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COMPARISON OF QUIET AND OUTGOING
LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS
THROUGH JOURNAL WRITING

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Bilingual/Cross-Cultural

by
Paula Riley Garcia
March 1994


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Approved by:


Ken Johns, First Reader

2-9-94
Date


Jose S. Hernandez, Second Reader

ABSTRACT

Comparison of Quiet and Outgoing Language Minority Students Through Journal Writing

Paula Riley Garcia

Statement of the Problem

Outgoing students have the advantage over quiet students in oral class participation. Our problem was to determine whether this relationship was the same in the medium of writing by studying differences in quantity and quality of writing between a quiet and an outgoing group.

Procedure

An initial assessment determined differences between the two groups. Then ten samples were taken periodically from student dialogue journals, using Spanish as the common primary language. These were then analyzed to see their progress both qualitatively, through a continuum of writing levels, and quantitatively, through a word frequency count.

Results

Qualitatively, all students in both groups reached the highest level in the writing continuum. Quantitatively, however, the quiet students generally produced higher word frequencies.

Conclusions and Implications

The quiet students exceeded the outgoing students in quantity of writing. Their anxiety levels seemed lowered, thus enabling them to communicate on an equal level with outgoing students. This underlines the importance of allowing students to write in their native language, if that is what lowers their affective filter. It also suggests that written communication should be given more importance for the quiet students.

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Most of all, I wish to express to all of my family how much I appreciate their patience, help and support while I worked on this project.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The area of concern in this study is the relationship of anxiety levels, as demonstrated by quiet and outgoing language minority students, to language acquisition through writing. This is relevant to education in general because modern education is focusing more on the individual and how different learning styles affect progress.

This is particularly true in bilingual education where affect, or feelings and emotions, is such an important element of language acquisition. Bilingual education is a pedagogical approach which utilizes the students' primary language as a medium of instruction while they are learning English as a second language (ESL). The term ESL refers to a foreign language instructional approach in which the goals, methods, and assessments of student progress are based on students, whose mother tongue is a language other than English, being able to communicate and/or produce grammatically correct utterances in the target language, English. The particular variation of affect that this study deals with

is the affective filter, which is a construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, anxiety, and other affective variables on language acquisition.

"Learners with high motivation and self-confidence and with low anxiety have low filters and so obtain and let in plenty of input. Learners with low motivation, little self-confidence, and high anxiety have high filters and so receive little input and allow even less in" (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 315).

Extracting anxiety level as the prime element in this study, it will be the measure of student behavior. Those students exhibiting more peer interaction, teacher-student interaction, and class participation demonstrate a low-anxiety level in oral communication. In contrast, those students demonstrating a high-anxiety level exhibit less oral communication in peer interaction, teacher-student interaction, and class participation. The students exhibiting low-anxiety levels concerning oral communication can be more generally designated as "outgoing." Those students exhibiting high-anxiety levels in oral communication are the "quiet" students. For practical reasons, the study shall use the more

common terms of "outgoing" when referring to low-anxiety level students and "quiet" when referring to high-anxiety level students.

The author proposes to determine to what degree the specific traits of outgoing and quiet students help or hinder them in writing in a bilingual classroom setting. The specific kind of writing involved is the dialogue journal, which will be explained in chapter 2.

Background to the Study

The preparation for this study includes a discussion of the following:

1. The particular personality traits of quiet and outgoing students.
2. The affective filter and its effect on children with the above-mentioned traits, especially when two languages or more are involved.
3. Writing as it offers a medium in which to study and compare students; in particular, dialogue journals written in the primary language, given a bilingual setting.

Now the problem of the interrelationship of the above-mentioned elements is explored and research questions are posed.

Context for the Study

Two very important elements of modern education theory are the affective filter and journal writing. The affective filter determines how effective input may be. According to Dulay and Burt (1974), as the anxiety level is raised or lowered by environmental factors, an inverse amount of input reaches the student. That is, the anxiety level is raised when students are subjected to embarrassment, humiliation, and other negative responses when trying to learn a second language, resulting in less learning taking place. Given the contrasting personality types, the affective filter may make a great difference in how much input the student is receiving and how much the teacher perceives they are receiving. "One aspect of self-confidence is a child's perception of how others view his first language. If the child feels that, in learning English, his native language is somehow inferior or not as good, it is bound to affect his self-esteem" (Johns, 1988, p. 27). In any classroom, a goal is to

integrate all students equally into the learning process. Diverse personality types is a variable that all teachers must deal with. In a monolingual classroom, the teachers must work with these individual differences and how their affective filters diminish or increase learning. Bloom and his colleagues (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964) define different levels of affectivity, and among them are three aspects of communication relevant to this study: (1) receiving, or giving attention to a stimulus; (2) responding, or committing to a situation or person; and (3) valuing, or placing worth. "Bloom's taxonomy was devised for educational purposes, but it has been widely used for a general understanding of the affective domain in human behavior. The fundamental notions of receiving, responding, and valuing are universal" (Brown, 1987, p. 353).

If this is true in a monolingual classroom, the effect is even more noticeable in a bilingual or multilingual classroom because in second language learning, the element of affective filter plays an even stronger role. Students not only have to deal with their own personality type but with the additional historical, social, linguistic, and cultural factors that could

particularly influence their level of risk-taking. Rubin (1975) says that prominent characteristics of good language learners are a willingness to guess or impulsiveness. "These factors suggest that risk-taking is an important characteristic of successful learning of a second language. Learners have to be able to 'gamble' a bit, to be willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being wrong" (Brown, 1987, p. 359).

Students who are outgoing immediately attract the teacher's attention because of frequent oral communication. They are the ones to raise their hands or call out in response to a question. In peer interaction, they are more likely to be talkative, attracting the teachers' attention either positively for their cooperative learning or negatively for their class disruptions.

On the other hand, quiet students have to be drawn out. They may be eager to participate, but outwardly do not attract attention to themselves by calling out answers or speaking without prior permission. Quiet students may also be shy about interacting with their peers, so teachers may ignore them because they cause few

disruptions.

In the arena of oral communication, outgoing students definitely have the advantage because teachers get feedback, assess, and provide mediated action continuously. Wertsch (1991) pulls together different theories to propose the sociocultural approach of mediated action, in which human action employs "mediational means such as tools and language, and that these mediational means shape the action in essential ways" (p. 12).

The quiet students, however, are a special challenge for teachers when it comes to oral communication. Teachers must be careful not to ignore the quiet students, but, rather, they must draw them out in a way so as not to raise their affective filter. In addition, teachers' responses must be evaluated as to whether the children are giving a complete answer to a question or if they actually know more than what they care to reveal.

This problem involves the difficulty of knowing how much information students are actually absorbing. Krashen (1981) calls comprehensible input that which contains a message in a meaningful context. Krashen says that speech will come when the acquirer feels ready, and

the readiness state arrives at different times for different people. In this context, the challenge of second language learning is twofold: first, input may not be comprehensible in the second language so output will be incomplete; secondly, even if the input was comprehensible, students may not have the vocabulary to express themselves comfortably in a public manner. In the latter case, for instance, limited English proficient (LEP) students are those who may have some knowledge of English, but they do not have a native command of it. These may understand a learning situation through primary language explanation or English instruction employing sheltered techniques such as pictures, realia, or puppets. Their word bank in English, however, may not be extensive enough in which to communicate their thoughts, or at least without fear of suffering ridicule.

The difference in performance between the quiet students and the outgoing group is obvious in oral communication, but writing provides a medium with different ground rules. Writing is initially a private undertaking. It also allows for more response time. These different ground rules might result in a different relationship between the outgoing and quiet students

comparing their responses.

Journal writing is particularly relevant to a larger educational context. Within the new context, interactive learning is a top priority, and journal writing is an excellent example of such learning. As opposed to expository writing, journal writing is a personal form of interacting with different content areas or directly with teachers and peers. It allows for self-expression and a conversation without the stress of oral communication.

With second language learners, this may be a particularly important element. The students will not feel the stress of oral communication as pertaining to being a quiet type plus the stress of making mistakes in the second language.

In summary, anxiety levels have an impact on student learning. The impact is particularly strong on LEP students, for whom oral communication presents the additional obstacles of second language learning. Low-anxiety level students respond to oral classroom challenges with a low affective filter. This low filter allows for more oral communication between teachers and students. High-anxiety level students respond with a higher affective filter to classroom oral challenges.

These quiet students do not communicate as effectively with teachers, so teachers may not be certain as to how effective their communication is with quiet students. Journal writing, in particular, dialogue journals, may provide a low-anxiety level setting in which quiet LEP students have the opportunity to participate on an equal level with outgoing LEP students.

Value of the Project

The value of this project is that it attempts to determine if journal writing may provide a medium that will quantitatively improve performance for a given type of students. If journal writing is shown to be effective with quiet LEP students , it may be used as an alternative to oral communication. If this turned out to be an equal or superior medium of communication for some students, more emphasis and importance could be given to journal writing, both for assessing and for stimulating LEP students.

Pertinent Background Factors

The initial background factor is that some LEP students exhibit a performance level in oral

communication contrary to their performance level in written communication. Some talkative students have to be encouraged to stay on task in writing, and some reluctant speakers are very anxious to show off their journal. The latter are quiet students not only in oral communication in class but when playing with peers.

Both English and Spanish are employed in the classroom. Journals may be written in English or in Spanish for any assignment, and orally both languages are encouraged. For this study, student samples will be in Spanish. As in their oral communication, code-switching is accepted, according to what they feel comfortable with at the moment. Code-switching is the ability to shift between one's native language and English, sometimes in mid-sentence. Valdés (1978) proposes that this is not a corruption of both languages but a social skill, and this study will consider it as such.

The Problem

The problem to be investigated is the comparison of how quiet and outgoing students respond in journal

writing. Outgoing students have the advantage over quiet students in oral class participation. Our question is whether there is this same relationship in written work.

One possibility is that the outgoing group could also surpass the quiet group in journal writing because writing is just another form of communication and expression. Since the outgoing group excels at oral communication, those students may just take this as an equivalent form of communication in which to excel. Their success may be determined by the act of communication rather than the mode of communication.

It could be possible, however, that quiet students could be just as expressive but find oral communication too inhibiting, for personality factors as well as social, cultural, or linguistic barriers. Journal writing may be an area in which they might excel. There could be several reasons involved. Quiet students could excel because the energy not used in speaking is unleashed in writing. Perhaps writing is more their strength, as oral communication is for outgoing students. Writing could also provide a more private moment where performance is not pressured by the possibility of ridicule in front of everyone. Here quiet students may

feel more comfortable taking risks, and those risks could include any one or all of the social, cultural and linguistic areas. Journal writing also allows the students to take their time as well as expand more on personal experiences.

A third possibility is that writing provides a medium where both groups of quiet and outgoing students are on equal footing, so they perform at an equal level. If the only variable is the affective filter in oral communication, then both groups can make an improvement in quality and quantity.

Statement of the Problem

This study will determine and assess the degree of quiet LEP students' progress in written communication compared with outgoing LEP students, using dialogue journals as a medium of instruction. The study will define a high-anxiety group and a low-anxiety group, first in relation to oral classroom participation, then on a standardized anxiety scale. Oral classroom performance will be judged on a case study basis by the author, then reviewed by Dr. Ken Johns. The standardized test is the Child Anxiety Scale Manual (Gillis, 1980),

the results of which will be reviewed by Dr. Randall Hansen. The students' performance in their journals will be compared and contrasted in quantity as well as quality of writing measured by Peregoy and Boyle's "Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies" (1990, p. 12). Finally, this study will deal with determining which mode of communication, oral or written, might be more valid in assessing student comprehension.

Research Questions

- 1) Is there a notable difference in quantity of writing between the groups of quiet and outgoing students?
- 2) Which group progressed quantitatively more levels?
- 3) Qualitatively, how many levels of writing does each individual and each group of quiet and outgoing students progress along the Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies?

Definition of Terms

Throughout this project, specific terms common to bilingual education are regularly used. The following glossary lists these terms and their definitions, and was taken from Schooling and language minority students: A

theoretical framework (California State Department of Education, 1990).

Glossary

Affective Filter: A construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second language acquisition. These variables interact with each and with others factors to raise or lower the affective filter. It is hypothesized that when the filter is "high," the second language acquirer is not able to adequately process "comprehensible input."

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS): Communicative fluency in a language achieved by all normal native speakers.

Bilingual Education Program: An organized curriculum that includes: (1) L1 development, (2) L2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L1 and L2. Bilingual programs are organized so that participating students may attain a level of proficient bilingualism.

Bilingualism: The acquisition and the ability to use two languages, varying in degrees of fluency.

Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP): A construct originally proposed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly related to literacy and academic achievement. Cummins has further refined this notion in terms of "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language.

Comprehensible Second-Language Input: A construct developed to describe understandable and meaningful language directed at L2 acquirers under optimal conditions. Comprehensible L2 input is characterized as language which the L2 acquirer already knows, (i) plus a range of new language, (i+1), which is made comprehensible in formal schooling context by the use of certain planned strategies. These strategies include but are not limited to (a) focus on communicative content rather than language forms; (b) frequent use of concrete contextual referents; (c) lack of restrictions on L1 use by L2 acquirers, especially in the initial stages; (d) careful grouping practices; (e) minimal overt language form correction by teaching staff; and (f) provision of motivational acquisition situations.

Communicative-based ESL: a second language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching

methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to communicate messages in the target language. In communicative-based ESL, the focus is on language function and use and not on language form and usage. Examples of communicative-based ESL instructional approaches include Suggestopedia, Natural Language, and Community Language Learning.

Grammar-based ESL: a second language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to produce grammatically correct utterances in the target language. In grammar-based ESL, the focus is on language form and usage and not on language function and use. Examples of grammar-based ESL instructional approaches include Grammar-Translation, Audiolingualism, and Cognitive Code.

Limited Bilingualism: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain less than native-like proficiency in both L1 and L2. Such individuals invariably acquire Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills in L1 and often demonstrate Basic Interpersonal

Communicative Skills in L2 as well.

Partial Bilingualism: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in one language but achieve less than native-like skills in some or all of these skills areas in the other language.

Proficient Bilingualism: a level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in both L1 and L2.

Language Minority Students: Students with a non-English language background.

Limited English Proficient (LEP) Student: A student who is unable to fluently communicate in English, and is usually unlikely to read and write competently in English.

Primary Language (L1): One's native or first language, also referred to as one's home language.

Transitional Bilingual Education Program: an organized curriculum that includes: (1) L1 development, (2) L2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L1 and L2.

Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

In this study, the focus will be on two important aspects of modern educational theory that are applicable to education in general and at all levels. Due to their nature, however, they are especially relevant to bilingual education. One aspect is the theoretical concept of an affective filter. The second aspect is the practical teaching method of interactive journals. These aspects are different in essence but equal in their intent of integrating the LMS. The affective filter is a psychological explanation of how language input, no matter how theoretically effective, can be inhibited to various degrees by affective variables, such as personality, motivation, social status, or culture. Journal writing is a teaching method which attempts a more interactive, interpersonal approach to communication. In so doing, this method may complement the concept of affective filter by providing a means to lower mental blocks or barriers to second language acquisition.

Affective Filter

There are many elements to second language acquisition (SLA). One of the most important is the sociocultural element of affect. This is not as concrete and measurable as a linguistic element, but it may nevertheless be as important.

The term affect is a class name for feelings, emotion, or mood. Each perceptual experience may have its affective aspects. Experiences impress us as pleasant, unpleasant, or neither. There is also a relationship between the affective and related physical processes. Fear, anger, or joy are accompanied by characteristic physical responses.

These affective aspects play an important role in SLA. Vygotsky (1989) considers affect to be of major importance:

When we approach the problem of the interrelation between thought and language and other aspects of mind, the first question that arises is that of intellect and affect. Their separation as subjects of study is a major weakness of traditional psychology since it makes the thought process

appear as an autonomous flow of "thoughts thinking themselves," segregated from the fullness of life, from the personal needs and interests, the inclinations and impulses, of the thinker. (p. 10)

The personal needs and interests of a second language learner are particularly strong and complex. The students' attitudes toward the second language as well as their fears or insecurity may negatively affect language learners. On the other hand, a feeling of security and a sense of joy in language learning will positively improve their acquisition.

Hypotheses

The affective filter is a psychological explanation of how language input, no matter how theoretically effective, is inhibited by social, cultural, and political factors. There are many models of language acquisition in which affect plays an important part.

Dulay and Burt (1977) suggested the idea of an affective filter. The Affective Filter Hypothesis says that learners who are not in an optimal affective state will have a filter or mental block. This block could

stop them from fully utilizing input to acquire a second language. If they are anxious, defensive, or not motivated, the input will not enter what Dulay and Burt term the language acquisition device. Figure 1 is an illustration of the filter and acquisition device.



Figure 1. The Affective Filter (Dulay & Burt, 1977)

Stevick (1976) says that input may be understood on a superficial level if the affective filter is high, but it will not enter into the language acquisition device at a deeper level. Krashen (1990) analyzes the model by stating that people acquire second language by obtaining comprehensive input and when the affective filters are low enough to allow input.

Krashen (1990) synthesizes the research literature in second language acquisition into five hypotheses:

1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

2. The Natural Order Hypothesis
3. The Monitor Hypothesis
4. The Input Hypothesis
5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

In the Affective Filter Hypothesis, there are three affective variables related to second language acquisition: a) anxiety, b) motivation, and c) self-confidence. Krashen hypothesizes that these affective factors relate more directly to subconscious language acquisition than to conscious learning. He sees a "stronger relationship between these affective variables when communicative-type tests are used (tests that require the use of the acquisition system) and when we test students who have had a chance to acquire the language and not just learn it in foreign language classes" (Krashen, 1990, p. 62).

The three affective variables of anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence determine just how high or low the filter goes. These are the bricks that walls are made of, and these walls students build around themselves supposedly for self-protection end up blocking from them the information they need to free themselves.

1. Anxiety: Stevick (1976) states that the more the students are off the defensive, the more they will learn. The lower the anxiety level, the lower the filter. The lower the filter, the more input becomes comprehensible. This anxiety level could be determined by many circumstances. It could be as broad as cultural or social differences, or as narrow as the relations of the language minority students (LMS) with the teacher and their peers in an immediate classroom situation. The worries of understanding what is culturally appropriate in a given situation could cause the student to focus more on how input is given rather than on the input itself. If the teacher pressures students who are not ready, the anxiety level rises because the students begin to concentrate on the teacher's voice level or peer reaction rather than actual input. Likewise, output is affected if the students are anxious for approval.

2. Motivation: Higher motivation will help students get beyond the affective filter. Two kinds of motivation are defined: instrumental and integrative (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Instrumental motivation is wanting to acquire another language for some practical purpose. The

purpose is usually survival skills needed for a job, paying the bills, handling emergencies, etc. Integrative motivation occurs when the language is acquired in order to feel a closer sense of identity with another group. This is a desire to be accepted by the peer group and be able to share cultural aspects. Teachers can capitalize on this to increase student motivation.

3. Self-concept: Krashen (1981) believes that students who exhibit more self-esteem and self-confidence will do better in second language acquisition. Whereas the anxiety level is a product of external circumstances, self-confidence is an internal, personal anxiety level. The higher the level of self-confidence, the more the students will be risk-takers in language acquisition. The lower the self-confidence, the more internal "noise" in the form of self-deprecation will provide an affective filter. This is a personal variable that may be the most difficult to control.

Krashen (1982) distinguishes between acquisition and learning. He considers acquisition as a subconscious process versus learning as a conscious process. Knowledge that is acquired enters at a deeper level as it passes

through the affective filter.

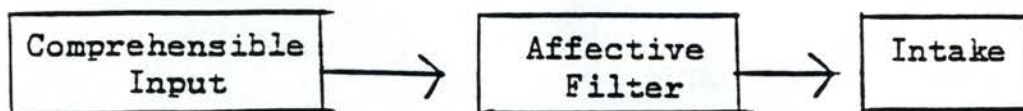


Figure 2. The Acquisition Process (Krashen, 1982)

Krashen and Terrell (1983) include the affective filter in their natural approach method. One of the main principles is that language acquisition activities themselves must be planned so that they will lower the affective filter. If the interest level is high, the students are more likely to be concentrating on the ideas, thus lowering their anxiety level. Also, if the atmosphere is friendly and accepting, the affective filter will present less of an obstacle to language acquisition.

Cummins (1979) develops the affective filter within his Contextual Interaction Theory. This theory clarifies the relationship between certain student factors and

educational treatments. The five principles should be viewed as a whole.

Principle 1. The Linguistic Threshold: For bilingual students, the degree to which proficiencies in both Language 1 (L1), or native language, and Language 2 (L2), or second language are developed is positively associated with academic achievement.

Principle 2. The Dimensions of Language Proficiency: Language proficiency is the ability to use language for both academic and basic communicative tasks.

Principle 3. The Common Underlying Proficiency: For LMS, the development of the primary language skills necessary to complete academic tasks forms the basis for similar proficiency in English.

Principle 4. Second Language Acquisition: Acquisition of basic communicative competency in a second language is a function of comprehensible second language input and a supportive affective environment.

Principle 5. Student Status: The perceived status of students affects the interactions between teachers and students and among the students themselves. In turn, student outcomes are affected.

The fourth principle states that providing students with comprehensible second language input is not sufficient for language acquisition to take place. For optimum acquisition to occur, the raw material of language (comprehensible input) must reach and be processed in the brain's language acquisition device. A number of factors, termed the affective filter, may limit the amount of comprehensible input available for processing and impede or facilitate the students' production of language.

Schumann (1978) developed the Acculturation Model, in which he defines the psychological factors that are affective in nature: (1) language shock (i.e., the learner experiences doubt and possible confusion when using the L2); (2) culture shock (i.e., the learner experiences disorientation, stress, fear, etc. as a result of differences between his or her own culture and that of the target language community); (3) motivation; and (4) ego boundaries.

Hecht, McCann, and Ribeau (1986) examined the role of affective filter in second language acquisition through their research on communication apprehension and English input for their sample group of Vietnamese,

Spanish-speaking, Cambodian, Chinese, and other language minority students. The authors concluded that there was a statistically significant negative relationship between input and communication apprehension. No causal direction could be established, but the authors thought it likely that lowering the affective filter leads to more input and, conversely, more input leads to lowering the affective filter.

Classroom Barriers

There are special barriers in our classroom that can substantially raise or lower the affective filter. Three of these are enumerated by Cazden (1986).

1. Reductionist concepts fragment learning rather than produce authentic communication, resulting in less motivation to learn.
2. Cultural differences may affect anxiety levels, motivation, and self-concept when many texts still used may not be sensitive to the experience of their LMS, which will differ from mainstream curriculums.
3. Inadequate Communication by Adults: Migrant students are particularly affected by frequent changes, thus receive mixed messages from so many different teachers.

Teachers' attitudes too often stereotype the LMS. Through all of this, the students' self-concept and motivation decrease while anxiety levels increase. Then the teachers' attitudes become a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Breaking Down the Barriers

The "reductionist" barrier can be counteracted with interactive/experiential instructional models (Cummins, 1989). Cummins also recommends assessment materials coinciding with these instructional models.

The cultural difference barrier can be attacked by teachers' learning about their students' backgrounds. Then the teachers should integrate that knowledge and expand upon the diversity the students bring. This will enrich the mainstream classroom, while having positive effects on the students' affective filter.

The barrier of inadequate communication is the most difficult to overcome because it involves the teachers in taking inventory of their own attitudes, then changing them. Concretely, the teachers can try to communicate with the parents at their level, be it through translators, siblings, or simply accepting their dialect,

but always trying to reduce the parental affective filter.

The Myth of Bilingual Handicaps

"The image of bilingualism as a negative force in children's development was especially common in the early part of this century when most teachers of language minority children saw bilingualism almost as a disease" (Cummins, 1990, p.20). Test results reflected the image teachers had of bilingual students without considering that the teachers' treatment of the bilingual student could have been the cause rather than the result. The affective filters have to go sky high when the students feel they are perceived as inferior, their homes not culturally acceptable, and their native language as an obstacle. The results are poor output and cultural confusion.

To remedy this, Cummins attacks the problem of the affective filter in a very political form. He states that "required changes involve personal redefinitions of the way classroom teachers interact with the children and communities they serve (Cummins, 1986, p. 18). "Students from 'dominated' groups are 'empowered' or 'disabled' as

a direct result of their interactions with educators in the schools. . . . It becomes evident that power and status relationships between minority and majority groups exert a major influence on school performance" (Cummins, 1986, p. 21).

Whether the strategies to lower the affective filter are mainly pedagogical, social, or political, it is essential that this problem be addressed first. All theories of input depend on how much is actually penetrating the barriers of the affective filter.

Journal Writing

Introduction

Writing has taken on a new meaning in today's classroom. The more traditional classroom used writing as more of a linear exercise, aimed toward answering teachers' questions. Today, we have added dimensions. Smith (1989) describes how recent research in reading and literacy acquisition emphasizes the developmental, learner-centered nature of literacy development. "Writing at any level is a direct and forceful means of

communicating to others, but it also can be a means for personal inquiry and for clarifying one's thoughts" (Danielson, 1988, p. 7).

Cooperative learning brings students together in small groups to work on projects, so writing, in this context, is a group effort. It involves the sharing of ideas, rough drafts, and an ongoing process of editing.

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) allows students to take turns providing the text for charts or student-made books. The writing process today takes an assignment beyond the routine of simply converting a rough draft directly into a polished paper. There are many more stages and much more interaction between students and teachers in the writing process. Very important commonalities to all these, however, are more meaningful contexts for the student and the exchange of ideas.

One of the media providing the more meaningful contexts for students is journal writing. "Dialogue journals are a functional form of writing, much like having a conversation with another person: the student writes an entry and then the teacher writes a response to the content of the student's entry" (Danielson, 1988, p.

7). If the journal writing is interactive, a dialogue between student and teacher, then the writing becomes even more meaningful in its communication. "It is important that children grow in their understanding of the process and conventions of print. This growth, however, should be natural, occurring as a result of using literacy to support the development of personal meaning" (Franklin, 1988, p. 189).

Journal writing for the second language learner is also very important. It provides an area of freedom for the bilingual student to explore and create. "Research in second language acquisition and biliteracy development programs emphasize learner autonomy" (Krashen & Biber, 1988). Dialogue journals allow both the reader and the writer to take risks as they discuss issues relevant to both of them" (Danielson, 1988, p. 7). And an important aspect of this autonomy is the ability to write in primary language if they feel like it, or take risks in the second language without fear of failure or ridicule.

Definition

Writing is the basic method of communication used in this study, and its importance derives from its

similarities and differences with oral language. Writing permits a sharing and exchanging of ideas, problems, beliefs, attitudes, and values. In this aspect, writing serves the same purpose, needs, and functions as oral communication.

Journal writing is one of many interactive, whole language strategies, and it serves a multitude of purposes. Journals can be used for writing practice, which can serve two purposes: (1) encouraging the maximum of communication by allowing creative spelling and grammar, and (2) using the teacher responses as models for improvement. Journals are also reading material, and highly student-oriented because it is by and about them. Journals can also be used for writing in the content areas to ask the students to find what is meaningful to them in the subject. Dialogue journals, in particular, can be used at home between the student and family members to increase parent participation while simultaneously increasing fluency in writing.

Journal Forms

Journal writing may take a variety of forms. It may be done in spiral notebooks or in notebooks made of

writing and drawing paper stapled together. Some may use only lined sheets for writing. Others may use an alternate page system where drawing paper and lined sheets are alternated, so students may draw on one sheet and write on the facing lined sheet. Still others may contain sheets that are blank on the top half and lined on the bottom, allowing students to illustrate and describe a topic all on the same page. Computer journals are yet another option.

In their journals, students will write their impressions according to a given topic or free choice, in a variety of formats. The exercise can be done daily, every other day, or weekly, involving lessons from the entire curriculum as well as personal experience. Since both inventive spelling and mechanics are encouraged, risk-taking should result. It is of utmost importance to respect students' privacy in order to develop trust and communication.

There are different kinds of journals, each with their own purposes. Literature logs are a type of journal in which the students relate their impressions of a particular piece of literature being studied in the curriculum. Brief entries may be made daily, these

entries replacing quizzes and preparing students for longer writings. Math journals are the depository of the students' understanding of how mathematical operations work. These subject journals could be used for any curriculum area. A simple journal form includes students' responses to any theme or free topic suggested by the teacher. This type is a one-way communication, for the teacher does not intervene but simply assesses according to student output. Yet another type is the dialogue or interactive journal. It starts out as a simple journal entry, but the difference is teacher intervention. The teacher steps in to comment and initiate student response; that is, a dialectical process of questions and answers that is interactive. I have chosen dialogue journals as the medium in which to conduct my study because it should evoke the most natural and least stressful communication. The dialogue journal is a popular method for "promoting reading and writing in classrooms organized around a process approach to literacy" (Reyes, 1991, p. 292).

Philosophy

Atwell (1987) believes that through immersion in

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writing with a focus on process rather than product, students show marked improvement in grammar, spelling, sentence structure, vocabulary development, and writing fluency, as well as a sense of audience and voice.

Reyes (1991) found the following:

Dialectical journals are a form of written communication between the student and the teacher about topics that either party wishes to discuss. Dialectical journals are said to be successful because students are free to select their own topics, determining the amount of writing, ask questions, and seek academic or personal help in a nonthreatening, nongraded context. Success with this medium is also attributed to the fact that teachers are able to concentrate on individual needs, validate students' interests, praise their efforts, get to know them better, and focus on meaning. (p. 292)

Journal writing provides a student-centered technique that presents writing developmentally. To do this, Janet Emig (1983) states that we must "put aside a belief that the cognitive psychologist Howard Gruber

calls 'magical thinking.' . . . To believe that children learn because teachers teach and only what teachers explicitly teach is to engage in magical thinking from a developmental point of view" (p. 135).

Psychogenesis of Literacy Development

A dictionary definition of psychogenesis is that it is the "origin and development of the mind." In literacy development, psychogenesis involves the interpretation systems students employ to decipher the elements of language, and journal writing provides an intimate view of the evolution of students' ideas about the construct of a writing system.

Ferreiro (1990) defines several basic points in her studies of psychogenesis of literacy. She states the production activities (i.e., writing) and interpretation activities (i.e., reading) combine to illustrate the "evolution of the system of ideas children build up about the nature of the social object that is the writing system" (p. 13). Children experiment with language and formulate theories about how it works. Then children test these theories, and in so doing they build systems to interpret and assimilate information. These systems

are in a constant state of modification as new information necessitates redefinition. Teborosky (1984) describes it as "una experiencia pedagógica a partir de lo que los niños saben y no a partir de lo que ignoran" (p. 5); that is, a pedagogical experience starting with what the children know and not with what they don't know.

Journal writing that uses creative spelling and grammar allows students to experiment without punity. Smith (1983) proposes that "children naturally try to learn--by testing hypotheses--provided, of course, that they have not been taught that society places a high premium on being right and that it is better to stay quiet than to be wrong" (p. 17).

Emig (1983) believes it is crucial to differentiate between developmental errors and mistakes.

Developmental errors contrast readily with mistakes in that developmental errors forward learning while mistakes impede it. . . . While the making of mistakes marks a retreat into the familiar, the result of fear and anxiety, developmental errors represent a student's venturing out and taking chances. (p. 143)

Ferreiro (1990) believes that the writing process is important because it is easier to understand and proves more concrete access to the students' literacy systems. She distinguishes three main developmentally ordered levels. The first is the distinction between writing and drawing. In both systems, lines are used. In drawing, the lines follow the object's contours while in writing the lines are arbitrary because they don't follow the object's contours and they are linear. The second level is when "a progressive control over the qualitative and quantitative variations leads to the construction of modes of differentiation between pieces of writing" (p. 18). Children now look for different lines to say different things, or more letters to mean more. The third level is the phonetization level where the relation is made between sound patterns and the alphabetical writing system.

Given the fact that my study encompasses two languages, Spanish and English, it might be thought that this would create significant differences in results. Ferreiro's (1990) work on the psychogenesis of literacy, however, shows that even when different languages are compared, "the differences in language did not constitute

a barrier to the application of the basic ideas in a field so language dependent as literacy" (p. 12). Indeed, she states that "similar and often identical difficulties are found in children speaking other languages and trying to learn other orthographies" (p. 13).

Smith (1983) also proposes that literacy is not a linear, sequenced process but an internalization of rules through experience, as follows:

The learning process is identical with that by which infants develop a set of internal rules for producing and comprehending spoken language without the benefit of any formal instruction. And just as no linguist is able to formulate a complete and adequate set of grammatical rules that could be used to program a computer (or a child) to use spoken language, so no theorist has yet achieved anything like an adequate insight into the knowledge the people acquire and use when they become fluent readers. (p. 12)

Analysis

Teborosky (1984) describes the following

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difficulties of interpreting children's texts inspired by drawings. The method used in this study of journals which specifically utilizes drawings about a topic, then students describe the drawings with their own texts. The first difficulty, she says, is the differentiation made between "lo que es el dibujo y lo que se escribe para el dibujo" (p. 8). The teacher must not only ask "what is the drawing" but also "what has been written for the drawing" to see what the child supposes is really written. A second differentiation is between "lo que está escrito y lo que se puede leer a partir de lo escrito" (p. 8); that is, between "what is written and that which can be read from what is written." From one element, a whole phrase may be attributed. This hypothesizing about nouns is part of the comprehension process: "Esta idea, hipótesis del nombre, forma parte del proceso de comprensión sobre el sistema alfabético" (p. 8). The third difficulty is that students don't always interpret what is written in the given order.

Teborosky (1984) uses the following criteria in studying student writings:

- 1) The drawing should have a justification and not merely a decorative function.

- 2) For the children, writing should have a specific mode of representation differing from that of the drawing.
- 3) The drawing is utilized by the students to anticipate the text content, anticipating with certain characteristics, especially nouns.
- 4) The written text is used to confirm the anticipation made about the drawing. (p. 9)

Pedagogical Implications

Ferreiro (1990) believes that "knowledge of the psychological evolution of the writing system by teachers, psychologists, and diagnosticians is invaluable in order to evaluate children's progress and, even more important, to 'see' otherwise unnoticed signs of literacy development" (p. 23). She does not believe, however, that to understand psychogenetic development is a recipe for pedagogical gadgets. Understanding of literacy implies allowing the different stages of literacy level to appear within school settings that are not ruled by behavioristic teaching methods but by "literacy environments" (p. 24). Ferreiro states that the main pedagogical implication is simply "accepting that

everyone in the classroom is able to read and write--each one at his or her own level, including the teacher" (p. 24).

Teborosky (1984) shares this belief about "gadgets," preferring instead to view learning and teaching from the point of view of the process, and not just the results. She states that "tanto el aprendizaje como la enseñanza es considerado desde el punto de vista del proceso, no exclusivamente de sus resultados" (p. 5).

Smith (1983) also believes that the "focus is all wrong; it should be on the child, not on the instructional materials" (p. 23). His one rule is to "respond to what the child is trying to do" (p. 24). And journal writing precisely allows a response to what the child is trying to do.

Journal writing is also an excellent method of evaluating comprehensible input. Krashen (1981) uses this term to explain how the learner acquires an understanding of the message but does not focus on or analyze the form of the input. "For speech to be 'comprehensible input' it must contain a real message, and there must be a need for the message to be communicated" (Johns, 1988, p. 18). When students write

about a topic, they are giving feedback on the extent of the comprehensible input because the real message is restated in their own words, according to their own feelings. Teachers may then use the journals to analyze students' interpretations, reinforce them, and expand them through the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky (1989) describes the zone of proximal development as follows:

Having found that the mental age of two children was, let us say, eight, we gave each of them harder problems than he could manage on his own and provided some slight assistance: the first step in a solution, a leading question, or some other form of help. We discovered that one child could, in cooperation, solve problems designed for twelve-year-olds, while the other could not go beyond problems intended for nine-year-olds. The discrepancy between a child's actual mental age and the level he reaches in solving problems with assistance indicates the zone of his proximal development; in our example, this zone is four for the first child and one for the second. (p. 187)

In this case, teachers provide that first step, leading question or other form of help through dialogues in the journals.

Journal writing can be analyzed for many elements. Language code (L1, L2), topic, codeswitching, sensitivity to audience, writer's voice, spelling, and grammatical structures are just some.

One system of analyzing levels of writing in journals is suggested by Peregoy and Boyle (1990). They identify seven developmental scripting strategies, sequenced along a continuum, beginning with scribble writing and advancing through pseudo-letters, letters, pseudo-words, copied words and phrases, self-generated words, and self-generated phrases. In Peregoy and Boyle's study, it was also clear that the routine of daily writing was essential. The children's writing not only did not progress, but actually regressed during periods of infrequent chances to write.

The above-mentioned stages have a lot in common with beginning oral production. In this sense, journal writing provides yet another similarity to verbal communication. Nevertheless, it is a private mode that may provide an environment conducive to lowering the

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affective filter for those students who feel anxiety when called upon to communicate verbally.

Chapter 3

Design/Methodology

This chapter presents an overview of the study to be undertaken, general information about the population to be studied, and the instruments and procedures used to collect and analyze the data. The data was based on three general areas: case studies, standardized testing, and writing samples.

The purpose of this study was to answer the question of how quiet students versus outgoing students perform in the medium of journal writing. To do so, the author described the students' interaction within the classroom. Then, the students were compared with a standardized test, which measured anxiety levels. Finally, written samples were analyzed and comparisons made.

General Design

This was a descriptive study of student writing in an educational setting. The basic elements of a

descriptive study are measurement and observation to allow us to know the state of the subject being described. Description may be qualitative or quantitative, and this study contained elements of both.

This descriptive study focused on the writing development of ten students in Appleby Elementary School of Blythe, California. The study took place over the period of the first three quarters in the school year 1992-1993, and it involved first graders from the only bilingual class at that grade level.

In the bilingual classroom, 29 of the 31 students were designated LEP. The class was self-contained. Both Spanish and English were used for oral communication, reading, and writing. The classroom provided books, magazines, posters, charts, and name tags for objects, all in both Spanish and English.

For writing activities, students were free to get up and walk to charts, posters, or name tags to copy writing material. All students had dialogue journals, in which they drew and wrote every day.

Data Needed

The necessary data came from descriptions and comparisons of the writing performance of students as individuals and as members of two groups. Initial data on individual students as quiet or outgoing set the scene. Then data collected on an extended study of writing samples was analyzed to see how progress in writing unfolds in light of the students' personal descriptions.

To answer our research questions concerning the quantity and quality of writing of the outgoing versus the quiet group, the general data needed on each student included:

1. Students' behavior was documented by the teacher within the classroom setting. A case study analysis of each student provided a subjective view of the students' anxiety levels as manifested in day-to-day classroom behavior to determine outgoing and quiet students.
2. A neutral observer reviewed the subjective analysis of the author to substantiate teacher judgment.
3. Students were classified according to the Child Anxiety Scale (CAS). This is a standardized

psychological test to further substantiate teacher judgment of outgoing versus quiet students by comparing the results of the CAS (see Appendix H) to the teacher's case study analyses (see Appendix D).

4. A list of students meeting the criterion of the CAS test as either high- or low-anxiety level was drawn up.

This was then compared with the list delineated by teacher observation. The five quiet and five outgoing students which were on both lists were then chosen.

5. Writing samples were collected over a time period long enough to show growth.

6. The quantity of writing was tabulated and compared between the groups.

7. The progress in writing for each student was documented along Peregoy and Boyles' Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies.

Subjects

All the subjects were chosen from the author's first-grade bilingual classroom. Of the total ten, five

were identified as quiet students and five as outgoing. All were within the LEP range of the IDEA Proficiency Test (IPT), which is the placement test for LMS used in the Palo Verde Unified School District, and specifically at Appleby Elementary School (see Appendix B).

Choosing Quiet Students

The students chosen for the quiet group were those who displayed a higher anxiety level when participating orally in class, but not to the point of being afraid to speak at all. They participated, but with marked differences in behavior from the more outgoing students. Those in this group were Ana, Jose F., Jose G. Veronica L., and Veronica V.

Choosing Outgoing Students

The more outgoing students were those who displayed a very low anxiety level when participating orally in class. They were definitely more vocal than the comparison group, but none were behavior problems. This group consisted of Crystal, Liana, Mario, Monica, and Vanessa.

Methodology

The methodology used to carry out this study included case study observations, standardized testing, and collection of dialogue journal writing samples.

Case Study Observations

The methodology of case studies was very eclectic. It combined different elements, such as ethnography, anthropology, program evaluation, and descriptive methods. A case study involves the evaluation of a single individual or group, with the concern of explaining how or why. A main criticism is the lack of reliability of case studies because of the subjective nature of the investigator's input. "In general case studies . . . the emphasis is on understanding and no value stance is assumed" (Anderson, 1990, p. 157). This study strove to do just that, while recognizing the large element of subjectivity.

The underlying motive for this study was to find if there was a difference between the oral and the written communication of two different groups: high-anxiety

level, or quiet, students and low-anxiety level, or outgoing, students. One available instrument to measure that was subjective observation of student behavior.

The principal source of evidence used was direct observation, with site visits as a given because the observer was the classroom teacher, in this case. This also signified that the author assumed the role of both observer and participant observer. The evidence of physical artifacts was provided in the third category of data -- students' dialogue journal samples.

Initially, the author had made general observations about differences in student behavior, specifically quiet versus outgoing behavior. There was a combination of reasons in many different situations that led to the generalizations about the perceived anxiety levels displayed by students.

These several different situations were taken into account in evaluating students' actions and reactions. Students were observed during the times they were to work independently. Their interaction with the teacher, in both formal and informal settings, was noted. Finally, the variety of peer interactions was compared. Peer interactions took place in formal learning situations, as

students reacted to each other during a lesson. On the other hand, the same lesson could also have been disrupted by peer interactions. Their reactions to working together in cooperative groups was also noted. And their peer interactions in informal moments of free time or recess were very revealing.

A second step in the student observations involved corroboration of the author's evaluation by Dr. Ken Johns, an associate professor at California State University, San Bernardino. During a visit in the second quarter of the school year, Dr. Johns observed the ten students within a normal classroom context to compare evaluations. The purpose was to determine whether his and the author's independent observations coincided. The result was that he did agree with the author's classification of the students in quiet and outgoing groups.

Standardized Testing

To provide a more objective substantiation of teacher judgment on the case study observations, a standardized psychological test was administered. Dr.

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Dwight Sweeney, professor at California State University, San Bernardino, recommended the Children Anxiety Scale (CAS), due to the age level of the students and the simplicity of administration (see Appendix A). The entire class took the test so the target students would not feel singled out. All instructions were carried out according to the manual, with the exception of providing Spanish translation for the test tape.

This particular test was chosen first because "the Child Anxiety Scale (CAS) was developed to meet this need for a reliable measurement device appropriate for use with young children" (Gillis, 1980, p. 1). Secondly, Gillis states that self-report questionnaires can be easily tailored for brevity, convenience, and scoring simplicity, and are "the most widely used instrument for measuring anxiety at the adult level. Thus, the questionnaire method seemed like the most productive approach with children" (1990, p. 1). The results supported the conclusions of Dr. Ken Johns and the author.

Writing Samples

A descriptive methodology was used with the dialogue

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journal writing samples. Description may be qualitative or quantitative. Quantitative description, based on counts or measurements, was employed to describe frequency of writing.

For the written samples, journals were used. The specific type of journal used was the dialogue journal. Other writing forms such as literature logs or science journals allow the student freedom of expression and creative spelling or grammar, but they might not have maximized student-teacher interaction. The dialogue journal, on the other hand, not only ensured more freedom of topic but especially ensured an interaction, or "dialogue," between students and teachers.

This dialogue acted in two ways to enhance writing for the purpose of this study. One way was by gently coercing students to write more in response to the teachers' comments. The other way, by far the most important for the study, was by replicating a natural flow of communication between students and teachers that usually took place orally. It was a written conversation, but only for the ears of the teacher and the student involved, if so desired. For the quiet students, the flow of oral communication was interrupted

by what they perceived as a high-anxiety situation, thus mediating the communication through the Affective Filter. Writing a dialogue, however, allowed them to communicate privately, with less fear of possible embarrassment. The dialogue journal provided equal turf on which the quiet and outgoing students might perform.

The students were accustomed to writing daily in their journals, usually in whichever language they felt comfortable. For the study, however, only samples in Spanish were collected. The purpose of this was twofold. First, the use of Spanish eliminates the variable of limited English proficiency and the different levels of English that could be represented by these students. Second, the goal was to measure increases in communication, so it was more effective to use the dominant language, Spanish. Since Spanish was the home language for all ten students and was encouraged in the classroom, that automatically increased students' sense of competence while lowering the Affective Filter.

The use of Spanish for the collected samples did not exclude code-switching. Code-switching, described in chapter 2 as a mixture of L1 and L2, was accepted as a positive element of risk-taking and language development.

In that case, all words were tabulated equally.

The writing samples themselves were gathered periodically over three school quarters to measure growth, both in quantity of writing as well as progress in writing form and development. To measure quantity, individual words were tabulated in the writing production. Writing development was measured against Peregoy and Boyle's Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies. This continuum involves progressive writing levels, ranging from pre-literacy to sentence formation (see Figure 3).

WRITING TYPE	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE
scribble writing	sequences of wavy lines or repetitive forms that bear little or no resemblance to actual letters, yet give the general impression of writing	~~~~~
pseudo-letters	written forms that look like letters, but are not	o n n o x
letters	recognizable letters from the (Spanish) alphabet	q e h m a
pseudo-words	strings of letters or pseudo-letters that are spaced in such a way as to look like words, but are not actually words	erAcmh e oBA
copied words	words that have been copied from displays in classroom	verde Jose
self-generated words	independently created words that are spelled conventionally enough to be recognized	mesa 501
self-generated sentences	fully formed, conventional or nearly conventional sentences which communicate an idea	No tengo 6 años

Figure 3. A Continuum of Developmental Scripting
(Peregoy and Boyle, 1990)

The Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies encompasses seven levels: scribble writing, pseudo-letters, letters, pseudo-words, copied, self-generated words, and self-generated sentences. Scribble writing is a sequence of wavy lines or repetitive forms that bear little or no resemblance to actual letters, yet give the general impression of writing. Pseudo-letters are written forms that look like letters, but are not. Letters are recognizable letters from the alphabet. Pseudo-words are strings of letters or pseudo-letters that are spaced in such a way as to look like words, but are not actually words. Copied words are words that have been copied from displays in classrooms. Self-generated words are independently created words that are spelled conventionally enough to be recognized. Self-generated sentences are fully formed, conventional or nearly conventional sentences which communicate an idea.

The paper used for writing samples varied, according to different purposes. In each set of student writing samples, there were ten pages consisting of the following: the first and ninth pages were ruled newsprint, 11"x 8.5"; the second through the eighth were ruled newsprint, 18"x 12", with a 9" heading; and the

tenth page was pen ruled, 8-1/2"x 9". The standard journal paper for the first several months was the newsprint with the 9" heading, which allowed room at the top of the page for a title and a drawing, then writing on the ruled bottom half. The first sample page was an exception to avoid the problem of some students only wanting to draw during the first few weeks. The last two pages were entirely ruled to maximize writing quantity for the samples.

Data Collection

There were three parts to the data collection. The first part consisted of identifying quiet and outgoing students through individual case studies. This was to determine behavior and attitudes in oral communication that denoted higher or lower anxiety levels when interacting in classroom situations. The observation was done by the author without students being aware of the fact.

The second part consisted of administering the CAS test. This provided a standardized measure with which to

compare and substantiate teacher observations of individual students. It measures anxiety levels in children.

The third part focused on collecting authentic writing samples, in the form of dialogue journals, from the students over a period of several months in order to examine the samples for evidence of quantity of writing and developmental patterns.

These three parts then were compiled and measured for comparison and interrelationships. Each part is individually detailed in the following three sections.

Individual Case Study Data

For classroom behaviors, the author observed and took notes on individual students. To provide a concrete framework with which to compare the students as objectively as possible within a subjective mode, it became necessary to formulate a list of specific characteristics to identify members of each group. The following questions were not taken from a standardized test, but, rather, formulated according to the characteristics that first attracted the author's attention to the two different kinds of student behavior.

Observations included the following:

1. Who initiated communication with the teacher during direct instruction?
2. Who initiated communication with the teacher during informal periods and free periods?
3. How did students respond to classroom questions?
4. Who initiated communication with peers during a designated silent period or listening mode?
5. Who initiated communication with peers during informal periods of instruction?
6. Who initiated communication with peers during free periods?
7. What body language differences between groups were in evidence?
8. What were the students' attitudes about their journal writing?

The first step for each case study was a general evaluation of each student. This included documenting the author's first impressions, any pertinent information about the students' background and language, and answers to the above questions (see Appendix D for the complete

case study observations). Continuous sampling was an approach used in collecting this observational data.

To further substantiate the author's evaluations of student behavior and projected anxiety level, the second step involved the classroom visit by Dr. Ken Johns. Dr. Johns was provided with a seating chart denoting the location of the ten target students, and he evaluated their behavior during a normal classroom session using a Language Experience Activity (LEA) chart. An LEA chart draws from students' personal experiences to write a story in a cooperative fashion. This activity was chosen because it employed student participation requiring only personal experiences rather than previous knowledge of a subject. The intent was to encourage as many students to participate as possible, and none were aware of the reason for the observation.

Child Anxiety Scale

The Child Anxiety Scale was administered to the entire class. The test consisted of 20 questions (see Appendix A). To avoid possible confusion in following the sequence, each question was identified by common objects such as a butterfly, a cloud, or a fish, rather

than a number. Students were given two answer choices, from which they marked either a blue or a red circle with an X.

The choices dealt generally with personal evaluations of how well they performed, how happy they were, how talkative they were, and how others perceived and treated them. The test instructions were on a tape, interrupted only by teacher translations into Spanish and individual clarifications. The total test time was approximately 25 minutes. The test provided a simple scoring key and clear instructions on how to inspect the answer sheet for signs of invalidity.

Journal Data

The written samples from the journals require data concerning both quantity and quality, as follows:

1. The quantity of writing was measured to compare
 - a. total quantity from one group to another
 - b. amount of increase from one group to another.
2. The quality was measured by comparing progression from one level of writing to another, as measured on the Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies.

There were ten writing samples collected per student (see Appendix E for one sample). For the first two, the topics were assigned. The following samples varied, however, due to certain difficulties that arose with assigned topics. These included lack of interest in certain topics by some students, thereby decreasing effort and production, and the problem of having all students present on specific collection days. The other samples were chosen from days when the topics were "Free Topic/Tema Libre" or "My Weekend/Mi Fin de Semana." These topics gave students the chance to control content and maximize interest.

Topics were assigned daily. The students were given approximately ten minutes to put their name, title, and drawing relevant to the title. If they finished with those tasks, they could proceed to writing about their topic and drawing. Then students rotated to centers. One was the journal center, in which small groups of students interacted with the teacher and each other concerning the topic. The time limit at this center was approximately ten to fifteen minutes.

The collection of samples was extended over three of the four school quarters. The first sample was taken

during the first month of school, providing the baseline from which to measure future progress. The second sample was taken during the third month, a stage at which most students were beginning to master their own version of a sound system that allowed them to increase written communication. The third through the tenth sample were collected at two-week intervals during the fourth through the seventh month of the school year. During the first and third weeks of those months, the first sample available from the target students was collected.

As the students interacted with the author during the journal center, their reading of their sample was noted (see Appendix F). In the transcription, words omitted in the writing sample but "read" by the students are placed in parentheses and counted. Words that could not be recognized or remembered by the student upon reading the sample were designated as a lined blank in the transcription but not counted. Often the author's question was left unanswered at the end of a sample. This was due to the time constraints of both the students' attention span and the journal center period.

Chapter 4

Analysis and Results

All of the data collected from the teacher case study observations, the CAS standardized test, and the student dialogue journal samples were analyzed to provide a framework for comparison and contrast. This was done in order to address the research problems posed in this study. The above instruments provided information as to the behavior of quiet and outgoing students with respect to oral and written communication.

Type of Analysis

Case Studies

The case study observations were compiled to see what, if any, characteristics were common to the groups initially evaluated as quiet and outgoing. Qualitative description of the narrative observations led to interpretations of the student behavior type in question.

The original observation question posed were the following:

1. Who initiated communication with the teacher during direct instruction?
2. Who initiated communication with the teacher during informal periods and free periods?
3. How did students respond to classroom questions?
4. Who initiated communication with peers during a designated silent period or listening mode?
5. Who initiated communication with peers during informal periods of instruction?
6. Who initiated communication with peers during free periods?
7. What body language differences, including voice level, between groups were in evidence?
8. What were the students' attitudes about their journal writing?

A comparison was drawn to see if there were common characteristics among members of each group. Then a comparison was made between the two groups, as far as generalized characteristics. All of the following statements must be qualified as very general observations in a very subjective case study analysis.

The analysis was based on a question-by-question

comparison among the five students of each group. The quiet group consisted of Ana, Jose F., Jose G., Veronica L., and Veronica V. Each student case study was analyzed to determine what were common threads and what were differences among the five students (see Appendix D).

Quiet Group.

Among those of the quiet group, the following characteristics were found in common:

1. During direct instruction, the teacher always initiated oral communication. All members of this group were willing to raise their hands to participate, but they would invariably wait to be called upon by the teacher before speaking. They did not take the initiative to generate their own questions, either.

2. Oral communication during informal periods, such as cooperative groups or centers, and during free periods, either in class or at recess, increased with time. At the beginning of the school year, all students in the quiet group were hesitant about talking to the teacher, except when communicating survival needs. From the beginning, all five would approach the teacher to seek help in defending themselves against other children or to solve problems. Within the first couple of weeks,

however, two students, Ana and Veronica L., were comfortable approaching the teacher on a one-to-one basis. These two were quite verbose during the informal situations. The other three took a couple of months to feel comfortable about coming up just to talk. Once they were comfortable, they would come to the teacher to tell stories or visit as often as the more outgoing children, but they did not always make contact as frequently because the outgoing students attracted more attention to themselves.

3. The response to classroom questions was uniform for the quiet group. All five students enjoyed participating, and they usually raised their hands to respond. The correctness of answers appeared equal to that of the outgoing group. The length of the answers, however, differed radically in that the quiet group usually gave much shorter, more direct responses. The comprehension level was difficult to assess, but the correctness factor being equal to that of the outgoing group indicated that very probably the comprehension level was the same. The fact, though, that the outgoing group was more verbose, expounding on and beyond the topic, gave the impression that their comprehension was

greater.

An additional variation in student response often occurred when the teacher had not initially understood what the student was saying. If the student had taken a risk by speaking in English, the anxiety of having the teacher misunderstand would frequently drive the student into going back to Spanish to repeat the answer.

4. The quiet group rarely initiated communication with peers during a designated silent period or listening mode. They were typically on task. With the exception of Ana, who was the most vocal of this group, the quiet students were usually aggravated if peers tried to talk to them at that time. They were the most likely to report to the teacher when others were off task or talking instead of listening to the direct instruction.

5. During informal periods, such as cooperative groups and centers, the quiet students often initiated communication with peers. Ana was the most communicative with her peers, but the communication was often troubled. She had continuous problems of arguing with her peers, then accusing them of either bothering or ignoring her. Veronica L. was the most balanced, in that she was very comfortable in informal situations of peer interaction,

able to work with her peers and contribute her own ideas. Jose F., Jose G., and Veronica V. were, however, also quiet in informal peer relations, though not as quiet as in formal situations. The latter three almost invariably allowed other group members to dominate the conversations and make the decisions.

6. During free periods, such as recess or free class time, all the students in the quiet group interacted with one or more peers. They all had one or more friends with whom they played, and were able to interact with all the students.

7. The body language displayed by the quiet group was very passive. They generally sat quietly in their seats during direct instruction. During cooperative group activities, they limited their actions to the immediate area of their group. They all displayed downcast eyes when in an anxiety-producing situation. And none were ever aggressive with their companions. On the contrary, they were sometimes on the defensive against other students' aggressiveness or invasion of their space.

The voice level was also a particularly distinctive characteristic of this group. As maturity evolved and

familiarity with the group increased, so did the volume of these students' voices. During the first months, however, they would volunteer answers eagerly, but their voice level was so quiet that the teacher had to move close to them to be able to understand. If the teacher asked them to speak louder, they would invariably react with embarrassment and either repeat the phrase with no improvement in volume or simply refuse to answer again. Given the first such reactions, the teacher opted for moving closer to the students until such time the students felt less anxiety about speaking up.

8. The attitudes toward journal writing varied from student to student within the quiet group. Jose F. and Jose G. enjoyed writing in their dialogue journal, but they were both slow to start. They were on task but not always confident about what to write, much preferring telling about their drawing. Ana, Veronica L., and Veronica V. were all very enthusiastic about their writing. They stayed on task, either writing or helping a peer in the journal group, and they fought over who got to read their sample first to the teacher.

Outgoing Group.

The outgoing group, consisting of Crystal, Liana,

Mario, Monica, and Vianey, also shared many commonalities (see Appendix D for their case studies). Their individual studies were analyzed for common characteristics as well as for traits that would distinguish them from others in the group. The following were the overriding characteristics distinguishing these individuals as members of the outgoing group:

1. This group distinguished itself because of the high level of communication with the teacher during direct instruction. Consistently, members of this group not only raised their hands when responding to a question, but invariably called out to attract the teacher's attention. They either called out the teacher's name or the answer. If they were told not to call out, so that all students would have a chance to answer, they would frequently make noises and try to stand up to attract the teacher's attention.

A more negative version of their low-anxiety level was their intercommunication when they were supposedly in the listening mode. They were all much more easily distracted and eager to talk than the quiet group, including moments when they knew they were not supposed to talk. The result was that members of this group were

sometimes in the Sad Box; that is, the list of those not following instructions.

2. During informal periods, such as cooperative groups or centers, or free periods, such as recess or free class time, the outgoing group lived up to its name. None of the students in this group displayed any anxiety about approaching the teacher on a more personal basis; on the contrary, it was sometimes difficult to get them to stop talking. They continuously approached the teacher with personal anecdotes. If there was a problem, real or imagined, these five students were ready with an answer, and tumbling over each other to be the first to express it.

3. The outgoing group responded to questions as correctly as the quiet group. Because of their style of initiating communication by calling more attention to themselves, the teacher had to guard against calling on them more often than on other students. The basic trait common to all in this outgoing group was the length of responses. Their answers were longer and often more anecdotal. The answer to a science question would draw them right into a story about a personal experience about the science topic. The comprehension was probably at the

same level as those of the quiet group who gave more concise answers. The impression, however, was that the comprehension level for the outgoing group was higher because they verbalized more around the topic, often making the interrelationships between the academic topic and their personal experiences.

The aspect of L1 vs. L2 did not seem to affect this group as much as the quiet group. Both groups communicated in Spanish and English, with a good deal of code-switching in between. If the teacher asked for an answer to be repeated, though, those in the outgoing group did not display anxiety about the fact. They simply repeated in whichever language they started out, without displaying body language indicative of embarrassment about having to repeat.

4. It was notable how this group initiated communication with peers during a designated silent period or listening mode. All members of this group engaged frequently in speaking to peers when they should have been listening, though this was not done with the specific intent of defying the teacher or the rules. They just seemed unable to contain themselves. The result was again that members of this group sometimes

found their names in the Sad Box, or disciplinary list.

5. During informal periods of instruction, such as cooperative groups or centers, all students in this group interacted easily with other group members. Not only did they interact, however, but they continuously tried to direct and control the groups.

6. The same pattern emerged for the outgoing group's communication with peers during free periods, such as recess or free class time. This group of students interacted with many peers, were often the center of attention, and had a tendency to dominate play. They were most likely to be reported to the teacher if they left a student out of a game.

7. The outgoing group displayed much more active body language. They moved around more, with or without permission. They actively drew attention to themselves, either by waving their hands, standing up, or walking around. They maintained eye contact in anxiety-producing situations, and sometimes went beyond to a rebellious attitude. More aggressiveness was also displayed in rougher play and more invasion of others' territory.

The voice level for the outgoing group was noticeably louder. The problem was not that of

difficulty in hearing them, but of sometimes trying to hear others over them.

8. The outgoing students' attitudes toward journal writing were, in general, not as enthusiastic as those of the quiet group. They enjoyed their dialogue journal, completed their assignments, and loved to read their sample to the teacher. The journal writing was not, however, necessarily the main focus for them in the journal center. Liana, Monica, and Vanessa were always very efficient about writing their entry, but during the follow-up questions they might get distracted by helping others or simply talking to others. Crystal and Mario had to be prodded to get started with the writing segment, then as soon as the teacher's attention was diverted, they would revert to talking to other group members.

Standardized Test

The Child Anxiety Scale (CAS), by John S. Gillis, is an assessment instrument which measures anxiety in children. In the CAS, questions indicating high anxiety are switched randomly. To check the validity of the children's marks, the answer sheet had to be reviewed to

be certain all questions had been marked either on the blue or red circle, no more than one circle was marked per answer, and no more than one question was left unanswered.

For the purposes of this study, children receiving a standard score of 100 or less were classified as low anxiety, while children receiving a standard score above 100 were classified as high anxiety. Likewise, any child falling in or below the 50th percentile or receiving a sten score of less than 7 fell within the low-anxiety group. Any child above the 50th percentile or receiving a sten score of 7 or higher fell within the high-anxiety group.

For the CAS, there are two norms: one for grade level and one for age. Gillis reports, "Experience has shown that most users prefer grade-level norms over age norms. The reason is that two children who are only a few months apart in age tend to obtain more of a difference in CAS scores if they happen to be in separate grades than if they are in the same grade. In other words grade level tends to be a more potent influence on CAS scores than age" (1980, p. 8). The age-level norms are used when grade-level information is not available.

There is also a slight tendency for females to obtain higher scores, but the difference is statistically insignificant. For the above reasons, the grade-level norm was used to analyze results.

Writing Samples

The collection of data for the writing samples from the dialogue journals included 10 samples per student. Content analysis was used to analyze the data in the documents as a systematic description of the contents of the documents. The analysis was carried on at two different levels. One described the relative frequency of words in the document. On another level, it assessed the variations of writing development.

For the relative frequency of words, individual words were tabulated as a total in the 10 samples of each student. Then an average of the 10 was calculated. The first samples were very small due to students' limited beginning literacy skills.

After tabulating the individual totals and averages, the quiet group's numbers were tabulated and averaged for each sample. The same treatment was given to the outgoing group's numbers. Finally, these group totals

and averages were compared.

Analysis of the development of student writing was based on Peregoy and Boyles' Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies. For individual students, their starting point on the Continuum was marked, then progress was mapped by comparing it to the last level attained. A comparison was then made of the number of steps advanced for the quiet students vs. the outgoing students to determine which group advanced the most steps.

Results

Case studies

The results of the case study observations verified the initial assessment of which students reacted to different classroom situations with varying levels of anxiety. Utilizing differences in behavior as a gauge of high or low anxiety, 10 students were divided into two separate groups of five each. According to the list of observation questions used for data analysis, there were distinct contrasts in various manners of communication. The quiet group demonstrated higher anxiety levels in

almost all areas of communication observed, while the outgoing group consistently performed with lower anxiety levels.

The first question asked who initiated communication with the teacher during direct instruction. Although both groups wanted to volunteer information, the quiet group waited for the teacher's permission, while the outgoing group was more likely to forge ahead to make their opinion known. And, unlike the quiet group, the outgoing group took the initiative to generate its own questions.

The second question dealt with who initiated communication with the teacher during informal or free periods. The quiet group was more hesitant about approaching the teacher on a personal basis, while the outgoing group displayed no anxiety at all about approaching the teacher.

The third question asked about how students responded to classroom questions. All students enjoyed participating, and the correctness factor appeared to be equal for both groups. One difference came in the length of responses. The quiet group generally gave short, concise responses, while the outgoing group gave longer,

more anecdotal responses. If students had taken more of a risk and responded in English, there was a another difference in the groups when the teacher asked students to repeat or clarify an answer. The quiet group would often revert back to Spanish in what they perceived as a high-anxiety situation. The outgoing students usually did not appear anxious in these situation, and continued speaking the language in which they had begun.

The fourth question dealt with who initiated communication with peers during a designated silent period or listening mode. The quiet students seldom initiated this type of communication, and were more likely to report more vocal peers for disobeying the rules. The outgoing students, in contrast, seemed unable to contain themselves, to the point of sometimes getting their names on the disciplinary list.

The fifth question asked who initiated communication with peers during informal periods of instruction, such as cooperative groups and centers. All of the outgoing group and two of the quiet group felt comfortable speaking with their peers during group activities. Three of the quiet group still communicated minimally.

The sixth question dealt with who initiated

communication with peers during free periods, such as recess or free class time. All students in both groups interacted with other students in play situations.

The seventh question was about body language. The quiet students were more likely to sit quietly, avoid eye contact in anxiety-producing situations, and speak in low voices. The outgoing students were more active, made more eye contact, and spoke much more loudly in classroom situations.

The eighth question dealt with attitudes about journal writing. Of the quiet group, all stayed on task, but three were particularly enthusiastic. Of the outgoing group, three did their assignment, but also spent a lot of the journal center time talking to peers in the group. The other two had difficulty starting and staying on task.

An independent observer substantiated the division of the ten students into two groups. After a site visit during which students were observed in a normal classroom activity, Dr. Ken Johns agreed with the author's initial assessment of which were quiet and which were outgoing students.

Standardized Test

Each student took the 20-question CAS test (see Appendix G). After the raw scores were obtained, they were converted into two types of standard scores, stens or percentiles (see Appendix H).

Using the criteria established for this study, Ana, Jose F., Jose G., Veronica L., and Veronica V. fell within the high-anxiety levels. Crystal, Liana, Mario, Monica, and Vanessa's scores fell within the low-anxiety levels. This confirmed the designations of the case study observations.

Writing Samples

Quantitative analysis.

The first results reported were from the quantitative aspect of the study. Initial samples displayed a low word frequency because of beginning literacy skills. As literacy skills increased with time, the word frequency also increased (see Appendix I).

The quiet group outperformed the outgoing group in word frequency in 7 of the 10 samples of dialogue journal writing. In the overall frequency rate, the quiet students averaged 17.6 words per page in the 10 samples,

while the outgoing group averaged 12.9 words per page; that is, the quiet group averaged 36% more words. The group averages for each sample are illustrated in Figure 4 (see Appendix I for the corresponding table).

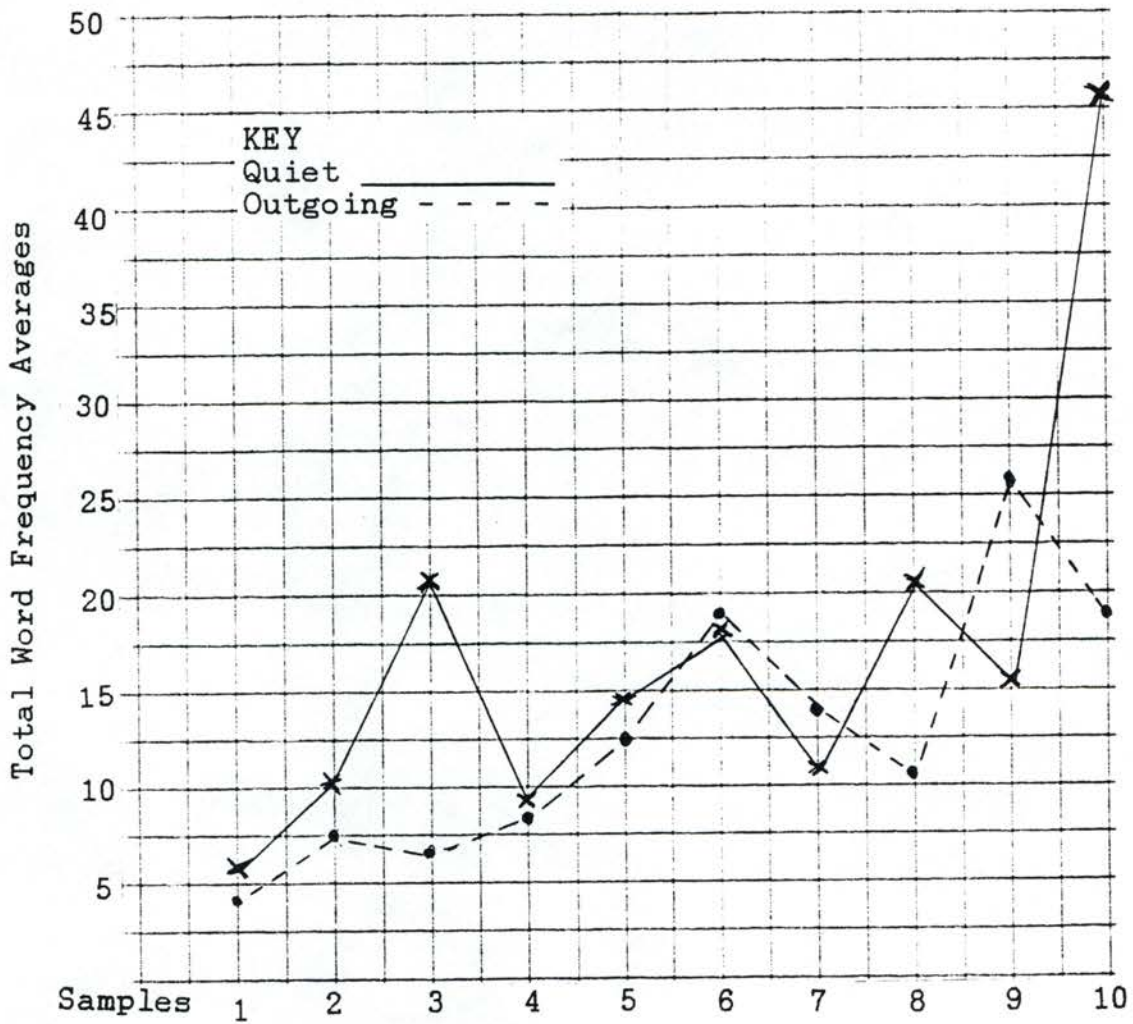


Figure 4. Comparison of Word Frequency Averages Per Sample for Quiet and Outgoing Students.

The overall pattern was an increase in production for each student, but it was not continually increasing. There were many instances of higher production followed by lower production rates. Two of the quiet students, Veronica L. and Ana, had a noticeably higher level of production than other students in both groups. The lowest level of production, Jose G., was also found in the quiet group. The word total for the quiet group was 880; that of the outgoing group was 644.

The two highest individual word frequency averages for the 10 samples were from the quiet group, Ana and Veronica L., with 26.8 and 27.1 respectively. Their overall averages were almost twice as high as the two highest average totals of the outgoing group, Vanessa at 15.2 and Monica at 14 words per page.

The quiet group produced an average of 17.6 words per page, ranging from a low of 5.8 to 46 words. The outgoing group reached an average of 12.9 words per page, ranging from 4 to 26 words.

The individual ranking for the total 10-page average frequency count was as follows:

<u>Student</u>	<u>Average Words\Page</u>	<u>Group</u>
1. Ana	42.2	quiet
2. Veronica L.	37.3	quiet
3. Monica	20.3	outgoing
4. Vanessa	20.2	outgoing
5. Liana	18.9	outgoing
6. Veronica V.	18.3	quiet
7. Jose F.	16.1	quiet
8. Crystal	14	outgoing
9. Mario	11.4	outgoing
10. Jose G.	10.3	quiet

Table 1. Individual Total Averages in Descending Order.

Qualitative analysis.

The qualitative analysis of the dialogue journal samples was based on Peregoy and Boyle's Continuum of Scripting Strategies. In this continuum, seven writing types are delineated (see Appendix C). They are as follows:

Level I	scribble writing
Level II	pseudo-letters
Level III	letters
Level IV	pseudo-words
Level V	copied words
Level VI	self-generated words
Level VII	self-generated sentences

In Table 1, the 10 dialogue journal writing samples were analyzed according to the above writing levels. The writing samples are across the top in Arabic numerals. The writing levels within the table are in Roman numerals.

All of the students began at a minimum level of III because of literacy skills learned in kindergarten. Three of the outgoing group started at level IV, while all the rest started at level III. Overall, however, there were 13 instances of different levels from III to VI in the quiet group; in the outgoing group, it was 12 instances. But from the 6th to the 10th sample, all students had reached the 7th and highest level.

<u>Samples</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Quiet Group</u>										
Ana	III	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Jose F.	III	IV	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Jose G.	III	IV	IV	VI	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Veronica L.	III	III	IV	IV	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Veronica V.	III	III	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
<u>Outgoing Group</u>										
Crystal	III	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Liana	IV	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Mario	III	IV	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Monica	IV	VII	VI	VI	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII
Vanessa	IV	VI	IV	VI	IV	VII	VII	VII	VII	VII

Table 2. Writing Levels Achieved on the Continuum of Scripting Strategies (Peregoy & Boyle, 1990, p. 12).

There were wide variations in the quantity of writing in the dialogue journals, as testified to by the quantitative studies. Whatever the numbers may have been, however, the qualitative study demonstrated that all students reached a similar skill level.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Interpretation

The results of the study of student observations and dialogue journals seem to indicate that the affective filter did play a role in the behavior of the quiet and outgoing groups. Between each group, three areas of differences were notable: (a) classroom behavior, (b) language usage, and (c) dialogue journal writing. But in addition to these differences between the groups, there were also individual cases where the distinction became blurred. These differences underline what Vygotsky (1989) considered the problem of trying to separate intellect from affect.

Quiet Group.

The three areas of differences distinguishing the quiet group from the outgoing group, plus the individual differences, are as follows:

1. Classroom behavior for the quiet students, especially concerning oral response, differed according

to the situation. They considered oral response in a more formal classroom situation, such as direct instruction or student oral presentations, as a high-anxiety situation. They were much less assertive in making themselves heard when their affective filters were high.

When in informal classroom situations or free periods, these quiet students did not feel the anxiety of being judged by peers or teacher, so their defensiveness decreased, their motivation increased, and they were more active participants in their education. They were more verbal and more physically active in what they perceived as low-anxiety situations. Their affective filter had decreased appreciably.

2. Language use was a major issue for the quiet group. Spanish was not only spoken but encouraged in the classroom, so it was normal for them to speak Spanish. All 10 students, however, were eager to learn and practice English. The amount of risk-taking in English was less, though, in this quiet group. If there was risk-taking in English during an initial response to the teacher's question, the quiet students were much more likely to revert back to Spanish on the occasions when

the teacher was not able to understand that response. This supports Dulay and Burt's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1977), wherein learners who are not in an optimal affective state will have a filter or mental block.

3. Dialogue journal writing also appeared to be a low-anxiety situation for most of these quiet students. Reyes (1991) believes that this type of writing is successful because students are free to write what they wish, are not judged upon what they produce, and they openly enjoy dialoguing with the teacher or showing off to peers. They seemed to be eager to let the teacher know that they had as many ideas and stories as the more vocal students, and writing was a way to do this with minimal stress, thus producing a lower affective filter. This type of writing provided an optimal affective state as far as genre goes.

4. Individual differences were more notable in the quiet group. Students in the quiet group took advantage of the optimal affective state permitted by this writing exercise, each at their own level of comfort. Jose G. was the exception in this quiet group because he noticeably produced at lower frequency levels. He held

either the lowest or second to lowest frequency level among all student samples. This fit in with his classroom behavior, where he was very quiet and timid. It did not, however, fit in with the writing profile of his other companions in the quiet group, for they managed to equal or exceed the frequency levels of the outgoing group.

Jose G.'s low production level can probably be interpreted as more of an academic obstacle than a problem with the dialogue journal activity in itself. He was the one who had the most difficulty with beginning literacy, struggling noticeably more than the others and requiring constant help. Jose G. was not pressured by the teacher or his peers, but in the journal center he was aware that the other students progressed more rapidly in writing levels. He appeared more intimidated by his realization that his understanding had not reached the same level, in spite of the teacher's encouragement and an accepting attitude from his peers. Here the affective filter probably was raised when he felt he wasn't performing as well as his peers, so he withdrew and performed less. Cummins (1979) states five principles in his Contextual Interaction Theory, of which Principle 5

is Student Status. This principle states that the perceived status of students affects the interactions between teachers and students and among the students themselves. In turn, student outcomes are affected, and this appeared to be the case with Jose G. With the affective filter high, Stevick (1976) says that understanding may not reach the language acquisition device at a deeper level and additional comprehensive input may be blocked. This may have created a vicious cycle for this student in the beginning literacy stage.

Jose F. and Veronica V. performed within a medium range of frequency level in the dialogue writing samples, compared to the outgoing group. These students were very quiet in their classroom oral production. Their affective filters, however, were obviously lowered in this writing activity because their communication, as measured by the frequency count, vied with that of the outgoing students, who gave the appearance of being much more expressive.

Finally, for the quiet group, Ana and Veronica L. not only exceeded their own personal levels of communication, as compared to their oral expression in classroom activities, but exceeded those of their

outgoing counterparts in writing frequency levels. When compared to their outgoing counterparts in frequency levels of each sample, Ana and Veronica L. produced anywhere from 50% more to over 300% more in the case of Ana's last sample. They were both very enthusiastic about their journal writing and especially demanding that the teacher read and react to their journals, particularly Veronica L. This seemed to be their way of attracting the teacher's attention, their way of showing the teacher that they could also excel in performance, albeit written rather than oral.

Outgoing Group.

The three areas of differences distinguishing the outgoing group from the quiet group, plus the individual differences, are as follows:

1. Classroom behavior for the outgoing students, unlike the quiet students, was very uniform. They responded orally in the same manner, irrespective of different situations. They were vocal during formal as well as informal situations. They gave the impression of feeling empowered, and empowerment is what Cummins (1986) offers as a political solution to the problem of the

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affective filter.

2. Language usage was not an anxiety-producing issue. This outgoing group took many more risks in English language acquisition. When the teacher didn't understand an initial response in English, this outgoing group would take the risk of repeating the response in English again. Mario, in particular, would start speaking in English, though he usually ended up in Spanish for lack of vocabulary, not lack of self-confidence.

3. Dialogue journal writing was also a low-anxiety situation for the outgoing group. They all enjoyed the journal center, but some more than others. Liana, Monica, and Vanessa were on task most of the time and gladly read their entries to the teacher, but in addition they also enjoyed talking to other group members during the center time. Their alphabetical skills were well developed, and they wrote with ease, giving the impression that they were capable of more output. They were not as effusive in their written communication as would have been supposed from their oral communication.

Mario and Crystal much preferred talking to peers in the journal center to the actual writing itself.

4. Individual differences were less notable in this group. Crystal and Mario produced the lowest frequency counts of the outgoing group, though not as low as Jose G. of the quiet group. Jose G.'s low frequency count can be interpreted as basically low-level literacy skills complicated by a high affective filter. Neither Crystal nor Mario fit this description. Both were excellent readers and quite competent in beginning writing skills. When they decided to write, they did so with relative ease. The difficulty was not to keep them on task but to get them on task. Even in the small group atmosphere of the journal center, they were more interested in talking to their peers or investigating what their peers were doing, rather than do their own assignment. Not coincidentally, these were the two out of the ten most often written up in the Sad Box precisely for talking constantly. As Danielson (1988) states, dialogue journals are like having a conversation with another person, so teacher expectations were that these would have been two of the more prolific writers in the study.

Group Comparison.

The highest frequency in word count for the journal writing, as well as the highest level of enthusiasm, went

to the quiet group. Including the total 10 samples per student, the overall ranking by frequency counts showed that 7 of the samples were dominated by the quiet students. The quiet group produced an average of 17.6 words per page for 10 samples, while the outgoing group produced 12.9. That was a 36% higher frequency count for the quiet group.

The data could also be interpreted as the two top quiet students surpassing all the other students, thus bringing up the entire group. The constants were the high frequency counts of Ana and Veronica L. of the quiet group. The other three of the quiet group, however, were able to approximate or surpass those of the outgoing group in total frequency counts.

Another interpretation of the results could indicate a relationship between writing frequency and gender. Jose G. and Mario usually placed lowest and second to lowest in frequency counts, with Jose F. just somewhat above them. There were only three boys represented out of the seven target students, though, so the relationship could not be compared on an equal basis.

Conclusions

All students benefitted from this writing process by qualitatively increasing writing levels. Though starting out at different levels, all reached the highest level, that of fully formed, nearly conventional sentences which communicate an idea, according to Peregoy & Boyle (1990).

Quantitatively, frequency counts of words in the dialogue journal samples proved that the quiet students were able to match the outgoing students in written communication. If the outgoing students had performed quantitatively in written language as they had in oral language, they would have far outdistanced the quiet students. As it turned out, however, two of the quiet students, Ana and Veronica L., outdistanced even the top students of the outgoing group. Even without these two prolific writers, the other quiet students were able to produce quantitatively within the same range as the outgoing students. Therefore, the dialogue journal presented an even playing field for both types of students. The quiet students as individuals, therefore, were able to compete equally with the outgoing students.

Two of the most vocal outgoing students, Mario and

Crystal, seemed to actually be at a disadvantage because their lack of control of their oral communication prevented them from staying on task enough to translate their oral facility to writing. The other three outgoing students were competent in writing, but also used their verbal skills in a way which distracted them. They were not always on task either because they were distracted due to talking or because they were less motivated.

More writing could have been expected of these outgoing students, knowing their oral skills. These same skills, though, may have detracted, in a certain way, from their writing because they were fulfilling their need to communicate by doing so orally. There may have been, therefore, less motivation to write more because their need to communicate was already fulfilled. They felt free to express themselves in another manner. There was, perhaps, not the urgency to communicate felt by the quiet students, for whom writing was a way of attracting the teacher's attention to them.

There was one student, Jose G. from the quiet group, who performed within the same range as Mario, the outgoing student with the lowest frequency count. Their reasons for the low performance level were totally

different, however. Mario was an excellent reader and very competent in writing skills. But he was also one of the two most vocal even of the outgoing students, and being so vocal meant that he had difficulty staying on task. Jose G., on the other hand, had low reading and writing skills. Even though the journal group was heterogeneous and interactive in peer tutoring, he seemed to feel more intimidated than the rest about his low skill level. He wasn't willing to take as many risks with his writing, and as the resulting gap between him and the others grew, he became more and more aware of it.

Overall, the quiet students performed above expectations derived from their weak oral performance in class. Their affective filter was lowered in journal writing, and they unleashed their ideas on paper. This form of communication was important to them, and they were always eager for the teacher's recognition of their ability in this realm.

All of the outgoing students performed below expectations derived from their strong oral performance in class. Their affective filter was always low, and their need to communicate in writing was not as strong.

It appeared that they expended their energy orally, which gave them continuous recognition from the teacher about their ability. Writing, therefore, did not seem to take on the importance it did for the quiet group.

Implications

There are several educational implications that can be drawn from the conclusions. It was found that, both qualitatively and quantitatively, students who exhibit low or high anxiety could perform equally well in writing, precisely dialogue journal writing. Different methods can work for different students to lower their affective filter and increase their learning.

The first implication is that, as always, teachers must be aware of their own images of their students and the expectations that accompany such categorizing. In the instance of outgoing students who exhibit a very low anxiety level, it is easy for teachers to perceive them as brighter or more knowledgeable. They call more attention to themselves, often monopolizing teachers' attention. These outgoing students have low affective filters, so they are ready to take more risks. And as

they get positive feedback from their attempts, their affective filters will be even lower, creating a positive, escalating cycle.

Some quiet students may also have high self-confidence, a low affective filter, and a low anxiety level, just as the outgoing students. The only difference is that being less vocal than others may simply be their personality trait.

Other students, however, may be quiet because they have low self-confidence, a high affective filter, and a high anxiety level. They may want to communicate orally, but different barriers may have been built up. This is particularly true of the language minority student. These students may need empowerment in the foreign culture as well as within their own culture. These are the students that teachers need to be aware of when forming images and expectations. Studying their body language for indications of anxiety is one way of trying to decipher when a student is in or out of a comfort zone.

These quiet students are not going to be risk-takers, nor will they call much attention to themselves. They are in danger of being ignored by teachers or

considered not quite as bright as their more vocal peers. Especially when language is a barrier, they may know the answer but be afraid to vocalize it. Teachers, therefore, must first be aware of their images of students and how that can affect their interaction with students.

Language is a another consideration. If students are uncomfortable in their second language, they need to be allowed to retreat into their native language until their anxiety level has decreased. This should be taken into consideration for both oral and written work. When the native language is allowed, students can build up their skill level, both orally and written, until reaching a level of confidence that permits risk-taking in the second language.

Krashen and Terrell (1983) postulate that one of the main principles of language acquisition is planning language acquisition activities so that they will lower the affective filter. Outgoing students demonstrate low anxiety in situations of oral communication, so oral activities should be an integral part of the curriculum. Quiet students also need to be given an activity in which they can shine. Dialogue journal writing proved to meet

that need for the students in this study.

As a language acquisition activity, doing the journal writing in small, heterogeneous groups produced a low-anxiety situation, enjoyed by both groups in question. The interaction increased interpersonal skills as well as building on each other's experiences and knowledge. All enjoyed sharing and asking for assistance in this more intimate atmosphere.

Only one student in the quiet group, Jose G., displayed a high level of anxiety even in this small-group setting of journal writing. He appeared anxious upon comparing his low skills with others, even though there were many who started at an equal level with him. He had more difficulty progressing, and he seemed anxious about the ever-increasing gap. He needed more individual attention, not only for skills but for self-esteem. Students fitting this description could also be given extra time for one-on-one journal writing with the teacher or aide. This might encourage more risk-taking and higher self-esteem for this individual to better function in the group setting.

For these quiet students demonstrating high anxiety levels, the use of journal writing could be increased in

quantity. Above all, it could be increased in importance. This could not only have a direct impact on lowering students' anxiety and affective filter while increasing self-esteem, but also could prove very practical for grading purposes. A dialogue journal is an integral part of authentic assessment, which is an evaluation of students' actual performance in a variety of activities. Dialogue journals could be weighted more when grading students' academic progress. Writing, in general, should be considered a valuable assessment form of communication given the same value as is oral communication for outgoing students.

Language minority students who are outgoing have the immediate qualitative advantage of a low affective filter. They have learned to manage the additional barriers that are represented by social, cultural, and linguistic prejudices from the dominant society. This low affective filter will translate into more effective mediation between teachers and students. They have been empowered at some point in time, and this empowerment will help them get through the affective filters, consequently further empowering them as they succeed. Teachers could also help empower quiet students with high

affective filters is through writing. Realizing the hidden capabilities of students, then developing these capabilities through dialogue journal writing are two ways of empowering all students.

Appendix A

Picture	Question
butterfly	Do you do very well in most things you try, or do things often go wrong for you? If you do very well in most things you try, mark an X on the red circle or, if things often go wrong for you, mark an X on the blue circle.
spoon	Do people think you are often bad, or do people think you are usually good? If people think you are often bad, put an X on the red circle. If people think you are usually good, put an X on the blue circle.
cloud	Can you answer quickly, or do others seem to answer before you? If you answer quickly, put an X on the red circle or, if others seem to answer before you, put an X on the blue circle.
fish	Are you lucky or unlucky? If you are lucky, put an X on the red circle. If you are unlucky, put an X on the blue circle.
apple	Do you think only some people like you, or do you think everybody likes you? If you think only some people like you, put an X on the red circle or, if you think everybody likes you, put an X on the blue circle.
mushroom	Do people ever say you talk too much? If people ever say you talk too much, put an X on the red circle or, if people never say you talk too much, put an X on the blue circle.
mouse	Can you do things better than most boys and girls, or not as well as most boys and girls? If you can do things better than most boys and girls, put an X on the red circle or, if you cannot do things as well as most boys and girls, put an X on the blue circle.
moon	Do you seem to be always having accidents, or do you never have accidents? If you seem to be always having accidents, put an X on the red circle or, if you never have accidents, put an X on the blue circle.
bottle	Do you feel cheerful and happy most of the time, or not much at all? If you feel cheerful and happy most of the time, put an X on the red circle. If you do not feel cheerful and happy much at all, put an X on the blue circle.
kite	Do things sometimes seem too hard for you, or do things never seem too hard for you? If things sometimes seem too hard for you, put an X on the red circle or, if things never seem too hard for you, put an X on the blue circle.
book	Do you think you have to sit too long in school? If you think you have to sit too long in school, put an X on the red circle or, if you do not think you have to sit too long in school, put an X on the blue circle.
leaf	Do you usually finish your work on time, or do you need more time? If you usually finish your work on time, put an X on the red circle. If you need more time to finish your work, put an X on the blue circle.
owl	Are other children always nice to you, or do they sometimes pick on you? If other children are always nice to you, put an X on the red circle. If other children sometimes pick on you, put an X on the blue circle.
lion	Can other people do things better than you, or not as well as you? If other people do things better than you, put an X on the red circle or, if other people do not do things as well as you, put an X on the blue circle.
cake	Are you afraid of the dark, or are you not afraid of the dark? If you are afraid of the dark, put an X on the red circle or, if you are not afraid of the dark, put an X on the blue circle.

Child Anxiety Scale

(Gillis, 1980)

IPT I (K-6)

RATIONALE OF TEST ITEMS


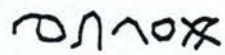
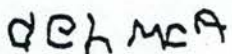
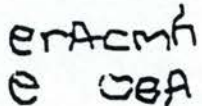
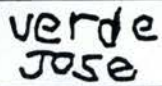
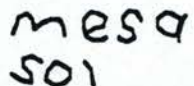
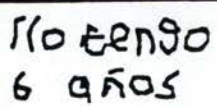
Test Items by Item Number Identified by Skill Area and Developmental Level

	LEVEL B*	LEVEL C	LEVEL D	LEVEL E	LEVEL F
VOCABULARY	3. People 4. School 5. Body Parts 6. Animals: Pets 7. Food: Fruit and Vegetables	13. People: Occupations 14. Clothing and Accessories 15. Animals: Farm 16. Food: Common	30. Transportation 31. Household Items 32. Adjectives: Weather 36. Calendar: Days of Week	49. Money 50. Animals: Marine 51. Miscellaneous Items 52. Tools	66. People: Occupations 67. Calendar: Holidays, Festivals, Seasons 68. Animals
COMPREHENSION	8. Spatial Concepts: Space Prepositions 9. Commands	21. Spatial Concepts: Directionality on Page 22. Commands 26. Story: Factual Recall 27. 28. 29.	34. Comparative Concepts 37. Opposite Concepts 38. 39. Spatial Concepts: Directionality in Space 43. Story: Determining Mood 44.	55. Opposite Concepts 56. Time Concepts 57.	78. Story: Predicting Outcome 79.
SYNTAX	10. Yes/No Response 11. Regular Plurals 12. Verb: "to be"	17. Pronouns: Subject 18. Verbs: Present Progressive 19. Mass Nouns 20. Conjunctions 23. Negative Statements	33. Verbs: Habitual Present 35. Comparatives 40. Questions: Future Tense 45. Irregular Plurals 46. Pronouns: Possessive	53. Superlatives 54. Verbs: Irregular Past Tense 58. Questions: Past Tense	69. Verbs: Conditional 70. Verbs: Past Perfect
VERBAL EXPRESSION**	1. Survival Responses 2.	24. Sentence Repetition 25.	41. Sentence Repetition 42. 47. Use of Future Tense 48.	59. Auditory Discrimination 60. 61. 62. 63. Descriptive Skills 64. 65.	71. Auditory Discrimination 72. 73. 74. 75. Use of Past Tense 76. 77. 80. Story: Retelling Main Ideas 81. 82. 83.

* LEVEL A Placement is indicated by less than 50% proficiency on LEVEL B.

** Includes Articulation skills.

Appendix C

WRITING TYPE	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE
scribble writing	sequences of wavy lines or repetitive forms that bear little or no resemblance to actual letters, yet give the general impression of writing	
pseudo-letters	written forms that look like letters, but are not	
letters	recognizable letters from the (Spanish) alphabet	
pseudo-words	strings of letters or pseudo-letters that are spaced in such a way as to look like words, but are not actually words	
copied words	words that have been copied from displays in classroom	
self-generated words	independently created words that are spelled conventionally enough to be recognized	
self-generated sentences	fully formed, conventional or nearly conventional sentences which communicate an idea	

A Continuum of Developmental Scripting Strategies

(Peregoy & Boyle, 1990)

Appendix D

Case Study Observations

The case study observations of the ten target students were made throughout the time period of the study, from the first to the tenth journal sample collected. The eight criteria for the case study observations were delineated in chapter 3.

Quiet Group

Ana

1. During direct instruction, Ana did not initiate communication with the teacher. She would sometimes raise her hand to be called upon, but she would never call out a question.

2. During informal periods, she was very friendly and communicative with the teacher, relating stories and helping.

3. Ana was not very eager to answer questions of her own volition. If called upon, however, she would gladly respond.

4. During designated silent periods, she was the most talkative of the quiet group.

5. During informal instruction periods, she participated in the group discussions. Often, however, she had differences of opinion with the others, which drove her to complain to the teacher.

6. During free periods, she played with the others, but, again, the play was often interrupted with conflict and accusations.

7. Ana's body language during formal periods gave the impression of a timid person. She was serious and appeared nervous if she didn't know an answer. During informal periods, however, she was very vocal, smiling and joking and very affectionate.

8. Journal writing was very important to Ana. She had the highest total of the ten samples, and customarily wrote volumes in both Spanish and English. She enjoyed reading her work.

Jose F.

1. Jose would raise his hand during direct instruction and wait quietly to be called on.

2. He would often initiate communication with the

teacher during free periods.

3. Jose was always very eager to answer questions, waiting quietly to be called upon.

4. During designated silent periods, Jose spoke only if peers spoke to him, and then quietly.

5. He sometimes initiated communication with his peers, but usually only with other quieter students for cooperative work.

6. During free periods, he was more likely to initiate communication. He became more at ease with peers as time went on.

7. His body language gave the impression of a quiet person. He sat quietly, seldom encroaching on anyone's space. His eye contact was poor or even downcast when under stress. When relaxed, however, he smiled and appeared to enjoy himself.

8. Jose F. enjoyed his journal writing and stayed on task, but was not a risk-taker. He wanted to produce, but was very dependent on approval for his writing.

Jose G.

1. Jose G. would seldom raise his hand to comment during direct instruction. And he would never initiate

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communication on his own by calling out or leaving his seat.

2. He sometimes initiated communication with the teacher during informal periods, very often about his family problems. He was very quiet and shy, but eager to get attention.

3. Sometimes he would volunteer to answer a question, but he was usually nervous about taking a risk.

4. During a designated silent period, Jose G. never initiated conversation and ignored peers who would draw him into talking.

5. During informal periods of instruction, Jose would talk with his peers, but he always followed their lead.

6. During free periods, Jose G. played with friends while letting them take the lead in games.

7. Jose G. had a very distinctive body language. He sat very quietly. He usually displayed downcast eyes at the beginning of the year. He spoke so quietly at first that the teacher had to approach him to hear what he was saying. He watched the other children interact.

8. Jose wanted to write in his journal, but he was academically behind his peers and realized it. Even

though his peers encouraged and wanted to help him, he wouldn't take risks.

Veronica L.

1. During direct instruction, she did not initiate communication with the teacher. She would usually raise her hand, but never called out to attract attention nor initiated questions.

2. During informal periods, she was very reticent at first, but soon became confident and friendly with the teacher. In those moments, she was very happy and relaxed.

3. She raised her hand and responded eagerly to classroom questions, but always waited for the teacher to call on her rather than blurt out answers.

4. During designated silent periods, Veronica followed instructions. She not only did not talk, but eagerly reported classmates who were talking.

5. She often, however, initiated communication with peers during informal periods of instruction. During cooperative groups, she participated and interacted easily with her group or other class members.

6. During free periods, she also had a fairly good

relationship with her peers. She had a group of friends with whom she played, but she also came to the teacher to complain that her girlfriends didn't want to play with her sometimes.

7. Her body language gave the teacher the impression she was very quiet and shy. During the first months of school, her voice level was so low the teacher was forced to move closer to hear what she said. She seemed more often serious than smiling. When confronted with an anxiety-producing situation, her head would go down and she would avoid eye contact.

Her confidence in classroom situations improved after the first couple of months. She appeared more relaxed, less anxious, and happier as she became accustomed to the routine.

8. Journal writing was very important to her. She was among the most eager in the class to show off her journal writing. She often wouldn't wait until journal center but would come directly to the teacher for immediate feedback. During the journal center time, she concentrated her energy on writing or helping others write.

Veronica V.

1. Veronica V. never initiated communication during direct instruction. She would respond but not initiate.

2. During informal periods, Veronica slowly but surely began to initiate conversation with the teacher, but always in her very quiet voice.

3. Even though she was extremely quiet, she always had her hand raised eagerly to answer. The teacher would have to walk closer to hear her responses.

4. She never initiated communication during designated silent periods, and seemed bothered by those who interrupted her.

5. During informal periods, she would not initiate communication with peers, but would follow the lead of the more outgoing children in her cooperative group.

6. During free periods, she played with other girls, but usually followed what they dictated.

7. Veronica V. was an exceptionally serious child, seldom smiling. She typically displayed downcast eyes in difficult situations. She was confident about her academic prowess, however, and fidgeted eagerly to be called upon for an answer.

8. Journal writing was very important to Veronica.

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She was always anxious to show off her work. She stayed on task and asked for the teacher to pose more written questions. She was quietly proud of her ability.

Outgoing Group

Crystal

1. Crystal was usually eager to initiate communication with the teacher during direct instruction, often to relate a personal story. When not concentrating on the teacher, she was communicating with anyone in her vicinity.

2. During informal periods, she constantly approached the teacher with news, stories, or tattling.

3. She usually very eagerly responded to classroom questions, but when she didn't, it was because she was off task.

4. During designated silent periods, she constantly communicated with peers, in spite of repeated warnings. She was unable to contain herself.

5. During informal periods of instruction, she was always one of the ring leaders for the project or cooperative activity. She wanted everyone to follow her instructions.

6. During free periods, she usually initiated communication with her peers, often stirring up excitement.

7. Her body language was very open and extroverted. She approached the teacher constantly, pulling, tugging, and talking incessantly to gain attention. She was in constant motion, often out of her seat, and usually engaged in conversation with a neighbor. She displayed good eye contact and was almost always happy.

8. Crystal was competent in her journal writing, but it was not especially important to her. She would cover the assignment, then proceed to talk to other students.

Liana

1. Liana often initiated communication with the teacher. She was confident about her ideas, and loved to express them.

2. She often communicated with the teacher during free periods, usually telling stories.

3. She was always ready to respond to classroom questions, and, since she was academically advanced, she often blurted out answers when she saw others making

mistakes.

4. During silent periods, she followed the rules.

5. During informal periods, she was usually looked to by her peers to lead the activity. She did so in a very balanced, fair manner.

6. During free periods, she communicated well with her peers, being one of the most popular children in the class.

7. Her body language was that of a very secure, balanced child. She was able to stay within her space when necessary and able to move into others' space when they needed help. She defended herself without being aggressive. She had good eye contact, and she was almost always happy and enthusiastic.

8. She enjoyed writing in her journal and helping others write. She was very competent at writing. It was not, however, a driving force with her.

Mario

1. Mario often initiated communication with the teacher during direct instruction to comment on anything and everything.

2. During informal periods, Mario constantly

approached the teacher with stories or complaints.

3. He always responded to classroom questions, usually calling out without waiting to be recognized.

4. During silent periods, he often initiated communication with peers, getting all concerned in trouble.

5. During informal periods of instruction, he was a leader of whatever activity was at hand.

6. He also directed his peers during free periods, being one of the most popular and dominant children.

7. Mario displayed very active, outgoing body language. He had difficulty staying within his own space. He displayed very confident eye contact, and constantly spoke out. He was full of nervous energy.

8. Mario did a minimum of journal writing. He was very competent but disinterested. As soon as he could finish, he would move on to communicating with his peers, and not about journals.

Monica

1. Monica incessantly initiated communication with the teacher, on any and all topics.

2. During free periods, she confidently approached

the teacher about all matters, often to let the teacher know how her peers should be corrected.

3. Monica was rightly confident of her ability, and she responded loudly and often out of turn to questions.

4. During silent periods, she was usually able to display self-control and not initiate communication with peers.

5. During informal periods, she dominated communication with peers and directed all activities.

6. During free periods, she either directed play or was very active in complaining about those who were not in agreement with her.

7. Her body language demonstrated confidence. She had good eye contact, spoke out loudly and confidently, and dominated the space of others in her group.

8. She enjoyed journal writing and was quite competent at it. Again, however, it was just another task to be done well, and not a burning desire.

Vanessa

1. Vanessa frequently initiated communication with the teacher during direct instruction; sometimes able to wait to be called on, and sometimes blurting out her

ideas.

2. During informal periods, she often approached the teacher to talk about things she enjoyed.

3. She often responded to classroom questions by calling out the answer, unable to contain herself.

4. During silent periods, she was able to obey the rules and keep peers in line, too.

5. During informal periods of instruction, she often wanted to lead her group. She was friends with everyone.

6. During free periods, she played well with all the children, communicating easily.

7. Her body language was confident and positive. She was always smiling and friendly. She was often out of her space, but was able to control herself when the situation required it. Her eye contact was good, and she was very affectionate.


8. Vanessa enjoyed her journal writing, and she was very good at it. She enjoyed even more, though, working with others on their journal.

Appendix E

Student Writing Samples

Ana

Estoy preto ~~hoy~~
[S-1] ~~ETA~~ ~~MAD~~ ~~2~~ ~~FCS~~ ~~S~~ ~~B~~ ~~NO~~ ~~TA~~
El hace cosas bonitas.
[T-1] ¿Qué más te gustó?
[S-2] ~~F~~ ~~L~~ ~~P~~ ~~F~~ ~~R~~ ~~O~~ ~~T~~ ~~A~~ ~~M~~ ~~A~~ ~~B~~ ~~N~~ ~~O~~ ~~T~~ ~~A~~
El perro también — bonita
Ana



The page contains several hand-drawn sketches on lined paper. On the left, there is a simple drawing of a dog's head in profile, facing left. In the center, there is a large, complex scribble consisting of multiple overlapping lines forming a star-like or abstract shape. To the right of this scribble, there is a drawing of a triangle with a vertical line extending downwards from its base. Below the triangle, there is another smaller, simpler drawing of a triangle.

Una una fiesta (a)



[3-3] Mi teo golpaer

[7-2] ¿Qué más hicieron? _____

[5-4] Me Na Na La Paer

e Me ta ta o La Paer

(cont. 5-4 →)



Page 2 (b)

[5-5] Elnatulle (a)



[5-6] XyoDe a

lo Casexi

[5-3] ¿Qué hiciste allí?

[5-7] ei Me se
MATHO I. L'ell
GSO

PARQUER PARK

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¿Qué había dentro de los
Castillitos?

(a)

[B-8] se meo en una tienda

Mkusto mto

lo Jwks me pas

¡h Ca vetos

ve mhas personas

E mnezos

E inexas

Vea Permotcto

Ei sa va in tro etenava

in stabili sup

TH vera

Free Topic
Tema Libre



[5-9] Fya Me Po Po

o Me casa
[7-5] ¡Qué bien! ¿Estás contenta?

o Sto
[5-10]



[S-11] an Diya eoa May Carbon

[T-6] ¿Qué hiciste?

[S-12] E methavathe

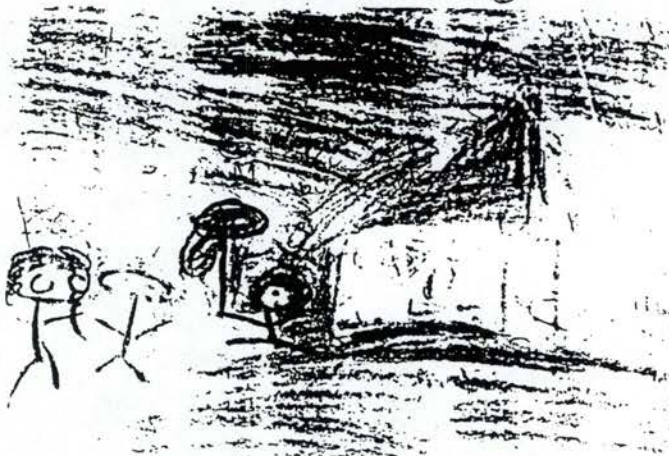
[T-7] ¿Qué más?

E na reyo

[S-13] Jwe le la we a d fiya

Me fin de semana

Ana
(d)



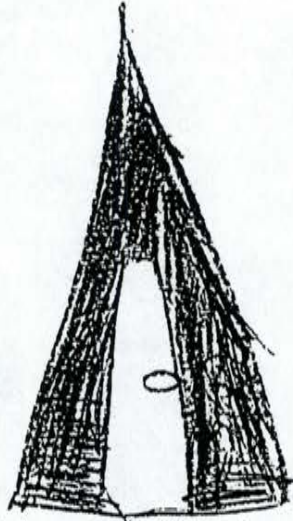
[5-19] Yo EST valoteka

E No Dixa De

F lista Juwe

Mucho [78] ¿Dónde más lista? →

(b)



[S-15]

Ee, MeCaSit
WuNe a CoMr

Page 6(b)



[S-16]

~~to t e m e d~~

[T-9]

¿Dónde?

[S-17]

en to the st godas

~~odas te moeste~~

~~Buz~~



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My Week
NiFi de Semana (a)



[B-18] a iya
Yojwa
La Vana

[r-10] ¿Qué hiciste en el parque? (b)
[s-19] Juve
con mi amiga
Yo E! mamiga
Si los C! pups
E! Sims a la
La deo E! xo e cap

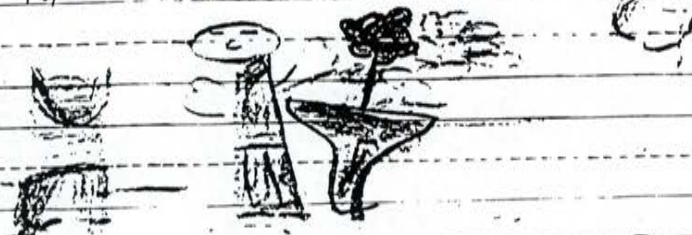
unas amigas

E! Juamas

a! la vo E! ag

Babón a mianat
Y la five

Por Ana



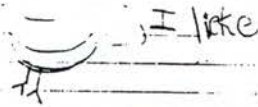
[S-19] Me Maestras Ben

[T-11] Gracias Ana. Tú eres muy especial.

[S-20] Wena Poreso la

[S-21] Gieco es Bam Bonita

Mi animador favorito



[5-22]

I like DUKES M.
X me me gusta los Patos
Som Peepo like Dukest
Ynno personase gusta patas
But I like Duke Moni
Fedo yome gusta los Patas Mas
I like Duke first
Yo me gusta los Patos Prema
a I will tell you I can be a duke
Eso voy a decirle me Papa si peto
a copra un pato
I like my duck
I like Duke
Yo me gusta los Patos
a I will like Duke Moni
Eso voy a decirle los pato

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Appendix F

Transcript of Student Writing Samples

Ana

Key: S1 = Student entry #1, T1 = Teacher entry #1

Student #1: Ana

Page 1

S-1: El hace cosas bonitas.

T-1: ¿Qué más te gusta?

S-2: El perro también -- bonita.

Page 2 (a) & (b)

S-3: Mi tío golpea.

T-2: ¿Qué más hicieron?

S-4: Mi nana golpea y mi tata golpea (la piñata).

Mi papá está.

Page 3 (a) & (b)

S-5: El ratón.

S-6: Yo fui a los castillos.

T-3: ¿Qué hiciste allí

S-7: Ella me paseó -- malito -- I love Mrs. Garcia.

T-4: ¿Qué había dentro de los castillitos?

S-8: Se movía esa "vano" -- tienda. Me gusta (a) mi hermano. Luego fuimos me (?) en cavernas. Vimos muchas personas, ahí en Los Angeles, ahí en Los Angeles. Ahí estaba un tiburón ahí en el agua. De veras.

Page 4

S-9: Fue mi papá a mi casa.

T-5: ¡Qué bien! ¿Estás contenta?

S-10: Ya estoy.

Page 5

S-11: Un día hacia mucho calor.

T-6: ¿Qué hiciste?

S-12: Y me nadaba en el río.

T-7: ¿Qué más?

S-13: Fui en el agua con mi tía.

Page 6 (a) & (b)

S-14: Yo estaba contenta.

T-8: ¿Dónde más fuiste?

S-15: En mi casita fuimos a comer.

Page 7

S-16: Yo te miré.

T-9: ¿Dónde?

PARCHMENT DEED
S-17: "In to the store" donde estabas. Donde
estabas tú me miraste.

Page 8 (a) & (b)

S-18: Ayer yo fui al parque.

T-10: ¿Qué hiciste en el parque?

S-19: Jugué con mi amiga. Yo y mi amiga. Fui a
los columpios y fuimos a la video y yo
encontré unas amigas y jugamos. A la
lavandería agarraron a mi anillo y la sigue.

Page 9

S-20: Mi maestra es bien buena.

T-11: Gracias, Ana. Tú eres muy especial.

S-21: Por eso la quiero. Es bien bonita.

Page 10

S-22: I like ducks. A mi me gustan los patos.
Some people like ducks. A algunas personas les
gustan los patos. But I like ducks more. Pero a mi
me gustan los patos más. I like ducks first. Yo me
gusto los patos primero. And I will tell daddy if
I can buy a duck. Y yo le voy a decir a mi papá si
pido a comprar un pato. I take my dad is can see.
I like ducks. Yo me gustan los patos. And I will
like ducks more. Y yo voy a querer los patos.

Appendix G

Sample of Student CAS Tests

Veronica L.



CAS—Level 1

Name: First Veronica Last L. Boy Girl

Age 7 1 Grade 1 Teacher Garcia School Appleby Date 1-25-97
Years Months

Start here

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	

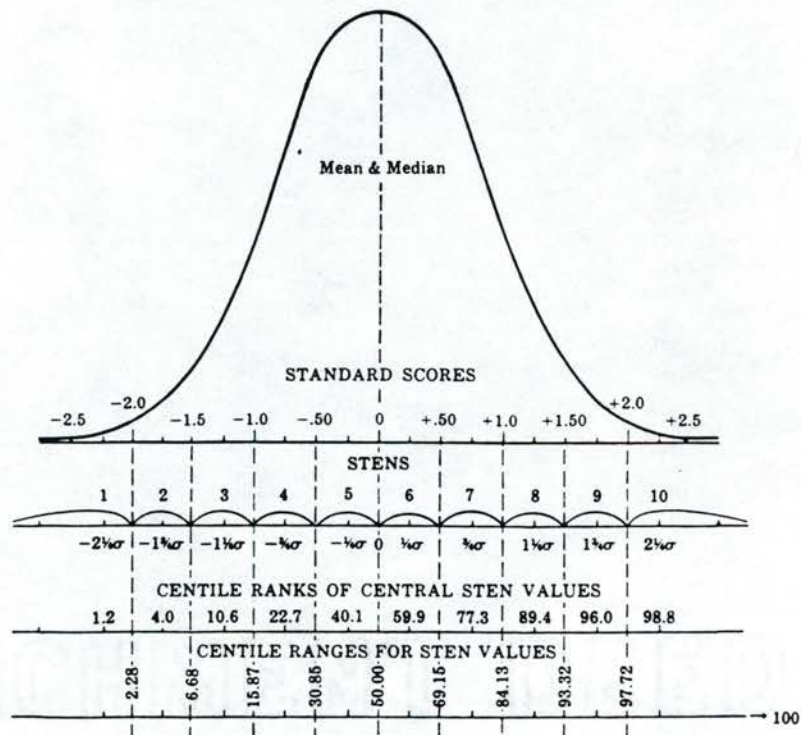
11		☆
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		☆
19		
20		

Raw Score	11
Standard Score	

Appendix H

CAS Tests and Curve Results

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG STENS, PERCENTILES AND STANDARD SCORES



	<u>Standard Score</u>	<u>Percentile</u>	<u>Sten</u>
<u>Quiet Group</u>			
Ana	121	91	8
Jose F.	128	97	9
Jose G.	114	86	7
Veronica L.	121	91	8
Veronica V.	121	91	8
<u>Outgoing Group</u>			
Crystal	100	50	5
Liana	91	21	4
Mario	96	40	5
Monica	100	50	5
Vanessa	87	20	4

Appendix I

Word Frequency Counts of Writing Samples

Sample #	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total	Avg
<u>Quiet Group</u>												
Ana	8	13	50	8	18	9	14	39	12	97	268	26.8
Jose F.	1	10	7	12	14	8	13	19	12	24	120	12.0
Jose G.	5	2	5	2	4	12	14	8	13	12	77	7.7
Veronica L.	11	14	36	20	14	51	7	22	25	71	271	27.1
Veronica V.	4	14	11	7	24	11	13	16	18	26	124	14.4
<u>Outgoing Group</u>												
Crystal	0	9	3	12	11	20	12	11	24	11	113	11.3
Liana	6	10	8	6	10	14	14	10	43	17	138	13.8
Mario	6	11	6	8	8	19	10	10	9	14	101	10.1
Monica	3	4	6	7	24	19	12	9	25	31	140	14
Vanessa	5	4	11	8	14	21	25	13	29	22	152	15.2

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