers is to move language learners beyond the boundaries of extrinsic motivation to the point of intrinsic motivation, to the “flow channel” (p. 15). Second language learners have to experience “pure enjoyment” (p. 15) from their learning experiences. They have to be intrinsically motivated and experience the pleasure of participating in language learning.

Mastery of a second language is a complex and difficult skill for most people. It is imperative for language learners to accept strategies that help them cope with difficulties of the task of learning the second language. It is imperative for teachers to provide language learners with help in choosing the right strategy for coping with this task. Dornyei (Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei & Otto, 1998; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003) presented a framework for motivational teaching practice. It includes the following four dimensions: 1) creating the basic motivational conditions, 2) generating initial student motivation, 3) maintaining and protecting motivation, and 4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Dornyei (2005) concluded that

teachers should “aim at becoming *good enough motivators*. . . . A few well-chosen strategies that suit both the teacher and the learners might take one beyond the motivational threshold, creating an overall positive motivational climate in the classroom” (p. 112).

Reading motivation and second language acquisition

Using children’s literature in the classroom might aid in “creating an overall positive motivational climate in the classroom” (Dornyei, 2005, p. 112). The effect of books in developing intrinsic motivation of second language learners has been well documented in second language acquisition research (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Chase, 1986; Gee, 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 2000; Hoffman, Roser, Battle, Farest, & Isaacs, 1989; Koskinen et al., 1999; Krashen, 1993b; Morrow, 1992, 2004; Richardson, 1997-1998; Schloss, 1981; Yamashita, 2004). Guthrie et al. (2000) stated that researchers found that reading motivation has direct correlation with reading comprehension. They defined reading motivation as the combination of intrinsic motivation, including such aspects as curiosity, reading involvement and reading challenge, and extrinsic motivation, including the aspect of recognition. According to Guthrie et al. (2000), J. H. Wang and Guthrie (2004), and Baker and Wigfield (1999), reading motivation is a direct predictor of reading amount and reading achievement.

Regarding reading motivation and reading habits, Schloss (1981) specified that children’s literature used in the second language classroom can significantly raise students’ interest in reading. Chase (1986) suggested that motivation to read in a second language was strengthened by providing interesting and appealing reading materials which contained intrinsic cultural and authentic values. Hoffman et al. (1989) claimed that good books and stories affected second language learners’ language growth and reading habits. According to Koskinen et al. (1999), books had a significant impact on second language learners’ ability to understand the text and on

their motivation to read in the second language and to read in general. Gee (1999) pointed out that in addition to the development of second language reading skills, children's literature is very useful for developing reading habits of second language learners. Morrow (1992, 2004) emphasized the impact of skill-oriented experiences with literature on second language learners' attitude toward reading. Morrow's research is in sync with Krashen's (1993b) research of free voluntary reading and its impact of reading attitudes and motivation of second language learners.

In conclusion, in order to increase second language learners' intrinsic motivation to read in the second language and to change their attitude toward reading, it is vital to create a literacy-rich environment that will make reading a meaningful experience, where the literature is introduced in a variety of genres, where teachers read to their students, where time is provided for choice and collaboration, where real-life experiences provide meaning and function to reading and writing, and where a teacher has high expectations for student success (Morrow, 2004). As Morrow pointed out,

According to Plato, 'What is honored in a country will be cultivated there.' In classrooms where teachers honor literacy, they provide activities that entice children to want to read. Think about motivating your children as you make your plans for literacy instruction. Think about providing them with access to materials for reading and writing, choices in literacy activities, challenging situations, and collaborative experiences. (p. 6)

Children's Literature with Adolescent Language Learners

The main focus of second language acquisition researchers has been on the second language acquisition of children rather than adolescents or adults. Still, language development successfully continues through adolescent or later years (Krashen, 1982a; Krashen et al., 1982; Rowe, 1992), and we cannot ignore the effect various instructional approaches have on the

second language development of older learners. According to Rowe (1992), any instructional approach that seeks to enhance language development during adolescent years must include a developmental perspective and consider the structure and function of adolescent oral and written language. As Rowe (1992) pointed out, social meaning of language is very important for adolescents and adults. Therefore, they use a specific style of language that will associate them with their peer group. Adolescents' narrative development is one more aspect of adolescent language development that is facilitated through listening to and reading stories, as well as participating in everyday situations. Adolescents' written language also develops linguistically and socially as they get older, although written communication can be viewed as more abstract than oral communication since there is a shift from an immediate audience that shares the speaker's experiences to the remote audience of readers. Rowe (1992) claimed that adolescents' social oral and oral figurative language supports their need to play with language and to use language to feel a part of a certain social group, while their written language frees them to make sense of their experiences and to become motivated about writing. As Rowe stated,

When freed from the typical school language, they begin to look at things in a new light. Relevant writing enables acts of thinking. Writing flourishes when it goes beyond the level of transmitting information. Like oral language, writing needs to be stimulated by interaction and conversation. (p. 17)

Taking into account the neurological, cognitive, affective, and input differences between child and adolescent second language learners (Krashen, 1982a) and the difference in structure and function of their language (Rowe, 1992), it is vital to integrate instructional strategies that facilitate language development of adolescent language learners. As Checkley (2004) stated, adolescents are passionate about everything. When they see that learning is relevant to them,

they become motivated and learning occurs. A learner-centered instructional approach is the only relevant instruction to boost adolescents' motivation and passion for learning.

Researchers and practitioners documented the importance of children's literature with older second language learners for developing language and literacy skills and content knowledge (Bishop & Hickman, 1992; Khodabakhshi & Lagos, 1993; Silverman, 1990; Smallwood, 1992). Being a learner-centered curriculum, a literature-based curriculum can provide that same instruction that adolescent language learners need. High quality children's literature can offer educational and language benefits for older language learners because it is characterized by an economy of words, colorful illustrations, captivating plots, and universal themes. Moreover, multicultural books "stimulate cross-cultural appreciation" (Smallwood, 1998, p. 3).

In addition to serving the special needs of adolescent language learners, i.e. satisfying their social and linguistic identity (belonging to the specific language-speaking community) and providing a motivation for learning, literature-based instruction used with adolescents has the same linguistic and cultural benefits as with younger second language learners (Flickinger, 1984; Hadaway & Mundy, 1999; Mundy, 1996; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Tomlison & McGraw, 1997). Flickinger (1984) stated that the use of well written authentic literature with older second language learners seems very appropriate to develop second language literacy, since it "is concerned with the deepest human preoccupations common to all peoples and may transcend cultural differences and through its reading, provide deep satisfaction" (p. 3). Pitts, White, and Krashen's (1989) research showed that older language learners can significantly increase their vocabulary by reading, as they are acquiring vocabulary incidentally while they read. Tomlison and McGraw (1997) pointed out that despite claims that older language learners might have

prejudice against using children's literature in their classroom, research indicated that in addition to showing better results in literacy development, learners were intrigued by these books, wanted to reread them, and even bought the books to have them at home. Mundy (1996) and Hadaway and Mundy (1999) emphasized that children's literature is an excellent "literacy vehicle" (Hadaway & Mundy, 1999, p. 466) for older English language learners, which reinforces language through content concepts and provides good models of reading and writing.

Second language acquisition researchers documented the benefits of using picture books and reading aloud with older language learners as well (Albright & Ariail, 2005; Carr, Buchanan, Wentz, Weiss, & Brant, 2001; Karlin, 1994; Khodabakhshi & Lagos, 1993; Miller, 1998; Rief, 1992; Sharp, 1991). Sharp (1991) indicated that simplicity and short length of picture books can give older language learners the confidence that comes with accomplishment, which is very important with older learners' psychological state of well-being, and therefore, will serve as motivators to encourage further reading. T. Miller (1998) presented arguments in favor of using picture books with adolescent language learners, including (a) providing accessible language and shortness of texts; (b) providing independent reading options; (c) integrating multicultural content in all subject areas; (d) enhancing vocabulary development; and (e) introducing abstract topics, which, in addition to providing a springboard for language development activities, can be an excellent way to stimulate critical thinking. Karlin (1994) and Carr et al. (2001) emphasized the opportunities that picture books provide to enhance motivation and learning of older language learners in content areas by focusing on a single concept in more depth than textbooks and by providing background and context for academic learning. Rief (1992), Khodabakhshi and Lagos (1993), and Albright and Ariail (2005) pointed out that reading aloud with adolescent second language learners proved to be productive because it interconnects all four language

domains – listening, speaking, reading, and writing – and has positive outcomes for both motivation and learning.

A special emphasis should be put on Krashen's (1993b) research with the use of "free voluntary reading" in the adolescent/adult second language classroom, which he defined as "one of the most powerful tools we have in education" and "the missing ingredient in first 'language arts' as well as an intermediate second and foreign language instruction" (p. 1). According to Krashen and his proponents (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Clary, 1991; Constantino, 1995; Kim & Krashen, 1997; Krashen, 1993b; Pilgreen & Krashen, 1993; Takagaki, 2002), the success of in-school free reading programs, such as sustained silent reading and self-directed reading, can be considered as the clearest evidence for the power of reading. Studies have shown the impact of these programs on reading comprehension, as measured by standardized tests, and on vocabulary development, writing, and oral language ability. Krashen pointed out that people who read more write better. Reading for pleasure is the best predictor of comprehension, vocabulary, and the speed of reading. Second language learners, who read in a second language, write and spell better in that language.

Krashen (1993b) refuted the alternative way to reading instruction, referred to as direct instruction. He suggested that reading is the only way to develop literacy. He presented the following arguments: (a) language is too complex to be learned in one rule or word at a time; (b) competence can occur without instruction; and (c) when studies do show the impact of direct instruction, this effect disappears with time. Krashen indicated that free voluntary reading requires access to enriched reading environments, which could be classrooms equipped with books, where there is room for comfortable and quiet reading, as well as libraries. Encouragement from librarians, teachers, administration, and parents is also essential. Reading

aloud also has multiple effects on literacy development, as well as reading experiences themselves that promote reading. Krashen concluded with a very powerful point,

My conclusions are simple. When children read for pleasure, when they get ‘hooked on books,’ they acquire, involuntary and without conscious effort, nearly all of the so-called ‘language skills’ many people are so concerned about: They will become adequate readers, acquire a large vocabulary, develop the ability to understand and use complex grammatical constructions, develop a good writing style, and become good (but not necessarily perfect) spellers. Although free voluntary reading alone will not ensure attainment of the highest level of literacy, it will at least ensure an acceptable level. Without it, I suspect that children simply do not have a chance. (p. 84)

Summary

Having reviewed the publications in the area of use of children’s literature in first and second language acquisition, a trend reporting the positive influence of children’s books on the language development of both children and older language learners is present. Following the history of literature teaching in American classrooms (see Table A1), it is obvious that a debate as to whether or not to use literature-based instruction has been going on for centuries (Skilling, 1995; Morrow, 2005). Both supporters and opponents of literature-based instruction base their arguments on theoretical grounds. The focus of this research was on a theoretical foundation, which backs up using children’s literature in the second/foreign language classroom, as supported by the ideas of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Johann Pestalozzi, and Friedrich Froebel (as cited in Morrow, 2005; Smith, 1997b), as well as the research conducted by Dewey (1929/1997), Bandura (as cited in Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001), Piaget (1965), Vygotsky (1934/1986, 1978), Bruner (1983), and Krashen (1981, 1982b, 1985).

The benefits of using children's literature for language acquisition are supported by the research of prominent educators and are presented in this literature review. Among these benefits are: a) the effects of literature on first and second language literacy, including the development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills and the cultural context that literature provides; b) the importance of reading aloud and picture books in first and second language acquisition, including the modeling of the language, development of linguistic awareness, and the provision of rich opportunities for language use and production; and c) the significance of a rich language environment that books can provide, including the variety of genres and the opportunity they present for language learners to experiment with language.

Similarities of first and second language acquisition, and, moreover, their differences, should be taken into account while developing curricula for second language learners. Educators should consider the innate abilities of language learners to acquire the language, similarities in the process of first and second language acquisition, some similarities of order of acquisition, and the same language acquisition strategies of first and second language learners. The differences between first and second language acquisition have the most significance with older second language learners. Since this research addressed the area of second language acquisition of adolescent language learners, I reviewed the literature on the difference of language acquisition of children and older learners, including individual (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Dornyei, 2005) and cognitive (Bialystok, 2001; Krashen, 1982a) differences. It is vital to utilize these differences to the advantage of second language learners and to construct a learning environment that will provide comprehensible input and a low affective filter (Adunyarittigun, 1993; Dodson, 2000; Ehrlich, 1989; Haulman, 1985; Judd et al., 2001; Kang & Dutton, 1994; Kossuth, 1985; Lafford, 1987; Laine, 1987, 1988; Loschky, 1994; Mizuno, 1998; Moustafa,

1987; Pica, 1989; Rodrigo et al., 2004; Schmidt, 1996; Spurlin & Blanco, 1998; Thorpe, 1994). This literature review showed that literature-based instruction can provide this type of input and can minimize the differences that exist between first and second language acquisition of older language learners.

The review of the literature on the role of motivation in second language acquisition and on the role of reading motivation in attitudes toward reading in the second language has shown that motivation remains one of the most essential factors in learning a second language, especially by older language learners. The concepts of integrative and instrumental motivation and their role in second language development, as well as the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, present an integral knowledge base for a second/foreign language teacher. In addition, second/foreign language teachers need to be aware of the role reading motivation plays in reading habits and attitudes toward reading in the second language and toward reading in general.

Finally, the section on the benefits of children's literature with adolescent language learners has the most significance, since adolescent language learners were the main participants of this research. As Ernst-Slavit et al. (2002) pointed out, "literature is one of the best ways to establish a common experience amongst students from which discussions involving abstract concepts can be built" (p. 125). Adolescent language learners are a group of people who can not only think abstractly, but who also put special meaning in their learning, requiring certain instructional approaches to meet their developmental and linguistic needs. This literature review showed that children's literature-based instruction can make adolescent learning meaningful and promote the development of second/foreign language skills, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Literature-based instruction can make adolescents active language learners

by engaging them in interaction and collaboration. Literature-based instruction can provide an input that will be comprehensible and challenging, while at the same time motivating and stimulating. Literature-based instruction can help adolescents utilize their developmentally appropriate abilities to reflect on their language use and production. Literature-based instruction can provide a rich foundation for the target language and can provide a lot of opportunities to experiment with language. This literature review showed that with children's literature-based instruction, adolescent language learners can "have a chance" (Krashen, 1993b, p. 84) to "become adequate readers, acquire a large vocabulary, develop the ability to understand and use complex grammatical constructions, develop a good writing style, and become good spellers" and to become a part of a "worldwide multilingual reality" (Belz, 2003, p. 4).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used to analyze the relationship between the use of children's literature with adolescent learners of English as a foreign language and their English language development, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In addition, this chapter discusses the methodology that was used to analyze adolescent language learners' attitude toward reading in foreign language and toward reading in general and the relationship found when using children's literature in the English as a foreign language classroom. This chapter includes descriptions of the following elements of the study: (a) design of the study, (b) the treatment used in the study, (c) the population and sample, (d) the measures and procedures that were employed to collect data, and (e) the statistical techniques that were used to analyze data.

Design of the Study

Design

To answer the questions about the relationship between the use of children's literature with adolescents in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom and their English language development and reading attitudes, and to test the hypotheses specified in Chapter 1, I conducted an experiment and employed quantitative and qualitative measures to collect data. This study had a quasi-experimental design, with pre- and post-test measurements and participants' growth comparison. The experiment had two levels of variables – independent and dependent. The *independent variable* was the use of children's literature with adolescents in the EFL classroom. The *dependent variables* were: (a) English language oral skills, (b) English language reading skills, (c) English language writing skills, (d) attitudes toward reading in

English and toward reading in general. The experiment tested whether the independent variable would cause changes in the dependent variables, i.e. whether the use of children's literature would facilitate foreign language development and whether it would change learners' attitude toward reading in the foreign language and toward reading in general.

The study lasted for the period of one spring semester, from January 10 through May 31, 2006. I taught English as a foreign language to two groups, one control and one experimental, two times a week, one and a half hours long each time, for the period of 20 weeks. The control group curriculum was the basic English-as-a-second-language secondary level curriculum used by a North Texas school district. This curriculum was aligned with participants' local curriculum goals and objectives, using curriculum aligning procedures specified by Glathorn (1994). This alignment was conducted in order to meet the participants' local learning curriculum objectives as well as to have valid data that may be generalized to the North Texas secondary school population.

I collected data in the beginning and at the end of the study. Oral, reading, and written proficiency tests were administered in the beginning and at the end of the study. In addition, I conducted two semi-structured interviews and administered two questionnaires about participants' attitudes toward reading in the foreign language and toward reading in general (in the beginning and at the end of the study).

Treatment

The experimental group was taught the same curriculum as the control group; the only difference was that the experimental group was supplemented with pertinent children's literature, including picture books, fairy tales, fables, legends, and poetry. Therefore, the treatment in the study was the use of children's literature with adolescent learners of English as a foreign

language. I used *balanced literacy instruction* as the core of instructional design with the experimental group, which as Au, Carroll, and Scheu (1997) specified, would “strike a balance between maintaining high levels of student motivation and meeting the demands of a challenging curriculum” (p. x).

The choice of this instruction design was determined because a balanced approach to literacy instruction is a curriculum framework that is based on the use of literature as the core of instruction and gives equal status to reading and writing. It is also called a “whole literacy curriculum” (Au, Carroll, & Scheu, 1997, p. 4), where the *whole* part recognizes the significance of engagement in the full processes of reading and writing activities in authentic contexts, e.g., in reading and writing workshops. The *literacy* part puts an emphasis on reading and writing. At the same time, development of speaking and listening skills is integral to literacy development and to the activities in reading and writing workshops.

According to Au, Carroll, and Scheu (1997), the theoretical framework for a balanced literacy instruction approach includes the influence of Vygotsky’s social constructivist theory and Goodman’s *whole language* philosophy. Vygotsky’s approach to learning was a *holistic* approach, i.e., he considered reading and writing in a holistic manner, in terms of the full processes involved (as cited in Au, Carroll, & Scheu, 1997). This approach implies that students should be engaged in meaningful authentic literacy activities where all literacy skills are developed. Literacy activities should involve the full processes of reading and writing, with necessary integration of listening and speaking as an essential part of social interaction.

In addition, K. Goodman’s whole language philosophy (Goodman, K., 1986; Goodman, K. & Goodman, 1979; Goodman, Y., Burke, & Sherman, 1980) is based on the idea that reading, writing, and oral language are not separate entities and should be taught together. Learning to

read and write should be taught by engaging in the full processes of reading and writing, not skill activities. Reading, writing, listening, and speaking can be most easily learned in the context of use, i.e., reading should be taught through the reading of good books; writing through engaging in writing activities; and oral language through interaction.

The theoretical framework of balanced literacy instruction (Au, Carroll, & Scheu, 1997) determined the choice of the selected children's literature and activities used as the treatment for the experimental group. While considering the choice of children's books, I looked at several criteria, which included the quality of the written text and illustrations (e.g. the award-winning books); the simplicity of language structures; and the pertinent content, which could be used as a basis for grammar teaching and conversational topics. Appendix B includes the annotated bibliography of picture books used in the study with corresponding topics that were taught on the basis of these books, the rationale for selection of each book, and the list of books used for the independent reading activity (sustained silent reading).

According to Strickland (1994 - 1995), in order to achieve a balance in literacy instruction, teachers have to consider the point of view of those researchers who support teaching literacy instruction with a focus on teaching skills as well as the point of view of advocates of meaningful activities who believe that the focus of the literacy curriculum should be on full processes of reading and writing. In Strickland's belief, many students, especially those whose native language is other than English, would benefit from direct instruction, as well as from meaningful literacy activities, which include the use of children's literature as the basis of direct teaching of language skills.

While designing the activities for the experimental group, I used a North Texas school district core curriculum, as a basis for the choice of resources and the direct instruction. The use

of children’s literature served as a means of creating a motivating, meaningful, and interactive language context that facilitated the integration of language skills of experimental group participants. Throughout the daily instructional lessons, I used a variety of strategies to provide a literature-rich-language-motivating environment in the experimental group, which included a) sustained silent (independent) reading; b) reading aloud, discussing, and retelling a variety of genres of children’s literature, including fairy tales, fables, and poetry; c) discussing picture books – describing pictures, recreating the original and writing the new captions; d) reading, reciting, discussing, and writing poetry; e) analyzing grammar structures of a piece of children’s literature and poetry; f) creating writing projects based on a children’s book; and g) creating book reports. Strategies for a given instructional day were based on the skill/concept identified in that day’s curriculum. Table 1 shows how one given concept was taught. This depicts the basic difference in instruction between the control and the treatment groups.

Table 1

Example of Instructional Difference between Control and Experimental Groups

Introduction of Past Continuous Tense	
Control Group	Experimental Group
The chart (overhead projector)	The chart (overhead projector)
Reading a text from the textbook	Reading the book, <i>Anansi and the Moss-Covered Rock</i> , by Kimmel, 1988
Finding the verbs in Past Continuous while reading	Clapping each time when hearing a verb in Past Continuous

(table continues)

Table 1 (*continued*).

Introduction of Past Continuous Tense	
Control Group	Experimental Group
Listing the verbs on the board	Listing the verbs on the board
Discussing all the forms of the verbs in Past Continuous	Discussing all the forms of the verbs in Past Continuous
Doing exercises from the textbook	Doing exercises from the textbook

The children’s literature selection (*Anansi and the Moss-Covered Rock*, Kimmel, 1988) used with the experimental group, for this lesson, has the repetitive grammar structure of past continuous verb tense. This concept was taught to both groups; however, the experimental participants learned the concept through the authenticity of children’s literature. An example of the repetitive verb tense from the literature is as follows:

Once upon a time Anansi the Spider was walking, walking, walking, walking through the forest when something caught his eye. It was a strange moss-covered rock. “How interesting!” Anansi said. “Isn’t this a strange moss-covered rock!” KPOM! Everything went black. Down fell Anansi, senseless. An hour later Anansi woke up. His head was spinning. He wondered what happened. “I was walking along the path when something caught my eye. I stopped and said, ‘Isn’t this a strange moss-covered rock.’” KPOM! Down fell Anansi again. But this time, when he woke up an hour later, he knew what was happening. (pp. 1-3)

As stated earlier, Hadaway et al. (2001) recommended that poetry should be a significant element of second language instruction. Therefore, I used poetry on a regular basis with the experimental group participants to start and to finish each lesson. In the experimental group classroom, I created an environment which provided a lot of opportunities to experiment with language and to “draw upon a richer fund of language” (Cullinan, 1992, p. 426). (See Appendix C for sample lesson plans for the control and experimental groups.)

Population and Sample

Permission to conduct this research was granted by the Institutional Review Board at the Office of Research Services, University of North Texas at Denton (See Appendix F). The participants in the study were 15-year-old Ukrainian students entering their first year of college (grade nine) at a private institution. During this year, students are expected to complete the general high school curriculum, prior to entering the specific business (law and economy) curriculum. The treatment and control group participants were intended to be at the intermediate level of target language proficiency, as pre-determined by the local campus. In preparation for the study, at the beginning of the 2005-2006 school year (September 2005), students at the same pre-determined intermediate English proficiency level were assigned into four groups, 12 students in each, according to the major area of study in the college. Therefore, I had to conduct the study with intact groups. Due to the existing subdivision of the major areas of study in the college and the corresponding scheduling issues, random assignment was not feasible. Since I used only two groups in the study, I randomly selected two groups out of the four. I randomly selected the experimental group out of two groups participating in the study. I assumed that participants in both the treatment and control groups belonged to the same cultural and socio-economic background and were literate in their primary (Ukrainian) language. This assumption

was based on: a) observations of participants' neighborhood; b) participants parents' occupations; and c) the fact that participants' parents were able to pay high tuition for their children to go to a private institution, since there are no scholarships available. The total number of participants was 24. All participants were white. There were eight female and four male students in the experimental group, and six female and six male students in the control group.

Description of Quantitative and Qualitative Measures for Data Collection

Quantitative measures

Two quantitative measures were employed to ascertain participants' English language proficiency in the beginning of the study and participants' growth in language proficiency at the end of the study. The measures included the Reading Proficiency Test in English (RPTE) and the family of Idea Proficiency Tests (IPT) – Oral, Reading, and Writing. Each of these measures is described below.

Reading Proficiency Test in English (RPTE). The RPTE ("Texas Education Agency: Assessment/Testing: RPTE," n.d.) is designed to measure annual growth in English reading proficiency of second language learners, and is used to provide a comprehensive assessment system for LEP students in the state of Texas. Standards-referenced assessments such as RPTE are based on an extensive definition of the content they assess. Test validity is therefore content based and is tied directly to the statewide curriculum. In order to ensure the highest level of content validity, the process of aligning RPTE to the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) and the state curriculum (TEKS) was carefully approached by state officials and included numerous committees of Texas educators. The direct input from educators offered additional evidence regarding the content validity of constructed RPTE tests.

In RPTE tests, the construct tested is the academic content required by the statewide curriculum. With curriculum-based achievement tests, both types of validity, content and construct, are intertwined. The construct validity is grounded in the content validity of the test.

LEP students in the state of Texas in Grades 3-12 are required to take the RPTE until they achieve a rating of advanced. The RPTE assessments are not designed to measure mastery of content with a pass or fail score. The RPTE assesses reading skills at three proficiency levels – beginning, intermediate, or advanced. Each RPTE reading selection is written at a beginning, intermediate, or advanced proficiency level and is designed to be comprehensible to students who are at those proficiency levels. Each proficiency level marks a stage of second language development, and students proceed from one level to the next regardless of whether they began to learn English in elementary school or at an older age. The RPTE reading selections and test questions illustrate what English language learners can understand and do at certain English proficiency levels. Each test question assesses a particular reading skill from the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS), e.g., determining a text’s main idea, interpreting a graphic source of information, supporting inferences with text evidence, and other skills as specified in the TEKS. The students’ performance on test items at each proficiency level provides information about how much English they understand and, within their designated proficiency levels, how well they are developing the reading skills the TEKS require students to be taught annually.

The language proficiency continuum for the RPTE begins with the ability to read and understand common English words and culminates with selections that approach the linguistic complexity of those that are included in the TAKS. The RPTE test questions are written in a multiple-choice format. The test consists primarily of reading selections and comprehension questions; however, some test items assessing lower ranges of proficiency are not based on a

reading selection. Test items that are not based on a reading selection assess vocabulary and language structures that students new to the English language internalize early in their language development. Items assessing the lower proficiency ranges include visuals to enhance comprehension. The RPTE reading selections are designed to be age appropriate and appropriate in terms of the proficiency level assessed. Narrative, functional, and informative reading selections are included. Informative selections cover a variety of subject areas and academic content. There is no specified length for the reading selections. Beginning level selections may be less than 50 words long, and texts generally increase in length as the proficiency levels increase. Although most test items that accompany a reading selection assess the same proficiency level, the level of the items that appear with a selection may vary. Students taking the RPTE answer test questions for all proficiency levels. Each RPTE test, therefore, starts with beginning level items, and gradually the proficiency levels are mixed, with more difficult reading selections interspersed with easier ones. (The RPTE tests can be found at: <http://www.tea.state.tx.us/student.assessment/resources/release/rpte/index.html>)

Idea Proficiency Tests in English (IPT). The IPT family of tests ("IPT: Online inservice training," n.d.) includes a series of norm referenced, standardized assessment instruments for testing oral language, reading, and writing in English for children from the age of three years through the 12th grade. The Reading/Writing Test may be given independently of the Oral Test, but both tests would be needed for an overall assessment of language ability. The IPT Tests are approved tests for the assessment of limited English proficient students in Texas ("The State of Texas: List of approved tests for assessment of limited English proficient students," n.d.). In order to test the validity of the IPT Tests, large numbers of students from across the United States, representing a broad range of ethnic backgrounds, socio-economic statuses, and language

abilities, were included in pilot and field tests used to gather normative data. Therefore, when administration procedures are followed exactly as prescribed, the IPT Tests provide valid and reliable assessments of students' oral, reading, and writing abilities. The following are descriptions of each of these areas as included in the test.

The Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test assesses the following four basic areas of English oral language proficiency: Vocabulary, Comprehension, Syntax, and Verbal Expression, which includes Articulation. The oral proficiency items consist of questions and statements to the student (e.g., "Stand up and turn around", or "What is your name?") and colorful picture cards for identification of an action verb (e.g., riding a bike, were singing/sang), or a noun (e.g., helicopter, stove). There are six levels of difficulty tested (A - F) and all students are tested individually. A student advances through the levels of the test until the test is completed or stops at a proficiency level as indicated by information in the score box at the end of each level. The Oral IPT Test is not timed. The length of the test depends on the student's English language proficiency.

Scoring the Oral Language Proficiency Test is a straightforward procedure. Each item has a corresponding response line which gives the desired answer that is numbered the same as the item. Each item is followed by two boxes – one to check if the item is correct, and the other to check if the item is incorrect. The Oral Test is divided into six levels, A through F. At the end of each level, the examiner totals the number of errors or incorrect responses. Each level gives a maximum number of errors possible to continue the testing at the next level. If the student exceeds an error threshold, s/he is classified at that level or the previous level depending upon the total number of errors made. These six levels can then be translated in the Non-English

Speaking (NES), Limited English Speaking (LES), or Fluent English Speaking (FES) categories. The IPT II Oral Test is administered to grades 7-12.

The IPT Reading Test is a group-administered standardized test. It consists of five parts: (a) Vocabulary, (b) Vocabulary in Context, (c) Reading for Understanding, (d) Reading for Life Skills, and (e) Language Usage. Three different reading level designations – a Non-English Reader, a limited English Reader, and a competent English Reader – are identified after the Reading Test is scored. The items for the Reading Test are presented in a traditional multiple-choice, bubble-in-the-correct-answer format. Reading test items have four possible responses among which to choose. Different forms of the Reading Tests include similar items that are developmentally appropriate for the students' age. The Reading Test is not timed.

The multiple choice portions of the Reading Test can be hand-scored using a template. The total score for this test is the total number of correct answers in each of the five subtest sections. The number correct then can be compared with the required number of correct test items for the Non-English Reader, Limited English Reader and Competent English Reader designations. A table in the appendix of the examiner's manual that comes with the test can be used to interpret the raw scores as standard scores, percentile ranks, or normal curve equivalents. The IPT 3 Reading Test is administered to grades 7-12.

The IPT Writing Test is a group-administered standardized test. The Writing Test has three parts: (a) Conventions, (b) Write a Story, and (c) Write Your Own Story. Three different writing level designations – a Non-English Writer, a Limited English Writer, and a Competent English Writer – are identified after the Writing Test is scored. The items for the Writing Test are presented in a traditional multiple choice, bubble in the correct answer format. The writing multiple choice items have three possible answers. The Writing Test includes two sections that

require the student to write a story. The first section has a series of three pictures that “tell” a story. The student is expected to write about the sequence of events depicted. The second writing sample has two different picture prompts, and the student is expected to write a story about one of the prompts. Different forms of the Writing Tests include similar items that are developmentally appropriate for the student’s age. The Writing Test is not timed.

Scoring the Writing Test involves a similar process for the multiple choice items that are in the Reading Test, but the two sections that involve actual student writing samples completed for the test booklet prompts require the examiner to use the IPT Rubrics and student examples in the Examiner's Manual to rate the writing samples. The rating given to these two sections, using the rubric, is considered the score. The scores for the three writing sections are compared to a range of scores that are required for classification as a Non-English Writer, a Limited English Writer, or a Competent English Writer. The IPT 3 Writing Test is administered to grades 7-12. (The information about the IPT Tests can be found at: <http://www.ballard-tighe.com/IPTOnlineInserviceTraining/>.)

Qualitative measures

In order to measure participants’ attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general, I designed Interview and Questionnaire Protocols. The validity of these protocols was tested by three ESL expert readers and a field study, which was conducted with five secondary level EFL students from participants' college, but not participating in the study. In addition, samples of participants’ work were used to measure participants’ growth in English language proficiency during the study. The qualitative measures were as follows:

1. *Attitudes toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General Interview*

Protocol. This document provided a questions protocol that I used in an interview

setting to analyze participants' attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general. The protocol was administered in the students' primary language, since the goal was not to measure foreign language development but the students' attitudes.

(See Appendix D, Protocols D1 and D2.)

2. *Attitudes toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General Questionnaire.*

The questionnaire measured participants' attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general. Two different questionnaires were administered, one in the beginning and one at the end of the study. The questionnaires were administered in the students' primary language, since the goal was not to measure foreign language development but the students' attitudes. (See Appendix D, Protocol D3 and D4)

3. *Collection of samples of participants' work.* This assessment contained a collection of samples of participants' work that documented participants' achievements in English language learning. Evidence included journal writing entries, book reports, and writing prompts (See Appendix E for some samples of participants' work). I looked at the amount of written discourse in journals, the structure used by participants, participants' expression of thought and language usage when responding to writing prompts, and their comprehension of the text as depicted in book reports. These data were analyzed at the beginning and at the end of the study. A comparison of the quality of responses was made between participants' work samples at the beginning of the study and at the end of the study, to ascertain English as a foreign language literacy growth during the semester. The purpose was to determine whether or not the use of children's literature made a difference in participants' EFL literacy growth.

Procedures of Data Collection

In the beginning of the study, I administered the following quantitative measures: (a) a released version of the RPTE Spring 2003 Test, (b) the IPT 3 Form 3A Reading Test, (c) the IPT 3 Form 3A Writing Test, and (d) the IPT II Form C Oral Test as the pre-tests to measure the actual pre-treatment English level proficiency in the four English language domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The measures were administered to both the control and experimental groups. At the end of the study, the following quantitative measures were administered: (a) a released version of the RPTE Spring 2004 Test, (b) the IPT 3 Form 3B Reading test, (c) the IPT 3 Form 3B Writing test, and (d) the IPT II Form D Oral test as the post-tests to measure growth in the four English language domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The difference in the pre- and post-test results was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical procedure to compare the achievements of both control and experimental groups and to draw conclusions about the effects of the treatment.

In order to measure participants' attitude toward reading in English and toward reading in general, I conducted two semi-structured interviews (in the beginning and at the end of the study) with each participant in both control and experimental groups. Each interview lasted approximately half an hour long and was based on the observations of the activities in the classroom and on participants' relationship with children's literature in general and children's literature written in English. Protocol D1 and D2 (Appendix D) include basic questions that were asked during the interviews. Questions of the type "Why?", "How come?", and "Please explain" evolved from the answers. Questions at the end of the study depended on the initial interviews. When I was conducting the interviews at the end of the study, the transcripts of the first interview served as a basis for further inquiry. At the end of the study, the questions were geared toward the changes in exposure to the reading materials, reading habits, and attitudes toward

reading (See Appendix D, Protocol D2 for the example of the questions asked during post-interviews). In addition, I administered two questionnaires about participants' attitude toward reading in English and toward reading in general in the beginning and at the end of the study. The questionnaires are included in Appendix D, Protocols D3 and D4.

Statistical Analysis of Data

To test Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3, specified in Chapter One, I used an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical design, using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS Graduate Pack 11.5 for Windows). In order to compare the growth of both control and experimental groups, I used a one-way ANOVA design at .05 level of statistical significance on difference scores, where the difference is the post-test score minus the pre-test score. The difference between the pre-test and post-test scores for each person was calculated and then analyzed in a one-way ANOVA, using treatment (treatment vs. control) as the only factor. This analysis of difference scores is also called a *gain score analysis*. In the gain score analysis, if the treatment main effect is significant, then the change from pre-test to post-test is not the same in the two groups. Computed F ratio indicates whether or not the hypotheses should be rejected or accepted. If the value of computed F ratio exceeds the value of F_{cv} for the specified degrees of freedom, the directional hypothesis is accepted. The probability that the observed differences in sample means would have occurred by chance would be indicated by the F_{prob} value.

In behavioral science statistics, there are several ways to control for a type one error (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Hopkins, 2000; Pedhazur, 1997). One of the reasons to control for a type one error, doing Bonferroni Adjustment in particular, is the existence of multiple levels of dependent variables, i.e. too many effects to measure. Therefore, it would be reasonable to

conduct this type of control in this study, since the researcher administered four tests (RPTE, IPT Oral, IPT Writing, and IPT Reading) in order to determine the effect of using children's literature in the adolescent EFL classroom. As Hopkins (2000) pointed out, if all the tests are independent unities, the chance of type one error is increased and to control for it would be justifiable. If the tests are not independent, using any type one error control, Bonferroni Adjustment in particular, would be too severe (Hopkins, 2000). All testing measures used in this research include testing procedures used to measure English language development in ESL students. All four tests used in the study measure four variables – four language development skills: *listening, speaking, reading, and writing*. These four variables are tightly connected in literacy development, and it is impossible to isolate any one of them in reaching a conclusion about the achievements of second/foreign language learners. Each one of these skills is a different component of language acquisition. It is possible to look at the development of a single skill, but it would inevitably depend on the development of the others (Atwell, 1987; Au et al., 1997; Calkins, 1986, 2000; *First and second language: The reading and writing connection*, ; Graves, 1983; Samway, 2006; Strech, 1994). Therefore, I chose not to use any control for a type one error, but to use descriptive statistics to look at the separate variables (skills) and their interrelationship in the second/foreign language development.

Summary

This chapter presented the methodology that was used to analyze the relationship between the use of children's literature with adolescent English-as-a-foreign-language learners and their English language development and attitude toward reading in English and reading in general. The chapter included a description of the main elements of the study, including the design of the study, the population and the sample, the treatment, the quantitative and qualitative

measures and procedures that were employed to collect data, and the statistical analysis that was used to analyze data.

In order to test Directional Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, I used a quantitative analysis based on the pre- and post-test results of the Reading Proficiency Test in English (RPTE) and the family of Idea Proficiency Tests (IPT), which included Oral, Reading, and Writing tests. Each of the tests was administered to the experimental and the control group at the beginning and at the end of the semester; the growth in oral, reading, and written English proficiency was computed. I used descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA analysis of the gain scores for the experimental and control groups to reject or accept the hypotheses.

In order to test Directional Hypothesis 4, I used a qualitative analysis based on the interview protocols, questionnaire results, and observations of classroom activities. In addition, samples of participants' work were collected and analyzed to show participants' achievements during the course of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports on the results of the study. The findings are organized into two sections. The first section addresses quantitative results and presents testing of directional Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 as introduced in Chapter 1. The second section addresses qualitative results and presents testing of directional Hypothesis 4.

Quantitative Results

In order to test Directional Hypothesis 1, I used descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA gain score analysis for the experimental and control groups on the IPT Oral test. The following Directional Hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of statistical significance for all participants in both groups: The use of children's literature will result in a higher level of oral language development for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction. Table 2 reports the comparative descriptive statistics for the experimental and control groups.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for IPT Oral Test Gain Scores for Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Experimental	23.81	11.79
Control	11.81	4.55

Both the mean and standard deviation (*SD*) are higher for the experimental group than for the control group by 12 and 7.29 points respectively. A higher *SD* means more variability in the score distribution for the experimental group than for the control group.

Table 3 presents an ANOVA Output from SPSS for the IPT Oral test for the experimental and control groups.

Table 3

One-Way ANOVA IPT Oral Gain Score Analysis for Experimental and Control Groups

Source	Sum of Square	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Fprob</i>
Between Groups	863.280	1	863.280	10.808*	.003
Within Groups	1757.206	22	79.873		
Total	2620.486	23			

* Statistically significant *F* ratio

$\alpha = .05$

Table 3 indicates that the computed *F* ratio is sufficiently high. According to the *F* Ratio Critical Value Table (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998, p. 643), *F_{cv}* for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups degrees of freedom (*df*) is 4.30. The computed *F* ratio is significantly above the specified *F_{cv}*. Therefore, Directional Hypothesis 1 is accepted, which means that there are observed differences in the sample means on the IPT Oral test. The sample means on the IPT Oral test for the experimental group are significantly higher than the sample means on the IPT Oral test for the control group. The probability that the observed differences in sample means would have occurred by chance is less than .003.

In order to test Directional Hypothesis 2, I used descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA gain score analysis for the experimental and control groups on the IPT Reading and RPTE test. The following Directional Hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of statistical significance for all participants in both groups: The use of children’s literature will result in a higher level of reading achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children’s literature during the instruction. Table 4 reports the comparative descriptive statistics for the two groups on the IPT Reading and RPTE tests.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for IPT Reading and RPTE Test Gain Scores for Experimental and Control Groups

Test	Group			
	Experimental		Control	
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
IPT Reading	25.81	6.88	11.03	4.80
RPTE	20.60	4.75	9.72	5.45

Both the mean and the *SD* on the IPT Reading test are higher for the experimental group than for the control group by 14.79 and 2.08 points respectively. A higher *SD* means more variability in the score distribution for the experimental group than for the control group on the IPT Reading test. However, on the RPTE test, the mean and *SD* are higher for the experimental group by 10.88 points, while the *SD* is lower in the experimental group by .7 point, which means that on

the RPTE test there is more variability in the scores of the control group than the experimental group.

Table 5 presents an ANOVA Output from SPSS for the IPT Reading and RPTE tests for the experimental and control groups.

Table 5

One-Way ANOVA IPT Reading and RPTE Gain Score Analysis for Experimental and Control Groups

Test	Source	Sum of Square	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Fprob</i>
IPT Reading	Between Groups	1313.056	1	1313.056	37.298*	.000
	Within Groups	774.502	22	35.205		
	Total	2087.558	23			
RPTE	Between Groups	709.376	1	709.376	27.140*	.000
	Within Groups	575.026	22	26.138		
	Total	1284.402	23			

* Statistically significant *F* ratio

$\alpha = .05$

Table 5 indicates that the computed *F* ratio is sufficiently high for both tests. According to *F* Ratio Critical Value Table (Hinkle et al., 1998 , p. 643; Martin & Shannon, 1992), the *F_{cv}* for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups degrees of freedom (*df*) is 4.30. The computed *F* ratio is significantly above the specified *F_{cv}*. Therefore, Directional Hypothesis 2 is accepted, which

means that there are observed differences in the sample means on both the IPT Reading and the RPTE test. The sample means on the IPT Reading and the RPTE tests for the experimental group are significantly higher than the sample means on the IPT Reading and RPTE tests for the control group. The probability that the observed differences in sample means would have occurred by chance is less than .0001 on both tests.

In order to test Directional Hypothesis 3, I used descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA gain score analysis for the experimental and control groups on the IPT Writing test. The following Directional Hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of statistical significance for all participants in both groups: The use of children’s literature will result in a higher level of writing achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children’s literature during the instruction. Table 6 reports the comparative descriptive statistics for two groups.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for IPT Writing Test Gain Scores for Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Experimental	21.07	8.95
Control	11.41	5.42

Both the mean and the *SD* are higher for the experimental group than for the control group, 9.66 and 3.53 points respectively. A higher *SD* means more variability in the score distribution for the experimental group than for the control group.

Table 7 presents an ANOVA Output from SPSS for the IPT Writing test for the experimental and control groups.

Table 7

One-Way ANOVA IPT Writing Gain Score Analysis for Experimental and Control Groups

Source	Sum of Square	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Fprob</i>
Between Groups	560.280	1	560.280	10.226 *	.004
Within Groups	1205.347	22	54.789		
Total	1765.628	23			

* Statistically significant *F* ratio

$\alpha = .05$

Table 7 indicates that the computed *F* ratio is sufficiently high. According to *F* Ratio Critical Value Table (Hinkle et al., 1998 , p. 643), the *F_{cv}* for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups degrees of freedom is 4.30. The computed *F* ratio is significantly above the specified *F_{cv}*.

Therefore, Directional Hypothesis 3 is accepted, which means that there are observed differences in the sample means on the IPT Writing test. The sample means on the IPT Writing test for the experimental group are significantly higher than the sample means on the IPT Writing test for the control group. The probability that the observed differences in sample means would have occurred by chance is less than .004.

Qualitative Results

Attitudes toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General questionnaire and interview

To test directional Hypothesis 4, as specified in Chapter 1, I analyzed data from pre- and post-questionnaires and interviews (See Appendix D for the Attitude toward Reading in English

and toward Reading in General questionnaire and interview). In the responses to questions in the pre-test questionnaire and interview, neither group of respondents was elaborate; most answered the majority of the questions with “Yes,” “No,” and “Not sure.” On the contrary, in the responses to questions in the post-test questionnaire, more extensive answers were noticed with apparent intent to give an explanation of the answer. In addition, 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group referred to the classes that they recently had where children’s literature was widely used. For example, one answer to the question, “Do you like to read? Why or why not?” in the post-test interview was the following: “Yes, and lately I like reading English books, because our teacher brought a lot of books, and we read them. It is so cool!” Another example of elaboration in answering the questions in the experimental group is the following response to the question, in the post-test questionnaire, “What does someone have to do or to know to be a good reader in English?” Fifty-eight percent (7 out of 12) of the participants in the control group answered this question with an indication that good readers must have grammar skills and knowledge of vocabulary. Seventy-five percent (9 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group indicated the same necessary skills but also added that good readers must read more in English, specifically easy literature in the beginning, and then more complicated texts.

Both pre- and post-test questionnaires and interviews started with the questions, “Do you like to read?” and “How many books do you have at home?” In answering the question in both the pre- and post-test questionnaire and interview that asked, “Do you like to read?,” 67% (8 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group and 33% (4 out of 12) of the participants in the control group responded with a “Yes” answer. Sixty-seven percent (8 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group and 58% (7 out of 12) of the participants in the control

group responded with a “No” answer. In the post-test questionnaire and interview, the participants in both groups had exactly the same answer to this question as they had in the post-test questionnaire and interview. However, seven (58%) participants in the experimental group had up to five more books at home (several of them in English) and two (17%) participants in the control group had two more books (in native language) at the end of the study.

The participants in both groups answered the question, “Do you like to read in English?” in the pre-test interview and questionnaire with the same note of surprise, since they had not had wide access to books in English prior to this semester. Examples of the answers include, “What books? I don’t have any,” “I never read anything in English before because I don’t really know good English, and I have no English books at home,” and “I am afraid to read in English.” Responses to the question, “Do you enjoy reading books in English more *now* than in the beginning of the semester?” in the post-test questionnaire and interview included four categories of answer: 1) “Yes,” 2) “No,” 3) “The same,” and 4) “Not sure.” Table 8 presents the frequency of answers to the question, “Do you enjoy reading books in English more now than in the beginning of the semester?”

Table 8

Frequency of the Answers to the Question, “Do You Enjoy Reading Books in English More Now than in the Beginning of the Semester?”

Group	Yes		No		Same		Not Sure	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Experimental	9	75	0	0	3	25	0	0
Control	3	25	4	33	0	0	5	42

In addition, in the experimental group, 25% (3 out of 12) of the participants added that they understand English more now than before, and 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants added that reading in English has become very interesting and it is motivating to figure out what is going to happen. In the control group, 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants still stated that they do not have any access to books in English; therefore, they cannot express their opinion on this subject since they have not read books in English before and they do not read them in the present.

In answering the question in both the pre- and post-test questionnaire and interview that asked about the importance of reading in English (See Appendix D, Protocol D1 and D2, question 3; Protocol D3 and D4, question 4), the participants in both the experimental and the control group had a consensus. Their answers include the following examples: a) “English is an international language and we need to know it,” b) “We need to speak and read English for our school and future work,” and “We need to know English to be able to communicate with people in different countries.”

In the responses to the question in the post-test interview and questionnaire, “Do you feel that your reading in English has improved? If yes, how can you tell?” 50% (6 out of 12) of the participants in the control group answered, “I am not sure,” 17% (2 out of 12) of the participants answered, “Yes,” and 33% (4 out of 12) of the participants answered, “No.” However, in the experimental group, all 100% (12 out of 12) of the participants answered, “Yes” with an indication that, in their opinion, their skills had improved, such as vocabulary knowledge and better grammar understanding.

The question, “What do you think about reading children’s literature at your age?” elicited the following three types of answer in the pre-test questionnaire and interview: 1) “It’s OK,” 2) “It’s not appropriate,” and 3) “I feel indifferent.” The answers were similar for the

participants of both the experimental and the control groups, with two (17%) participants in each group answering, “It’s OK,” five participants (42%) in each group answering “It’s not appropriate,” and two participants (17%) in each group answering, “I feel indifferent.” On the post-test questionnaires and interviews, the question was, “What do you think *now* about reading children’s literature at your age, especially in English?” Table 9 presents the comparison of the answers for the participants in the experimental and the control group.

Table 9

Comparison of Answers to the Question, “What Do You Think Now about Reading Children’s Literature at Your Age, Especially in English?”

Experimental Group	Control Group
I have very good opinion.	I am not sure.
It is easy to understand.	It is too babyish.
It helps me recall all English words	I never read any children’s literature
I like it! It is cool!	in English.
It is funny.	Children’s literature in English
You can read it at any age.	would help in conversation.
I like it because I am still a baby inside.	I don’t like it.
In order to understand difficult literature,	I wish we could read it in English!
first you have to understand easy books.	
I don’t need it, though it might really help.	

Another important series of questions that was asked during post- and pre-test interviews concerned authentic children’s literature in English. The first question was, “Have you ever read

authentic children's literature in English?" In the pre-test interview, most of the participants in both the control and the experimental group answered, "No." Only one (out of 12 – 8%) participant in the experimental group answered that he read one book in English, but it was adapted. In answering the question that asked whether the participants would read authentic children's literature in English if they had a chance, 58% (7 out of 12) of participants in the experimental group and 50% (6 out of 12) of the participants in the control group responded with "No," and 25% (3 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental and 50% (6 out of 12) of the participants in the control group responded with, "I am not sure." However, in the post-test interview, in answering the same question, 92% (11 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group answered, "Yes" and noted the importance of reading this type of literature. One participant in the experimental group pointed out that reading authentic children's literature in English is still very hard for him, despite the fact that it is children's literature and it is supposed to be easier. At the same time, only 33% (4 out of 12) of participants in the control group responded with "Yes," 50% (6 out 12) of the participants responded with "No," and 17% (2 out of 12) of the participants responded with "I don't know."

The next question in the same authentic-children's-literature-in-English series was, "What do you value the most in authentic children's literature in general and in authentic children's literature in English?" In the pre-test interview, the answers of the participants in both groups included just an opinion about the value of authentic children's literature in general, since, as the participants noted, they had never read any authentic children's literature before. All the participants in both groups indicated that authentic children's literature is very kind, calming, and teaches right from wrong. In the post-test interview, the answers of the participants in the control group remained the same, while the opinion of most of the participants in the

experimental group changed, in reference to authentic children's literature in English. Ninety-two percent (11 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group emphasized that since they have been introduced to the authentic children's literature in English, they realize now how valuable it can be for English language learners due to its simplicity, easy vocabulary, beautiful illustrations, and cultural representation.

The final question in the authentic-children's-literature-in-English series on the pre- and post-test interview asked, "What do you think, do teachers have to use authentic children's literature in English in their English language classes, or do they need to use adapted texts?" It is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that the control group participants were not exposed to authentic children's literature during the course of the study, all the participants (100% - 12 out of 12) in the experimental group and 83% (10 out of 12) of the participants in the control group had similar responses that included: a) "Textbooks are not interesting – they are boring;" b) "If we study English, we should learn it the way it is, i.e. original English;" c) "Adaptation changes the meaning of the text;" d) "Textbooks are too scientific;" and e) "Textbooks are not enough." In addition, 75% (9 out 12) of the participants in the experimental group emphasized in their answers that when they were studying English with textbooks, it was very tedious, but now when they started reading authentic children's books in English, learning English has become very motivating and inspiring. Seventeen percent (2 out of 12) of the participants in the control group stated that, in their opinion, textbooks were easier because they had grammar rules and structure.

The question in the post-test questionnaire that asked, "From now on, what will influence your decision of choice of books in English?" was related to the same authentic-children's-literature-in-English series of interview questions. The answers of the participants in the control group included the following: a) "My knowledge of English," "Difficulty of the text,"

“Nothing,” “Not sure,” and “Translation from Russian/Ukrainian.” The answers of the participants in the experimental group included the following: a) “Type/genre of a book,” “Content and authors,” and “Pictures.” Sixty-seven percent (8 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group indicated that they would love to read more children’s books in English. The answer to the question in the post-test questionnaire, “Will you continue reading in English?” was “Yes” in the experimental group (92% - 11 out of 12) and “Don’t know” in the control group (67% - 8 out of 12). One participant in the experimental group and four participants in the control group (33%) were not sure if they will continue reading in English. In addition, 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants in the control group maintained that they don’t have any access to books in English.

The final question in the post-test questionnaire approached the issue of attitude toward reading in English. The participants in both groups were asked if their attitude toward reading in general and toward reading in English had changed during the course of the study. The answers contained only two categories – “Yes” and “No.” Sixty-seven percent (8 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group and 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants of the control group responded with “Yes.” Thirty-three percent (4 out of 12) of the participants in the experimental group and 67% (8 out of 12) of the participants in the control group responded with “No.” All eight (67%) of the participants in the experimental group who gave a positive answer about the change of attitude toward reading in general and toward reading in English added an explanation of why they believe they think differently now about reading in English. The answers included: a) “Now I am reading in English with great interest;” b) “It is very cool;” c) “Reading in English develops your knowledge; d) “It has become very interesting to read in English; and e) “I am inclined to read more in English from now on.”

Collection of samples of participants' work

In order to document the participants' achievements in English language learning, I collected some samples of the participants' work. In these samples, I looked at the amount of written discourse in journals, the structure used by participants, participants' expression of thought and their language usage when responding to writing prompts, and their comprehension of the text as depicted in book reports. At the beginning of the semester, all participants in both the experimental and the control group were not familiar with journal writing activities. I used this activity in both the experimental and the control group. During the first ten minutes of each class, the participants replied to a small writing prompt in a separate journal notebook. I analyzed all journal entries for both groups. Some samples of journal writing are presented in Figures E1 and E2, Appendix E. These samples show the comparison of the amount of journal writing of participants in the experimental and the control group. The experimental participants' journal writings appear to be more elaborated than the writings of the control group participants. During the course of the study, I observed that the participants in the experimental group were more willing to write in their journals than the participants in the control group.

Figures E3 and E4 (Appendix E) present the responses to the writing prompt of some of the participants of the experimental group. The first piece of writing (Figure E3) is an example of narrative writing, which was a response to the book, *Wilfrid Gordon McDonald Partridge*, by Mem Fox (1989), as one of the follow-up activities about the important things and people in a person's life. The second piece of writing (Figure E4) is a letter-writing activity, which followed a reading of the book, *Click, Clack, Moo: Cows That Type*, by Doreen Cronin (2000). In both pieces of writing, the experimental group participants used the structure and vocabulary of the narrative and letter-writing genres of written discourse. While teaching narrative writing

strategies and letter-writing techniques to the control group, participants were responding only to the assignments in the textbook; the follow-up activities contained only the mandatory vocabulary and structure as specified in the textbook. Although the grammar and word usage in the pieces of writing in Figures E3 and E4 are not at a high English proficiency level, the experimental participants were not afraid to employ the vocabulary used in class discussions and children's books.

Figure E5 (Appendix E) is an example of some poems written by an experimental group participant. The student volunteered to write these poems after I read a piece of poetry to the participants in the experimental group at the end of each class. The participant did independent research at home about various types of poetry and presented his poems in class. This work sample shows that the experimental group participation was motivated to experiment with the poetry genre and to employ strategies learned through the example of the children's literature selection.

Figures E6 and E7 (Appendix E) contain two pieces of writing of participants from the experimental group. Both pieces are parts of stories that were based on children's books. The first piece of writing (Figure E6) is a page from the experimental participant's story written as a follow-up project after reading a book by Vern Aardema, *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* (1975). The objective of the lesson was the understanding of simple past tense. After the story was discussed, the participants wrote a *Why*-story, using the correct simple past-tense grammar structure. The name of the story of the participant from which the sample page is taken is *Why Do Dolphins Swim with People?* The second piece of writing (Figure E7) is a page from the Ukrainian version of *Cinderella*, which was written after the participants read and discussed various versions of the *Cinderella* fairy tale (Brown, 1988; Climo, 1993; Edwards & Cole, 1997;

Huck, 1989; Lattimore, 1997; Louie, 1982; Lowell, 2000; Martin & Shannon, 1992; Perlman, 1992; Steptoe, 1989; Thaler, 1997). The objectives were to practice the use of simple past tense and to practice narrative writing. In both samples the participants used the correct form of simple past tense and were able to express their thoughts in a comprehensible manner, taking into account the purpose of writing and the audience.

Figures E8 and E9 (Appendix E) present a project completed by experimental group participants, based on the book by Deborah Hopkinson, *Sweet Clara and the Freedom Quilt* (1993). After reading the book, the participants had to create a *Quilt of Their Life*. The participants were supposed to use the colors and shapes of the patches on the quilt that, in their opinion, represented important events or people in their life. In the writing part of the project, the participants had to provide explanations as to why they used this specific color or shape. This project was a part of the activities during the simple present tense lesson and served as an example of reading-writing connection strategies (Atwell, 1987; Au et al., 1997; Calkins, 1986, 2000; First and Second Language: The Reading and Writing Connection, 1996; Graves, 1983; Samway, 2006; Strech, 1994). In this project, the experimental group participants showed deep comprehension of the message the author of the book wanted to convey and they expressed their thoughts in an intelligible way with correct grammar and vocabulary usage.

Finally, Figures E10, E11, and E12 (Appendix E) depict three samples of book reports presented by experimental group participants at the end of the semester. During the course of the semester, the experimental group participants were to read a children's book, which they could choose from a variety of books at different levels, provided by the researcher. The examples of the book report show that the experimental group participants used creative ways to depict their

understanding of the structure and the comprehension of the text and used appropriate language to communicate their ideas.

Summary

This chapter reported on the results of the study. It included two sections. In the first section, I introduced quantitative results, which addressed testing of directional Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, as specified in Chapter 1. I presented the comparative descriptive statistics and the gain score ANOVA analysis for all quantitative measures (the IPT Oral test, the IPT Reading test, the IPT Writing test, and the RPTE test) for both the experimental and the control group. The analysis of the comparison of the means and *SD* and the gain score ANOVA analysis on all quantitative measurements indicated that all three directional hypotheses were accepted. There were observed differences in the sample means on all quantitative measurements. The sample means on the IPT Oral test, IPT Reading test, IPT Writing test, and the RPTE test for the experimental group were significantly higher as compared with the sample means on the same tests for the control group.

The second section presented the qualitative results that addressed testing of directional Hypothesis 4, as specified in Chapter 1. These results were from the pre- and post-test Attitude toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General questionnaires and interviews. I presented the comparative percentage of answers to the questions of participants in both the experimental and the control group. The results showed a higher percentage of positive answers concerning the change of attitude toward reading in English and toward reading in general of the participants of the experimental group as compared with the attitudes of the participants of the control group.

In addition, I presented some samples of participants' work that documented the experimental group participants' achievements in English learning. I looked at the amount of written discourse produced by the experimental and the control group participants, the structure and vocabulary used by the participants, the language usage and expression of thought when responding to writing prompts and creating writing projects, and their comprehension of the text as depicted in book reports. The analysis of the participants' samples indicated that the experimental group participants produced more written discourse; used more elaborated English structures, vocabulary, and correct grammar; showed good comprehension of the text as depicted in book reports; and expressed their thoughts in a more intelligible manner than the control group participants.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the use of children's literature in the English as a foreign language classroom would enhance adolescent learners' English language development, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. In addition, the study analyzed adolescent language learners' attitudes toward reading in the foreign language and toward reading in general.

I formulated four hypotheses, three of which addressed the development of adolescents' second language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing – and one that addressed adolescents' attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general. In order to test the hypotheses, I collected quantitative and qualitative data from 24 15-year-old Ukrainian students entering their first year of college (correlated with 9th grade in the United States) at a private institution. I conducted the study with two groups, one experimental and one control, 12 students in each group, as pre-determined by local campus intermediate level of English language proficiency. The study had to be conducted with intact groups, since the students had been pre-assigned into groups according to the major area of study in the college, but not randomly. Due to the non-random nature of the participants' selection, the design of the study was quasi-experimental, with two levels of variables – independent and dependent. The *independent variable* was the use of children's literature with adolescents in the EFL classroom. The *dependent variables* were: (a) English language oral skills, (b) English language reading skills, (c) English language writing skills, (d) attitudes toward reading in English, and (e) attitudes toward reading in general. The experiment tested whether the independent variable would cause changes in the dependent variables, i.e., whether the use of children's literature

would facilitate foreign language development and whether it would change learners' attitudes toward reading in the foreign language and toward reading in general.

Hypothesis 1

After having analyzed the descriptive statistics (Table 2) and the ANOVA Gain Score Analysis (Table 3) for the experimental and control group on the IPT Oral test, the results revealed that Directional Hypothesis 1 should be accepted, with statistical significance at the $\alpha < .05$ level. The computed *F*Ratio (10.808) for the one-way ANOVA Gain score analysis on the ITP Oral test exceeded *F*_{cv} for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups the degrees of freedom (4.30). The sample means on the IPT Oral test for the experimental group were significantly higher than the sample means for the control group (23.81 for the experimental group vs. 11.81 for the control group). Based on this analysis, I concluded the following: The use of children's literature resulted in a higher level of oral language development for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with the adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.

Hypothesis 2

The results of the analysis of the descriptive statistics (Table 4) and the ANOVA Gain Score Analysis (Table 5) for the experimental and control group on the IPT Reading and the RPTE tests revealed that Directional Hypothesis 2 should be accepted, with statistical significance at the $\alpha < .05$ level. The computed *F*Ratio for the one-way ANOVA Gain score analysis on the ITP Reading test (37.298) and for the one-way ANOVA Gain score analysis on the RPTE test (27.140) exceeded *F*_{cv} for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups the degrees of freedom (4.30). The sample means on the IPT Reading and the RPTE tests for the experimental

group were significantly higher than the sample means for the control group (25.81 for the experimental group vs. 11.03 for the control group on the IPT Reading test and 20.60 for the experimental group vs. 9.72 for the control group on the RPTE test). Based on this analysis, I concluded the following: The use of children's literature resulted in a higher level of reading achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with the adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.

Hypothesis 3

The analysis of the descriptive statistics (Table 6) and the ANOVA Gain Score Analysis (Table 7) for the experimental and control group on the IPT Writing test resulted in the acceptance of the Directional Hypothesis 3, with statistical significance at the $\alpha < .05$ level. The computed *F*Ratio (10.226) for the one-way ANOVA Gain score analysis on the ITP Writing test exceeded *F*_{cv} for the 1 and 22 Between and Within groups the degrees of freedom (4.30). The sample means on the IPT Writing test for the experimental group were significantly higher than the sample means for the control group (21.07 for the experimental group vs. 11.41 for the control group). Based on this analysis, I concluded the following: The use of children's literature resulted in a higher level of writing achievement for adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language as compared with the adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.

It is interesting to note that although the experimental group participants showed better results on all the tests than the control group participants, the standard deviations for the experimental group participants were higher than for the control group participants. The higher *SD* shows more variability in the score distribution for the experimental group than for the

control group, i.e., there was considerable disagreement among the experimental group participants' responses.

In an attempt to explain this outcome, I analyzed the English level proficiency level of all the participants at the beginning of the study. At the beginning of the study, the participants in both the experimental and control group were at a pre-determined intermediate level of English language proficiency, according to the local EFL program guidelines. However, the pre-test results showed that the actual English proficiency level of the participants of both the experimental and the control group was not equal. In the control group, 92% (11 out of 12) of the participants were indeed at the intermediate level of English language proficiency and 8% (1 out of 12) of the participants were at the beginning level. On the other hand, in the experimental group, 58% (7 out of 12) of the participants were at the beginning level of English language proficiency, and only 42% (5 out of 12) of the participants were at the intermediate level of English language proficiency.

Another explanation, in my opinion, might lie in the nature of instruction in both groups. The control group participants were introduced to habitual, textbook-based instruction, and did not show either excitement or anxiety during the course of the study. On the other hand, the experimental group participants experienced a new venture, foreign language instruction based on authentic children's literature, which brought them to a variety of new practices. I observed an increase in motivation and aspiration to participate in all class activities in the experimental group participants, especially who were at the beginning level of English language proficiency at the beginning of the study. Particularly, these beginning-English-level-proficiency experimental group participants showed higher achievement results on all tests than the intermediate-English-level-proficiency experimental group participants, which resulted in a wider distribution of the

experimental group participants' gain scores around the mean and a higher *SD*. Control group participants' gain scores were similar on all the tests, which resulted in a more narrow gain score distribution around the mean, as well as smaller standard deviations on all the tests.

Hypothesis 4

After conducting a qualitative analysis of the Attitudes toward Reading in English and toward Reading in General questionnaires and interview protocols, I concluded that the experimental group participants showed more positive attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general than did the control group participants. The attitude of the experimental group participants significantly changed at the end of the study as compared with the control group participants – 25% more participants in the experimental group than in the control group noted that their attitude toward reading in English and toward reading in general did change at the end of the study. Fifty percent more participants in the experimental group than in the control group expressed more enjoyment in reading books in English at the end of the study as compared with the beginning of the study.

The analysis of the questionnaire and interview results revealed that, in the participants' opinion, the experimental group participants' reading in English has improved as compared with the control group participants. All of the experimental group participants (100% as compared with 17% in the control group) believed that their English language skills improved during the course of the study because of the various experiences with children's literature that they truly enjoyed. The experimental group participants had a very high opinion of authentic children's literature by the end of the study and did not consider it inappropriate for their age, while there was no consensus among the control group participants as to the value of authentic children's literature in the adolescent EFL classroom. Forty-two percent more participants in the

experimental group than in the control group admitted that they would continue reading authentic children's literature in English if they had a chance.

The analysis of the samples of the participants' work showed that the experimental group participants produced more written discourse; used more elaborated English structures, vocabulary, and correct grammar; and showed better comprehension of the text as depicted in book reports. In addition, they expressed their thoughts in a more intelligible manner as compared with the control group participants.

Based on this qualitative analysis, I concluded that the results indicated that the Directional Hypotheses 4 should be accepted: The use of children's literature resulted in a more positive attitude of adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language toward reading in the foreign language as well as toward reading in general as compared with adolescent language learners of English as a foreign language who were not introduced to children's literature during the instruction.

Conclusion

As Harwayne (2000) pointed out, "literature-based, language-rich process classrooms are especially well suited to the second-language learners because there are so many occasions to eavesdrop on and participate in rich natural talk" (p. 364). This study was dedicated to the investigation of whether this type of environment would work better for second/foreign language learners as compared with a traditional, grammar-based approach to language teaching.

This type of environment does not just naturally happen; instead, teachers must create it using their expertise and dedication. I attempted to create a meaningful, literature-based and language-rich classroom in this study with the help of children's literature. The results showed that children's literature in the classroom does work, that the participants who were introduced to

children's literature during the course of the study did show better achievement in oral, reading, and writing English language skills; also, they did show more positive attitudes toward reading in English and toward reading in general as compared with those who did not use children's literature during the course of the study.

One of the most significant aspects of the study was that through statistical analysis and statistical measures, this research provided data about the value of children's literature in language instruction in general and in secondary education in particular. This study presented empirical data that showed that inclusion of children's literature in an adolescents' second/foreign language classroom promotes appreciation and enjoyment of literature, enhances the development of language skills, stimulates advanced learning, and promotes students' personal growth. In addition, I concluded that in the classroom where the children's literature was used as a base for instruction, the participants' motivation increased and their willingness to read authentic children's books in English was evident.

Recommendations for Further Research

Since I used a North Texas school district curriculum for this study, the results of the study could be generalized to adolescent learners of English as a second language in North Texas and could be used in the development of ESL curriculum in secondary education. Still, it would be important to note the limitations that were imposed on this study and could therefore confound its results. The results of the study could have been confounded by the prior semesters' teacher influence, non-random selection of participants in both the control and the experimental group, the pre-determined set of communication rules in both groups, and a small sample size.

Considering these limitations, I recommend that similar research should be conducted in one of the North Texas school districts with a larger sample size and a random selection of

participants. I suggest conducting this experiment in the course of the full school year to investigate a deeper second language development of the four skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Another avenue of future research could be the area of native language transfer in the process of second/foreign language acquisition. Since I was fluent in the participants' native language, I witnessed significant native language use during all of the activities by the participants of both the experimental and the control group. Therefore, the next research question could evolve in the area of bilingual education and the possibility of application of its principles in secondary education.

Final Thoughts

This study attempted to answer the question of whether balanced literacy instruction as a core of instructional design has more impact on the language development of language learners than a traditional textbook-based approach. The arguments about using literary texts in the language classrooms that have existed in the last 20 years do include the acknowledgment of the value of the children's literature in first and second language development in elementary education, but not all secondary educators believe in its benefits, considering it inappropriate for young adults. This study was conducted with the deepest hope that secondary education teachers and administrators will accept the data from this study as a springboard for a new way of thinking and will explore ways to incorporate authentic children's literature in secondary ESL instruction to create a productive literacy environment with meaningful and anxiety-free experiences.

APPENDIX A

HISTORY OF LITERATURE-BASED TEACHING IN THE UNITED STATES

Table A1

History of Literature-Based Teaching in the United States

Year	Decisions and Instruction	Texts used
1600-1776	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stern schoolmasters; - Students' salvation was the goal. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No control vocabulary or systematic introduction of new words (<i>The New England Primer</i>)
1776-1840	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching patriotism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Texts replete with patriotism and historically informative selections
1840's-1900	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Broader reading content of science, history, art, and morals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Graded series of readers about the rewards of good behavior and everyday life
1900-1925	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Developing literature appreciation; - memorization of phonic families 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Folktales and excerpts from the classics
1925-1940	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading along; - silent reading seatwork; - accommodating individual differences; - ability grouping 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Standardized tests; - phonic charts and cards; - word lists and workbooks; - informative and realistic materials; - reading seatwork.

(table continues)

Table A1 (*continued*).

Year	Decisions and Instruction	Texts used
1940-1948	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading readiness; - remedial reading clinics; - highly organized skill-development programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Dick and Jane</i> series; - basic readers; - added personal interest reading
1948-1970	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Set of sequence or arrangement of skills; - teacher's editions and diagnostic skills; - list of objectives; - ability grouping. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Dick and Jane</i> series; - <i>Ginn Basic Reader</i>
1970's	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More ethnically diverse characters; - stronger roles for girls and women as problem solvers and leaders; - new assessment measures: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) pre-skill and post-skill tests, (b) pupil placement tests, (c) end-of-the book tests; - inservice instruction to teachers to ascertain causes of reading failure and the influences of listening, semantics, and linguistics; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Story excerpts with control and stilted language prevail

(table continues)

Table A1 (continued).

Year	Decisions and Instruction	Texts used
1980-1990's	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - discussed individualized instruction in reading. - Concerns over accountability and competency-based education in reading; - alignment with standardized testing; - <i>whole language</i> movement: Does teaching phonics exist? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Published reading programs; - to use real books, or basals, or basal programs with literature? - basals include literature written in original language.
1999	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Using Multiple Methods of Beginning Reading Instruction</i> (position statement by the International Reading Association); - there is no single method or single combination of methods to teach reading; - balanced literacy instruction: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) shared reading and writing, (b) guided reading and writing, (c) oral and silent reading and writing, (d) independent reading and writing, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Literature and instructional texts.

(table continues)

Table A1 (continued).

Year	Decisions and Instruction	Texts used
2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (e) collaborative reading and writing, (f) content connection in reading and writing, (g) performance of reading and writing. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>National Reading Panel Report</i>; - findings about the most effective strategies for teaching reading; - teaching the following elements is crucial: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) phonemic awareness, (b) phonics, (c) vocabulary, (d) comprehension, (e) fluency. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Literature and instructional texts
2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i>; - <i>Reading First Initiative</i>: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) builds on the findings of the years of scientific research, (b) effective reading instruction in early grades, (c) professional development for teacher 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Scientifically-based reading programs containing the combination of literature and instructional texts.

(table continues)

Table A1 (*continued*).

Year	Decisions and Instruction	Texts used
2004	<p>to provide scientifically-based reading programs to ensure accountability through ongoing, valid, and reliable screening, diagnostic, and classroom-based assessment.</p> <p>- <i>National Early Literacy Panel Report:</i></p> <p>(a) studied scientifically-based research to identify skills and abilities of young children (0-5 years old) to predict later achievement in reading;</p> <p>(b) variables are – oral language development, alphabetic code, print knowledge, and other age appropriate cognitive skills.</p>	<p>- Balanced reading materials, including literature and instructional texts.</p>

Sources:

Morrow, L. M. (2005). *Literacy development in the early years: Helping children read and write*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Skillings, M. J. (1995). Perspectives on the use of children's literature in reading instruction. In *Teaching with children's books: Paths to literature-based instruction* (pp. 10-21). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

APPENDIX B
CHILDREN'S BOOKS USED IN THE STUDY

Annotated Bibliography of Picture Books Used in the Study

Aardema, V. (1975). *Why mosquitoes buzz in people's ears*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A cumulative African folktale tells the humorous reason for mosquitoes' buzzing. A winner of the Caldecott Medal

Used for: Writing of a *Why* story, cause and effect, simple past tense examples

Rationale for selection: An example of a *Why* story; the grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts; the *cause-effect* content of the story

Aardema, V. (1994). *Misoso: Once upon a time tales from Africa*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Collection of fables and folktales from many regions of Africa

Used for: Cultures, narrative – story telling/retelling

Rationale for selection: Excellent retelling of African folktales and fables; served as an example of story telling and representation of the culture

Barrett, J. (1978). *Cloudy with a chance of meatballs*. New York, NY: Aladdin Paperbacks.

Description: Life is delicious in the town of Chewandswallow where it rains soup and juice, snows mashed potatoes, and blows storms of hamburgers until the weather takes a turn for the worse.

Used for: Identification of food items, various eating habits

Rationale for selection: Content, illustrations, and vocabulary matched lesson concepts.

Brown, M. (1988). *Cinderella*. New York, NY: Aladdin Books, Macmillan Publishing Company.

Description: The classic version of the *Cinderella* story. A winner of the Caldecott Medal

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: A classic version of the famous fairy tale, used to compare with different versions of the same story; an example of what a fairy tale might look like; an award-winning book

Calmenson, S. (1989). *The principal's new clothes*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: In this version of the Andersen tale, the vain principal of P.S. 88 is persuaded by two tailors to let them make him an amazing, one-of-a-kind suit that will be visible only to intelligent people who are good at their jobs.

Used for: Simple Past tense examples, narrative – story retelling, comparison of different versions of fairy tales

Rationale for selection: Grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts; an example of a different version of a famous fairy tale; a good example of narrative story telling

Cannon, J. (1993). *Stellaluna*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: After she falls headfirst into a bird's nest, a baby bat is raised like a bird until she is reunited with her mother.

Used for: Lessons on *My Family, Important People in My Life*; Simple Past tense examples

Rationale for selection: Illustrations, content, and grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts

Climo, S. (1993). *The Korean Cinderella*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers.

Description: In this version of *Cinderella*, set in ancient Korea, Pear Blossom, a stepchild, eventually comes to be chosen by the magistrate to be his wife.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale.

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which served as a cultural representation and was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like.

Cronin, D. (2000). *Click, clack, moo: Cows that type*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: When Farmer Brown's cows find a typewriter in the barn they start making demands, and go on strike when the farmer refuses to give them what they want. A winner of Caldecott Honor Book Medal

Used for: Writing a letter, persuasive writing

Rationale for selection: The structure of the story matched the concept of writing a letter and persuading someone to do/not to do something; high quality illustrations; an award-winning book.

DePaola, T. (1975). *Strega Nona*. New York, Ny: Aladdin Paperbacks.

Description: When Strega Nona leaves him alone with her magic pasta pot, Big Anthony is determined to show the townspeople how it works. A winner of the Caldecott Honor Book Medal

Used for: Examples of food, eating habits

Rationale for selection: Content and vocabulary matched the lesson's concepts; an award-winning book

DePaola, T. (1982). *Strega Nona's magic lessons*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace and Company.

Description: Big Anthony, Strega Nona's bumbling assistant, tries to make her magic his own – with disastrous results. A winner of the Caldecott Honor Book Medal

Used for: How-to writing, food items

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content matched the lesson's concepts; an award-winning book.

DePaola, T. (1983). *The legend of the Bluebonnet*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: The Comanche Indian legend of how a little girl's sacrifice brought the flower called bluebonnet to Texas

Used for: Cultures, narrative storytelling, sequencing, character description, examples of simple past tense

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content served as an excellent representation of the Comanche Indian culture; the grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts; good example of sequence of events in a narrative; interesting character representation.

DePaola, T. (1988). *The legend of the Indian Paintbrush*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Little Gopher follows his destiny, as revealed in a Dream-Vision, of becoming an artist for his people. Eventually, he is able to bring the colors of the sunset down to the earth.

Used for: Examples of narrative – story telling/retelling, character description, sequence of events, simple past tense

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content served as an excellent representation of the Indian culture; the grammar structures matched the lesson's concept; good example of sequence of events in narrative; interesting character representation.

DePaola, T. (1992). *Jamie O'Rourke and the big potato*. New York, NY: The Putnam & Grosset Group.

Description: An Irish folktale. Just when his poor wife's back gives out, lazy but lucky Jamie O'Rourke traps himself a leprechaun, from whom he wins a single wish. When

Jamie wishes for all the potatoes he can eat, he may have bitten off more than he can chew.

Used for: Examples of food items, cultures, simple past tense; study of various verbs

Rationale for selection: Content, illustrations, and grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts; good cultural representation of Irish folklore

DePaola, T. (1996). *Strega Nona: Her story*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Grandma Concetta heals everyone with her remedies and advice, and when she retires, she leaves Nona her magic pasta pot with its secret ingredient.

Used for: Examples of giving advice, point of view, narrative – story telling/retelling

Rationale for selection: Content matched the lesson's concepts; a good example of personal narrative, told from a character's point of view

DePaola, T. (1998). *Big Anthony: His story*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Big Anthony, well-meaning but inattentive, travels around Italy, causing one problem after another, before meeting Strega Nona.

Used for: Example of personal narrative, point of view

Rationale for selection: Content matched the lesson's concept; a good example of personal narrative told from a character's point of view

Edwards, P. D. (1997). *Dinorella: A prehistoric fairy tale*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A tongue-twister version of the *Cinderella* story, with dinosaurs as main characters

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale, practicing English pronunciation

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; a lot of difficult words and their combinations served as good practice for English pronunciation

Fox, M. (1985). *Wilfrid Gordon McDonald Partridge*. Brooklyn, NY: Kane/Miller Book Publishers.

Description: A small boy tries to discover the meaning of *memory* so he can restore it in an elderly friend.

Used for: Examples for writing *My Memories, Important People in My Life*; examples of simple past tense

Rationale for selection: Content and grammar structures matched the lesson's concept; an excellent example of what memories could mean to a person

Gilman, P. (1992). *Something from nothing*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: In this retelling of a Jewish folktale, Joseph's baby blanket is transformed into ever smaller items as he grows.

Used for: Lessons on *My Family*; comparison of adjectives

Rationale for selection: Content, vocabulary, and grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts

Gwynne, F. (1970). *The King who rained*. New York, NY: The Trumpet Club.

Description: Confused by the different meanings of words that sound alike, a little girl imagines such unusual sights as a *king who rained* and the *foot prince in the snow*.

Used for: Examples of figurative language, idioms

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content matched the lesson's concept; excellent examples of double meaning of figurative language structures

Halloran, P. (1989). *I'd Like to Hear a Flower Grow and other poems*. Oregon City, OR: Reading, Inc.

Description: A collection of poems for children

Used for: Reading, reciting, and discussing poetry; analysis of grammar structures

Rationale for selection: An excellent collection of poems that matched various lessons' concepts

Hopkinson, D. (1993). *Sweet Clara and the Freedom Quilt*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

Description: A young slave stitches a quilt with a map pattern which guides her to freedom in the North.

Used for: Lessons on *My Life*, creating the reading-writing-connection project - *A Quilt of My Life*

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content matched the lesson's concepts.

Kellogg, S. (1986). *Pecos Bill*. New York, NY: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Description: Incidents from the life of Pecos Bill, from his childhood among the coyotes to his unusual wedding day

Used for: Examples of cultures, lesson on *My Life*, support for narrative – story telling/retelling, narrative writing

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content matched the lesson's concepts, including cultural representation; a good example of narrative – story telling/writing

Kimmel, E. (1988). *Anansi and the moss-covered rock*. New York, NY: Holiday House.

Description: Anansi the Spider uses a strange moss-covered rock in the forest to trick all the other animals, until Little Bush Deer decides Anansi needs to learn a lesson.

Used for: Lessons on past continuous tense

Rationale for selection: Grammar structures matched the lesson's concept

Kimmel, E. (1992). *Anansi goes fishing*. New York, NY: Holiday House.

Description: Anansi the Spider plans to trick Turtle into catching a fish for his dinner, but Turtle proves to be smarter and ends up with a free meal.

Used for: Lesson on *My Day*, examples of giving advice, character description

Rationale for selection: Illustrations and content of the story matched the lesson's concepts; an excellent character representation

Lattimore, D. N. (1997). *Cinderhazel: The Cinderella of Halloween*. New York, NY:

Scholastic.

Description: An untidy witch named Hazel discovers that Prince Alarming likes dirt as much as she does. A Halloween Version of the *Cinderella* Story

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like

Louie, A.-L. (1982). *Yeh-Shen: A Cinderella Story from China*. New York, NY: The Putnam & Grosset Group.

Description: This version of the *Cinderella* story, in which a young girl overcomes the wickedness of her stepsister and stepmother to become the bride of a prince, is based on ancient Chinese manuscripts written 1000 years before the earliest European version.

Used for: Study of cultures, comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which served as cultural representation and was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like

Lowell, S. (2000). *Cindy Ellen: A Wild Western Cinderella*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Cindy Ellen loses one of her diamond spurs at the square dance in this wild western retelling of the classic *Cinderella* story.

Used for: Examples of cultures, comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which served as cultural representation and was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like

Marshall, J. (1977). *Miss Nelson is missing!* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Description: The kids in Room 207 take advantage of their teacher's good nature until she disappears and they are faced with a vile substitute.

Used for: Lesson on *My School*, examples of predictions, examples of simple future tense.

Rationale for selection: Content, vocabulary, and grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts

Martin, R. (1992). *The rough-face girl*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: In this Indian version of the *Cinderella* story, the Rough-Face Girl and her two beautiful but heartless sisters compete for the affections of the Invisible Being.

Used for: Study of cultures, comparison of different versions of *Cinderella* stories, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which serves as cultural representation and was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like

Perlman, J. (1995). *Cinderella Penguin or, The Little Glass Flipper*. New York, NY: Puffin Books.

Description: In her haste to flee the palace before the Great Fairy Penguin's magic loses effect, Cinderella Penguin leaves behind a glass slipper. Penguins are the main character of this version of the *Cinderella* story.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like

Polacco, P. (1996). *Rechenka's eggs*. New York, NY: The Putnam & Grosset Group.

Description: An injured goose, rescued by Babushka, having broken the painted eggs intended for the Easter Festival in Moscvva, lays thirteen marvelously colored eggs to replace them. Then, she leaves behind one final miracle in egg form before returning to her own kind.

Used for: Examples of cultures, holidays, descriptions, narrative – story telling/retelling

Rationale for selection: Content and illustrations matched the lesson's concepts; good representation of the Russian culture; rich descriptive language; good example of narrative story telling

Prelutsky, J. (1984). *The new kid on the block*. New York, NY: Greenwillow Books.

Description: A collection of poems for children.

Used for: Reading, reciting, and discussing poetry; analysis of grammar structures

Rationale for selection: An excellent collection of poems that matched various lessons' concepts

Rossiter, R. (1994). *The greedy man in the Moon*. St. Petersburg, FL: Riverbank.

Description: An ancient Chinese folktale that explains the natural phenomenon and teaches a moral.

Used for: Descriptions, figurative language – similes, narrative – story telling/retelling, comparison of adjectives

Rationale for selection: Content and vocabulary matched the lesson's concepts; a good example of narrative story telling

Rounds, G. (1992). *Three little pigs and the Big Bad Wolf*. New York, NY: The Trumpet Club.

Description: Retells the adventures of three little pigs, who leave home to seek their fortunes and have to deal with the Big Bad Wolf.

Used for: Examples of fairy tales, point of view, sequencing, narrative – story telling/retelling

Rationale for selection: Classic retelling of the famous fairy tale, told from the 3rd person's point of view; used in comparison with another version of the same fairy tale told by the Wolf; good sequence of events; good example of narrative story telling

Rylant, C. (1996). *The old woman who named things*. San Diego, CA: Voyager Books.

Description: An old woman who has outlived all her friends is reluctant to become too attached to the stray dog that visits her each day.

Used for: Lesson on *Important People and Things in My Life*

Rationale for selection: Content and vocabulary matched the lesson's concepts

Scieszka, J. (1989). *The true story of the 3 little pigs! By A. Wolf*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: The wolf gives his own outlandish version of what really happened when he tangled with the three little pigs.

Used for: Examples of point of view, narrative – story telling/retelling

Rationale for selection: A different version of a famous fairy tale that is told from a character's point of view; used in comparison with the classic version of the same fairy tale told from the 3rd person's point of view; good sequence of events; good example of narrative story telling

Scieszka, J. (1992). *The stinky cheese man and other fairly stupid tales*. New York, NY:

Scholastic.

Description: Madcap revisions of familiar fairy tales, including, *The Other Frog Prince*, *Little Red Running Shorts*, and *Jack's Bean Problem*. A winner of a Caldecott Honor Book Medal

Used for: Examples of narrative – story telling/retelling, comparison of different versions of fairy tales

Rationale for selection: Examples of different versions of famous fairy tales, which were compared to classic versions; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in all the stories; an award-winning book

Scieszka, J. (1994). *The Frog Prince continued*. New York, NY: Puffin Books.

Description: A funny version of *The Frog Princess* fairy tale.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in the story

Silverstein, S. (1974). *Where the sidewalk ends*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers.

Description: A collection of poems for children.

Used for: Reading, reciting, and discussing poetry; analysis of grammar structures

Rationale for selection: Excellent collection of poems that matched various lessons' concepts

Steig, W. (1969). *Sylvester and the magic pebble*. New York, NY: Aladdin Paperbacks.

Description: A magical pebble accidentally causes a donkey to turn into a rock. A winner of the Caldecott Medal

Used for: Lessons on *My Family, Important People in My Life*

Rationale for selection: Content and vocabulary matched the lesson's concepts; an award-winning book

Step toe, J. (1987). *Mufaro's Beautiful Daughters*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Mufaro's beautiful daughters – one bad-tempered and one kind and sweet – go before the king, who is choosing a wife in this African tale version of the *Cinderella* story. A winner of the Caldecott Honor Book Medal

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which served as cultural representation and was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; an award-winning book

Surat, M. M. (1983). *Angel child, Dragon child*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A young Vietnamese child learns to adjust to her American home.

Used for: Study of cultures, lesson on *My School*, examples of feelings, compare/contrast

Rationale for selection: Content and vocabulary matched the lesson's concepts

Thaler, M. (1997a). *Cinderella Bigfoot*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A funny version of the *Cinderella* story.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in the story

Thaler, M. (1997b). *Hanzel and Pretzel*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A funny version of the *Hansel and Gretchen* fairy tale.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in the story

Thaler, M. (1997c). *The Princess and Pea-ano*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A funny version of *The Princess and the Pea* fairy tale.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in the story

Thaler, M. (1997d). *Schmoe White and the seven dorfs*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: A funny version of *The Snowwhite and Seven Dwarfs* fairy tale.

Used for: Comparison of different versions of fairy tales, writing of a fairy tale

Rationale for selection: An example of one of the versions of the famous fairy tale, which was compared to a classic version; an example of what a different version of the same fairy tale might look like; humor in the story

Viorst, J. (1972). *Alexander and the terrible, horrible, no good, very bad day*. New York, NY: Aladdin Books, Macmillan Publishing Company.

Description: On this day, nothing goes right for Alexander.

Used for: Study of emotions, lesson on *My Day*, example of personal narrative

Rationale for selection: Content matched the lesson's concepts; a good example of personal narrative

Viorst, J. (1983). *Alexander, who used to be rich last Sunday*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Alexander had a dollar last Sunday, but he just can't seem to hang on to it.

Follow Alexander through the week as he makes many poor spending decisions, resulting in his not saving anything.

Used for: Study of simple past tense – the *used to* structure, personal narrative

Rationale for selection: Grammar structures matched the lesson's concepts; a good example of personal narrative

Viorst, J. (1995). *Alexander, who's not (Do you hear me? I mean it!) going to move*. New York, NY: Scholastic.

Description: Angry Alexander refuses to move away if it means having to leave his friends and special places.

Used for: Lesson on *My House*, example of personal narrative

Rationale for selection: Content matched the lesson's concepts; a good example of personal narrative

Books Used by the Experimental Group Participants for Independent Reading Activity
(Sustained Silent Reading)

Rationale for selection. The following books were selected because they represented various classic English/American literature adaptations with comprehensive vocabulary and grammar structures. They are leveled books with vocabulary and grammar structures at different English language proficiency levels, as determined by the book publishers. The experimental group participants picked one of the books in the beginning of the semester and read it during the course of the semester. At the end of the semester, the participants had to do a book report and present it in front of the class. The list of the books follows.

Alcott, L. M. (2000). *Little women*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Beginner

Austen, J. (1998). *Emma*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Intermediate

Bronte, C. (1999). *Jane Eyre*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate

Dickens, C. (1999). *Oliver Twist*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Advanced

- Flinders, S. (2001). *Forty years of pop*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
English Language Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate
- Holmes, K. (2000). *Three great plays of Shakespeare*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.
English Language Proficiency Level: Intermediate
- Howe, D., & Howe, J. (1979). *Bunnica: A rabbit-tale of mystery*. New York, NY: Avon Camelot.
English Language Proficiency Level: Intermediate
- Osborne, M. P. (1994). *Pirates past noon*. New York, NY: Random House.
English Language Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate
- Osborne, M. P. (1998). *Vacation under the volcano*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
English Language Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate
- Osborne, M. P. (2002). *Stage fright on a summer night*. New York, NY: Random House.
English Language Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate
- Poe, E. A. (1999). *The Black Cat and other stories*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.
English Language Proficiency Level: Pre-Intermediate
- Rabley, S. (1998). *Blue Moon valley*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.
English Language Proficiency Level: Easy starts
- Rolasson, J. (2004). *Five famous fairy tales*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited: Penguin Readers.
English Language Proficiency Level: Elementary

Stevenson, R. L. (2000). *Kidnapped*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited:
Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Elementary

Stevenson, R. L. (2001). *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson
Education Limited: Penguin Readers.

English Language Proficiency Level: Pre-Intermediate

Twain, M. (1994). *Huckleberry Finn*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

English Language Proficiency Level: Advanced

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Sample Lesson Plan 1

Lesson Plan for the Control Group

Objectives:

- to review simple present, simple past, and present continuous tense;
- to introduce past continuous tense.

TEKS covered:

NOTE: The Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) curriculum objectives were used for the control and experimental group since the researcher conducted the research with intentions to collect data that may be generalized to the North Texas secondary school population.

- §110.42 (1-C): Writing/purposes. The student is expected to organize ideas in writing to ensure coherence, logical progression, and support for ideas;
- §110.42 (3-B): Writing/grammar/usage/conventions/spelling. The student is expected to demonstrate control over grammatical elements such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, and verb forms;
- §110.42 (6-A): Reading/word identification/vocabulary development. The student is expected to expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening, and discussing;
- §110.42 (7-A, B, F, G, and H): Reading/comprehension. The student is expected to: establish a purpose for reading such as to discover, interpret, and enjoy; draw upon his/her own background to provide connection to texts; identify main ideas and their supporting details; summarize texts; and draw inferences such as conclusions, generalization, and predictions and support them from text;

- §110.42 (14-A, B, and D): Listening/speaking/critical thinking. The student is expected to: focus attention on the speaker's message; use knowledge of language and develop vocabulary to interpret accurately the speaker's message; and formulate and provide effective verbal and nonverbal feedback;
- §114.22 (1): Communication. The student communicates in a language other than English using the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Materials:

Chamot, A. U., Keatley, C. W., & Anstrom, K. (2005). *Keys to learning: Skills and strategies for newcomers. Textbook*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Chamot, A. U., Keatley, C. W., Anstrom, K., & Green, C. (2005). *Keys to learning: Skills and strategies for newcomers. Workbook*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Activities:

1. Bell Ringer – Correct Errors:

- a. The teacher places a sentence with errors on the overhead projector:

i go to youre house yesterday to give you the short story i finish reading morning.

- b. The students have to correct errors and to explain why they used specific grammar or vocabulary.

2. Journal Writing:

- a. The students have to respond in their journals to the following short writing prompt:

Explain what you like or dislike about your name.

3. Review of simple present, simple past, and present continuous tense:

- a. On the overhead projector, the teacher presents a comparative chart with the three tense structures;
 - b. The students work in pairs using the verbs on the overhead projector to ask and answer question using all three tenses. For example:
 - go/you* - Where do you usually go in the morning?
 - I go to school.
 - Where are you going now?
 - I am going shopping?
 - Where did you go yesterday?
 - I went to the movies.
4. Introduction of past continuous tense:
- a. On the overhead projector, the teacher presents the past continuous tense chart;
 - b. The students read a text from Chamot, Keatley, & Anstrom (2005) textbook, pp. 156-157;
 - c. While reading, the students have to find verbs used in past continuous tense;
 - d. The teacher writes down the verbs on the board and discusses their affirmative, interrogative, and negative forms;
 - e. Together with the teacher, the students work with pp. 158-159 in Chamot, Keatley, & Anstrom (2005) textbook, describing the picture, and writing affirmative, interrogative, and negative statements in the past continuous tense.
5. Homework: to do exercises on pp. 116-117 in Chamot, Keatley, Anstrom, & Green (2005) workbook.

Sample Lesson Plan 2

Lesson Plan for the Experimental Group

Objectives:

- to review simple present, simple past, and present continuous tense;
- to introduce past continuous tense.

TEKS covered:

- §110.42 (1-C): Writing/purposes. The student is expected to organize ideas in writing to ensure coherence, logical progression, and support for ideas;
- §110.42 (3-B): Writing/grammar/usage/conventions/spelling. The student is expected to demonstrate control over grammatical elements such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, and verb forms;
- §110.42 (6-A): Reading/word identification/vocabulary development. The student is expected to expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening, and discussing;
- §110.42 (7-A, B, F, G, and H): Reading/comprehension. The student is expected to: establish a purpose for reading such as to discover, interpret, and enjoy; draw upon his/her own background to provide connection to texts; identify main ideas and their supporting details; summarize texts; and draw inferences such as conclusions, generalization, and predictions and support them from text;
- §110.42 (8-C): Reading/variety of texts. The student is expected to read world literature, including classic and contemporary works;
- §110.42 (14-A, B, and D): Listening/speaking/critical thinking. The student is expected to: focus attention on the speaker's message; use knowledge of

language and develop vocabulary to interpret accurately the speaker's message; and formulate and provide effective verbal and nonverbal feedback;

- §110.42 (18-A): Listening/speaking/literary interpretation. The student is expected to: make valid interpretations of literary texts such as telling stories, interpreting poems and stories;
- §114.22 (1): Communication. The student communicates in a language other than English using the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Materials:

Chamot, A. U., Keatley, C. W., & Anstrom, K. (2005). *Keys to learning: Skills and strategies for newcomers. Textbook*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Chamot, A. U., Keatley, C. W., Anstrom, K., & Green, C. (2005). *Keys to learning: Skills and strategies for newcomers. Workbook*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Kimmel, E. A. (1988). *Anansi and the moss-covered rock*. New York, NY: Holiday House.

Silverstein, S. (1974). *Where the sidewalk ends*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers.

Activities:

1. Bell Ringer – Correct Errors:

- a. The teacher places a sentence with errors on the overhead projector:

i go to youre house yesterday to give you the short story i finish reading morning.

- b. The students have to correct errors and to explain why they used specific grammar or vocabulary.

2. Journal Writing:

- a. The students have to respond in their journals to the following short writing prompt:

Explain what you like or dislike about your name.

3. Review of simple present, simple past, and present continuous tense:
 - a. On the overhead projector, the teacher presents a comparative chart with the three tense structures;
 - b. On the overhead projector, the teacher presents the poem *Forgotten Language* (Silverstein, 1974, p. 149) – the poem is written in the simple past tense;
 - c. The students have to point at the verbs in the poem and change them into simple present and present continuous tense, using affirmative, interrogative, and negative form of each verb;
 - d. The students work in pairs – they have to retell the poem using simple present and present continuous tense.
4. Introduction of past continuous tense:
 - a. On the overhead projector, the teacher presents the past continuous tense chart;
 - b. The teacher reads a children's book, *Anansi and the Moss-Covered Rock* (Kimmel, 1988);
 - c. The students have to listen to the story and clap their hands each time they hear a verb in the past continuous tense;
 - d. The teacher writes down the verbs on the board and discusses their affirmative, interrogative, and negative forms;

- e. Together with the teacher, the students do exercises on pp. 158-159 in Chamot, Keatley, & Anstrom (2005) textbook, describing the picture, and writing affirmative, interrogative, and negative statements in the past continuous tense.
5. Homework: to do exercises on pp. 116-117 in Chamot, Keatley, Anstrom, & Green (2005) workbook.

APPENDIX D
INTERVIEW AND QUESTIONNAIRE PROTOCOLS

Protocol D1

Interview Protocol for Attitude toward Reading in English and Reading in General –Beginning of the Study

1. Do you like reading? How many books do you have at home?
2. Do you like to read in English?
3. Do you think it is important to read in English? Why or why not?
4. What do you think about reading children's literature at your age?
5. Have you ever read authentic children's literature in English?
6. If you had a chance, would you read authentic children's literature in English?
7. What do you value the most in authentic children's literature in general and in authentic children's literature in English?
8. What do you think, do teachers have to use authentic children's literature in English in their English classes, or do they need to use adapted texts?

Protocol D2

Interview Protocol for Attitude toward Reading in English and Reading in General – End of the Study

1. Do you like to read? Why or why not? How many books do you have at home now?
2. Do you enjoy reading books in English more now than in the beginning of the semester?
3. Do you think it is important to read in English? Why or why not?
4. Do you feel that your reading in English has improved?
5. What do you think now about reading children's literature at your age, especially in English?
6. Have you ever read authentic children's literature in English?
7. Would you read authentic children's literature in English if you had a chance?
8. What do you value the most in authentic children's literature in general and in authentic children's literature in English?
9. What do you think now, do teachers have to use authentic children's literature in English in their English classes, or do they need to use adapted texts?
10. From now on, what will influence your decision of choice of books in English?

Protocol D3

Attitudes toward Reading in English and Reading in General Questionnaire: Beginning of the Study

1. Do you like to read? How many books do you have at home?
2. Do you like to read in English?
3. What does someone have to do or to know to be a good reader in English?
4. Why do people read in English? List as many reasons as you can think of.
5. What kinds of books do you like to read in your native language?
6. Who are your favorite authors?
7. What do you think about reading children's literature at your age?
8. Have you ever reread a book in your native language? If so, can you name it/them?
9. Have you ever reread a book in English? If so, can you name it/them?
10. In general, how do you feel about reading in English?

Protocol D4

Attitudes toward Reading in English and Reading in General Questionnaire: End of the Study

1. Do you like to read? How many books do you have at home? Do you have more books at home now than you had in the beginning of the study?
2. How many English books do you have at home now? Do you have more English books now than in the beginning of the study?
3. Do you enjoy reading books in English more now than in the beginning of the semester?
4. Do you think that reading in English may benefit your life? If yes, give as many reasons as you can think of.
5. What does someone have to do or to know to be a good reader in English?
6. Do you feel that your reading in English has improved? If yes, how can you tell?
7. What do you think now about reading children's literature at your age, especially in English?
8. Will you continue reading in English?
9. From now on, what will influence your decision of choice of books in English?
10. In general, how do you feel about reading books in English? Did you change your attitude toward reading in English during this study?

APPENDIX E
SAMPLES OF PARTICIPANTS' WORK

Samples of Journal Writing of the Control and Experimental Group Participants

Explain in ways in which weather has some direct effect on your life

I argue with parents because of clothes. When weather is good then mood is good too. I get sick because of mood is bad.

I think advantages of being able to fly around like a bird are beautiful, you see what you want to see and disadvantages is that you are high and it's very scary, I think that, because it's so high.

Figure E1. Samples of the control group participants' journal writing.

Explain the advantages and disadvantages of being able to fly around like a bird.

I can't explain because I never fly like a bird. But I think that it's a unique birds. They fly around during their lives, because fly is their lives. I can't say that's bad or good of being able to fly around like a bird. It's all I can think of.

I like when the weather is fine and I always have a good time when the weather is good. But when the weather is bad it is not so bad for me. I can do with else. I can't say that when the weather is bad I don't go somewhere or do smth. In all situation I can be happy. Yes, I like when the sun is shining and when it's warm but I also like when it is raining or snowing and so when it is cold. My life depends on me not on weather. It is not important for me.

Figure E2. Samples of the experimental group participants' journal writing.

Experimental Group Participants' Response to Writing Prompts

I have many important people in my life, but three of them are the most important to me. First and second are my mom and dad. I think parents are special for everyone, because they give life to you. The third one is my best friend, with my name Sammy. We are very important to me because we are best friends from early childhood. We went together to school, and so spent a lot of time together. Now I study in Colegio, we are in the same street, but we are spending a lot of time together. I look at many things, what I like or dislike, my habits, so I look at my

Figure E3. A sample of narrative writing by an experimental group participant.

Dear Mrs. [redacted]

I would like you to join me to go to Jamaica Island.

Clearly, you will have good vacations. You will live with your husband in wooden house near the sea. Every day you will eat fresh fruits. Definitely, the weather will be grate. It goes without saying, the sea's water, near the Island, the most clean.

Obviously, you will have a good time there. Every day you will can swim in the sea and stay under the sun. You will visit wonderful plays. You will see Island's people and how they live. Definitely, you will see beautiful animals which live there.

If you will not go, you will be very sorry for it all your life. Maybe you will never go there. If you will not go you will not see animals which live there.

I believe you can't reject my offer.

Sincerely,

Figure E4. A sample of letter writing by an experimental group participant.

Bio Poem

I John
Tall, smart, modest ~~honest~~ evil
Son of Love
lover of relax, reading, playing
who feels Good
Who needs free time, ^{free} excellent marks,
cool internet
Who fears my plans being broken
Who would like to see the Future,
the past and the present
Am a resident of Kiev Ukraine
Welcome you to my poem.

Man
Strong, active
Killing, loving, knowing
Man is romantic
Rock

Figure E5. A sample of poem writing by an experimental group participant.

Sample Pages from the Stories Written by the Experimental Group Participants

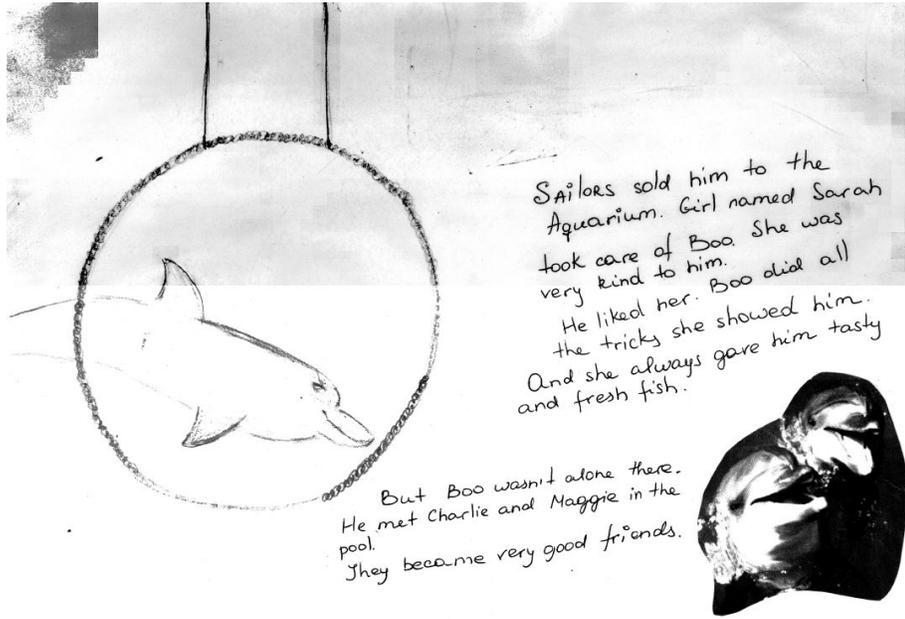


Figure E6. A sample page from the story, *Why Do Dolphins Swim with People?*.

Once upon a time there lived a beautiful girl, named Marichka. She lived in gold castle on the Dnipe river. She had huge brown eyes, long black eyelashes and long spanking black hair. She was a rich daughter of a rich petman. Marichka didn't love stepmother, because she didn't love father and live with him.

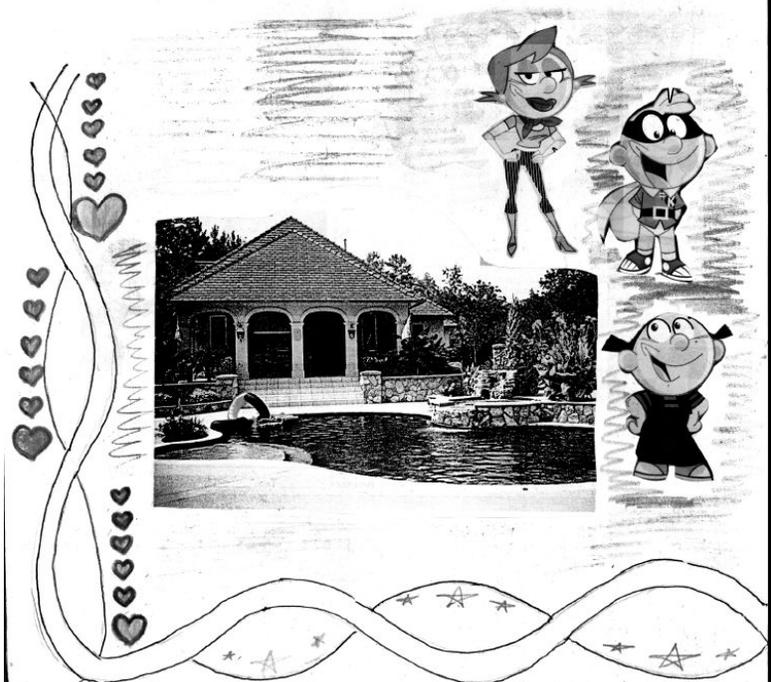
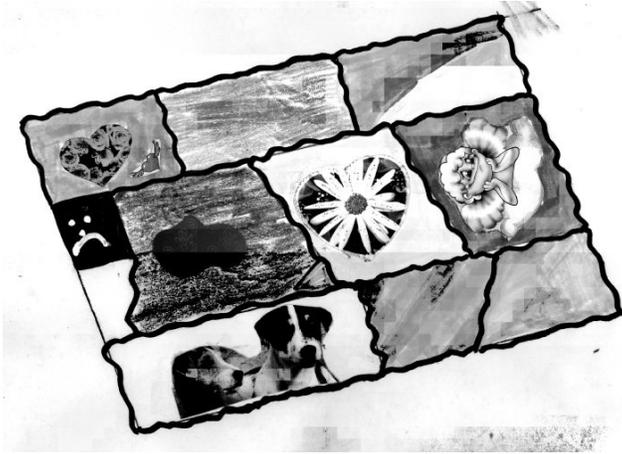


Figure E7. A sample page from the story, *Ukrainian Cinderella*.

Examples of the Reading-Writing Connection Project, *The Quilt of My Life*, by the Experimental
Group Participants



In the center of my life there are my grandparents and parents. I love they very much. That's why I have a heart in the central square. I chose rose because this color is very happy and exciting.

On the left of my life there is my first love. This is remind most important to me, because I loved in first and long. But this is did not bring anything good.

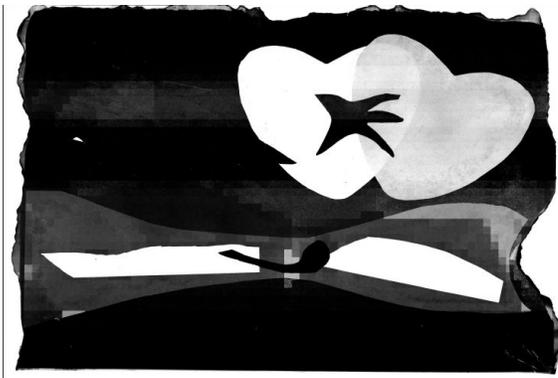
In the bottom I have 2 squares: blue and green because this color mean sea and sun. This is my traveling. Color blue this is my dreams (I love dreams). I love this color and I want then my future will be blue and good to me.

Color dark is bad in my life.

In the left corner my best friends - this is animals (dog and cat).

Fiolet one of my favorite color this is my frienols. I love them very much.

Figure E8. Sample 1 of the project, *The Quilt of My Life*.



My life isn't square. Maybe, if I represent it, it will be even piece of paper. Green colour serves as a background for my life. Green colour is political diplomatic colour. Three edges are uneven surface, other edge is even unknown surface. Against green background I locate the very two hearts and the branches. The red way is mine. It means that I active person, but according to old proverb, "The way is either white or black", I decorate it with two white and one black piece of paper. Two hearts, the one's yellow, the second is orange, means my character. Blue colour is my favourite colour. Branches are power. The power is my family for me. In this case, it's my mom. This is my life.

Figure E9. Sample 2 of the project, *The Quilt of My Life*.

Samples of Book Reports by the Experimental Group Participants

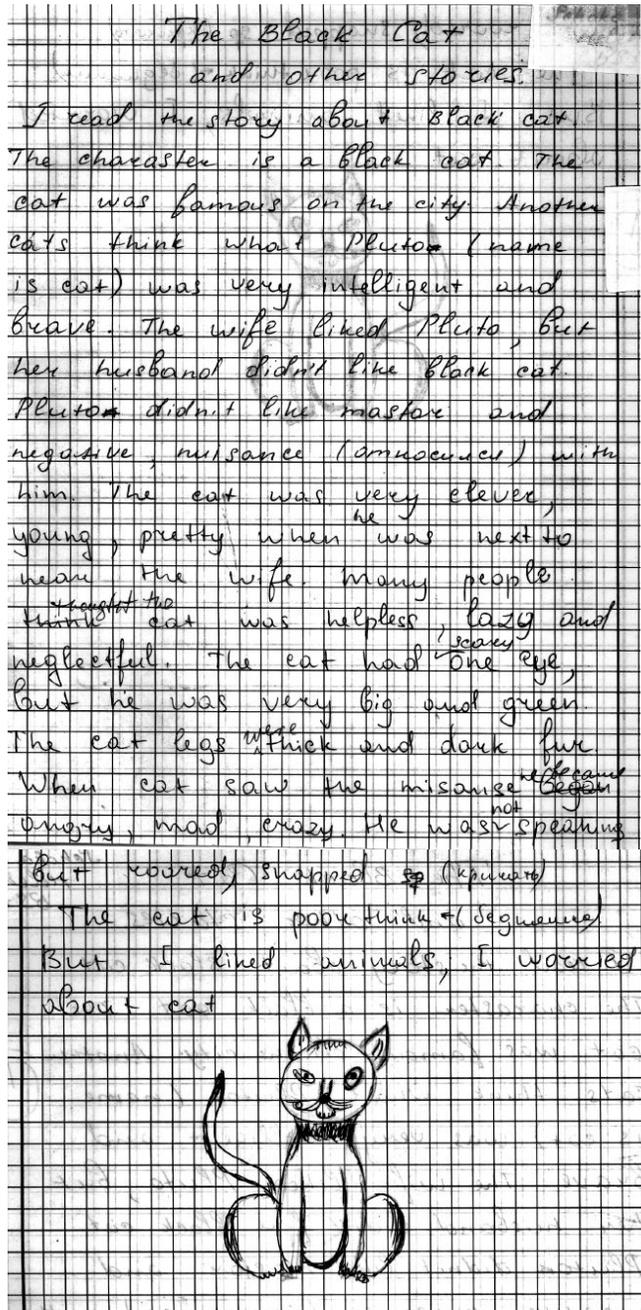


Figure E10. A sample of a book report – Retelling of the Book.

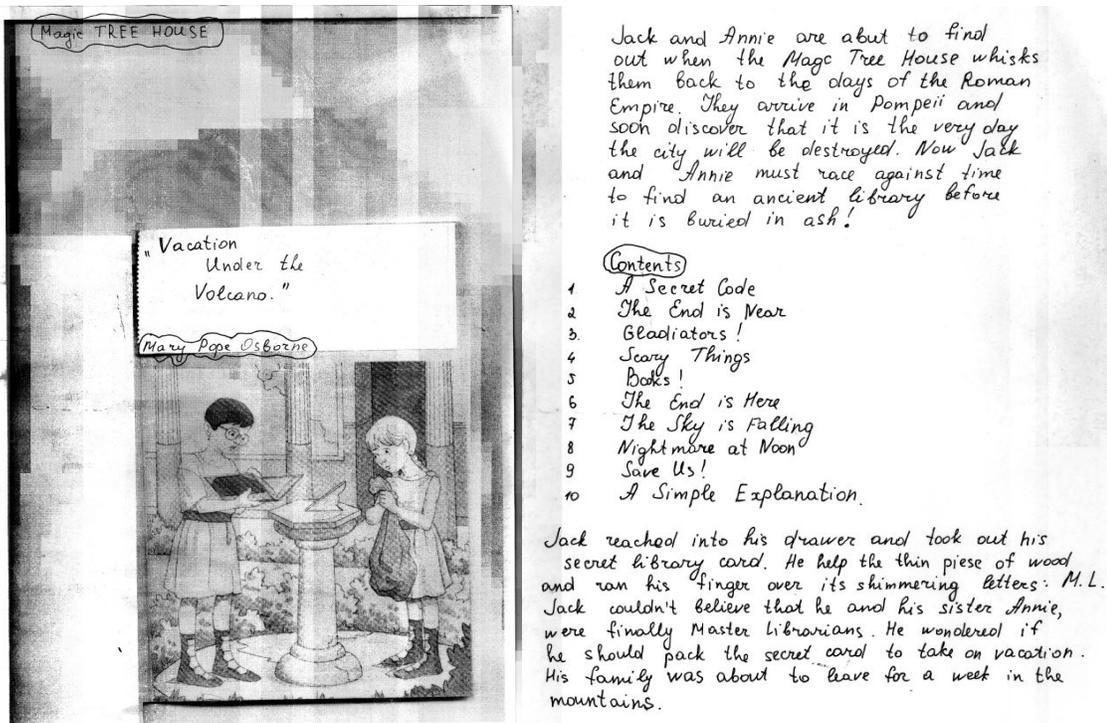


Figure E11. A sample of a book report – The Booklet.

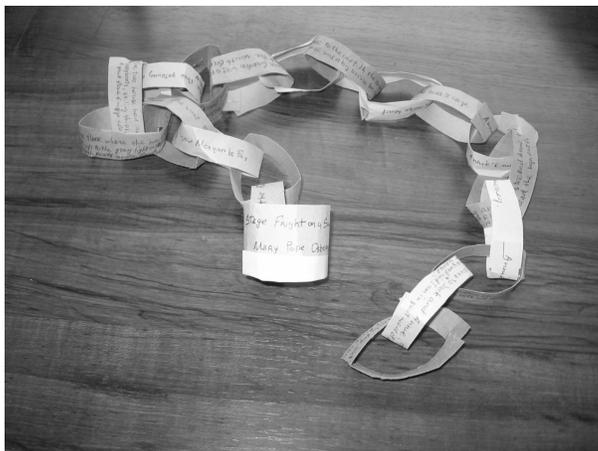


Figure E12. A sample of a book report – Chain of Events.

APPENDIX F
PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

UNIVERSITY^{of}
NORTH TEXAS
Office of Research Services

August 18, 2005

Stella Belsky
Department of Teacher Education and Administration
University of North Texas

Re: Human Subjects Application No. 05-191

Dear Ms. Belsky:

As permitted by federal law and regulations governing the use of human subjects in research projects (45 CFR 46), the UNT Institutional Review Board has reviewed your proposed project titled "The Effects of Using Children's Literature with Adolescents in the English as a Foreign Language Classroom." The risks inherent in this research are minimal, and the potential benefits to the subject outweigh those risks. The submitted protocol and consent form are hereby approved for the use of human subjects in this study. **Federal Policy 45 CFR 46.109(e) stipulates that IRB approval is for one year only.**

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and **use this form only** for your study subjects.

It is your responsibility according to U.S. Department of Health and Human Services regulations to submit annual and terminal progress reports to the IRB for this project. Please mark your calendar accordingly. The IRB must also review this project prior to any modifications.

Please contact Shelia Bourns, Research Compliance Administrator, or Boyd Herndon, Director of Research Compliance, at extension 3940, if you wish to make changes or need additional information.

Sincerely,



Scott Simpkins, Ph.D.
Chair
Institutional Review Board

P.O. Box 305250 • Denton, Texas 76203-5250 • (940) 565-3940
Fax (940) 565-4277 • TTY (800) RELAY TX • www.unt.edu

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