Information Literate in any Language

A Supplement to:

From Library Skills to Information Literacy

California School Library Association
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California School Library Association

Working Paper
November 1995
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Foreword

The Executive Board of the California Association for Bilingual Education was asked to review and react to this working paper. Their response, confirming the intent of this document, seems an appropriate introduction:

It is with great professional pride that the California Association for Bilingual Education supports the working paper Information Literate in Any Language published for the 1995 Elementary Alliance Congress. CABE recognizes the great need for information literacy for all students and, in particular, for English learners throughout the state of California. This publication very importantly supports access to the core curriculum for every single pupil in our classrooms. This noble effort will ultimately result in academic success for young learners. Therefore CABE joins with the California School Library Association as partner organizations of the Elementary Alliance to acknowledge and promote this outstanding publication.

Rosalia Salinas, president
California Association for Bilingual Education

The California School Library Association is the acknowledged author of this publication. Throughout this work, references are made to the previous publication, From Library Skills to Information Literacy, on which this work is based. Bonnie O'Brian, president of CSLA, was asked to comment.

Library media teachers have long recognized that information literacy is an essential skill for anyone living and learning in our society. In our earlier publication on information literacy, this is stated as a basic premise: "Information literacy for all is essential to the functioning of a democracy." (From Library Skills to Information Literacy, p. vi.) However, to realize this premise, the needs of individual students and of groups with common needs must be addressed. With this new publication, we are proud to initiate the consideration of the specific needs of English learners for achieving information literacy.

Bonnie O'Brian, president
California School Library Association

This working paper is quite literally a work-in-progress. For the intended readers—classroom teachers, library media teachers, ESL/bilingual specialists, bilingual aides and other educators who are responsible for student
learning—much of the content of this paper will be familiar. Concepts, strategies, and resources from many sources are assembled to validate and demonstrate ways to prepare all learners to recognize, understand, and fulfill their need for information. Those sources, cited in the text, are also identified at the beginning of Resources for English Learners (pages 95-97). In addition, readers will find notes in several places requesting your suggestions for additional scenarios or resources. Your responses will extend the practical applications for this publication and help to ensure that all students are information literate.
Chapter 1

INFORMATION LITERACY FOR ALL STUDENTS

National reform documents, California curriculum frameworks, program quality review documents, task force reports, and the national and state publications on information literacy all agree that the thinking, meaning-centered curriculum is essential for all students and that all students must be lifelong learners.

Information literacy, too, must be for all students. From Library Skills to Information Literacy: A Handbook for the 21st Century, the original publication to which this is a supplement, uses the searcher and the learner as generic nomenclature for all students. The focus of Information Literate in Any Language is specifically on the more than one million California students whose primary language is other than English. What are their information needs? How can these needs best be met and with which learning resources? What does it mean to be information literate in more than one language? Is information literacy for English learners different in any significant ways from information literacy for all students? Finally, does information literacy differ from one culture to another?

Information literacy? What's all the fuss?

Once upon a time—that is, in the youth of all adult readers of this publication—we took the mastery of information for granted. We assumed that all the information we needed was in libraries, that librarians knew all the answers, and that learning a few basic reference skills would allow us to unlock most of the information for ourselves.

Over the past ten years, we have begun to see that this view is anachronistic. In fact, we now are beginning to realize that our previous mode was not even appropriate for that past in which information seemed finite. Information is more than printed words or the pages of books. It is even more than the tons of data that flow in torrential volume through electric wires, more than the tornadoes of voice, data, and images that swirl through the air waves. Information is the stuff of our lives. Information is not just born in ivory towers or decreed by anointed authorities. It is not only what we digest; it is also that which we create.

Since 1945, the global economic core has shifted from industry and manufacturing to technology and service. Not minerals and metals, but knowledge and information are the new economy's strategic resources. This dramatic change means that, increasingly, employers will expect their workers to be better thinkers and problem solvers. Even the most
routine and simple jobs will require higher-order thinking skills. Workers will be expected to think abstractly, critically, and creatively; to organize information; and to work cooperatively with others. *(Program Quality Review Training Materials for Elementary and Middle Level Schools, California Department of Education, 1994, p. 59)*

*Information literacy* strikes a chord of understanding. It seems to connote the ability to master information in the way that *literacy* suggests mastering text. In a world overwhelmed by information, information literacy is essential.

*From Library Skills to Information Literacy* defines information literacy as "the ability to access, evaluate, and use information from a variety of resources." Information literacy is indeed an essential goal for all students in all countries and in all languages. This supplement to the earlier publication is designed to provide some maps and guideposts to assist English learners in their journey along the road toward that goal.

**The Thinking, Meaning-Centered Curriculum**

Curriculum is the business of the school. During the past 15 years, California has provided extraordinary leadership in the development of the concept and goals of the "thinking, meaning-centered curriculum." Frameworks and reform documents are liberally sprinkled with this phrase. But the concept must go beyond mere words.

Our goal is to implement a curricular program that truly engages students in learning that has depth, scope, and relevance. The program quality review is designed as a process by which all schools examine their own practices and assess their progress toward an effective implementation of the thinking, meaning-centered curriculum. The outline that follows, taken directly from *Program Quality Review Training Materials for Elementary and Middle Level Schools*, presents a description and rationale for the major themes of a thinking and meaning-centered curriculum. It also develops a clear, logical base for the discussion of information literacy that follows.

Each of the five themes identified as the essence of the thinking, meaning-centered curriculum is also essential to the development of information literacy. If students are to construct meaning, elaborate beyond content, self-regulate learning, connect to existing knowledge, and interact within a personally meaningful learning environment, they must be able to access, evaluate, and use information.
A Thinking, Meaning-Centered Curriculum

For the United States to compete successfully in this new global market, curriculum must be adjusted to reflect the demands of the knowledge-work economy. The thinking and meaning-centered curriculum incorporates the needed adjustments and has the fundamental goal of enabling students to become independent thinkers, discoverers, and inventors. It is a curriculum for all students, not just the educational elite. Five major themes pervade the thinking and meaning-centered curriculum:

I. Construction of Meaning
   - Active learners construct knowledge.
   - Students need meaningful interactions.
   - Students need tools to research, inquire, discover, and invent knowledge.
   - Teacher’s role shifts from conveying knowledge to students to facilitating learning.

II. Elaboration Beyond Content
    - Students need to build upon new knowledge.
    - Students need to adapt information to new situations.
    - Students need to make inferences, research ideas, and experiment.
    - Students need to use their skills of thinking and problem solving.

III. Self-Regulation of Learning
     - Students need to learn how to learn.
     - They need to manage, monitor, and evaluate their own learning.
     - They need to consider a variety of approaches and select the most efficient one.

IV. Connections to Existing Knowledge
    - Students need to make sense of new information by connecting it to what is known or experienced.
    - Students need concrete examples and experiences to deepen understanding.
    - Students need to evaluate new information in reference to what is known.

V. Interaction Within a Personally-Meaningful Learning Environment
   - Simulations need to deal with situations, problems, and experiences that are real.
   - Students need a learning environment that encourages perseverance, time to work things out, and the acceptance of mistakes as building blocks. (Program Quality Review Training Materials for Elementary and Middle Level Schools, California Department of Education, 1994, p. 71)
Language, Culture, and Information: What Are the Connections?

Language allows us to communicate and is essential to all elements of information literacy. We use language to access information, to evaluate information, and to use information. However, the concept of information is not unique or specific to any language. People in all countries of the world acquire information about their environment, community, and history—all aspects of their culture—and share this information with each other in many ways.

Because information can be communicated in any language, information literacy can be developed in any of the more than 100 languages spoken by students in our schools. English learners should be able to access information in any language they know, evaluate it in a language with which they are most comfortable, and then use the information in the language that is most appropriate for their purpose. It is the basic premise of this document that students can and must develop information literacy in any of the languages in which they access, evaluate, and use the information.

Language does not however exist as a separate entity. Each language is a product of its culture, and the language we use affects our processing of information. Elizabeth Hartung Cole, a bilingual coordinator in the Long Beach Unified School District, shares an anecdote from her own experiences that gave her new insights into language and meaning across cultures.

Once, during a literature unit, a class, composed of native and non-native English-speaking students was working on a clustering activity. The center word was white. Native English speakers were contributing words such as clean and snow. Then one student’s voice confidently stated, death. Surprised silence filled the room until the student explained that death was commonly associated with the color white in her native country and gave the cultural reasons for it. This helped the class become aware of the intertwined relationship of language and culture and they discussed the possible inaccuracies they might find in reading and analyzing a translated literary work. Fortunately for all, that student felt that the class was a culturally and linguistically safe environment, one in which her contribution would be perceived as an enrichment rather than a detraction or wrong answer.

In a recent article titled “The Wonders of Diversity in Our Classrooms” (CUE Newsletter, January/February, 1995), Gail Marshall reminds us that differences in ways of thinking and problem solving add strength when we accommodate and incorporate them as part of the rich cultural mix of our classrooms:

Ways of thinking and knowing are not fixed and universal. Instead, they’re affected by the environment and by the different and sometimes separate ways cultures solve problems large and small. So we should
expect students from different cultures to respond differently to a wide range of tasks. When a student enters our classroom and that student comes from a culture that is different from our own, we should ask, "Now what does this student know about knowing that is different from and more interesting/more productive/more direct/more robust than the ways we're used to working?" (pp. 1, 3)

When we speak of developing information literacy everyone - student, teacher, librarian - is a learner. We become better facilitators of learning when we consider and analyze our own personal paths to learning. How do we get information in real life? Whom do we ask? Where do we look? When do we go to the phone book? When do we go to the library? If we move to another neighborhood, another state, how do we get information? How do we evaluate and use the information we have located? Most important, when and how did we acquire the knowledge and understanding that lets us know the answers to these questions? How did we become information literate?

If we were in a country in which the language was unfamiliar to us, what information needs might we have and how could we meet them? How would we feel if our daily sources of information were available but in a language we did not know? Or, in the case of school and public libraries, if we were in a country where these were not available with resources in any language? What other sources of information might we explore? How would we change our ways of seeking and obtaining information? What frustrations would we face and how could we lessen these? Careful analysis of these questions can help us to become more empathetic as we consider the information needs of our students who are English learners.

How can we share our insights with students so that they can apply them to their own learning? And what insights about their own worlds of information can students bring to their own personal learning and to the learning communities of their classrooms, neighborhoods, and families? These are important questions that we will address in our effort to help students to become information literate in any language.
Chapter 2

INFORMATION LITERACY DEFINED

Rationale

Information literacy—like the thinking, meaning-centered curriculum—is a catch phrase. Its popularity reflects a growing awareness that what we have generally encompassed by the term "literacy" somehow has omitted the consideration of how or why we use the tools of literacy to find the information that answers our questions or satisfies our curiosity. We pictured literacy as a person reading, but failed to reflect on how the reader might evaluate and use the information that was read.

Our awareness of the need for information literacy is related to our recognition of survival skills essential for the world in which we live. These survival skills are important for all people and are independent of any specific language. Students in our schools must develop the tools they need to master these survival skills, mastery of which can be attained in any language. Information literacy in two languages provides bilingual students an obvious advantage in this global economy.

The following description of the citizen of the twenty-first century is a synthesis of reform reports of the past ten years. A Nation at Risk, A Nation Prepared, the SCANS report on What Work Requires of Schools, and Goals 2000 all agree with the California Department of Education that the citizens of the twenty-first century will need to be:

- Problem solvers
- Effective questioners
- Cooperative workers
- Self-starters
- Information managers
- Flexible thinkers
- Multilingual. (Program Quality Review Training Materials for Elementary and Middle Level Schools, California Department of Education, 1994, p. 19)
Definition

To attain those skills, citizens of the twenty-first century must also be information literate. Information literacy has been defined as "the ability to access, evaluate, and use information from a variety of sources."

*An information-literate person accesses information
  • Recognizes the need for information
  • Recognizes that accurate and complete information is the basis for intelligent decision making
  • Formulates questions based on need for information
  • Identifies potential sources of information
  • Develops successful search strategies
  • Accesses print and technology-based sources of information

*An information-literate person evaluates information
  • Establishes authority
  • Determines accuracy and relevance
  • Recognizes point of view, perspective

*An information-literate person uses information
  • Organizes information for practical application
  • Integrates new information into an existing body of knowledge
  • Uses information in critical thinking and problem solving

An Information Literacy Model

Although the definition of information literacy may appear to be simple, the concept is complex. Recent research regarding the nature of information literacy has resulted in the development of several research process models. The model that emerges on the following pages, developed for From Library Skills to Information Literacy, is a synthesis of existing models. It is reproduced here as the basis for the discussion of integrating information literacy into the curriculum for all students and in all languages.

The model can be viewed from three different perspectives: the searcher's thinking, the research process stages, and instructional strategies. Each of these components is interdependent; that is, the thinking process stimulates the research process, which in turn determines an appropriate instructional strategy. The resulting model is not linear, but one that flows, branches, and loops in different ways for each searcher and each search.

*Both the definition of information literacy and the characteristics of an information-literate person were adapted from a research study by Christina S. Doyle. This Delphi study drew on the opinions of experts from many fields to reach this consensus and was published as the Final Report to the National Forum on Information Literacy, June 24, 1992.
Searcher's Thinking

The first component of the information literacy model considers what a person might be thinking when confronting an information problem. The thinking pattern might look something like the following diagram:

```
Why Do I Need Information?

- How shall I use these resources?
- What resources can I find?
- Where can I find the information I need?
- How do I get started?
- What information will help me?
- What information is important?
- Have I found enough information?
- How will I use the information?
- How have I done?
- What do I already know?
- What is the problem, topic, questions?
```
Research Process Stages

The second component of the information literacy model describes the research process. Here, a systematic way of approaching an information problem is displayed. While specific stages can be identified, the research process will look different for each person and for each problem. The process might look something like the following diagram:
Instructional Strategies

The third component of the information literacy model is instructional strategies. These are some of the strategies that might be generated in response to the searcher's needs during the research process. A particular strategy is employed to meet a particular need rather than attempting to impose a fixed set of strategies on all searchers. Patterns will vary depending on the searcher, the problem, and the resources.
An Information Literacy Model

The searcher's thinking, research process stages, and instructional strategies are brought together in this information literacy model. While the presentation below is linear, the process and the interaction of the components are not. However, the linear presentation shows how a searcher's thinking can trigger a research process stage, which in turn triggers an instructional strategy. For example, "Why do I need information?" may trigger the research process stage of "Exploring the need for information" which in turn triggers the instructional strategy of "Beginning a journal to track the research process."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Searcher's Thinking</th>
<th>Research Process Stages</th>
<th>Instructional Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Why do I need information?</td>
<td>Explore/identify the need for information.</td>
<td>Begin journal to track the research process. Brainstorm/cluster/discuss/map. Quickwrite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the problem, topic, or question?</td>
<td>Formulate the central search question.</td>
<td>Create possible questions. Continue journal at each step.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do I already know about this problem/topic/question?</td>
<td>Relate the question to prior knowledge. Identify key words, concepts, and names.</td>
<td>Quickwrite. Brainstorm/cluster/map. Use general information sources for background.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where can I find the information I need?</td>
<td>Identify potential resources.</td>
<td>Brainstorm possible resources. Cluster resources by type, location, etc. Create checklist of resources: How appropriate is each? How accessible is each?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there people I can ask? Is the information in my classroom or library media center? Are there resources in my community?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do I get started? What are some key words/topics/ideas? Where do I go first?</td>
<td>Develop general strategies to organize the search.</td>
<td>Develop key word and Boolean search strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What resources can I find?  What can I use?  
Locate and explore previously identified resources. 
Interview people. Go to libraries, museums, information centers. Collect resources. Observe/experience/read.

How shall I use/search these resources? How will I find the information I need? What strategies should I use? 
Select the most useful resources for further exploration and formulate specific strategies for using them. 
Develop search strategies. Use information retrieval/location/research skills.

What information will help me? 
Search for relevant information in these resources. 
Read/view.

What should I record? What is important? How could I record it? How could I arrange it? 
Evaluate, select, and organize information. 
Cluster ideas into subtopics. Use outlining and notetaking skills.

Have I found the information I need? Should I look further? 
Analyze information retrieved; determine its relevance; interpret, infer, and synthesize. 
Review information to see if it meets original needs.

How will I use/present the information? Who is my audience? In what form could I use/present it? How can I structure it? 
Determine how to use/present/communicate information. Organize information for intended use. 
Consider options for presenting information. Make needed decisions. Solve original problem. Develop written, visual, oral, multimedia or other presentation.

How have I done? ...in my opinion? ...according to others? 
What knowledge have I gained? What skills have I learned? What could I improve and how? 
Use information. Evaluate results. Evaluate process. 
Review the product. Review the research process journal. Review with teacher, family, peers. Plan changes for next project.

Information Literacy: Summarizing New Approaches

Through the progression on the previous pages, an information literacy model emerges. How is this model different from a continuum of library skills? How is information literacy different from previous approaches? The differences are best understood as changes of emphasis. The chart below compares past and current emphases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Emphasis</th>
<th>Current Emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-identified research topics or projects</td>
<td>Student collaboration in identifying relevant issues to consider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locating information</td>
<td>Evaluating and using/applying information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities/information/resources available in English</td>
<td>Activities/information/resources available in many languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printed material</td>
<td>All sources of information (e.g., people, technology, artifacts, print)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary sources</td>
<td>Primary sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Established authority of reference sources</td>
<td>Questioning and identifying point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single perspective</td>
<td>Multiple perspectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product, usually a paper</td>
<td>Thinking and problem solving of the search process and the application of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting results in written or oral language—always in English</td>
<td>Presenting results in a variety of formats and in many languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current emphasis, with its focus on the searcher, acknowledges and makes constructive use of the rich diversity of learners, learning styles, languages, and resources in our multicultural, multilingual society.
Chapter 3

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING:
FOCUS ON ENGLISH LEARNERS

The basic assumptions for this publication are that 1) information literacy is a key learning objective; 2) the target population is English learners; and 3) the curriculum is the framework for learning. The implications for instructional planning seem obvious. Instructional strategies must include what research, experience, program guidelines, and state curriculum documents recommend as leading to 1) success for English learners; 2) development of information literacy; and 3) implementation of curriculum. Key factors in each of these areas are presented in this chapter.

California’s program for English learners is defined explicitly. It has three principal aims:

The first [aim] is to assist LEP students to become proficient in English. The second is to provide the students with direct access to the same core curriculum which is provided to all other students in kindergarten through grade twelve. The third objective is to provide instruction and experiences which promote the development of a positive self-image and of cross-cultural skills and understanding. (Building Bilingual Instruction: Putting the Pieces Together, California Department of Education, 1994, pp. 1-2)

Five instructional components are derived from these aims. These are:

- English language development (ELD)
- Primary language instruction
- Specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE)
- Mainstream English
- Self-image and cross-cultural development

Information literacy is developed through thinking strategies. In each of the curricular documents and projects designed to interpret and guide implementation of educational reform, references are made to instructional strategies that lead students to think more deeply and to unlock meaning through learning experiences. Although the curricular areas to which these learning experiences apply are varied and apparently distinct (e.g., science, English–language arts, history–social science), the instructional strategies are strikingly similar. For example, logs or journals are recommended to help students reflect on their readings, observations, or activities: Quickwrite, K-W-L, and brainstorming are used to reveal what students already know about a
question, topic, or problem. These strategies are also suitable for developing information literacy. Curriculum implementation and information literacy are integrally entwined.

To develop information literacy, instructional strategies must help students to:

- Access information.
- Evaluate information.
- Use information.

For these reasons, instructional programs that will help English learners develop information literacy must combine all of the above elements. All strategies are applied in a carefully developed and meaningful way to implement the core curriculum. A bottom line formula might read: EL + IL + C = Learning. Translation: When strategies for English Learners and strategies for Information Literacy are integrated into Curriculum, Learning takes place.
English Learners: Who Are They?

English learner, limited-English proficient, second-language learner—all of those terms focus on the languages that students speak, read, and write as their first or primary language. All identify students whose primary language is not English. However, native Spanish speakers, native Korean speakers, native Farsi speakers, and others are all, more significantly, students from many places, and all come to our schools with varied experiences, resources, and information.

The *Guide and Criteria for Program Quality Review Elementary* (California Department of Education, 1994) describes the second-language learner as follows:

> Students whose primary language is not English are likely to differ from each other in many important ways, even within the same language group. Students who are learning a second language exhibit the same wide range of learning styles and development of physical and social abilities as do native English speakers. Characteristics such as the student's literacy and academic knowledge in the primary language, prior schooling, age upon enrollment, language used in the home and community, and other ethnic and cultural variables are critical factors in the development and delivery of curriculum and instructional strategies used with second-language learners in the school. (p. 260)

Perhaps the key concept in defining English learners is their diversity. They are as different from one another as are all other learners. The desired educational outcome, however, is the same for all students:

> At a minimum, core curricular lessons . . . should guarantee that LEP students have equal access to the same challenging, meaning-centered, high-level thinking curriculum that is offered to students who are native speakers of English. (Building Bilingual Instruction; Putting the Pieces Together, California Department of Education, 1994, p. 4)

> “Ensure that limited-English proficient (LEP) students have access to the thinking curriculum.” (It's Elementary, abridged version, California Department of Education, 1994, p. 33)
Partners in Curricular Planning: Expanding the Team

All planning for guiding English learners in their development of information literacy should involve the collaboration of classroom teachers, library media teachers, bilingual/ESL specialists, and bilingual aides who may be available at the school. It is the collaborative planning by these curriculum partners that can provide the framework within which all of our students can become information literate in all of their languages.

Classroom teachers bring knowledge of the individual strengths and needs of each student in the class and identify the specific curriculum for all students. They are subject specialists and have an overall view of the curriculum for students at their grade level. They are also responsible for the performance standards that their students should achieve.

Library media teachers bring knowledge and skills about information and ways to process it. They are the curriculum generalists and the ones with an overview of learning sequences and experiences that lead to information literacy. All of the information resources of the library media center, as well as those of the broader information world within and beyond the school, are at their disposal as they work with each classroom teacher to design appropriate instruction for all students.

Bilingual/ESL specialists help to assess and define students' language development and any specific individual needs. They can help to determine the appropriate mix of primary language, English–language development, specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE), and mainstream English to use in various instructional circumstances (see chart on page 21). Learning resources that can be of special value to English learners may be recommended by the specialist, especially resources in languages other than English. The school or district office may provide assistance in translating terminology and learning activities used to develop information literacy concepts.

Bilingual aides can help to communicate with students and guide activities in their primary language(s). They should be involved in all of the planning so that they can understand the objectives, content, and strategies for engaging students and the anticipated outcomes. In the development of information literacy for all students, bilingual aides may work most closely with individuals who will have important contributions to make in modeling information literacy in the students' primary language.

Parents and community persons may also be able to play an effective role in some aspects of planning for information literacy. Luis Moll's research on "funds of knowledge" suggests the importance of knowing the home and community of students and bringing these sources of information into the classroom (see pp. 54-56).
Library media teachers should lead forcefully in the development of information literacy. As members of planning teams, they, in cooperation with classroom teachers and ESL/bilingual specialists, identify existing resources relevant to specific curricular concepts and content and seek new resources as needed to meet the needs of English learners. They also suggest strategies for helping students to access, evaluate, and use those resources.

Library media teachers ensure that the library media collection includes appropriate information resources in students' primary languages, including print and nonprint materials and many technology resources: reference works, literature, nonfiction, print materials, and audiovisual resources. Library media teachers also help to identify resources in the community and beyond and to arrange or suggest strategies to assist English learners in accessing all of those resources.
Chapter 4

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES: DESIGNING THE MIX

In the previous section we derived an equation for learning: EL + IL + C = Learning.

The intent of this equation is to emphasize that, when instructional strategies recognized as most appropriate for engaging English learners (EL) are combined with strategies for the development of information literacy (IL) and are integrated with curriculum (C), learning is the outcome. In this chapter we will identify clusters of instructional strategies that can be used as factors in the equation.

Although all of the strategies we have selected have potential for universal applications with all students and for many purposes, we have focused specifically on their applications for English learners and their development of information literacy. As you read the following pages, think about your students, their language needs, and your curriculum. Then use the Instructional Planning Matrix described on pp. 49-50 as a framework to design possible approaches for your classroom.
Strategy 1: Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)

SDAIE is an abbreviation resulting from the development of new terminology and standards for instructional methodologies used with English learners. It refers to Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English and replaces the term sheltered English.

In an essay titled “Sheltered Instruction: The Basics,” Alfredo Schifini explains that “sheltered instruction [read SDAIE] is generally associated with several instructional strategies designed to make academically rigorous subject matter understandable to second-language speakers at intermediate fluency or above. This is usually done by teaching new concepts in context and providing additional linguistic clues. Many of the teaching techniques geared to provide comprehensible input in the second-language classroom are now being used by content teachers.” (Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 2:5)

In the section below, Dr. Schifini identifies the key concepts of SDAIE. When these concepts are translated into teacher and learner behaviors, they are directly applicable to the development of information literacy.

**Cornerstones of Sheltered Instruction**

**Alfredo Schifini, Ph.D.**

**Comprehensible Input**
This is a construct first articulated by Stephen Krashen to describe understandable and meaningful language directed at people acquiring a second language. Krashen has characterized “comprehensive second language input” as language which the second language acquirer already knows (1) plus a range of new language (1+1) which is made comprehensive in formal schooling contexts by the use of certain planned strategies.

Among these strategies are: (a) focus on communicating a meaningful message rather than focus on language forms; (b) frequent use of concrete contextual referents such as visuals, props, graphics, and realia; (c) lack of restriction on the use of the primary language by the second language acquirers; (d) careful grouping practices, such as the use of cooperative learning; (e) minimal overt language form correction by the teaching staff; and (f) establishment of positive and motivating learning environments.

**Prior Knowledge**
This seems to be the single most important indicator of academic success for language minority students. Concept development and comprehension
both depend and build upon a student's prior knowledge: what he or she already knows, understands, believes about the world and how it operates. Determining the extent and nature of a student's prior knowledge is essential for a teacher because if a student does not possess the appropriate required for a particular lesson or activity, he or she will not be able to succeed at that lesson or activity. Once we know what our students already know, then we can determine if a gap exists between what they know and what they need to know to undertake a specific task. If such a gap does exist, teachers must fill that gap, provide the requisite prior knowledge so that both the teachers and students can then build on that critical foundation. A note of caution: prior knowledge is dependent on a variety of socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic factors.

**Contextualization**

Based on recent empirical research, we know that it is not necessary to simplify oral or written language in order for students to understand important concepts. What is necessary is to contextualize that language. This means that we surround difficult or new vocabulary or grammatical structures or ideas with such things as informal definitions, repetition, paraphrasing, examples, comparisons, contrasts, extended description, synonyms, and antonyms.

The advantage of doing this as opposed to simplifying language is that when we contextualize language we still expose students to the complex and rich vocabulary and grammatical structures and ideas that we want them to eventually acquire. If we only simplify, students will never have complex structures modeled for them. Examples of contextualization in the classroom include: visual support, diagrams, charts, student center tasks, cooperative activities, manipulatives, and props.

**Negotiation for Meaning**

Negotiation for meaning, a key characteristic of communicative interaction, facilitates and promotes both language acquisition and cognitive development. It occurs when participants find themselves in situations where they have a vested interest in understanding messages and having their own messages understood. In these situations, where they must interact linguistically, they naturally do all sorts of things to facilitate comprehensions: explain, repeat, expand, paraphrase, pause, question, etc.

In order for negotiation of meaning to occur, however, there must exist both (a) a focus on task (there is something specific to do, to accomplish): and (b) informational equality (all the participants have a need to share information, to interact, because no one participant has all the necessary information to complete the task). Rather, each participant has information
that the others need if they are to accomplish their task. In a classroom, negotiation for meaning can be achieved through role planning, problem solving, activities where students create products, cooperative learning, and paired skill building.
Strategy 2: Collaborative Grouping/Cooperative Learning

Cooperative Learning: A Response to Linguistic and Cultural Diversity is the title of a recent compilation of readings edited by Daniel Holt. The author identifies "students from diverse language backgrounds," including "students [who] have learned English as their primary language," students who are "limited English proficient," and students who are "fluent English proficient." He proposes cooperative learning strategies as appropriate responses for addressing their diverse needs:

Effective responses to this diversity include strategies that link the students in mutually supportive ways, strategies that provide the students with multiple, varied, and equal opportunities to acquire content and language. Learning cooperatively in teams where "all work for one" and "one works for all" gives students the emotional and academic support that helps them to persevere against the many obstacles they face in school. Not only does cooperative teamwork give students additional motivation to stay in school and improve academically; it also helps them learn the skills that they will need for the increasingly interactive work places of the future. (Daniel Holt, Cooperative Learning: A Response to Linguistic and Cultural Diversity, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1993, p. 2).

So much has been said in recent years about collaboration and cooperation for learning that the benefits seem obvious. For most of us experiences with collaboration clearly demonstrate that the collective pooling and interplay of information, perspectives, and insights can result in greater and more significant learning. The product of the whole group is typically greater than the sum of its parts. There is value added for everyone.

... Cooperative learning in group situations [can] minimize unproductive competition and the isolation of individuals. ... Working together in activities not only promotes learning in history-social science but also enhances the acquisition of language and strengthens participatory skills. (With History-Social Science for All, California Department of Education, 1987, p. 34)

Lev Vygotsky's research on the performance and problem solving levels of children leads to strong confirmation of the value of collaboration. From Vygotsky's research, Luis Moll drew the implication that "what a child performs collaboratively ... the child will later perform independently." (Luis C. Moll, Carlos Velez-Ibañez, and Charlene Rivera, Community Knowledge and Classroom Resources, U.S. Department of Education, 1990, p. 38.)
Attributes and characteristics of cooperative learning are excerpted from several sources.

- Cooperative learning . . . provides for diversity and individuality in learning styles and aids students in the socialization process. Paired and group activities promote student interaction and decrease the anxiety many students feel when they must perform alone for the teacher in front of the class. It is important for each student in the group to have a task which he or she may accomplish and thus contribute to the activity (e.g., by being recorder, final copy scribe, illustrator, materials collector, reporter). The ideal size for these groups ranges from 2 to 5 students. Special consideration should be given to students whose home culture may make them feel uncomfortable participating in cooperative learning activities. While all students should be invited to participate, the teacher should respect the wishes of any student who prefers not to participate. (Deborah J. Short, Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Program Information Guide Series, Fall 1991, pp. 5-6)

- Collaborative talk enables students in an unstructured format [to] discuss a work of literature so two or more participants can make their meanings clear to the others and to themselves – attaining literate thinking through talk. (Meaning-Making Strategies for a Literature-Based Curriculum, California Literature Project, 1992)

- Bilingual students can be encouraged to meet and review, share and discuss understandings in their primary languages when helpful. Students benefit from developing their note-taking skills and from discussing, in small groups, what they understood from the information presented to the class. (With History-Social Science for All, California Department of Education, 1987, p. 48)

- Information gap . . . activities, which include jigsaws, problem-solving, and simulations, are set up so each student (in a class, or more generally, in a group) has one or two pieces of information needed to solve the puzzle but not all the necessary information. Students must work together, sharing information while practicing their language, negotiating, and critical thinking skills. (Deborah J. Short, Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Program Information Guide Series, Fall 1991, p. 7)

- In a jigsaw activity, each person reads and studies part of a selection, then teaches what he or she has learned to the other members of the group. Each then quizzes the group members until satisfied that

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everyone knows his or her part thoroughly. *(Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 3:11)*

- **[Use]** Focus Trios. Before a video, lecture, or reading, divide students into groups of three and have students summarize together what they already know about the subject and generate questions they may have. Afterwards, the trios answer questions, discuss new information, and formulate new questions. *(Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 3:11)*

- **[In]** Problem Solvers [each group has a] problem to solve. Each student in the group must contribute to part of the solution. Groups can decide who does what, but they must show how all members contributed. Alternatively, they can reach a decision or solution together, but each must be able independently to explain how to solve the problem. *(Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 3:11)*

This sampler of cooperative learning strategies suggests some of the ways in which English learners might collaborate with others in the development of information literacy. Daniel Holt concludes that "cooperative learning is a key strategy for LEP students because of its potential to enhance interactions among students as well as dramatically improve their academic achievement." He also confirms that the appropriate mix of strategies is best determined by the planning team: "There is no one best cooperative method. Rather, cooperative methods grow out of the modifications and adaptations made by professional educators in response to the unique demands of their own teaching situation." *(Daniel Holt, Cooperative Learning: A Response to Linguistic and Cultural Diversity, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1993, p. 3).*
Strategy 3: Developing Questions/Posing Problems

Information literacy is developed as we become engaged in a meaningful quest for information. All components of the information literacy model (See chapter 2) are initiated by the searcher’s need to know. The search for information becomes compelling when the question or problem is relevant and significant to the searcher. Typically, the most interesting and most important questions are those for which there is no single right answer or perhaps no clearly right answer at all.

Students ask and answer questions in all languages. In working with English learners, as with all students, we must validate the importance of the questions that they are asking. We must listen carefully to their needs for information. It is important to acknowledge that their questions and information needs may be different from those imposed by the curriculum; yet the relevance of these personal information needs to the learner can present valuable opportunities for the development of information literacy. How can we develop these opportunities? How should we respond to students’ questions?

Deborah Short, in her monograph titled Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques focuses on the needs of English learners and advises teachers to “increase the percentage of inferential and higher-order thinking questions asked” (p. 5) and to “use inquiry learning” (p. 6). She explains that:

These questions encourage students to expand their reasoning ability by developing and practicing skills such as hypothesizing, inferencing, analyzing, justifying, and predicting. The language used by the teacher or students need not be complex for thinking skills to be exercised. For example, to help students predict, a teacher might read the title of a story and ask, “What will this story tell us?” Teachers need to model critical thinking skills in a step-by-step approach to reasoning. (Deborah J. Short, Integrating Language and Content Instruction: Strategies and Techniques, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Program Information Guide Series, Fall 1991, p. 5)

In an article titled “Answering Questions and Questioning Answers, Guiding Children to Intellectual Excellence,” Robert Sternberg notes that “Children are natural question-askers;” but he also identifies a critical role for adults in getting them to ask good questions. He identifies seven levels of adult responses to children’s questions and arranges them as a model of interaction that can serve as a guide in helping children to develop thinking skills. The lower levels of response, although most common, do not appear to be very constructive.

Level 1. Rejection of questions (e.g., “Don’t ask”).
Level 2. Restatement of questions as responses (e.g., “That’s how it is”).

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Level 3. Admission of ignorance or presentation of information (e.g., "I don't know" or "The answer is . . .").

Beginning with Level 4, adults take the opportunity to involve the child in seeking information in order to answer the question.

Level 4. Encouragement to seek response through authority (e.g., “What does ______ say?”).

Level 5. Consideration of alternative explanations (e.g., “It could be this or it could be that”).

Level 6. Consideration of explanations plus means of evaluating them (e.g., “That sounds logical, but how could we check to be sure?”).

Level 7. Consideration of explanations plus means of evaluating them and follow through on evaluations (e.g., “I think you're right, but here's an almanac so let's check the index and look it up”).

Sternberg also notes that “as we move up the levels . . . we go from no learning to passive rote learning to analytic and creative learning. . . .” He continues:

Children are taught that information can be sought out. If the parent or teacher takes responsibility for looking up the answer, children will learn that information can be sought but that someone else should do the seeking. . . . If children are offered the opportunity to find the information themselves . . . they assume the responsibility for their own learning. . . . They develop their own information-seeking skills. . . . (p. 137)

Finally, Sternberg emphasizes that “higher-level strategies described here are ones that can be used by teachers in any classroom and by parents at any economic level.” (Robert Sternberg, “Answering Questions and Questioning Answers: Guiding Children to Intellectual Excellence,” Phi Delta Kappan, October, 1994, pp. 136-38) We would add and in any language.

Beth Casey and Edwin Tucker, in their article on “Problem-Centered Classrooms: Creating Lifelong Learners,” suggest that “The teacher’s primary role . . . is to pose open-ended problems and ask open-ended questions.” (Phi Delta Kappan, October 1994, p. 140)

Teachers and students should learn to generate essential questions. The questions on the following pages are examples of ones that are integral to curriculum, relevant to students, and also suggest many modes of response. They invite learners to access, evaluate, and use information as they formulate thoughtful responses. Because they imply many modes for accessing and responding, they are particularly applicable for English learners. While they suggest science content, they can be refocused and used to stimulate thinking in other content areas.
Scientific Thinking Processes

Observing
The scientific thinking process from which fundamental patterns of the world are constructed
Teacher's statements and questions that facilitate the process of observing:

- "Tell us what you see."
- "What does this feel like?"
- "Give us information about its shape and size."
- "What do you hear?"
- "Point out the properties that you observe."
- "What characteristics seem to be predominant?"
- "What properties can you find?"

Communicating
The scientific thinking process that conveys ideas through social interchanges
Teacher's statements and questions that facilitate the process of communicating:

- "What do you see?"
- "Draw a picture of what you see through the microscope."
- "Plot the data you gathered on a graph."
- "Make a histogram of the number of raisins in slices of raisin bread."
- "Write up your experiment so it can be replicated by someone else."
- "Summarize your findings and present them to the class."

Comparing
The scientific thinking process that deals with concepts of similarities and differences
Teacher's statements and questions that facilitate the process of comparing:

- "How are these alike?"
- "How are these different?"
- "Compare these on the basis of similarities and differences."
- "Which is larger/smaller (softer/louder, smoother/rougther, wetter/drier)?"

Ordering
The scientific thinking process that deals with patterns of sequence and seriation
Teacher's statements and questions that facilitate the process of ordering:

- "Which came first, second, last?"
- "What is the range in the data you gathered?"
- "In what order did these events take place?"
- "Where in the order would you place these (for inserting in a range)?"
- "Give evidence of when the pattern repeats itself."

Categorizing
The scientific thinking process that deals with patterns of groups and classes
Teacher's statements and questions that facilitate the process of classifying:

- "On what basis would you group these objects?"
- "Put together all those that you think belong together."
- "What is another way in which these minerals can be categorized?"
- "Identify several characteristics you used to classify these rocks."
- "What grouping best reflects the evolutionary history of these animals?"
**Relating**

*The scientific thinking process that deals with principles concerning interactions*

Teacher’s statements and questions that facilitate the process of *relating*:

- “What factors caused the event to take place?”
- “Explain why this is a good or inadequate experimental design.”
- “State a hypothesis so that it is testable.”
- “What is the relationship between the coloration of an animal, its environment, and its predators?”
- “Using this line graph, tell the relationship between distance and time.”
- “Design a study to compare the evaporation rates of different liquids (e.g., alcohol and water).”

**Applying**

*The scientific thinking process by which we use knowledge*

Teacher’s statements and questions that facilitate the process of *applying*:

- “See who can invent a glider that will stay aloft the longest time.”
- “Design a way to keep an ice cube on your desk all day without melting.”
- “What political points of view must be considered if we are to protect the migration flight paths of birds over several countries?”
- “What factors must be weighed if experimentation on animals is to take place?”
- “How did different lines of evidence confirm a theory of continental drift?”

**Inferring**

*The scientific thinking process that deals with ideas that are remote in time and space*

Teacher’s statements and questions that facilitate the process of *inferring*:

- “What can you infer from these data?”
- “What arguments can you give to support your prediction?”
- “Explain how we know about quasars.”
- “Under what conditions are we able to extrapolate or interpolate from data?”
- “How would you determine how many frogs live in a pond?”

Condensed from “Science Processes and the Teaching of Science” (Chapter 6), Reprinted with permission from *Science Framework for California Public Schools*, ©1990, California Department of Education.
Strategy 4: Tapping Prior Knowledge

For students to be engaged in meaningful problem solving or information quests, they must begin with and eventually connect to their own prior knowledge about the question or problem. For English learners the focus on prior knowledge is both a validation and confirmation of the value of their personal experience and the key to a rich source of information:

Prior knowledge—what he or she already knows, understands, believes about the world and how it operates—seems to be the single most important indicator of academic success for English learners. Concept development and comprehension both depend and build upon a student's prior knowledge. (Alfredo Schifini, Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 27)

... Contrary to the deficit view about the experiences, resources, and knowledge of bilingual students, their homes, families, and communities have developed complex and rich information networks as strategies that households use to survive, to get ahead, or to thrive.” (Luis Moll, Educational Researcher, March, 1992, p. 21)

Brainstorming is a basic strategy proposed for use in eliciting students' prior knowledge. It is advocated for use in all curriculum areas and is recognized by those who focus on strategies for English learners.

In the planning or beginning of a unit, ... a non evaluative brainstorming session or survey is conducted with the students to establish what they already know about a particular topic and to help them realize what information they don't have ... The brainstorming or survey method encourages students to participate in a nonthreatening activity. A lively brainstorming session can also arouse the students' natural curiosity and lead them to ask questions they might not have thought of on their own. By getting a sense of the students' prior knowledge through the brainstorming activity, the teacher can focus instruction so that it connects appropriately to the background knowledge of the students. (With History-Social Science for All, California Department of Education, 1987, p. 47)

Quickwrite is a written kind of brainstorming. This description of the quickwrite activity captures the intellectual energy it generates.

A special kind of writing that lets students use the act of writing itself to discover what they already know. It works only if students write without planning and without looking back. ... students write breathlessly/recklessly/passionately until [their] fingers are
tired or for a given amount of time (e.g., two or three minutes). They write anything that they can think of about the topic. If students reach a point where they can't think of anything to write, they repeat the last word until something new comes to mind. Students do not worry about punctuation, spelling, or grammar... They just write! (Meaning-Making Strategies for a Literature-Based Curriculum, California Literature Project, 1992)

When engaged in activities to tap their prior knowledge, students should be free to use any language or combination of languages that is most comfortable for them. Facts, details, and information that pour forth in brainstorming and quickwrites can be organized later as students begin to channel ideas. The important concept here is the free flow of ideas; clarifying language and checking facts for accuracy come later.
Strategy 5: Guiding Students Into, Through, and Beyond Learning Resources

"Making meaning" is an essential skill for all learners – one that can be developed as we guide students into, through, and beyond a wide variety of learning resources. For English learners this technique can be an especially important one that helps to develop comprehension and vocabulary.

INTO

Build background and activate students' prior knowledge:

1. Share background information about the learning resource being introduced: topic, question or problem posed, setting, time period, author and title, country of origin, language used, and other facts.

2. Discuss general questions related to key concepts.

3. Use new vocabulary in context.

4. For bilingual resources discuss any differences between the two versions.

5. Introduce key concepts, using related books or media.

6. Have students make predictions.

7. Set purposes for the activities to follow.

THROUGH

Experience a book, video, film, or other learning resource:

1. Pair or group students for reading, listening, or viewing. When appropriate, pair English learners with fluent English speakers.

2. Have students re-predict as new information is added.

3. Think aloud with students to guide them through confusing parts.

4. Check for language comprehension frequently.

5. Make analogies to link prior with new knowledge.
6. Compare audio and visual information to text:
   a. If the medium is text, have students use visual or audio means to communicate their understandings of the content.
   b. If the medium is visual or audio, have students use oral or written means to communicate their understandings of the content.

7. Have students use nonverbal strategies to summarize concepts.

8. Ask open-ended questions that have no right or wrong answers.

9. Have students use mapping or organizing strategies to clarify comprehension.

BEYOND

Extend students' learning:

1. Discuss INTO questions in light of students' experience with the learning resource used.

2. Engage students in activities that help them to connect the new information to their personal experience and tie new vocabulary to prior knowledge.

3. Discuss questions such as What if? Why?

4. Engage students in activities that relate the learning resource to other curricular areas.

5. Compare with other resources that deal with similar themes and issues.

6. Explore other related resources (e.g., on the same topic, in the same genre, by the same author or illustrator, with a similar plot structure or similar character(s), or in other media or format).

Adapted from material developed by Los Angeles Unified School District Library Services.
Strategy 6: Using Graphic Organizers

One of the key competencies of information literacy is the ability to organize information, thoughts, and ideas. A graphic organizer combines abstract thoughts, words, and text in a visual format that shows relationships.

The use of graphic organizers can have special benefits for English learners. Because the organizer is a visual structure, it communicates beyond specific language. Visuals take the place of prepositions and other abstract connectors. Labels are used to organize assorted bits and pieces of data, observations, and information into categories that show likeness, difference, sequence, or other relationships.

Words used in organizers may come from any language. In a language that is less familiar, words visually clustered may lead students to understandings and ahas that would otherwise be more remote. Pictures or symbols can also be used instead of words to connote facts or ideas.

Timelines are an especially effective organizer for English learners. They can create a visual timeline of any topic from "My Day" to "My Life" to "My Country's History" by drawing or clipping or copying illustrations. The text can be in any language and as comprehensive or minimal as the student chooses.

The examples on the following pages show how graphic organizers might be applied to information from scientific observation and how webbing can extend vocabulary and build verbal relationships in any language. There also are examples of the Venn diagram, a graphic organizer that is particularly applicable to Boolean logic. This important concept is applied to search strategies for many technology-based information sources.
Webbing

Webbing is a visual way of organizing related words and ideas. A web has three organizing elements: (1) main topic, (2) categories, and (3) examples.

Students can build webs in any language. The ones below were created by fourth graders in Mary Tran's class at Willmore School in the Westminster School District.

Developed by Mary Tran, submitted by Sue Crosby, Westminster School District
Mapping

Learners create an organized visual presentation that connects ideas and shows their relationship to a main concept. Teachers may also provide a mapped lecturette for students to take notes on during a video, demonstration or text reading.

Example of “Spider Web” Mapping

provide food
for other living
things: other
insects, birds,
people

3 body parts:
head, thorax,
abdomen

often live in
colonies:
have roles,
interdependent

adapted to their
environment:
color, shape,
weapons

6 legs:
jointed

Insects

Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 3:8
Series of Events Chain

Students may use this visual organizer to describe: (1) the stages of a cycle, (2) the steps in a linear procedure, and (3) a sequence of events.
Time Lines

Time lines help to create a structure in which events, circumstances, or ideas can be visualized in their historical perspectives. Time lines can be made with pictures, symbols, labels, anything that can be used to display time - and in any language. The following might be used as a generic student group task sheet for reading and creating time lines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading a Time Line</th>
<th>Creating a Time Line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Study the title.</td>
<td>1. Decide on the period to be covered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Determine its framework.</td>
<td>2. Create a title.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Note the years covered.</td>
<td>3. Determine time intervals and key events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Study the intervals between periods of time.</td>
<td>4. Use a ruler to create a proportional time line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. The space between dates is always the same.</td>
<td>5. Use written or visual labels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Study the key events and mentally associate people, places and other events.</td>
<td>*Optional: Create a short, written summary of the time line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Note relationships.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Use the time line as a summary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Hints:
1. Use literary examples of time lines as models.
2. Students and teachers create a rubric for grading.
3. The rubric should reflect the processes taken toward creation of the end product.

*Time lines can show... 
1. Periods of growth and decline
2. Relationships
3. Cause and effects

Comparing and Contrasting

To encourage students to compare and contrast ideas or objects, have the students make a “T” chart on a piece of butcher paper. The students first find similarities and list those on the left side of the “T.” Then students look for differences and list those on the right side of the “T.” Students display other charts and discuss them with members of the other groups.

T-Chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALIKE</th>
<th>DIFFERENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*Getting the Picture*, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 39
Venn Diagram

Using two overlapping circles, students chart the differences and similarities between two events or phenomena. A Venn diagram is also a useful visual representation of the Boolean logic that is often used for searching information in technology-based resources. (For further explanation of Boolean logic, refer to *From Library Skills to Information Literacy*, pp 51-52.)
Strategy 7: Writing/Keeping Journals in Any Language

Students who are information literate must have developed the ability to recognize what they are doing, analyze the results, and consider or reflect on how any learning based on these results might be applied in another situation. If learning is to take place, such reflection is essential.

Journal writing is one strategy that engages the writer in reflection. For English learners journal writing provides unique opportunities for reflection and for use of language with the flexibility that can unlock meaning and enhance understanding. Since journals are not graded or corrected they are also safe places for English learners to experiment with language.

Journals, which can be written in any language or combination of languages, enable learners to reflect, bring clarity to their thinking, and learn from their experiences. Preliterate students at any level might dictate to an aide, a tutor, a friend, or family member. The use of a simple word processor may stimulate, facilitate, and enrich journal writing. The research process journal is used by the searcher to record the progress of a search, e.g., What are my questions? What did I do? What did I find? What did I learn? How did I feel? The journal also is used to project, e.g., How might this experience apply to future searches? In this way the journal becomes a tool for evaluating the information, the research process, and the learning that took place.

The journal format is simple. A blank sheet of paper is divided into columns, and a heading for each column helps to organize the writer’s comments. The headings vary with the objective for keeping the journal. The California Literature Project identifies several different kinds of journals, most of which would be useful to students for clarifying what is happening as they access information:

- Learning log: Note-taking/Note-making
- Problem solution: Problem(s)/Resolving the problem(s)
- Reflective: What happened/How I felt/What I learned OR What I did/What I learned/What questions do I still have
- Prediction/Speculation: What happened/What might or should happen
- Synthesis: What I did/What I learned/How I can use it
- Dialectic/Dialogue: Quotation/Response

The following quote from Practical Ideas for Teaching Writing as a Process (California Department of Education, 1987) confirms the use of the journal as a tool for personal reflection.
. . . The self as audience is crucial to young writers’ development, because it allows students to discover how the act of writing can be functional for them. . . . Keeping logs or journals of reactions to class events, to books or films or TV programs, and to chapters in a textbook can be a valuable first step in making personal sense of new information. Writing to work out new ideas, to raise questions, and to find out what one understands enables students to see that writing can be of direct benefit to them. . . . Because students have an extended record of their own emerging opinions and understandings, they have themselves as resources when it comes to developing and shaping an essay or a final report. The teacher can encourage this type of writing by providing models of subject matter journals or logs, by setting aside class time for this writing, by allowing credit toward the final grade for completion of such writing, and by allowing students to keep their logs handy during the writing of tests or essays in class. (p. 71)

For English learners, the journal provides another means to blend both familiar and new personal experiences, knowledge, feelings, and data to create new insights. It also verifies once again the value of their own writing – in whatever language they choose to write.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observations/Facts</th>
<th>Hypotheses/Opinions/Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Suggestions:</strong> What is happening? What words describe the event? What do I see? What changes are occurring? What properties does it have?</td>
<td><strong>Suggestions:</strong> Why do I think this is happening? What questions are raised in my mind? What have I observed in the past that is similar?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary:</strong> What I know.</td>
<td><strong>Primary:</strong> What I learned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Getting the Picture*, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, p. 3:12
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tbody>
</table>
Strategy 8: Establishing Audience

Learners who are developing information literacy must think about the information they have gathered in order to evaluate, interpret, and make meaning. They should also have a purpose for using this information. A natural, challenging, and effective way to motivate and propel analysis and use of information is to establish an audience with which to communicate. Personalizing the communication of information adds the essential ingredient of relevance. The audience may be familiar or remote, an individual or a group, personal or official. The communication may be written (letters, reports); oral (telephone conversations, formal presentations, dramatizations); or visual (cartoons, displays, videotapes). The significance of establishing audience is that the learner has to determine the best way to communicate information to a specific person or group. The information has to be sorted, clarified, organized, reduced to essentials, or amplified with details and examples that help the reader, listener, or viewer understand the meaning.

English learners can extend the scope and impact of personal and group communication by helping their classmates reach new and important audiences. For example, they may be able to communicate effectively with individuals, groups, or agencies in the community or in other areas of the world as perhaps no one else can. When using nonverbal modes of communication, English learners can work together with their native English-speaking classmates to reach their common audiences. By offering students options to explore varied modes of communication, teachers can include English learners in integrated heterogenous groups.

Mary Healy, Co-director of the Bay Area Writing Projects, emphasizes the importance of students' communicating with a real audience that can respond and suggests examples:

Beyond the variations of teacher as audience, many others can profitably be addressed in classroom writing. Students can write for their peers—either fellow students in their classes or those in other classes or other schools. The key point here is that this writing be genuinely addressed to an audience that will, indeed, read and respond to the writing. Only through this genuine response, with all the attendant confusion and misunderstandings, can a real sense of audience develop. (Practical Ideas for Teaching Writing as a Process, California Department of Education, 1987, p. 72)

Applications to history-social science are obvious:

Writing letters to contemporary figures, agencies, or a friend or relative about current or historical issues can help students clarify their thinking on a topic and improve their basic writing skills. Fourth-grade students
may write a letter to Cesar Chavez, expressing their views on pesticides
used on the farms in the San Joaquin Valley. Students in grade twelve may
write letters to the editor of a newspaper or to governmental officials or
agencies regarding contemporary issues, such as acid rain, health care,
taxes, or the plight of homeless people. Students may find it easier to
express themselves about an issue in a letter format in which they use
their own words and style than in an essay format. Students may give
examples of, and elaborate on, what they relate to personally when they
do not have to write "for the teacher." This activity can encourage
students to think critically about their opinions and about what they have
learned. They will have to judge the information they have gathered and
draw conclusions based on solid evidence. (With History-Social Science for
All, California Department of Education, 1987, pp. 49-50)

The following example is one teacher’s way of helping English learners to share
their personal experiences with an appropriate audience.

Providing an Audience for ESL Students and a Reason to Write

English-as-second-language (ESL) students have a wealth of experiences to
share with native English speakers. One of the most interesting and most
immediate experiences they can draw on and translate into a narrative is
the story of their departure or their parents’ departure from their
homeland and their journey to the United States.

At the prewriting stage we have a discussion about these students’
experiences. Many of them have traveled extensively, seen other parts of
the world, lived in cultures with different customs, and so forth. I point out
to the ESL students that many Americans would love to meet and talk with
them and find out where they came from because most Americans have
little information about their country’s most recent immigrants.

As a prewriting exercise, I tell the students that a whole book has been
written about immigrants traveling to the United States; their experiences
are also worth sharing. I then read a selection from American Dreams: Lost
and Found, by Studs Terkel. It is an account of Dora Rosenzweig, a Russian
immigrant. Dora’s story becomes the model for my students’ own
narrative.

After I read this excerpt from American Dreams, we discuss what Dora said
and identify what we think would be interesting to United States citizens.
Before we begin to write, I ask for the students’ input about what should
be discussed in the narrative in sequential order, and I write their
suggestions on the chalkboard. For instance, we begin asking questions
that we believe people would most like to have answered:
1. How long ago did this event take place?
2. How did you learn that you would be moving?
3. What was your life before you left?
4. How did you actually escape/move?
5. With whom did you travel?
6. What was your travel experience like?
7. Were there any problems or exciting experiences?

Next, I tell the students to write only what they feel comfortable with sharing and to give as accurate an account as they can so that their audience can picture their experiences. I also tell them that only I will know the authors' true identities. To provide some structure for their reminiscences, I ask the students to write about their family life first, followed by their traveling and immigration experiences, and finally how they feel about life in the United States.

Because my students already have a wealth of memories to tap in telling their stories, they can focus less on what they want to say and put their energy into how they will say it. Providing an interested audience for them—a classmate at school, new neighbor, supportive teacher—and a topic they have deep feelings about motivates them to communicate as clearly and descriptively as they are able. Once they relate their experiences on paper in this new language, they can read them aloud in small groups or work individually with the teacher to make any necessary corrections. (Practical Ideas for Teaching Writing as a Process, California Department of Education, 1987, p. 77)
Instructional Planning Matrix

How can instructional planning teams use this information? The following is a suggested approach:

1. Review the sampling of instructional strategies identified on pp. 20 to 48:
   - Specifically designed academic instruction in English
   - Collaborative grouping/cooperative learning
   - Developing questions/posing problems
   - Tapping prior knowledge
   - Guiding students into, through, and beyond learning resources
   - Using graphic organizers
   - Writing/keeping journals in any language
   - Establishing audience

2. Consider how these strategies might be used by English learners to
   - Access information
   - Evaluate information
   - Use/generate information

3. Factor in the mix of language modes that can provide optimum learning for your students.
   - English language development
   - Primary language instruction
   - Specially designed academic instruction in English
   - Mainstream English
   - Self-image and cross-cultural development

4. Use the Instructional Planning Matrix on the following page to plot possible ways to engage English learners in your classroom and promote their information literacy while implementing curriculum and achieving desired outcomes.

5. Note: In chapter 5, we will consider the variety of information resources that must be factored into this mix.
Instructional Planning Matrix

Curricular Area _______________________________________________________________________

Language Proficiency of Learners _______________________________________________________________________

Framework Concept or Theme _______________________________________________________________________

Project/Learning Outcome _______________________________________________________________________

Strategy Mix:

Identify instructional strategies that will lead to desired learning outcomes for your curricular plan. For each strategy, determine the language mode most appropriate for your students. Write the strategy below in the box in which the selected language mode and the proposed information literacy outcome converge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Access information</th>
<th>Evaluate information</th>
<th>Use/generate information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English language development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary language instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDAIE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream English instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>must be taught in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-image and cross-cultural development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Chapter 5

RESOURCE-BASED LEARNING FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

In resource-based learning the power of the resources is in the hands of the learner. Members of the planning team – classroom teachers, library media teachers, bilingual staff, and others – function as facilitators of learning. The objective of resource-based learning is the resolution of a problem, question, task, or project that has relevance for the learner. The achievement of this objective is dependent on students' identifying, sorting, selecting, and using resources.

Two key issues are of special importance in using resource-based learning with English learners. The first is an emphasis on relevance. Questions that originate from within the learner, ones that represent a real and immediate need for information, are relevant; however, many classroom assignments or projects may be less so. Accessibility of appropriate resources is the second key issue for English learners. Schools no longer value only information that is provided orally in English by the teacher and found in print resources in English. We must encourage students to explore a wider range of learning resources, one that encompasses the home, the community, and all other aspects of the learner's world. Resources in all available languages and in all appropriate formats can provide valuable support for the learner's search for relevant information.

Students today may go beyond the walls of the library media center, the school, and the community, to enter new worlds of information available electronically. Rather than being dependent on the teacher and the textbook, they can locate the information that they need wherever they can find it. They can use the information in a variety of formats and presentation styles, each individualized to meet a specific identified need. They can become responsible for their own learning.

The chart that follows provides an overview and visual summary of the concepts of resource-based learning. Students use resources; the planning team structures the learning environment and facilitates, tracks, and assesses student learning.

What are the resources – both within and beyond the school – that are of potential value to the learner? In this chapter, we focus on resources particularly applicable for English learners. Which ones are particularly accessible and appropriate to each individual?

The home, the community, and the library media center are sources and bases from which to explore resources. We begin with the home because it represents the learner's heritage. It is resources from the home, both tangible and intangible, that the learner brings into the classroom.
The community in which the learner lives and operates can provide distinct resources and avenues of information. When we encourage and assist students in identifying community resources and developing an understanding of how these can facilitate and support the search for information, we are also demonstrating that information resources that originate in the learner’s home and community are valued and relevant.

Today the library media center functions as the learning resources center of the school. Through the center students have access to the vast information sources both within and beyond the school. Library media teachers and other instructional staff guide and encourage students to develop the enthusiasm, understanding, and skills that will help them to become competent users of information and lifelong learners.

Resource-based learning places the classroom teacher and the library media teacher in the role of facilitators. The teaching team guides students to pose problems and ask questions, explore resources in many formats and in all appropriate languages, and use those resources effectively to solve problems and answer questions.

Information literacy is an inevitable outcome of resource-based learning. As we continue to provide resources that are both relevant and accessible to all English learners, we are increasing their opportunities to become information literate citizens of the twenty-first century.
Resource-Based Learning: What Does It Look Like?

Learning Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Print</th>
<th>Places</th>
<th>People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Video/TV</td>
<td>Books</td>
<td>Homes</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>Librarians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Videodiscs</td>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>Libraries</td>
<td>Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD ROM</td>
<td>Letters</td>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>Experts/Friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>Maps/Photos</td>
<td>Zoos/Stores</td>
<td>Resource People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Posters/Other</td>
<td>Businesses</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resource-Based Learning

Student at center
Uses resources to broaden learning base

Classroom teachers and library media specialists function as facilitators of learning:

Structure learning environment...
- Establish learning objectives
- Select/preview resources to ensure suitability for learning/learners
- Design learning experiences
- Set task-oriented assignments

Facilitate student learning...
- Question to stimulate thinking
- Guide students to identify their own information needs
- Prompt to facilitate understanding
- Assist to ensure that students receive help with learning when/where necessary

Track and assess student learning...
- Record student's level of cognitive processing
- Record development of information literacy skills
- Evaluate how students use learning resources
- Evaluate student achievement of learning objectives
- Evaluate products

From From Library Skills to Information Literacy, California Media and Library Educators Association, 1994, p.32

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Resources in the Home

Our needs for information begin with our need to survive in the world in which we live. Survival is typically dependent on the network of people who have or can deliver the information we need. For all of us, this network begins in the home.

In contrast to many classrooms, households never function alone or in isolation; they are always connected to other households and institutions through diverse social networks. . . . These networks form social contexts for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and information, as well as cultural values and norms. . . . The knowledge and skills that such households (and their networks) possess are truly impressive. These families and their funds of knowledge represent a potential major social and intellectual resource for the schools. (Luis Moll, "Bilingual Classroom Studies and Community Analysis: Some Recent Trends," Educational Researcher, March 1992, pp. 21-22)

Funds of knowledge is a term used by Luis Moll, Norma González and others to define the sources of information found specifically in the households of the second-language learners on whom they focused their research. In studies conducted by Moll and González teachers as researchers visited the homes of English learners to identify the information resources and funds of knowledge to which these students had access. Their findings have obvious implications for our consideration of information literacy.

When these research teams, usually composed of a teacher and an ethnographer, visited students’ homes as observers they were able to identify a myriad of potential sources of information. The areas of information, categorized in the chart on p. 56, have obvious connections to curriculum. While these funds of knowledge are specific to the homes of the bilingual students in the geographic setting of the study, it is easy to imagine the different but undoubtedly vast funds of knowledge in the homes of English learners in other settings or from other cultures.

How are we using these funds of knowledge? Moll and his colleagues think that learning modes in students' homes may, in some regards, serve as a model for schools.

In contrast to the households and their social networks, the classrooms seem encapsulated, if not isolated, from the social worlds and resources of the community. When funds of knowledge are not readily available within households, relationships with individuals outside the households are activated to meet either household or individual needs. In classrooms, however, teachers rarely draw on the resources of the "funds of knowledge" of the child’s world outside the context of the classroom.
A related observation, as well, is that children in the households are not passive bystanders, as they seem in the classrooms, but active participants in a broad range of activities mediated by these social relationships.

Our analysis suggests that within these contexts, much of the teaching and learning is motivated by the children’s interests and questions; in contrast to classrooms, knowledge is obtained by the children, not imposed by the adults. This totality of experiences, the cultural structuring of the households, whether related to work or play, whether they take place individually, with peers, or under the supervision of adults, helps constitute the funds of knowledge children bring to school. (Luis Moll et al, “Funds of Knowledge for Teaching: Using a Qualitative Approach to Connect Homes and Classrooms,” Theory Into Practice, Spring 1992, p. 134)

Moll also describes how one teacher in his study, Hilda Anguilo, took advantage of this new knowledge:

What is important is that the teacher invited parents and others in the community to contribute intellectually to the development of lessons; in our terms, she started developing a social network to access funds of knowledge for academic purposes. In total, about 20 community people visited the classroom during the semester to contribute to lessons. The teacher used various sources of funds of knowledge, including the students’ own knowledge and the results of their research, their parents and relatives, the parents of students in other classrooms, and the teacher’s own relationships, including other school staff, community members, and university personnel. These classroom visits were not trivial; parents and others came to share their knowledge, expertise, or experiences with the students and the teacher. This knowledge, in turn, became part of the students’ work or a focus of study.

Through the development of a social network for teaching, the teacher convinced herself that valuable knowledge existed beyond the classroom and that it could be mobilized for academic purposes. She also understood that teaching through the community, as represented by the people in the various social networks and their collective funds of knowledge, could become part of the classroom routine, that is, part of the “core” curriculum. The teacher’s role in these activities became that of a facilitator, mediating the students’ interactions with text and with the social resources made available to develop their analysis, and monitoring their progress in reading and writing in two languages. (Luis Moll, "Bilingual Classroom Studies and Community Analysis: Some Recent Trends," Educational Researcher, March 1992, p. 23)
A chart showing how a teacher used her contacts with the home and community in the classroom appears on p. 62.

Moll's research and its conclusions have particular relevance for our focus on information literacy for English language learners. In a section on "Seeing Beyond Stereotypes" Moll concludes, "An important aspect of the teachers' participation in the household research became the more sophisticated understanding they developed about the children and their experiences." (Luis Moll et al, "Funds of Knowledge for Teaching: Using a Qualitative Approach to Connect Homes and Classrooms," Theory Into Practice, Spring 1992, p. 136)

**Household Funds of Knowledge: A Sample**

"The breadth of knowledge among the households is obviously extensive and we think that our tables make the point: there is plenty of knowledge in these working class, Hispanic households, knowledge that is usually ignored or underestimated by the schools." The following chart organizes the funds of knowledge of one household and its social networks from Moll's studies. The myriad potential applications to curriculum are obvious.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agriculture and mining</th>
<th>Economics</th>
<th>Household management</th>
<th>Material &amp; scientific knowledge</th>
<th>Medicine</th>
<th>Religion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ranching and farming</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Budgets</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Contemporary medicine</td>
<td>Catechism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horsemanship</td>
<td>Market value</td>
<td>Chiccare</td>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>Baptisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(cowboys)</td>
<td>Appraising</td>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>Roofing</td>
<td>Drugs</td>
<td>Bible study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal husbandry</td>
<td>Renting and selling</td>
<td>Appliance repairs</td>
<td>Masonry</td>
<td>First aid</td>
<td>Moral knowledge and ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soil and irrigation systems</td>
<td>Loans</td>
<td>Design and architecture</td>
<td>Painting</td>
<td>Procederes</td>
<td>Midwifery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crop planting</td>
<td>Labor laws</td>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>Deign and architecture</td>
<td>Anatomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting, tracking dressing</td>
<td>Building code</td>
<td>Airplane</td>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>Anatomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>Consumer knowledge</td>
<td>Automobile</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Anatomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timbering</td>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Tractor</td>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>Anatomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minerals</td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>House maintenance</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Midwifery</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Blasting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
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<td>operation and maintenance</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Resources in the Community

Community as used here, might serve as the icon for the world that lies both between and beyond the student's worlds of home and school. Typically, this is a world that both student and teacher take for granted and, therefore, overlook as a rich source of information. Because we are using the term community as a symbol, we include here many kinds of resources that may also be found in the home and/or school (e.g., photos, artifacts, "experts"). However, their inclusion here suggests that both students and teachers must venture beyond home and school to explore and gather the wealth of information the community can provide.

The communities of English learners may be both unique and unfamiliar to teachers and to some of the other students in the school. As we have suggested throughout, such differences have potential for contributing in richness and variety to the resources in the classroom. When English learners recognize and value the people, places, and things in their neighborhoods as sources of information, they become more effective users of information and the worlds of all students are expanded and enriched.

Not surprisingly, the history-social science framework places emphasis on learning through community. The preface to With History-Social Science for All; Access for Every Student identifies "limited-English-proficient students" as one of the target population:

Each student has an area of strength or interest that can be recognized and validated. High school students learn about the principles of American democracy and learn that our nation has been shaped by the participation and service of its citizens. To reinforce this learning while playing important roles in the community, bilingual students can volunteer their services as translators. They can assist agencies such as police departments, community centers, church-sponsored groups, and registrars of voters. Some students may want to help bilingual elementary students by tutoring them or reading to them, or they can help by editing and typing their school's newspaper. They can help at locations where adult English-as-a-second-language (ESL) and training classes are held by tutoring or by serving in child care centers. These activities validate the language abilities of bilingual students and demonstrate the importance of civic responsibility and participation. (With History-Social Science for All, California Department of Education, 1992, pp. 62-63)

Learning about the resources in one's own community provides a basis for finding information in new places. Newcomers or travelers in any setting will have questions about basic living. The following are a few that are easy to imagine:

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• What newspapers or magazines are available in my own language? Where can I buy them? Are they in the public library? How can I find the library?

• How can I get information on bus routes so I can get to the library? To the zoo? The nearest beach?

• Where do I go to get a driver’s license? How can I study for the test?

• How do I look up a name in a telephone book? Use a ZIP code directory?

What questions might English learners have about the communities in which they now live? With what other communities can/should the curriculum connect them? What other questions should they ask?

People

Almost any search for information in the community begins with the people who live there. Who are the experts? Whom do I know? Whom can I contact? English learners, like all students, have access to experts in their homes and communities. They may have significant information to contribute when groups are identifying community experts. Business and shop owners, factory and farm workers, people who have traveled, residents in senior care facilities, bus drivers, librarians, longshoremen, students, builders, jewelers, waiters—what kinds of information can these people provide? What do they know? What materials, tools, and information sources do they use?

How can we best access information that people can provide? English learners may have important understandings and insights about the appropriate conventions, protocols, language, and style for approaching various community members. All students will need to learn how to interview in order to access these valuable information sources within their communities.

The skills involved in interviewing build on those considered in the previous section on developing questions. Students will need to plan before they interview. What do they want to know? What questions will they ask? Are there questions they should not ask? What language will they use? Should they interview in bilingual teams? Will they need a translator? Should they call to make an appointment? Should they write first? Can they use electronic communication? How will they find the phone number or address? How will they record the information from the interview?

When seeking information from people in the community, English–language learners may have access to rich sources of oral history. Prepared to use their
primary language or a combination of languages, students can interview people whose lives and experiences reveal life in other times or other places. Equipped with tape recorders and cameras (if these are appropriate in the cultural context), they can capture the raw material for rich, personalized documentaries and first person accounts. They have the opportunity to use people as primary sources.

Students learn local history, learn oral history, develop research skills, and make a contribution to the community when they serve as official historians. Working in small groups, students can tape oral history interviews, write up the information, collect artifacts, and present their projects to the school library, local library, or museum. Students develop a more personal connection with people in the community through these activities and increase their understanding of history, historical research, and continuity and change. They gain a sense of belonging and a sense of their personal place in the evolving community. Their work is validated when it becomes a part of a permanent collection of historical research and data. (With History-Social Science for All, California Department of Education, 1992, p. 60)

Newspapers

Newspapers, found in both homes and libraries, are a community resource. In addition to recording circumstances and events, they reflect the perspectives, cultures, and languages of the community to which they are targeted. Students can use a variety of newspapers to gather and analyze information and recognize differing points of view. English learners have access to newspapers that can add interesting and valuable information and perspectives.

Students also can contribute to newspapers. Letters to the editor are a vehicle for using information to express a point of view, persuade, or merely inform the community. Special features, like the “Voices” pages in the Los Angeles Times, may offer an opportunity for English learners to tell their story. Students can report on their community-based studies in local neighborhood newspapers. Finally, there is the school newspaper as both a source for gathering information and a medium for presenting information.

Because newspapers and magazines are available in several languages, they may be more appropriate for some students than are other printed materials. In addition to stories and articles, political cartoons may be used to encourage analysis and critical thinking. . . . Students may wish [to explore] how the media influences the public. Students can then compare the accounts of news events in various newspapers and news magazines printed in English to those printed in other languages to identify the points of view or biases presented in each. . . . What they read in the newspaper can be compared with what they hear and see on
television and hear on radio news broadcasts. . . . Students may respond
more positively to analyzing data from a newspaper or news broadcast
than to reading a textbook. They may come to a better understanding of
bias in the reporting of facts when they have two concrete examples, in
accessible newspaper formats, to compare and contrast. By encouraging
students to read newspapers, teachers may open doors to students’
interest in current affairs and the community, improve their abilities to
judge information related to a problem and draw conclusions, and
enhance their interest in reading. (With History-Social Science for All,
California Department of Education, 1992, pp. 50-51)

Photos, Art, and Artifacts: Observation and Analysis

Visuals speak a universal language. They appeal because they communicate so
much so easily – and they are personal. Even a photograph tells a story that is
influenced by the intention and skill of the photographer. The relevance and
utility of visual resources for English learners are obvious. These students may
have photographs that can be used as sources of information about the history of
their families, the areas in which they grew up, the clothing, ceremonies, and
foods of their culture, special events, historic places, or other aspects of their
lives. Through their contacts in the community, English learners may have access
to agencies, clubs, businesses, museums or newspapers with collections of
photos that are rich with information. Local photographers, both professional
and amateur, may take pleasure in sharing their photos as potential learning
resources. Students can also use photography as a means to collect information
for further analysis or comparison and to present information to others.

Artworks are another visual source of information independent of written or
spoken language. English learners may have useful pieces of art in often
overlooked sources, such as postcards, magazines, books, or paintings brought
from another country. Students will need to learn how to read visual clues. What
does the background of a photo or painting reveal? What is missing from the
picture? How do the unseen elements reveal the artist’s or photographer’s point
of view? When students collaborate on unlocking meaning from pictures, English learners may be able to add missing pieces to the information clues.

An artifact is defined as “a simple object showing human workmanship.”
Household items, tools, clothing, jewelry, toys—things people use in daily life
have information to reveal about the people who make and use them.

Students can learn to observe carefully and thoughtfully and to read the bits and
pieces of stories artifacts have to tell. English learners can join teachers and other
students to search their community and beyond for sources of artifacts. Both
teachers and students will value things they would otherwise overlook when
they consider their potential as artifacts. Artifacts, selected and organized by
students as "culture clue kits," can help English learners reveal information about their lives and gather information about the lives of others.

Inevitably, as English learners work together with classmates to gather, interpret, organize and display photographs, works of art, and artifacts of all kinds, they also discover, reveal, and reflect their sense of community.

Libraries and Community Centers

Many public libraries offer information resources in the primary languages of the community. They also offer information in audiovisual and technology-based formats that may be more accessible than text for English learners. Bilingual librarians help students to locate, evaluate, and use all of the library resources in whichever languages and formats are most appropriate. School library media teachers can work closely with the public librarians to introduce all of their students to the rich resources of the public libraries in their neighborhoods.

Community centers and places of worship also can provide information in a variety of languages and representing many viewpoints. English learners can be reassured that their teachers will value these resources for their contribution to the "funds of knowledge" and for the diversity that they may bring to the topic or question being studied.

Making Resource Connections from Students' Homes and Community to the School

After her personal research into the homes and community of her students, Hilda Angiulo, a classroom teacher, developed a curricular unit that utilized at least seven different sources of funds of knowledge that she had discovered. (Moll et al, Community Knowledge and Classroom Practice: Combining Resources for Literacy Instruction, Arizona University College of Education, 1990, pp. 84-85)

1. The students' own knowledge: The first step in the module activities was for the students to discuss and present what they knew about the topic and to visit the library to search for written sources that would help them elaborate their knowledge.

2. The students' parents and relatives: The first visitor to the classroom was one of the students' parents . . . and in subsequent activities the parents became a regular source of information and assistance with the academic tasks.
3. Other students' parents or relatives: The teacher also invited parents of students not in her class, thus extending beyond her classroom the immediate network of knowledge available to her and to the students.

4. Teacher's own network: In extending the module, the teacher used her own social network as a resource of knowledge, inviting relatives and friends to participate in the lessons.

5. School staff and teachers: The teacher also used the expertise of others in the school, including teachers and other staff.

6. Community members without school-age children: The teacher invited other members of the surrounding community who were not necessarily part of the children's or her immediate social network.

7. University faculty and students: This group includes the lab staff and other university personnel.

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Chart from Luis Moll et al, *Community Knowledge and Classroom Practice: Combining Resources for Literacy Instruction*, Arizona University College of Education, 1990, p. 84 (ERIC: ED 341968)
The Library Media Center: Access to Resources for All Learners

"The mission of the library media center is to ensure that students and teachers are effective users of ideas and information." This is the stated mission found in Information Power, the national guidelines for school library media programs. English learners have the potential to become "effective users of ideas and information" in two or more languages. The library media center can be the focal point for helping English learners to develop this potential.

Information power requires information literacy and both depend on access to information. The staff and program of the library media center should be committed to providing information access to all. Both physical access and intellectual access are essential. What are the access issues for English learners?

Physical access to library resources for all students depends on many factors. But beyond being sure that the doors are open, the lights are on, and the materials are on the shelves, there are access issues that are especially pertinent to the English learner.

All students must first of all understand the purpose, resources, and organization of a library. In many countries schools do not have library media centers, nor are public libraries as accessible in all countries as they are in the United States. Many traditional library resources may be unknown to students from those countries. Encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, the library catalog – all need to be introduced and explained in each student’s primary language. The students need to understand that all of these resources are organized for their use, that many may be borrowed for use in their classroom or at home, and – most important – that the library media center staff is friendly and helpful.

Other issues relate to library media center organization and cataloging. Are the resources in all languages cataloged and shelved in ways that will guide students to access them easily? Can resources in languages other than English be visibly identified? Are resources in all languages assigned classification numbers that reflect the subject of their content rather than the language in which they are written? For example, all nonfiction books about California history should have the same Dewey classification number whether they are in English, Filipino, or Spanish. If all resources are shelved in order by classification number rather than by language, then all resources on the same subject will be together on the shelf. Any student looking for books on a specific subject will find all the books on that subject, regardless of the language in which the book is written. Students must also be able to access resources through searching appropriate subject headings, in English and other languages, used in the library catalog, whether it is online or on cards.

Students’ full intellectual access to resources is in many ways even more important than physical access. To provide full intellectual access to learning
resources for English learners requires the cooperation of library media teachers, classroom teachers, and bilingual specialists. They must determine the reading and interest levels, language abilities, and the preferred or most appropriate learning modalities for their students. Library media teachers, in collaboration with all instructional staff, then are responsible for selecting those learning resources best suited to student needs.

Today's library media center can offer a rich and varied collection of curriculum-related resources. There are books of all types—fiction, nonfiction, reference—magazines, and other print resources. Most library media centers also have current technology and media-based resources, such as videos, computer software, CD-ROM programs and connections to the Internet. In addition, the collection of the library media center should provide a wide variety of quality resources in the primary languages of all students.

But perhaps the key access issue relates to students' awareness of and ability to use the vast array of information sources that are available both within and beyond the library media center. The library media center is the focal point for developing information literacy. The library media staff is responsible for providing leadership in this area and must also direct students to the world of resources beyond the library media center that they must know about if they are to achieve information power.

The library media center staff can serve as map makers and tour guides to the information highway and the equally important side streets. From the public library to the university campus to the historical society to the Internet, today's library media programs should provide all students with richer, deeper understanding and appreciation of information resources and the satisfaction of participating with teachers, parents, and others in a learning community.
Resources in Primary Languages

The library media center is the one place in the school where resources are available to meet the learning needs of every student. It is essential, therefore, that books, media, and technology resources in students' primary languages should be reflected throughout the collection of the library media center.

Collection mapping is a way of analyzing the resources in the library media center to assess their correlation with curriculum and with students' language needs. The process involves identifying the percentage of students who need access to resources in each of the languages spoken at the school (e.g., English, Spanish, Chinese) and calculating the percentage of library resources available in each of those languages. The closer the match that exists between students and resources as to language, curricular content, and interest levels, the better will be the capacity of the library media collection to meet student needs. Learning resources in all languages should also meet the criteria of excellence established for all materials in the library media center's collection.

Regardless of the language of the text, the content, concepts, reading and use levels, and illustrations must all be appropriate. Fortunately, there are good evaluation sources for primary language print and technology resources (see chapter 7).

When culturally diverse learning resources, and especially those in languages other than English are being cataloged standard library cataloging tools, such as a thesaurus, may need to be supplemented by locally created lists. Students searching the library catalog for terms used in their textbooks and by their teachers should find the terms without difficulty. Names of authors and historical figures from their countries should be listed in the format and spelling with which students are most familiar.

Teachers and bilingual specialists can assist in the development of the necessary supplemental lists of subject terms. They can also identify commonly used English terms that could be confusing to English learners, perhaps suggesting a replacement or an additional term that students would find more appropriate.

Learning resources in non-English languages can have subject terms and titles in the catalog in the original language and in English. When a book is available in two or more languages and is cataloged in each language, students easily can access the book in the language with which they are most comfortable.

The information needs of English learners should guide our decisions as we catalog all learning resources, especially those in other languages. Access to the collection is provided by the arrangement of materials in the library media center and by the entries in the library catalog. We are responsible for ensuring that both are designed to serve the needs of English learners.
The Reference Collection

Although almost all resources in the library media collection are potential sources of information, the print and electronic reference tools provide concentrated subject matter organized for information access. We use most other materials in their entirety (e.g., read the whole book, view the entire video), but typically use reference sources to look up specific information. Alphabetical arrangement, indexes, and electronic search functions all help us to locate the exact information we need. Usually, reference materials in a library collection are reserved with limited circulation so that they are readily available in the library for use at any time.

For English learners as for all students, full access to reference resources depends on their knowing the nature and scope of the contents: Is it a comprehensive encyclopedia or an animal encyclopedia? Are the biographies those of people living today or only of people from the past? Students must also know how the content is organized: Can you type in a key word and click? Can you look up terms in an index? Do you find an article by using alphabetical guide words at the top of the page? These access features generally apply to reference tools in all languages. Students who develop location skills for using reference sources in one language will be able to transfer this knowledge to resources in their second language.

It is important to have reference sources in students' primary languages to make content most accessible to them. If available, basic reference tools such as encyclopedias and dictionaries in all languages spoken by students at the school should be included in the library reference collection. Such reference books are often at the beginning of the path of information seeking.

Another feature of many references that makes them more accessible to English learners is their visual display of content and concepts. Photographs, diagrams, maps and charts can provide information that transcends many language barriers. Even young children can be guided to use these features of reference books and electronic reference tools to meet some of their needs for information.

Maps, globes, and atlases are unique reference sources that can be used with minimal dependence on language. Electronic atlases allow students to explore the world with simple icons that require few verbal instructions. The activities on the following pages involve students in exploration and constructing meaning with maps.

New electronic reference tools are especially attractive to many English learners. They seem to enjoy the adult feeling of working at a computer. The newer programs have search strategies that are icon-based rather than menu-driven and so are less language dependent. Audio support allows a student to hear a word pronounced by clicking on an icon. Illustrations and full-motion video clips bring
subjects to life in ways not possible with the printed page. Many electronic reference tools include dictionaries that are available as a special feature to define unfamiliar words that the student highlights; they also may pronounce the word. Students enjoy exploring electronic encyclopedias and other reference tools in collaborative groups at the computer and developing vocabulary as they share their discoveries. All of these features support the English learners on their path to information literacy.
## MAPS TELL A STORY

Understanding geography helps us to interpret our history. If you can read and draw maps, you can better tell the story of history.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you are reading a map, you will probably look for the following information.</th>
<th>Create a map for your portfolio. You might include...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Locate the title  
   - Some map titles include a date.  
  2. Study the key or legend.  
  3. Check the distance scale.  
  4. Use the grid to find absolute location.  
     (Latitude/Longitude degrees)  
  5. Other | 1. A title  
  2. A legend (key)  
  3. A distance scale  
  5. Directional notations.  
  6. Physical features.  
  7. Political boundaries. |

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*Information Literate in Any Language* • November 1995 • page 68
Maps Provide Guideposts
Assessment Activities

Pre-Assessment Activities:

- Brainstorm
- Quick Write/Quick Draw (See example.)
- K (as part of K-W-L)
- Use realia or kinesthetics to show geographical understandings
- Teacher Observation/Anecdotal Records
- Other...

Quick-draw a sample map.

Include places, landforms, regions, political boundaries, cultural and social interactions, wildlife, flora...

Label in your primary language unless directed to do so in English only.

Change writing instrument to different color.

Process-Assessment Activities:

!With a partner or in a cooperative group add to your information. If you think the information is incorrect, don’t include it. If you are unsure, you may add the note with a ? Use other tools such as atlases, postcards and calendars, images from CDs.
.. to add to your knowledge bank. Continue to add to this map or the class/group map throughout this unit. Debriefing may occur at any point. The teacher and students should determine the criteria for further evaluation. Such as title, legend, directional notations, relevant material, number of notations (if important!!!)

! Group project (ideas from Grade 7 history-social science course models, California Department of Education)

Groups are charged with the following tasks:

Group 1 draws outline of map onto butcher paper using overhead projector. Researches physical landforms, pains them on the map and devises a key.

Group 2 researches and selects natural plans and animals to depict on the map with group designed icons.

Group 3 researches important historical cities and political boundaries.

Group 4...lists and locates major cultural features.

Group 5/6...types of trade, transportation, crops...

Appropriate keys and insets are added by each group.
Note appropriate research strategies with students. Use *From Library Skills to Information Literacy* to create guidelines for this study. Be sure to encourage and model use of a variety of atlases; include frame for bibliographic notes. Be sure these are included in rubric for evaluation!! Remind students that as “historians” the process of discovery and the notes about their “diggings” are critical!!

**Post-Assessment Activities:**

- Product (Photo of Product)
- Place in portfolio.
- Use as rough draft for product.
- Use as cliff notes for exam.
- Discard.
- Other.

Developed by Joyce Roth
Literature as a Source of Information

Because much of literature is fiction, we often overlook its potential to provide information. Many great literary works are nonfiction (e.g., biography, first-person accounts of historic events and travels, and documentaries of diverse cultures around the world). But all literature, both fiction and nonfiction, can help the reader put isolated information into context and develop new insights about information gathered from other sources. Students who read a biography or a work of historical fiction may find and comprehend information with increased understanding and a greater sense of its relevance to their own lives. It is obvious that these characteristics can apply to literature in any language.

Translations of English literature into a student's primary language as well as translations from the literature of other languages into English can provide common content for all students. Literature written in another language can be immediately accessible to the student who is literate in that language and may often have the added benefit of providing the perspectives of other cultures.

Traditional literature or folklore is generally recognized as conveying the values, customs and characteristics of cultural groups. Folklore (i.e., stories passed from one generation to another as part of an oral tradition) is, therefore, another source of information. English learners can contribute stories from their cultures and learn from the stories of others.

Picture books, illustrated books, and silent films provide opportunities to glean information that goes beyond text. Learning to read an illustration or photograph is an important information skill.

Literature also provides models for writing. Genre works like biographies, first-person narratives, alphabet books, and the like, demonstrate creative ways to communicate or present information.

Young English learners can be introduced to literature through storytelling. Older students can also enjoy the oral tradition in addition to being introduced to good literature in books. This introduction can be in their primary language or in English or both depending on their level of language development.

Because literature is a source of information that affects our understanding of others and helps to shape and influence our attitudes, we must select literature that reflects the cultural diversity of both the student body and the larger society. Junko Yokota's article titled "Issues in Selecting Multicultural Children's Literature," identifies important criteria:

- Cultural accuracy, both of detail and of larger issues
- Rich in cultural details
- Authentic dialogue and relationships
- In-depth treatment of cultural issues
Inclusion of members of a 'minority group' for a purpose
(Language Arts, March 1993, pp. 159-160.)

The best of the world’s literature can provide both information and inspiration for English learners. Presenting literature in both English and the students’ primary languages can help them to broaden their information base and enrich their vocabularies as they develop a lifelong appreciation of literature. Authors can inspire students in any language.

Well-Known Authors Plan to Visit

Ever heard of Robin Krupp, Erica Silverman or Lael Little? Their names may not be familiar, but their colorful books -- "The Moon and You," "Big Pumpkin" and "Blue Sky" -- to name a few -- have been read by thousands of grade-schoolers.

These are three of the 18 well-known children's book authors who will visit Westminster schools Tuesday, March 1, during the district's fifth "Author Festival." Sponsored each spring by WSD, the Westminster Public Library and the Friends of the Westminster Public Library, the Festival gives children a chance to meet the people behind some of their favorite books.

The aim, says District Librarian Sue Crosby, is to instill in children a love for reading. Through assemblies and classroom visits, the authors talk with students about how they come up with ideas, how they write their stories and how they became interested in books.

"By the time they're finished, our kids are convinced they want to become authors," Mrs. Crosby says laughing.

Famosos Autores Visitarán las Escuelas

¿Ha oído hablar sobre Robin Krupp, Erica Silverman o Lael Little? Probablemente no sean familiares para ustedes, pero sus libros, entre ellos -- "The Moon and You," "Big Pumpkin" y "Blue Sky" -- han sido adorados por miles de estudiantes.

Estos son tres, entre los 18 famosos autores de libros de niños que visitarán las escuelas de Westminster el martes, 1 de marzo, durante el quinto "Festival de Autores." Cada primavera el Distrito Escolar de Westminster, la Biblioteca Públlica y Los Amigos de la Biblioteca Pública de Westminster patrocinan este Festival, el cual le brinda a los niños la oportunidad de conocer a las personas que escriben sus libros favoritos.

La intención, según la Bibliotecaria Sue Crosby, es infundir en los niños el amor a la lectura. Los autores hablarán con los estudiantes sobre cómo les vino las ideas, cómo escriben los cuentos y qué les motivó a escribir cuentos para niños.

"Para el tiempo en que ellos terminan sus charlas, muchos de nuestros niños querrán convencerlo de que ellos también quieren ser..."
Technology Tools and Resources

Technology. Does the term invoke images of computer banks, satellite dishes, cables, wires? Beyond the technical terms, the hardware, and the starry-eyed glitz, technology provides new and powerful ways to access, evaluate, and use information. Many of these ways are rich in visual and audio support for the English learner and provide avenues to information that are less text-dependent than books. However, although many students have television sets, VCRs, radios, and CD players in their homes and may also have computers and CD-ROM drives, students' access to those technologies is not universal. Technology resources housed in or circulated from the library media center can extend access to all learners.

Current research explores the effects of technology and learning and makes connections for English learners. In an article titled "Educational Technology Enhances the LEP Classroom," Matthew Soska quotes from some interesting research findings:

- **Multisensory delivery.** Research indicates that students learn through different modalities, such as audio, visual, or kinesthetic. (Barba and Swassing 1979; Carbo 1988)

- **Increased self-expression and active learning by students.** New technologies provide stimulating environments in which students become active learners [with] a "higher degree of social awareness and self-confidence; they [were] more independent and [had] more positive attitudes about learning and themselves; they [were] able to experiment and problem solve with greater ease. . . ." (Apple Computer, Inc., 1991)

- **Cooperative skills.** Technology provides many opportunities for students to work cooperatively. Research supports the use of group interactions to increase instructional effectiveness and efficiency, as well as positive social interactions. (Johnson, Johnson and Stanne 1986; Schlechter 1990)

- **Communication skills.** Communications skills can be enhanced by utilizing technology in small groups and through the use of telecommunications. (Steinberg, 1992)

- **Multicultural education.** Technology can promote cultural diversity and understanding by linking students from across the country and around the world. (Salomon, 1991)

Soska concludes with the summary observation that "increasing student interest and motivation is a constant challenge for educators. Technology can make
learning exciting and relevant and lead students to spend more time on tasks.”
(CABE Newsletter, November/December 1994, p. 6)

What are some of the technologies that can be used to enhance learning and promote information literacy for English learners? What is available in the primary languages spoken by our students and what can be adapted to meet their needs?

Video technologies

*Video, ITV, television, and videodisc* – are variations of a popular technology found in both schools and homes. Clara Amador Watson, in an article titled “Instructional Video and English Learners,” discusses the advantages of using those media. The characteristics and applications she cites have obvious implications for our consideration of information literacy for English learners:

The instructional potential of video use is characterized by the immediate communicative power of images and visual data regardless of students’ primary language. Furthermore, students are immersed in authentic, real-life contexts representative of different countries and cultures across the world where ideas and concepts can be explored in a non-sequential, nonlinear manner.

The use of video in the classroom is intended to encourage and promote the acquisition of (1). conceptual understanding; (2). English-language proficiency and (3). critical thinking power for all students. Conceptual understanding occurs when students establish personal, valid, and enduring connections between what they know and what they are about to know. . . . Video technologies have the capacity to present and generate multiple representations of a given concept, thus eliciting different types of responses by multilingual and multicultural students. Video images, ideas and concepts presented through authentic language, expose students to natural language use in context-embedded situations that may be very familiar to students’ own life experiences.

English-language development takes place when students are invited to predict, analyze and respond to video presentations by making use of their level of English proficiency and building a sense of engagement and ownership in such a learning experience.

Finally, critical thinking skills may be developed when the use of video allows students to generate divergent and/or alternative explanations for a given idea, event, or opinion being discussed. Given the endless possibilities of people and places portrayed by video technologies, the
formulation of simulations and role play scenarios can also be added to the repertoire of thinking-oriented activities and projects. Teachers and students need to reinvent their roles as active and critical viewers so that video viewing becomes a rich foundation for language development and critical thinking power. (Getting the Picture, Los Angeles County Office of Education/RETAC, 1994, pp. 3:1-3:2)

In addition to using commercially produced videos, creating their own video presentations can be a powerful learning experience for students. A camcorder can be used for interviews, oral histories, and so on, as students script their own reports, produce and videotape a historical drama/play, or develop a documentary on some neighborhood issue. All of these activities can be completed in English as well as in other languages. All should involve the students in planning and researching the project before it is taped. These activities encourage language development, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills. They also promote information literacy for English learners.

Current technology makes it possible to develop closed captioning for videos in any language. It also is possible to develop a separate soundtrack in a student's primary language by creating a cassette tape to use instead of the original sound.

Students have access to television in their homes and many of the programs offer opportunities to develop information literacy. Classroom discussions can help them learn to analyze news with teams of students monitoring the news as reported on local channels, and comparing the viewpoints of different commentators and networks. English learners can contribute valuable information by viewing and commenting on news programs in their primary languages. When the same news is reported quite differently, a search for the truth can lead students to explore a variety of information sources.

Telecommunications

The use of a computer, modem, and telephone lines to access an entire world of information is providing exciting opportunities to all students. English learners may be intrigued by Internet access to library catalogs and other resources in their native lands. They can use email to communicate with students who speak their primary language in other American schools and in other countries. They can also use E-mail for developing their skill in English language communication. The interest and excitement surrounding telecommunications helps students who master its use to build their sense of self worth at the same time that they are improving language skills and developing new expertise in information retrieval.

Dennis Sayers has used telecommunications as the transmission mode for a multilingual project for student-to-student interaction. The Orillas: Long-Distance
Team Teaching project connects students from various countries as they share information about their classrooms and communicate in many languages. (NABE News, November 1, 1993, pp. 13, 32-33)

Computer-Interactive Technology Resources

The California Software Clearinghouse has identified five categories of computer software, CD-ROM, and computer-interactive videodisc programs that effectively support instruction for English learners:

1. Programs in languages other than English, with the exception of programs designed specifically for foreign language instruction

2. Programs in any language that elicit discussion, critical thinking, collaborative learning, and oral language development across the curriculum

3. Programs in any language that use sound, visuals, graphics or other features that help learners to extract meaning from the text

4. English-language programs with features that allow the teacher or the student to adapt the presentation and/or content of the material in ways that respect the user’s language acquisition stage

5. Presentation/authoring/translation/tool programs that enable students to navigate across media and curriculum, thus empowering them to be producers of their own learning in any language (Subject-Matter Technology Resources for Limited-English-Proficient Students, California Software Clearinghouse, 1995)

Using the above criteria, project teams of the California Software Clearinghouse and the California Instructional Video Clearinghouse currently have recommended 233 computer software, CD-ROM, and computer-interactive videodisc programs for use with English learners. Programs in non-English languages are included only when they meet the same high standards of excellence set for all technology resources recommended by the California Software Clearinghouse.

As publishers respond to an increasing demand by educators, Spanish-language versions of a number of popular programs have appeared on the market and many computer-interactive videodisc and CD-ROM programs have both English and Spanish-language soundtracks. Also, software publishers increasingly are adding sound, graphics, animation, digitized video, and other multimodal features to make the software adaptable for English learners.
New multimedia technologies allow students to create and enhance reports using visuals from videodisc, video, camcorder, or television. Sound tracks can be developed in any language and bilingual presentations can be recorded. Sharing the planning, development, and presentation of such a multimedia program provides excellent opportunities for language development at the same time students are expanding their information literacy skills.

Word processing, one of the most important uses of technology, should be available to all English learners. Computers and keyboards can support most of the languages spoken in our schools today. Many word processors have built-in spell checkers to support student writing; some have dictionaries and grammar checkers. A few offer bilingual dictionaries that let the student toggle between English and the primary language. Students can use word processors and desktop publishing programs to complete assignments, reports, class newspapers, and a variety of other writing projects. They can create books in their primary languages to place in the library media center and for their classmates or younger children to read. When the computers are on a network, students can share their writing or create compositions in cooperative groups. Word processing facilitates and professionalizes students’ use of information and their presentation.

Databases and spreadsheets can help students learn to organize information they have gathered or created. A variety of graphs can be created with these tools to display the information for reports, bulletin boards, or other presentation of the information.

Students see technology being used in all of the professions and businesses in their world. It is essential that they have access to technology in their classrooms and library media centers – they are empowered by knowing that they, too, can control and use the newest technologies. For all students, information literacy for the twenty-first century must include the ability to locate, evaluate, and use information in whatever new format it appears.
Welcoming Parents and Students in the Library Media Center

Parents can contribute to the English learner's success in all aspects of school life, including the student's development of information literacy. It is important that parents be invited to visit the library media center and to feel welcome and comfortable there.

The library media teacher, in cooperation with the bilingual staff, may wish to write letters to the parents in their primary languages. This is an opportunity to explain the services and program of the library media center and how the library media teacher is working with English learners. Some of the parents may not be familiar with the organization of a school library media center or with the concept of checking out learning resources for home use. A flyer describing these as well as other library services and student responsibilities can be included with the letter.

Students working on oral history projects may enjoy inviting their parents or other family members to visit the library media center to hear their reports, view their displays, or otherwise participate in school activities as appropriate. Some parents may volunteer to help with one or more aspects of these activities.

Parents can also share the folklore, songs, and customs of their native lands. They may enjoy telling stories in their primary language, perhaps with a bilingual aide to translate the stories into English for classmates to enjoy as they are told. A storytelling festival, sponsored by the library media center, with stories from all the countries represented in the school, could be an exciting program. Students could draw maps to show the locale of the stories, look for similar folklore in the library catalog, and find resources to help them to illustrate the stories. These activities involve parents and students together as teachers and learners.

In many schools, the staff has used personalized and extended approaches for encouraging and meeting the needs of English language learners in the library media center. Susan Lewin, a library media teacher in the William Hart Union High School District, describes the plan that she and an ESL teacher devised to welcome students and provide service:

The ESL teacher sends two students a period to work as student service in the library. He tries to match a non-English speaker or very limited English speaker with a student with some English skills. In general they perform all the tasks that English-fluent students are expected to do: filing magazines, shelving books, running errands . . . . In addition, I work with small groups of service and other ESL students to acquaint them with computer use, bibliographic citations, etc.

I think that these two approaches serve to remove the fear (the word gets around!) and open the door to students' experimenting. Computers are
fun and informative; the book stacks are no longer “greek,” but they offer a variety of materials that are accessible and interesting (even if they are in English!). These students become regular library users. (And I see the other students helping them through Carmen Sandiego, Encarta, Rescue Scientists, etc.)

Combining the learning resources they need with a warm personal welcome can help English learners recognize the library media center as an important factor in their personal quest for information literacy. Below and on the following pages are samples of library messages that welcome and inform parents in several languages.

Dear Parents,
We are looking forward to seeing you at
Family Reading Night
Wednesday, May 31st
7:00 Pm
Multipurpose Room

Queridos Padres,
Deseamos verlos en nuestra
“Noche de Lectura con la Familia”
Miércoles, 31 de mayo
7:00 p.m.
En la Cafetería de la Escuela

Thưa phụ huynh,
CHỨNG TÔI MONG GẶP MẶT PHỤ HUYNH ĐẾN THAM DỰ ĐÊM GIA ĐÌNH ĐỌC SÁCH THỨ TƯ, 31 THÁNG 5 LỨC 7:00 GIỜ TỘI TẠI PHÒNG HỘI

Announcements for Family Reading Night on pages 79-82 are from Ray M. Schmitt Elementary School, Westminster School District.
Estimados Padres:

"A los niños que se les lee, se convierten en lectores." Sabemos que esto es cierto y queremos compartir con ustedes la experiencia magnífica que pueden ustedes disfrutar al leerles a sus hijos.

La Escuela Schmit ofrecerá la primera "Noche de Lectura con la Familia." (Grados K-3), el miércoles 31 de mayo, de 6:30 a 7:30 P.M. Aprovechamos esta oportunidad para invitarlo, a usted y a un niño en edad escolar, a disfrutar esta noche con nosotros. Tendremos traductores disponibles en español y vietnamita.

Ustedes gozarán la experiencia de leer con nosotros, y a la vez podrán llevarse a sus casas una lista de libros recomendados y su propio libro con el cual se pueden quedar y compartir con sus hijos.

¿Se unirán a nosotros para disfrutar juntos esta noche y a la vez compartir ideas en cuanto a cómo hacer de la lectura con sus hijos una parte importante en la educación de su hijo(a)?

Por favor, complete la parte de abajo de esta hoja y regrésenla si están interesados en asistir.

Sinceramente,

Noche de Lectura con la Familia
Mayo 31, 1996
6:30 p.m. - 7:30 p.m.
Cafetería de la Escuela

Mrs. Clark
Mrs. Saait
Mrs. Vandergriff
Mrs. Ford
Mrs. Courtemarche

Dear Parents,

"Children who are read to become readers." We know this to be true and we want to share with you the wonderful experience that can be yours by reading to your children.

On Wednesday evening, May 31, Schmitt School will be offering its first "Family Reading Night," (Grades K-3), and we are inviting you and one school-age child to come and join us. Translators will be available in Spanish and Vietnamese.

You will experience the joy of reading stories with us, and will take home with you a list of recommended books, ideas, plus your own book to keep and read to your children.

Won't you join us for an enjoyable evening together and let us give you some ideas on how to make reading aloud to your children an important part of your child's education?

Please complete and return the survey below if you are interested in attending.

Sincerely,

Mrs. Clark
Mrs. Saait
Mrs. Vandergriff
Mrs. Ford
Mrs. Courtemarche

Family Reading Night
May 31, 1995
6:30-7:30 P.M.
MP Room
Sugerencias Sobre la Lectura con sus Hijos

1. Pueden leerle a su hijo(a) el mismo libro una y otra vez.

2. Hagan de la lectura una actividad diaria. Fijen un tiempo determinado, para leer, todos días.

3. Una vez su hijo(a) se familiarice con el cuento, hagan una pausa y dejen que é/ella complete las palabras que siguen.

4. Anímen a su hijo(a) a que vuelva a contarles el cuento en sus propias palabras, sin interrumpirlo(a).

5. Dejen que su hijo(a) explore el libro desde el principio hasta el fin.

6. Hablen sobre el autor del libro y el ilustrador que hizo los dibujos.

7. Mantengan los libros en un sitio especial para que estén a la vista cuando los quieran leer.

8. Visiten la biblioteca con regularidad para obtener otros materiales de lectura.

9. Regalen libros en cumpleaños y ocasiones especiales. Pidanle a sus familiares que hagan lo mismo.


Hints for Reading to Your Child

1. The same book can be read over and over to your child.

2. Make reading a regular activity. Set aside a few minutes each day at a regular time.

3. Once your child knows the story, pause and let them fill in the next words.

4. Encourage your child to re-tell the story in their own words without interruption.

5. Let you child explore the book, cover to cover.

6. Talk about the author who wrote the book and the illustrator who drew the pictures.

7. Keep your books in a special place so that they are ready to read.

8. Visit the library regularly for more wonderful reading material.


10. Make reading aloud to your child a fun, enjoyable time for both of you.
1. What did you enjoy most about this evening?

2. Is there anything you would like to see added for next year?

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**EVALUACIÓN**

1. ¿Qué fue lo que más le gustó de esta noche?

2. ¿Hay algo más que le gustaría incluir el próximo año?
School and public libraries can be an enormous help to students who want to be successful. Here are some ideas of how you can help:

* Remember the Public Library -- If the home is too busy or noisy, the public library offers a place for quiet study, together with resources to help your child succeed.

* Remember the School Library -- Ask your child if he or she is familiar with the library, and ask them to tell you about it, what they like and what could be better. Visit the school and ask for a tour of the library and an explanation of how it is used by students and teachers.

* Let the librarians know when materials found at the library have been helpful, or if there is something you could not find.

* Look for books that you enjoy reading, and share your interests with your child.

* Explore the library together and see if you can discover things you didn’t know before.

* Mark due dates on your family calendar and help your child understand the privilege of borrowing and following rules.

* Remember to encourage your child to have activities and interests outside of school and libraries. “All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.”

* Ask the Librarian if there is a Friends of the Library group that you can join, or a school Booster club that supports the Library. Pitch in with donations of time, money, advice, and encouragement to keep the libraries open, vital and current.

* Don’t be afraid to ask for help. Everyone in the library is there because there is something they don’t know. Ask for help and pretty soon you’ll be the expert, helping others.

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Richard K. Moore, Librarian, Bolsa Grande High School

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Trường học và những thư viện công cộng rất hữu ích cho những học sinh muốn thành công. Saú đầu là một vài ý kiến làm sao Bạn có thể giúp con em mình.

* Hãy nhớ đến Thư viện Cổng Công -- Nếu ở nhà quá ồn hay bàn rộn, thư viện công cộng là một nơi yên tĩnh để học, cũng với biết bao nguồn trợ giúp con Bạn thành công.

* Hãy nhớ đến Thư viện ở Trường -- Hãy hỏi con Bạn xem em ấy có quen thuộc với thư viện ở trường hay không, và bảo em ấy nói chuyện với người thư viện để, những gì em thích ở thư viện này và những gì có thể khiến em thất vọng. Hãy đến thư viện và yêu cầu được trở thành thư viện và xin được giải thích các học sinh và các giáo viên sử dụng thư viện ra sao.

* Hãy cho quan thư viện biết khi nào những tài liệu được tìm thấy ở thư viện thì có ích nhất, hãy có thư viện không thể thiếu hay không.

* Hãy tìm những cuốn sách mà Bạn thích đọc và chia sẻ thích của mình với con Bạn.

* Hãy cùng khám phá thư viện với con em Bạn và xem có những thứ mà Bạn đã không biết trước khi.

* Hãy ghi ngày phải trả sách trên lịch của gia đình và giúp con em Bạn hiểu được rằng muốn mượn sách thật sự là một việc cần và chứng ta cần phải theo đúng những quy luật của thư viện.

* Hãy nhớ khuyến khích con em Bạn có những hoạt động và những sở thích bên ngoài thư viện và bên ngoài lớp học trường học. Phương ngôn có câu: “Chàng học sẽ ngu; không biết chơi đa sẽ dân”.

* Hãy hỏi quan thư viện xem có Nhóm Bạn Thư Viện hay câu lạc bộ yêu thư viện mà Bạn có thể tham gia hay không. Hãy tham gia bằng cách chờ thời gian, tiến bộ hay lại khuyến và sự khích lệ để thư viện có thể luôn mở cửa, sống động và cập nhật.


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Richard K. Moore, Quản thư thư viện, Bolsa Grande High School
Chapter 6
SCENARIOS

In this chapter, we move from issues to scenarios that provide snapshots of students engaged in accessing, evaluating, and using information. Each of the scenarios includes English learners and suggests resources and strategies that will accommodate their individual learning needs and tap into the wealth of experiences, languages, and resources they bring to the classroom. In the analysis section following each scenario, we have identified elements that might be used by others in developing instructional plans.

NOTE: Readers are asked to send ideas and activities they have developed that might be used for additional scenarios to Zhita Rea at:

Los Angeles County Office of Education
9300 Imperial Highway
Downey, CA 90242
Phone 310/922-6877
FAX 310/940-1699
Brainstorming Resources

Scenario

Sandy Schuckett, a library media teacher in a school with a majority of English learners, wanted to explore what sources of information her students were aware of or were already using. She and the classroom teacher generated a list of questions that they thought would engage students' thinking. Students worked in collaborative groups to brainstorm where they would go to find answers to the questions. Sandy's comments:

Before we dealt with the "engaging questions," I asked them generally where they would go to find information. Their answers were books, dictionary, library, encyclopedia, newspaper, TV, phone, radio, friends, teachers, police, family, scientists, doctors.... I thought that was a good range of sources before we even got into any kind of discussion about finding information. Once they got their questions, it was interesting to note that even though this was a relatively advanced ESL class, they did all of the discussion with their partners in Spanish! However, they wrote out their lists in English. I decided to repeat the same activity again with an intermediate level ESL class, totally in Spanish—sort of a "control group." I followed exactly the same procedure as with the previous class.

Following are some of the questions or situations Sandy posed and students' responses about where they would go to find information.

• You have written some stories, and your ESL teacher tells you that they are very good and that you should try to get them published.

  Bookstore, library, teacher, publisher's office. (I thought this was pretty astute! I've had adults ask me this same question without even a clue of the answer!)

• You are going to babysit for your neighbor. It is the first time you will actually be paid for doing this, and you want to do the best possible job.


• Someone in your best friend's family has a terrible disease, and she is worried that it might be hereditary and that she might get it too.

  Hospital, doctor, enfermero/enfermera (nurse), clinica, gente grande (grownups), farmaceutico (pharmacy), curandera (folk healer).
• You and your friends want to start a drama club and put on a play.

Periodico (newspaper), revistas (magazines), television, libros, radio, adultos, amigos, familiares (relatives), maestro (teacher), barrios (neighborhood) actores (actors) – recording studio, friends, phone book, radio, TV, newspaper, family, a person who studies drama.

Analysis

Curriculum framework objectives:

This is obviously core to every curriculum!

Strategies:

Relate the question to previous knowledge

• Brainstorming: Sandy used brainstorming as a strategy to help tap students’ prior knowledge

Identify potential resources

• Collaborative groups: As students discussed these questions in small groups, using whatever language was most comfortable for them, they were able to support and learn from each other. Their lists of information resources thus reflected their combined knowledge.

Learning resources:

• Funds of knowledge: students’ responses reflected their knowledge of information resources from their homes and communities.

• In follow-up activities Sandy will ensure that the students know about the following resources and how they might be used to answer these kinds of questions (see “Next Steps”): print and CD-ROM encyclopedias in English and other languages; telephone directory, including yellow pages; local directories from the Chamber of Commerce, business associations, community service organizations, and so forth.

Next steps:

Identify potential resources.

• Help students analyze the information sources they have identified and predict which ones are likely to provide the most useful information.
Develop general strategies to organize the search.

- Many students simply listed library as an information source. To help them to be more specific, have them put their knowledge to the test with a "treasure hunt" activity in the library. They will bring back to their groups examples of the kinds of resources they think will help them to answer their questions.

- Begin by reviewing the library resources that students have mentioned. Be sure all students are familiar with these resources and how to access them. If comparable resources in students' primary languages are available, explore the differences and similarities in ways to access information in each.

Identify key words, concepts, and names

- Identify one key word or phrase in each question that can be used to search for information in these resources.

Select the most useful resources for further exploration and formulate specific strategies for using them

- Select one or two questions and try to answer them by using five or six different types of resources (e.g., encyclopedia, dictionary, telephone white pages, telephone yellow pages, newspapers). Help students to verbalize why certain types of questions are answered in specific types of resources.

- Explore with the students the different ways to access information. They can look for a key word/phrase in alphabetical order in the body of the book (phone book), in the index or in the body of the book (encyclopedia), in the table of contents (directory), etc.

Acknowledgment

Sandy Schuckett, Library Media Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District
History in the Making

Scenario

The following scenario was discovered in a recent article in the Los Angeles Times. Because it is so consistent with the focus of this publication, it is reprinted here with only minor deletions.

Their goal was to make history lessons on the “westward expansion” more interesting for fifth- and sixth-graders at Mt. Washington Elementary by helping them create a museum exhibit about the pioneers in their own families. But what staffers at the Autry Museum of Western Heritage found at their adopted school was far from the 1890s covered-wagon-journey—westward-across-the-horizonless-prairie that dominates many textbooks. Instead, the students, their parents, or grandparents had walked north across the border from Central America, they had taken planes east from Asia, they had driven cars west from New York. Among the 34 students, only four grandparents were born in the United States. The resulting exhibit, titled “A Gallery of Our Own,” contains artifacts as only a 10-year-old would define them.

After spending the past two semesters learning how to plan, gather, edit, and mount an exhibit, the 34 fifth- and sixth-graders got their first glimpse of the finished product and pronounced it “Cool!” “This became the driving force in our classroom,” said teacher Liz Smith, as she watched her class mill excitedly around the display cases. “Everything [we study] plugged into the museum exhibit: history, math, English . . . everything.” The project began with weekly lessons at either the museum or the classroom, team-taught by Smith and museum educators Noelle Toal and Tanya Stivers. In initial lessons, Mt. Washington students were taught how to interview their family members, producing oral histories that would help them determine which aspects of their history to highlight in the exhibit. At first, Smith said, the students professed to have nothing tangible to exhibit. “They said, ‘We don’t have any of that stuff.’” But gradually keepsakes forgotten on closet shelves or stored high out of reach were taken down and took on added significance.

Raul Sanchez, 11, found that an off-white knit blanket stacked with other linens had been carried on his parents’ backs as they traveled by foot from El Salvador to Los Angeles. It had been passed down by the women in his family for generations, beginning with his great-grandmother. Mitzie Leiva, 12, learned that her great-great-great-grandfather was president of Guatemala in the mid-1800s. Mitzie wrote to her grandmother in Guatemala and asked her to send a history book that referenced Justo Rufino Barrios—a book she then included in the museum display. Daryl Hand, 11, had always wondered why the mere mention of his uncle set off an emotional reaction in his family. He found out that Pvt. 1st Class Erwin Gilbert Powell, Jr. was killed in the Vietnam War at age...
19. Daryl’s exhibit: war medals and photos of a smiling uncle and his uncle’s machine gun.

For students, the lessons prompted thoughts not only about their history, but also about their legacy. In the case labeled “Kids collect, too!” they displayed some of the things they hope to hand down. In 10-year-old Leland Estrada’s case, those future artifacts include cardboard discs known as Pogs, which he characterized as “almost extinct” in the exhibit catalog, even though they were popular as recently as last summer. “Most people had Pogs . . . but they don’t play them anymore,” Leland said, “I want to pass them on to my grandchildren.”

Analysis

This special project was remarkably extensive in scope and depth and involved the collaboration of classroom teacher, museum educators, curators, and many others. Only a few of the actual strategies and learning resources are described here.

Curriculum framework objectives:

History-Social Science: Westward Expansion and Linking Past to Present
  • Historical literacy: Develop a keen sense of historical empathy
  • Cultural literacy: Develop a multicultural perspective that respects the dignity and worth of all people
  • Geographic literacy: Develop an awareness of place
  • Themes: Urbanization, Immigration and Migrations, (Cultural) Borrowing and Sharing, Legislation, Reading and Writing (Literacy)

Strategies:

Formulate questions for the search.

• Students prepared for interviews by developing questions to ask. Students who were interviewing non-English speakers had to translate or prepare questions in the appropriate language.

Determine how to use/present/communicate information; organize information for intended use.

During this project students used information at various stages for different purposes. For example:

• Peer teaching: They met with students from Castelar Street School for a peer teaching experience. Here they worked in small informal groups in which Mt. Washington students presented and discussed information they had learned about artifacts from the museum. Mt. Washington students were anxious
about their roles as teachers. Noelle and Liz helped them to prepare. Included as guidelines for peer teachers: "Don't just tell everything you know. ASK! ASK! ASK! Give one hint at a time." And "Someone may know more than you do. That's OK. Never pretend you know something when you don't." (These guidelines are based on concepts that are central to information literacy.)

- Written presentation: Students learned how to prepare descriptions of their artifacts to be used on labels for the museum display. The resulting labels convey a sense of the students, their families, and their cultures. In an effort to accommodate some family members and others who would come to view the display, the group prepared some of the labels in both English and Spanish.

- Display of information: The most dramatic use of information was the museum display. Students learned how to group their artifacts in categories that give added meaning (e.g., they viewed and studied other displays in the museum). They met with curators. And they added their own new elements. For example, after reading the book, Talking Walls, students were inspired to create "graffiti walls" for the museum display. They offered the walls as a way for visitors to respond to what they had seen.

*Search for relevant information in resources. Analyze information retrieved; determine its relevance; interpret, infer, and synthesize. Relate to previous knowledge.*

- Artifact analysis: Learning from artifacts was a new and fascinating skill that students developed. With the guidance of museum educators, they studied the artifacts in the museum, using all their senses to gather information. They had to interpret and infer what the artifact might convey about the people or places from which it came.

One of the activities that resulted in important insights for was the collecting of personal artifacts. As students searched for items of historical value, they realized that many things they had previously overlooked or thought of as insignificant were of great value. They started with people and households they knew well and delved to discover information they had never imagined.

*Evaluate results; evaluate the process.*

- Journals: Students used journals to document their discoveries and their feelings about what they were learning.

- Literary interpretation, field trip: Both the classroom teacher and museum educators introduced literary works as sources of information. Students listened to and discussed the book, Night of the Red Moon, an account of a massacre of Chinese in early Los Angeles. They visited the site of the old
Pueblo de Los Angeles. They entered the buildings that had been described in the book and were able to experience the setting and to imagine the impact of the circumstances for the people who had lived there.

Learning resources:

- Artifacts and photographs
- Replicas
- Literature:

Next steps:

Use information; evaluate results; evaluate process.

- The museum display was the dramatic culmination of this project. The teacher and students will build on these experiences and use information and new skills as they move on to other areas of study. Evaluation of the process occurred throughout and will also continue as students reflect on their experiences.

Acknowledgment


Liz Smith, Teacher, Mt. Washington Elementary School, Los Angeles USD

Noelle Toal and Tanya Stivers, Museum Educators, Autry Museum of Western Heritage
Sharing Languages and Organizing Data

Scenario

In Mr. Martinez's fifth-grade class, most of the students are native Spanish speakers who are learning English as the other students in the class are learning Spanish. The class meets once a week for conversation with a high school Spanish class, an opportunity for mutual help and enjoyment in acquiring each other's languages.

As part of their science curriculum, the fifth-grade students have been engaged in some interesting activities designed to help them to expand their understanding of the concept of data analysis and appreciate its value in the scientific process. Since many of the students have pets, they decide to create a simple database with as much information as they can gather about their pets. In this way they will be able to sort and display their data. They also decide to invite their high school partners to participate in this project. The high school students can contribute data about their own pets, thereby providing more data to use and compare.

First, students work in small groups to decide what fields should be included in the pet database. Obvious fields are student's name, pet's name, animal species, age of pet, height and weight of pet, color, food the pet eats, housing (cage, box, kennel and so forth), and distinguishing characteristics, such as number of legs or the sounds the pet makes. The field names are in both English and Spanish, with data being entered in either language, or both.

During a meeting with their high school partners, students begin to ask additional questions about their pets. What breed of animal is it? In what country did this breed of animal originate? Has this pet ever played a role as a helper to humans? This activity sets the pattern for gathering and using data. Students comb their communities for information and interview their families and friends. It becomes a challenge to see who can find a new and fascinating fact about his or her pet.

The library media teacher works with the classroom teacher to guide students through their research process. Students identify key words and create a web for each category of pets. In a jigsaw students begin to explore specific library resources for information on pets and then report what they found in English and Spanish encyclopedias, nonfiction books, magazines, CD-ROM and online sources, and so forth. Many bring information from both English- and Spanish-language newspapers and magazines from home.

As new information is located, it becomes necessary to revise some database field names and to add several new fields. Students begin to experiment with sorting
the data on various fields in the database. They also discover the many different report formats they can print.

Analysis

Curriculum framework objectives:

Science: Scientific thinking processes of categorizing, relating.
Mathematics: Collection and organization of data
Foreign language: Communication-based instruction

Strategies:

*Explore/identify the need for information.*

*Graphic organizers.* Library media teacher guided students to brainstorm key words and create webs to identify and organize both known and needed information. As the webs emerged, the students began to get ideas about where they might find more information.

*Locate and explore resources.*

- *Cooperative learning.* Using a jigsaw strategy, both fifth graders and high school students explored resources and shared information. Students who were native Spanish speakers worked together with high school students in using Spanish language resources.

- *Interviews.* Students talk to family members, gather photos, and take photos to provide more information about pets.

*Organize and analyze information.*

- *Database.* The database was the organizer. As the database emerged, students were able to analyze and then interpret information that they had gathered.

Learning resources:

- Telephone directory
- Experts: veterinarians, pet owners
- General encyclopedias in English and Spanish
- Animal encyclopedia
- Newspaper articles
- Newspaper index
- School and public libraries
• The Bilingual Writing Center Spanish-English word-processing software from The Learning Company software (see below).

Next steps:

Determine how to use/present/communicate information.

• As a follow-up to this project, students in both the fifth-grade and high school classes will use the computer word-processing program, The Bilingual Writing Center, to prepare a Spanish-English bilingual book based on the information they have gathered. Copies of the book will be added to the library collections at each school.

Locate and explore previously identified resources.

• Students had noticed that in both school and public libraries, books about animals and pets were located in two different, widely separated nonfiction areas (592-599 and 636-639). They had also found books in English and other languages shelved together in the school library but shelved in separate sections according to language in the public library. Mr. Martinez asked the library media teacher to plan an activity that would help students gain some insights about library classification and organization.

Acknowledgment

The Telematon Project
RESOURCES FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

References from Text

Books


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Journal Articles

Casey, Beth and Edwin Tucker. "Problem-Centered Classrooms; Creating Lifelong Learners," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1994, pp. 139-143.


NOTE: Readers are asked to send additional resource listings to Zhita Rea at:
Los Angeles County Office of Education
9300 Imperial highway
Downey, California 90242
Phone 310/922-6877
FAX 310/940-1699

Resources for Educators

Books


Books in Spanish for Children and Young Adults; An Annotated Guide: Series VI; Libros Infantiles y Juveniles en Espanol; Una Guia Anotada: Serie No. V. Isabel Schon. Scarecrow Press, 1995 (also Series II-V).


Focus on Books. Los Angeles Unified School District
A series of annotated bibliographies that includes the following as separate publications:
Caldecott/Newbery Award Winning Books in English, Spanish, and Chinese, 1992

Educating for Diversity, 1995

For Our Multilingual Population, 1995

Multicultural, 1995

Native Americans, 1995

Other Languages, 1995

Spanish, 1995

Teaching Content-Based ESL, 1993


Journals

BEOutreach; A News Magazine from the Bilingual Education Office (California Department of Education)

The Booklist (American Library Association; bibliographies of books and other resources in non-English languages; columns by Isabel Schon)

CABE Newsletter (California Association for Bilingual Education)

Forum (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education)

Hispanic Books Bulletin (Hispanic Books Distributors)

Interracial Books for Children Bulletin (Council on Interracial Books for Children)

Lector (Floricanto Press)

MultiCultural Review (Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.)
Teaching Tolerance (Southern Poverty Law Center)

Journal Articles


CD-ROM

Libros en Venta en Hispanoamerica y España Plus (Spanish Books in Print Plus)

Online Database

NCBE CIS – National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education Computerized Information System: (1) NCBE Bibliographic Database; (2) NCBE Resources Database; (3) NCBE Publishers Database; (4) NCBE Newsline. For information call 800-752-1860 or 202-467-0873/0874.

Associations/Agencies

Asian American Curriculum Projects (AACP)
P.O. Box 1587
San Mateo, CA 94401
800-874-2242 FAX: 415-343-9408

Bilingual Education Office
Department of Education
P.O. Box 944272
Sacramento, CA 94244-2720
916-657-3837 FAX: 916-657-2928

California Association for Bilingual Education
320 West G Street, Suite 203
Ontario, CA 91762
909-984-6201

California Software Clearinghouse
ED1-17, California State University, Long Beach
Long Beach, CA 90840-1402
310-985-1765
California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
Contact national office for current address/phone number (see below)

Los Angeles Unified School District
Library Services, Third Street Annex
1320 West Third Street
Los Angeles, CA 90017
213-625-6486

National Association for Bilingual Education
Union Center Plaza
1220 L Street NW, Suite 605
Washington, DC 20005
202-898-1829

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1118 22nd Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037
800-321-NCBE FAX: 202-429-9766

Southeast Asia Community Resource Center
2460 Cordova Lane
Rancho Cordova, CA 95670
916-635-6815
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
Alexander, VA 22314-2751
703-836-0774

Distributors

Alegria Hispana Publications
P.O. Box 3765
Ventura, CA 93006
805-642-3969

Alegria Hispana creates and publishes Spanish language and bilingual books and offers educational and training workshops for teachers and people in the business, health and law professions.

China Books & Periodicals, Inc.
2929 Twenty-Fourth Street
San Francisco, CA 94110
415-282-2994

Catalog has literature, non-fiction, and magazines about China and Chinese culture, Chinese music on CD and tape, and software for learning and writing Chinese.
Claudia's Caravan  
P.O. Box 1582  
Alameda, CA 94501-0174  
510-521-7871  
Store and mail order company specializes in multicultural and multilingual books, audiotapes and games.

Hispanic Books Distributors, Inc.  
1665 West Grant Road  
Tucson, AZ 85745  
Catalog of Spanish language books for grades K-9.

Laredo Publishing Company, Inc.  
22930 Lockness Avenue  
Torrance, CA 90501  
310-517-1830  
Spanish language books for children include science, math, history and reference materials.

Lectorum Publications, Inc.  
137 West 14th Street  
New York, NY 10011  
Textbooks and supplementary materials for bilingual programs K-8.

Los Andes Publishing Inc.  
8303 E. Alondra Blvd.  
Paramount, CA 90723  
310-220-2841 FAX: 310-531-0799  
Spanish literature for children and young adults; audiovisual materials and computer software.

Mariuccia Iaconi Book Imports  
970 Tennessee Street  
San Francisco, CA 94107  
415-821-1216  
Catalog and store with books for children and young adults in many languages. Offers a series of Spanish language history and social science books for grades K-8 that follow California History–Social Science Framework thematic units.

Multicultural Distributing Center, a division of Greenshower Corporation  
800 North Grand Avenue  
Covina, CA 91724  
800-537-4357  
Store and catalog offer Asian multicultural and multilingual books and other materials.
New Faces of Liberty
San Francisco Study Center
1095 Market Street, Suite 602
San Francisco, CA 94103
Publications focus on Laos, Vietnam and Cambodia. Folk tales from Southeast Asian countries are published in illustrated two-language story books.

Reading and Computing Place
14752 Beach Blvd., #200
La Mirada, CA 90638
(714) 523-1020
Catalog of Spanish-language books and computer software for K-12.

Santillana Publishing Company
901 West Walnut Street
Compton, CA 90220
800-245-8584
Publishes Spanish translations of classic children's books and a series of illustrated natural history, science, and discovery books in Spanish.

Scholastic Spanish/English Book Club
Scholastic Book Clubs, Inc.
Box 3745
Jefferson City, MO 65102-9838
K-6 paperbacks, big books, and magazines in Spanish.

Shen's Books and Supplies
821 South First Avenue
Arcadia, CA 91006
818-445-6958
Catalog of quality and educational Asian and Asian-American materials; many of the books are bilingual or in languages other than English.
Reference Tools and Magazines for School Library Media Centers

Reference Books

*Atlas Histórico (Historical Atlas).* Editorial Marin/Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1997 (5)


*Basico Sopena, Diccionario Ilustrado (Sopena Basic Illustrated Dictionary).* Ramon Sopena, 1981. (1)

*Biblioteca Juvenil de Geografia (Children's Geography Library).* Parramón Ediciones (Barcelona), 1991. (4)

*Cassell's Colloquial Spanish.* Macmillan, 1984. (1)


*Diccionario Basico Ilustrado de Castilian (Basic Illustrated Castilian Dictionary).* Norma, 1985. (1)

*Diccionario Castellon Ilustrado (Illustrated Castilian Dictionary).* Fernandez, 1988 (1)

*Diccionario Enciclopedico (Encyclopedic Dictionary).* Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1988. (1,2,5)

*Diccionario Esencial de Sinónimos y Antónimos (Essential Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms).* Bibliograf, 1992. (5)

*Dual Sopena Ilustrado (Sopena Illustrated Encyclopedic Dictionary).* Ramon Sopena, 1989. (1)

*Enciclopédia Basica Visual (Basic Visual Encyclopedia).* Oceano, 1989. (1)

*Enciclopédia de los Ninos (Children's Encyclopedia).* Editorial Everest, 1990. (1,5)

*Enciclopédia de Oro (Little Golden Encyclopedia).* Novaro, 1984. (2)

*Enciclopédia Hispánica (Hispanic Encyclopedia).* Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1990. (5)

*Enciclopédia Ilustrada Cumbre (The Cumbre Illustrated Encyclopedia).* Hachette Latinoamerica, 1993. (3,5)
Enciclopédia Ilustrada de los Ninos (Children's Illustrated Encyclopedia). Los Andes Publishing, Inc. (1)


Enciclopédia Larousse Juvenil (Larousse Youth Encyclopedia). Larousse/Argos Vergara, 1986. (1)


Guinness Libro de los Records (Guinness Book of World Records). Jordan, 1990. (1, 5)


La Prehistoria (Prehistory). Marthe Marliac, Everest, 1982. (1)


CD-ROMs

Chicano Database, Chicano Studies Library at U.C. Berkeley, Update Publications, semiannual. Includes Chicano Periodical Index, Chicano Index, Arte Chicano, Chicano Anthology Index, Latinos and AIDS Database.

DISCovering Multicultural America. Gale Research Inc., 1995. Statistical data; 2,000 biographical sketches; associations and organizations, museums, libraries, institutions; texts of historical documents and major speeches; selected periodical articles.

Encarta. Microsoft, 1994. (2) Students can access a series of phrases in each of 61 languages: Yes, No, Numbers (1-10), Thank you, Goodbye, and My name is . There is also a proverb in each language.

Ethnic NewsWatch, SoftLine Information, quarterly. (4) Full-text access to 90 newspapers and magazines from ethnic and minority presses: Africal-American, Arab and Middle Eastern, Asian-American, European and Eastern European, Hispanic/Latino/Chicano, Jewish, and Native American.

Noticias Español, NewsBank, quarterly. (2) Spanish-language newswire service.

Magazines and Newspapers

Chicos (Spanish-language magazine with lots of graphics and photos and easy vocabulary)

La Opinion (Spanish-language newspaper)

(1) Recommended by Los Angeles Unified School District
(2) Recommended by California Software Clearinghouse
(3) Recommended in Kister's Best Encyclopedias, 1994
(4) Recommended in School Library Journal
(5) Recommended in Booklist
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