

LITERACY & SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

INTERNATIONAL
LITERACY
ASSOCIATION

CO-EDITORS

Tynisha D. Meidl

Leah Katherine Saal

CONTRIBUTORS

Lyndsay Moffatt

Jane Bean-Folkes

Laura Gomez

Rivi Edaakie

Sarah R. Kostelecky

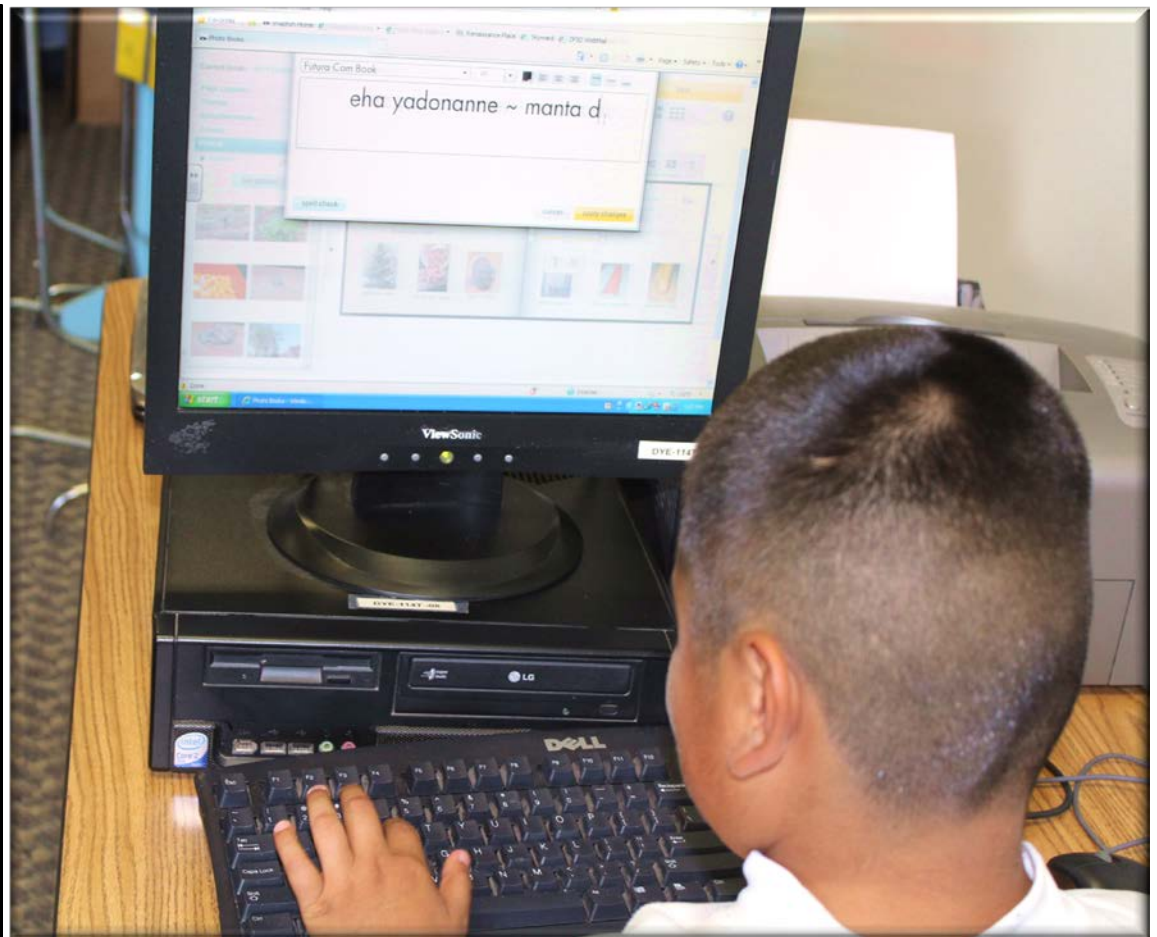
Marjori Krebs

Cheryl Torrez

Stephanie A. Flores-
Koulish

Christopher Early

Lisa Gilbert



A PUBLICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL LITERACY ASSOCIATION
FORMALLY THE INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

ISSN: 235-963X

AIMS & SCOPE

Literacy & Social Responsibility eJournal is an international peer-reviewed forum published by the Literacy and Social Responsibility Special Interest Group of the International Literacy Association. This journal provides a venue for educators to promote the intersection of literacy and social responsibility for life long learners through policy, research, and/or practice.

EDITORS

Tynisha D. Meidl, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Teacher Education
St. Norbert College, Wisconsin

Leah Katherine Saal, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Literacy
Loyola University Maryland

Contact Us:**Website:**

<http://www.csulb.edu/misc/l-sr/ejournal/ejournal.html>

Email Address:

lsrejournal@gmail.com

EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD

Carolyn L. Cook, Ph.D.
Mount St. Mary's University – Maryland

Gerlinde Grandstaff-Beckers, Ph.D.
Southeastern Louisiana University

Afra Ahmed Hersi, Ph.D.
Loyola University Maryland

Erik Jacobson, Ph.D.
Montclair State University

Anne Katz, Ph.D.
Armstrong Atlantic State University

P. Zitlali Morales, Ph.D.
University of Illinois - Chicago

Kristen Perry, Ph.D.
University of Kentucky

Jolanta Smolen Santana, Ph.D.
Independent Consultant - Denver, Colorado

Donita J. Shaw, Ph.D.
University of Kansas

LaToshia Woods, Ph.D.
Arkansas State University



CONTENTS

**Editorial Introduction** 2*Tynisha D. Meidl & Leah Katherine Saal***Featured Articles**

Surveying the Field: Literacy Education Research for Environmental Sustainability 3

Lyndsay Moffatt

Students' Linguistic Knowledge and Competence: 15

A Learning Resource in the Writing Classroom

Jane Bean-Folkes

Past and Present: Arizona's Language/Literacy Policies and Their Educational 25

Impact

*Laura Gomez***Take Action Article**

Third Graders Revitalize the Zuni Pueblo Language One Letter at a Time 36

*Rivi Edaakie, Sarah R. Kostelecky, Marjori Krebs, & Cheryl Torrez***Reviews of Text**Book Review of *Educating for Insurgency: The Roles of Young People*..... 45*in Schools of Poverty* by Jay Gillen (2014)*Stephanie A. Flores-Koulis & Christopher Early*Book Review of *Learning Care Lessons: Literacy, Love, Care and Solidarity* 48

by Maggie Feeley (2014)

*Lisa Gilbert***Social Justice Literature Award Winners (2015)** 51*Aimee Rogers*

EDITORIAL INTRODUCTION

Volume 8 | Issue 1 2015



Tynisha D. Meidl

Co-editor



Leah Katherine Saal

Co-editor

Welcome to Volume 8 of the *Literacy & Social Responsibility eJournal*.

Each volume of the *Literacy & Social Responsibility eJournal* (LSR) intentionally creates a space for marginalized voices. Therefore, we pay special attention not only to the rigor of the research being presented but also whose voice is privileged within each piece. Given the current social and racial tensions in the United States, as literacy teachers and researchers, we all have the responsibility to reflect on the affordances and limitations our current literacy processes and practices offer in service of social change, and we hope to lead that charge with this publication. Please [follow the link](#) for a quick video note from Ty on LSR's alignment with the new International Literacy Association mission of "Transforming Lives Through Literacy."

This volume is our inaugural issue as the new co-editorial team. We hope you join us in welcoming Dr. Leah Katherine Saal as the journal's new Co-editor. Leah is an Assistant Professor of Literacy at the Loyola University Maryland and has also been an active voice in the Literacy & Social Responsibility SIG for ILA. Please [follow the link](#) for a quick video note from Leah on her thoughts for the journal.

Issue 1 is comprised of three *Feature Articles* grounded in empirical data, a *Take Action Article* focused on how practitioners are connecting literacy and social responsibility, and two critical *Text Reviews*. Each of this issue's pieces explicitly or implicitly examine fluctuating conceptions of place, space, and identity as central to the intersection of literacy and social responsibility.

This issue begins with an article by Lindsay Moffat that explores the connection between literacy education and environmental sustainability. Her content analysis synthesizes research on this intersection over the last decade. We then turn to an article by Jane Bean Folks which examines the challenges that multilingual students face while learning Standard English – particularly in the context of formal writing. The results offer one teacher's successful writing practices and helpful resources used within an urban middle school context. We continue with an article by Laura Gomez which outlines the results of a narrative review on the historical, socio-political climate of language policies and their educational impact in Arizona. Her results highlight how Arizona's policies serve to codify the marginalization of language minority groups.

In this issue's Take Action article, the authors examine how one third grade heritage language teacher, Ms. Edaakie, *took action* by helping her students address the problem of revitalizing the Zuni language by authoring and publishing their own digital Zuni Language Alphabet Book. Finally, the two book reviews featured in this issue ground their argument in the work of Paulo Freire while providing contemporary views on literacy as an emancipatory process among traditionally marginalized groups.

In closing, we wish to thank the authors for their diverse perspectives on literacy and social responsibility as well the members of the Editorial Review Board who shared their expertise, insights, and time to make this issue representative of our mission.

We look forward to continuing the conversation.

Ty and Leah

Surveying the Field: Literacy Education Research for Environmental Sustainability

Lyndsay Moffatt
University of Prince Edward Island, Canada

Abstract — This paper examines common themes and gaps in peer-reviewed research concerning literacy education and environmental sustainability. A content analysis is offered to help map out and synthesize research that has been conducted in the last decade in order to inform literacy educators, literacy teacher-educators, literacy education policy writers and literacy education researchers. This study is designed to help create an agenda for future research in literacy education and environmental sustainability.

Keywords: *literacy education research, environmental sustainability, ideologies of literacy learning, new literacy studies, multiliteracies*

Anthropological, sociological and historical studies of literacy suggest that different forms of literacy are valued differently in different cultural and political contexts and that definitions of literacy change over time ([Barton & Hamilton, 2000](#); [Brandt, 2001](#); [Cook-Gumpertz, 1986](#); [Graff, 1979](#); [Street, 2001b](#)). While some literacy researchers continue to see literacy as an ahistorical, acultural and apolitical skill that is autonomous from social context, other literacy researchers have asserted the importance of recognizing the ways that ideology is bound up with our ideas of literacy and literacy education ([Betts, 2003](#); [Bialostok, 2002](#); [Blackledge, 2001](#); [Brandt, 2001](#); [Collins & Blot, 2003](#); [Compton-Lilly, 2003](#); [Ivanic, 2004](#); [Prendergrast, 2003](#); [Rogers, 2003](#); [Rogers & Schaenen, 2014](#); [Shannon, 2000](#); [Street, 2001a](#); [Woolard & Schieffelin, 1994](#)).

In the past 40 years, research from the New Literacy Studies has documented how literacy is socially constructed in different socio-cultural contexts and that what counts as literacy changes over time ([Barton & Hamilton, 1998, 2000](#); [Gee, 2000](#); [Heath, 1983](#); [Scribner & Cole, 1981](#); [Street, 2001b](#)). While some researchers such as Collins & Blot (2003) and Brandt & Clinton (2002), have argued for more macro understandings of how some aspects of literacy remain the same across contexts, what

has been less researched is how literacy is constructed by literacy education researchers, or how our own research reports can be read as reflections of current ideologies of literacy and literacy learning.

In addition, while it is impossible to anticipate all of the needs of the next generation, current research concerning climate change and the disappearance of readily available fossil fuels suggests that literacies for environmental sustainability, ecological literacies, or environmental literacies, may be some of the most essential gifts we can give children and young people who are currently attending school, or who are destined to enter the school system in the next decade ([Hanlon & McCartney, 2008](#); [Parry, Rosenzweig, Iglesias, Livermore, & Fischer, 2004](#); [Paten, Palousis, Hargroves, & Smith, 2005](#); [Tranter & Sharpe, 2007](#); [WRI, 2005](#)). What such literacies might include are beginning to be sketched out by a range of researchers in a variety of fields ([Donehower, Hogg, & Schell, 2007](#); [Orr, 1992](#); [Stibbe, 2009](#)). However, to date, few, if any reviews have been conducted to examine how issues of climate change and environmental sustainability are being taken up or talked about by literacy education researchers, or if these issues have been embraced at all.

This paper is an investigation of how literacy education researchers have responded to issues of climate change and environmental sustainability. Using sociological ideas of cultural production and applied discourse analysis, the analysis presented here suggests that for the most part, literacy education researchers have not responded to pressing issues of climate change and environmental sustainability. In addition, it suggests that literacy researchers' current lack of engagement with one of the most pressing issues of our time may be intimately related to enduring ideologies of literacy education that see literacy as autonomous from social context ([Street, 2001a](#)). This paper raises questions about the role of literacy education researchers in creating an environmentally sustainable culture and whether there is a space for broader discussions of environmental sustainability in the world of literacy education research. This paper employs a content analysis to map recent research in literacy education and environmental

sustainability. In an attempt to understand this area of research the central research question for this study was: What is known about literacy education research and environmental sustainability?

Context

For the past 40 years, there have been numerous calls to integrate ecological thinking into schooling, teacher-education programs, and curriculum. However, recent research suggests progress has been exceptionally slow. Research suggests many educators do not feel equipped to address issues of environmental sustainability with their students and that there are significant gaps in teachers' knowledge about environmental issues ([Nolet, 2009a](#); [Powers, 2004](#); [Summers, Kruger, Childs, & Mant, 2000](#)). Recent developments in literacy education research, such as the infusion of anthropological and sociological approaches to studying literacy, have raised questions about the changing nature of literacy and how this concept is socially and culturally constructed. The research of scholars such as Barton, Hamilton and Ivanic (2000), Brandt (2001), Cook-Gumperz (1986; 2006), Graff (1979), Heath (1983), Scribner and Cole (1981), Street (1984; 2001), and Prendergrast (2003) amongst many others, has helped to raise issues of cultural context and historical change in discussions of what counts as literacy learning. These scholars have asked questions about how ideologies of literacy learning are expressed in everyday ways and how such ideologies are related to issues in culture and society. Yet, few scholars have turned this awareness to examining the kinds of ideologies of literacy learning that can be found in peer reviewed research, or how ideologies of literacy learning may limit our ability to see contemporary issues such as environmental sustainability as relevant to literacy education.

It can be argued that since literacy educators, literacy teacher-educators, and literacy education policy writers often focus their work on the education of children and young adults, they generally need to have some sense of the kinds of literacies that may be most useful to young people in the coming decades. Research into the possible impact of climate change suggests that the next generation will have some significant challenges ahead of it, including learning how to respond to extreme weather patterns, global food shortages, and an increase in social divides between those who have access to nourishing food and clean water and those who do not ([Dietz, 2007](#); [Hanlon & McCartney, 2008](#); [VanDeveer, 2011](#)). In this way, learning how to respond to erratic and extreme weather, learning how to grow and distribute food more equitably, and with less ecological damage, as well as learning how to mitigate and adapt to dramatic social, economic, and environmental changes will become some of the most important skills young people can acquire or develop. Given recent understandings of literacy as

multiple, or the recognition that there are many forms of literacy, it is possible that all of these skills could be understood as different kinds of literacy ([Cope & Kalantzis, 2000](#); [NewLondonGroup, 1996](#); [Pahl & Rowsell, 2011](#)). In this light, it is worth asking how literacy education research is currently addressing issues of environmental sustainability, or if it is doing so at all. This paper examines common themes and gaps in peer-reviewed research concerning literacy education and environmental sustainability. The aim of this study is to map out, and synthesize research that has been conducted in the last decade, and to create an agenda for future research.

Theoretical framework

This paper is informed by socio-cultural theories of literacy, theories of multiliteracies and cultural production. Socio-cultural theories of literacy suggest that literacy is historically, politically and socially constructed. In other words, that what "counts" as literacy changes over time, and that how a form of literacy is valued depends greatly on social and political context ([Barton & Hamilton, 1998, 2000](#); [Gee, 2000](#); [Street, 2001a, 2001b](#)). These theories have been expanded to theories of Multiliteracies that suggest educators need to begin to see a range of skills as part of the "New Basics" for the next generation ([Cope & Kalantzis, 2000](#); [Luke, 1999](#)). Initial sketches of these skills have included the ability to read and create visual representations, navigate and create digital texts, and recognize issues of power in communication ([Cope & Kalantzis, 2000](#); [Pahl & Rowsell, 2011](#); [Walsh, 2010](#)). This study is also informed by theories of cultural production ([Levinson & Holland, 1996](#); [Willis, 1981](#)).

These theories suggest that educators and researchers are not just the recipients of an established culture, but like all other members of society, they are producers of culture through their everyday work with colleagues, parents and students. These theories suggest accepted understandings or ideologies of literacy education and of environmental sustainability are continually being reproduced and resisted in day-to-day social interactions, and in moment-to-moment ways. These theories remind us that what we research, including how we frame our questions, and the methods we use to investigate these questions can all be viewed as objects of study. Theories of cultural production suggest it is important to investigate and recognize how specific ideologies are built up and broken down, so that we can see how to challenge dysfunctional ways of interacting and how to support positive change. While defining dysfunctional ways of interacting and positive change is often difficult, most readers would likely agree that practices which transform the earth into a planet that is uninhabitable for human beings reflects a dysfunctional way of interacting with natural resources.

As argued by Moje and Lewis (2007), theories of

cultural production recommend a careful examination of literacy education research in order to discover what ideologies of literacy learning are dominant and what ideologies are subordinate in the field, so that we can critically assess the role of our work in producing and reproducing cultural worlds. Ultimately, this perspective asks us to think about the kinds of worlds we are producing and reproducing, and if they align with the kinds of worlds we want to live in.

Methods

Data Generation

The data for this study represent peer-reviewed journal articles published between 2005 and 2015 generated through a search of five electronic databases using the terms “literacy,” “education,” and “sustainability”. The databases used for this study include *Academic Search Complete*, *Education Research Complete*, *ERIC*, *PsycINFO* and *GreenFILE*. The search was limited to peer reviewed journals and the initial search of these databases resulted in a total of 554 articles.

Analysis

In order to answer the question of what is known about literacy education research and environmental sustainability analysis, the researcher began with eliminating duplicate articles, book reviews, articles that were not available in full text from the author’s university, and articles that did not focus specifically on literacy education and environmental sustainability. For example, articles that focused on the sustainability of a particular reading program, but did not actually engage in a consideration of environmental sustainability, or articles that focused on ecological sustainability but did not actually use the term “literacy” in any way in the body of the text were removed as they did not address both literacy and environmental sustainability. Following this weeding, the final data set consisted of 77 articles.

The next phase of analysis consisted of reading through the abstracts of all of the articles several times. This process helped to create an understanding of some of the commonalities and differences in the data set. An initial finding was that many of the articles appeared to use the word literacy in conjunction with another term, such as “ocean literacy”. The PDFs of the articles were then searched using the term “literacy” in order to see how the term “literacy” was being used in the individual studies, and whether the authors defined what they meant by literacy. Initial analysis also suggested that the majority of the articles were not being published in literacy education journals.

In the next phase of analysis, the articles were grouped in terms of the journals that published them, using a function in Endnote that allowed the user to sort

by journal. In this way, it was possible to see patterns in terms of which journals were publishing articles on literacy and environmental sustainability. The next step was to sort the articles into conceptual or empirical research and then to sort the articles according to the level of education (pre-school, elementary, middle school, secondary, or tertiary) that provided the focus for the empirical studies. The final step of the analysis was to review the articles in the dataset to see whether any of the authors made mention of theories of multiliteracies, theories of cultural production, or socio-cultural theories of learning.

Results and Discussion

Preliminary analysis of the data reveals several significant findings. The first finding is that there are relatively few peer-reviewed articles being published that focus on both literacy education and environmental sustainability. While there are numerous articles that focus on the sustainability of particular literacy education interventions, and while there are numerous articles that address issues of sustainable development and literacy, there are few articles that appear to engage in focused discussions of literacy education and environmental sustainability. This difference can be seen when comparing the number of articles that were first gathered using the search terms (554), to the number articles that actually focused on issues of literacy and environmental sustainability (77). It bears noting that the same search of these data bases with the subject headings “literacy” and “education” resulted in 55,269 articles published in the same time decade. In this way, we can conclude that consideration of issues of environmental sustainability is a fairly marginal concern in literacy education research.

The second finding is that throughout the data set the term “literacy” is generally coupled with another word such as “critical literacy”, “cultural literacy” or “ecological literacy”. Other examples included: “bio-regional literacy”, “environmental literacy”, “food system literacy”, “media literacy”, “ocean literacy”, “political literacy”, “science literacy”, and “sustainability literacy” amongst others ([Adelman & Sandiford, 2007](#); [Colucci-Gray, Camino, Barbiero, & Gray, 2006](#); [Schoedinger, Cava, & Jewell, 2006](#); [Wright, 2006](#); [Zoller, 2011](#)).

Table 1 shows the multiple terms with references. As can be seen most of the terms were used in one article. However, certain terms such as ecological literacy, environmental literacy, scientific literacy and sustainability literacy are used by more than one researcher.

Table 1. Literacy & Additional Term

Literacy Coupled with Another Term	74 Articles
Authentic Literacy	(Schneider, Kozdras, Wolkenhauer, & Arias, 2014)
Basic Literacy	(Eilam & Trop, 2011)
Bioregional Literacy	(Howard, 2012)
Civics Literacy	(Levy & Zint, 2013)
Community Literacy	(Davis, 2013)
Critical Environmental Literacy	(Kahn & Humes, 2009)
Critical Literacy	(Adelman & Sandiford, 2007; Walsh, 2010)
Critical Literacy of Non-Human Animals	(Kahn & Humes, 2009)
Critical Intersectional Literacy	(Kahn & Humes, 2009)
Cultural Literacy	(Dopico & Garcia-Vazquez, 2011)
Digital Literacy	(Edwards, Skouteris, Rutherford, & Cutter-Mackenzie, 2013; Payne, 2009; Walsh, 2010)
Earth Literacy	(Martin & Jucker, 2005)
Ecological Literacy /Eco-literacy	(Capra, 2007; Chinn, 2011; Colucci-Gray et al., 2006; Davis, 2013; Duailibi, 2006; Howard, 2012; Kilcup, 2009; Lebo, Eames, Coll, & Otrell-Cass, 2013; Levy & Zint, 2013; Lundahl, 2011; McMillan & Vasseur, 2010; Moore, 2005; Nolet, 2009b; Schneider et al., 2014; Sharma & Shardendu, 2011; Stone, 2007; Waldo, 2008; Wason-Ellam, 2010; Wyatt, 2014)
Environmental Chemistry Literacy for Global Sustainability	(Zoller, 2012)
Environmental Literacy	(Aighewi & Osaigbovo, 2010; Chinn, 2007; Eilam & Trop, 2011; Erbaş, Tuncer, & Tekkaya, 2012; Haigh, 2005; Jewett, 2011; Kahn & Humes, 2009; Macris & Georgakellos, 2006; McFarlane & Ogazon, 2011; Powers, 2004; Rose, 2010, 2012; Sagy & Tal, 2015; Selby, 2006; Spiropoulou, Antonakaki, Kontaxaki, & Bouras, 2007; Stark, 2011; Teksoz, Sahin, & Tekkaya-Oztekin, 2012)
Financial Literacy	(Schneider et al., 2014)
Food System Literacy	(Wright, 2006)
Functional Literacy	(Aoki, 2005)
General Literacy	(McFarlane & Ogazon, 2011)
Information Literacy	(Hare, Jo, Moreton, Stamm, & Winter, 2011; Stark, 2011)
Literacy in Cultural Landscapes	(Suchet-Pearson & Howitt, 2006)
Media Literacy/Multimedia Literacy	(Klosterman, Sadler, & Brown, 2012; Schneider et al., 2014)
Multiple Literacies	(Wals, 2009)
Ocean Literacy	(Lambert & Smith-Sundburg, 2006; Yagelski, 2005)
Political Literacy	(Ferreira, 2009; Huckle, 2009; McMillan & Vasseur, 2010; Nordstram, 2008)
Place-based Literacy/Place conscious literacy	(Eppley, 2011; Scheuerman, Gritter, Schuster, & Fisher, 2010)
Print-based Literacy	(Walsh, 2010)
Quantitative Literacy	(McCright, 2012)
Scientific Literacy/Science Literacy/ STES Literacy	(Birdsall, 2013; Chinn, 2009; Colucci-Gray et al., 2006; Correia, Xavier do Valle, Dazzani, & Infante-Malachias, 2010; Dopico & Garcia-Vazquez, 2011; Erbaş et al., 2012; Eryaman, Yalcin-Ozdilek, Okur, Cetinkaya, & Uygun, 2010; Hare et al., 2011; Klosterman et al., 2012; Lambert & Smith-Sundburg, 2006; Lebo et al., 2013; Manske, 2013; McCright, 2012; McFarlane & Ogazon, 2011; Morin, Tytler, Barraza, Simonneaux, & Simonneaux, 2013; Mueller, 2011; Murcia, Haigh, & Norris, 2010; Sagy & Tal, 2015; Zoller, 2011)
Sustainability Literacy	(Bentham, 2013; Grierson & Hyland, 2010; Huckle, 2009, 2011; Nolet, 2009b; Payne, 2009, 2010; Selby, 2006; Winter & Cotton, 2012)
Technical Literacy / Technological Literacy	(Bergman, Faghri, & Viskanta, 2008; Elshof, 2009; Gordon, Soares, & Steigleder, 2012; Rose, 2010, 2012; Sagy & Tal, 2015)
Traditional Literacy	(Eilam & Trop, 2011)

In recognizing that literacy was often coupled with another word, it bears noting that in three of the articles, literacy was not coupled with another word but was just used on its own in these articles. Arif, Egbu, Haleem, Ebohon and Khalfan (2009), Denbo (2008) and Yagelski (2005) used the term literacy on its own.

Recognizing the wide range of literacies identified in the data set led to a deeper investigation concerning how the authors of these studies defined literacy, or if they engaged in any attempt to do so. In analyzing how, or whether, the authors defined literacy, it became clear that some of the researchers in the data set (28 articles) engaged in extended discussions of what they meant by the term "literacy", or by the specific form of literacy that they used in their report. Other researchers (17 articles) gave brief definitions of the new literacies they named. However, a significant number of the authors, (32 articles) used literacy terms without any real definition, or as if the terms were self-explanatory.

For example, Capra (2007) and Duailibi (2006), engage in extended discussions of what we might mean when we use the term "literacy" in the context of ecological literacy, and Shoedinger, Cava and Jewell (2009) work to outline what we might mean when we use the term "ocean literacy".

In considering ecological literacy Capra (2007) writes:

To be sustainable, a human community must be designed so that its ways of life, technologies, and social institutions honour, support, and cooperate with nature's ability to sustain life.

This definition of sustainability implies that in order to build sustainable communities, we must understand the principles of organization that have evolved in ecosystems over billions of years. This understanding is what we call "ecological literacy."

Concerning ecological literacy Duailibi (2006) writes:

In the next decades the survival of humankind will depend on our ecological literacy, that is to say, on our skills to apprehend knowledge from nature, to understand the basic principles of ecology, and to live accordingly.

Similarly, Shoedinger, Cava and Jewell (2009) provide an extensive discussion of what they mean by ocean literacy, defining it and listing 44 fundamental concepts that can be considered as essential to this form of literacy. In their introduction to the concept, they state that:

Ocean literacy is an understanding of the ocean's influence on humans and their influence on the ocean. An ocean-literate person: understands the essential principles and fundamental concepts about the functioning of the ocean; can communicate about the ocean in a

meaningful way; and is able to make informed and responsible decisions regarding the ocean and its resources.

However, most of the authors are much more brief in their definitions or do not provide any definition at all of the literacy terms they use. The need for a robust definition of environmental literacy is duly noted by Selby (2006) in his discussion of current uses of the term.

The fourth finding of this analysis is that the bulk of this research has not been published in literacy education journals, or in language arts journals. In examining the data set it appears that 8 of the 77 articles were published in what would be generally recognized as dedicated literacy education journals, or language arts journals. It bears repeating that there were approximately 55,269 articles published on the subjects of literacy and education during the same decade. Journals that published the 8 articles on literacy and environmental sustainability included *Community Literacy Journal*, *English Education*, *English Journal*, *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, *Publications of the Modern Language Association* and *Writing Across the Curriculum*.

Of particular note, amongst these 8 articles is a very thoughtful piece in *English Education*, (Yagelski, 2005) that examines the place of literacy learning and English teaching in responding to the current environmental crisis. Yagelski (2005) points to the profound potential of the field to contribute to creating a culture that is more environmentally sustainable, and to the general lack of recognition of this potential. Also of note, is a very recent article in the *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*. Schneider, Kozdras, Wolkenhauer, & Arias (2014) detail a field experience that brought together teacher-candidates and grade 6 students to write a grant to support an environmental project. Readers may be interested to know that *Volume 100, Issue 3* of *English Journal*, published in 2011, was an issue dedicated to looking at issues of environmental sustainability and English language teaching or "green English."

Table 2 shows the eleven journals that were most represented in the data set and the number of articles they published. Journals that published more than one article are included in the table. Journals that published only one article included journals such as: *Australian Geographer*, *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, *International Journal of Progressive Education*, *International Journal of Technology & Design Education*, *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, *Pedagogies*, *Radical Teacher* and *Teaching Sociology* amongst others.

Table 2. Journals Publishing Multiple Articles

Journal	Number of Articles
Canadian Journal of Environmental Education	3
Cultural Studies of Science Education	6
English Journal	4
Environmental Education Research	5
International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences	3
International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education	2
ITALICS: Innovations in Teaching & Learning in Information and Computer Sciences	2
Journal of Cleaner Production	2
Journal of Geography in Higher Education	3
Journal of Science Education and Technology	3
Research in Science Education	2

While there appears to be a lack of interest in issues of environmental sustainability in literacy education research journals and in language arts journals, there are a range of environmental education journals that are publishing articles that at least in some way refer to literacy. Sixteen of the articles in the data set were published in journals dedicated to environmental education such as *The Australian Journal of Environmental Education*, *The Canadian Journal of Environmental Education* and *Environmental Education Research*. However, 51 of the articles in the data set were published in assorted science education and geography education journals such as *The Journal of Science Education & Technology*, *The Journal of Geography in Higher Education* and *Cultural Studies of Science Education*.

In examining where the articles were published and the passing attention given to defining literacy, analysis here suggests that the vast bulk of the articles in the data set were written by researchers who are primarily interested in environmental sustainability or science education, rather than by researchers who have established themselves in the field of literacy education research. This finding suggests literacy education researchers may have something unique and important to contribute to these discussions.

In addition, analysis of this data suggests that the bulk of empirical research that connects literacy education and environmental sustainability appears to have been conducted at the tertiary level or with adults. For example, Aighewi and Osaigbovo (2010) examined university students' attitudes towards the idea of a required course in ecological literacy, Paten, Palousis, Hargroves, and Smith (2005) examined a program designed to teach sustainability and critical literacies to engineering students and Kilcup (2009) studied how an instructor might introduce eco-criticism to English undergraduates.

In total, 36 of the 77 articles focused on issues of

literacy and environmental sustainability in the context of adult learners or tertiary education. In contrast, very few studies in the data set focused on these issues in the context of teaching elementary or intermediate/secondary students. Of the 77 articles in the data set only four articles focused specifically on environmental literacies in the elementary years and nine articles focused on middle school or secondary school contexts. One recent study that bears mentioning is Wason-Ellam's (2010) autoethnography of using children's literature as a springboard for conversations, text making, and place based learning with third grade students. Another article that bears noting is Scheuerman, Gritter, Schuster, and Fisher (2010), which describes a collaborative place based literacy project created by middle school teachers, a historian, and two tribal elders in the Pacific Northwest.

The last finding of this review is that there are few, if any studies that appear to approach literacy education and environmental sustainability with a multi-literacies perspective, theories of cultural production, or socio-cultural theories of learning. Only one of the studies found here (Wals, 2009), appeared to reference theories of multiliteracies, or to build on the work of the New Literacy scholars, and this was only in passing. Wals (2009) asserts that multiple forms of literacy are needed to engage readers to reflect on a global review of sustainability efforts. Yet, if one considers how the first wave of New Literacy scholarship was committed to critical understandings of literacy in cultural, historical and political contexts, this connection between literacies for environmental sustainability and theories of multiliteracies appears to be a natural meeting place. This finding suggests that researchers interested in theories of multiliteracies may want to investigate how these theories map onto the new forms of literacy being described in this body of research. For although literacy researchers do not seem to be particularly concerned with issues of environmental sustainability, researchers interested in environmental sustainability have begun to name numerous literacies that may actually be essential to the preservation of human life on earth.

Similarly, there was little trace of theories of cultural production, or socio-cultural theories of learning in the existing research (See: Chinn, 2007; 2009; 2011; for exceptions). This finding suggests that researchers with anthropological understandings of literacy and learning may have something to offer current research in literacy education and environmental sustainability. As Yagelski (2005), Bowers (2011), and Fiske et al (2014), have reminded us, culture and language have played an important role in creating climate change, and thus those who are particularly adept at analyzing culture and language may have a role to play in transforming current unsustainable cultural practices.

Educational Importance of the Study

The findings of this study suggest that the area of literacy education and environmental sustainability is an under-researched area and that it could benefit from the perspectives of researchers who have a background in literacy education research. In addition, echoing Selby (2006), the findings of this study suggest there is a need for more “think pieces” like Capra (2007) and Duailibi (2006) to help clarify what could be meant by terms like “Environmental Literacy.”

This review also indexes a need for more empirical studies of how environmental literacies might be taught, or might be already being taught, in the context of elementary school, middle school, and secondary school. Similarly, this review suggests that there is a place for multiliteracies scholarship in considering environmental literacies as part of the “New Basics” (Luke, 1999), or as essential skills for the coming generation. While the bulk of current studies of young people’s new literacies and the teaching of new literacies in schools has focused on the use of digital technologies and digitextual tools (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011; Mills, 2010), if the New Literacy scholars were to give consideration to climate change and the depletion of readily available fossil fuels, they may find *literacies for sustainability* are equally, if not more important.

In recognizing the lack of publications on issues of environmental sustainability in literacy education research journals, it is easy to feel disheartened, particularly if you care about human life on earth. However, recognizing the ways that the term literacy is being used in a wide range of fields by diverse writers suggests that the idea of multiple forms of literacy has become more and more commonplace. What is needed next is an investigation of how to flesh out and define these forms of literacy and how to bring them into more mainstream discussions of literacy education.

The fact that this progress is slow can likely be traced to what Street (2001) has named as different models of literacy. While some educators and researchers have come to understand literacy as a situated, social practice, other educators and researchers continue to see literacy as autonomous from social and historical contexts. Further research is needed to help understand how educators and researchers can learn to see their own ideologies of literacy learning, and to question dominant ideas of literacy as autonomous from contemporary issues. Recognizing how literacy education and research about literacy education are caught up in producing culture, may be one way of creating a path towards literacy education research that considers environmental sustainability.

REFERENCES

Adelman, D. & Sandiford, S. (2007). Reflections from the

- Garden. *Radical Teacher*(78), 5-10.
- Aighewi, I. & Osaigbovo, U. (2010). Students' Perspectives on Worldwide 'Greening' of Tertiary Education Curricula. *Research in Science Education*, 40(5), 625-637. doi: 10.1007/s11165-009-9137-x
- Aoki, A. (2005). Assessing Learning Achievements and Development Impact: Ghana's National Functional Literacy Program. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 45(1), 63-81.
- Arif, M, Egbu, C, Haleem, A, Ebohon, J, & Khalfan, M. (2009). Green Construction in India: Gaining a Deeper Understanding. *Journal of Architectural Engineering*, 15(1), 10-13. doi: 10.1061/(asce)1076-0431(2009)15:1(10)
- Barton, D, & Hamilton, M. (1998). *Local literacies: Reading and writing in one community*. London: Routledge.
- Barton, D, & Hamilton, M. (2000). Literacy practices. In D. Barton & M. Hamilton (Eds.), *Situated literacies: Reading and writing in context* (pp. 7-15). London: Routledge.
- Barton, D, Hamilton, M, & Ivanic, R (Eds.). (2000). *Situated literacies: Reading and writing in context*. London: Routledge.
- Bentham, H. (2013). Clearing the path that has been laid: a conceptualisation of education for sustainable development. *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability*, 15(2), 25-41. doi: 10.2478/jtes-2013-0009
- Bergman, T. L., Faghri, A., & Viskanta, R. (2008). Frontiers in transport phenomena research and education: Energy systems, biological systems, security, information technology and nanotechnology. *International Journal of Heat & Mass Transfer*, 51(19/20), 4599-4613. doi: 10.1016/j.ijheatmasstransfer.2008.01.024
- Betts, J. (2003). Literacies and livelihood strategies: experience from Usulután, El Salvador. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 23, 291-298.
- Bialostok, S. (2002). Metaphors for literacy: A Cultural model of white, middle-class parents. *Linguistics & Education*, 13(3), 348-371.
- Birdsall, S. (2013). Reconstructing the Relationship between Science and Education for Sustainability: A Proposed Framework of Learning. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 8(3), 451-478.
- Blackledge, A. (2001). Literacy, schooling and ideology in

- a multilingual state. *Curriculum Journal*, 12(3), 291-312.
- Bowers, C. (2011). Implications of the ecological crisis for the reform of teacher education. *Encounter*, 24(2), 40-54.
- Brandt, D. (2001). *Literacy in American lives*. New York: Cambridge.
- Brandt, D., & Clinton, K. (2002). Limits of the local: Expanding perspectives on literacy as a social practice. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 34(3), 337-356.
- Bruce, H. (2011). Green(ing) English: Voices Howling in the Wilderness? *English Journal*, 100(3), 12-26.
- Capra, F. (2007). Sustainable Living, Ecological Literacy, and the Breath of Life. *Canadian Journal of Environmental Education*, 12(1), 9-18.
- Chinn, P. (2007). Decolonizing Methodologies and Indigenous Knowledge: The Role of Culture, Place and Personal Experience in Professional Development. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 44(9), 1247-1268.
- Chinn, P. (2009). Authentic science experiences as a vehicle for assessing orientation towards science and science careers relative to identity and agency: a response to „Älearning from the path followed by Brad,Ä. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 4(3), 639-647. doi: 10.1007/s11422-009-9185-6
- Chinn, P. (2011). "Malama I Ka 'Aina, Sustainability": Learning from Hawai'i's Displaced Place and Culture-Based Science Standard. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 6(1), 223-233.
- Collins, J., & Blot, R. (2003). *Literacy and literacies: Texts, power, and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Colucci-Gray, L., Camino, E., Barbiero, G., & Gray, D. (2006). From Scientific Literacy to Sustainability Literacy: An Ecological Framework for Education. *Science Education*, 90(2), 227-252.
- Compton-Lilly, C. (2003). *Reading families: The literate lives of urban children*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cook-Gumperz, J. (2006). The Social construction of literacy. In J. Cook-Gumperz (Ed.), *The Social Construction of literacy* (pp. 1-18). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook-Gumpres, J. (1986). *The Social Construction of Literacy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M (Eds.). (2000). *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures*. London: Routledge.
- Correia, P, Xavier do Valle, B, Dazzani, M, & Infante-Malachias, M. (2010). The importance of scientific literacy in fostering education for sustainability: Theoretical considerations and preliminary findings from a Brazilian experience. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 18(7), 678-685. doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2009.09.011
- Davis, R. (2013). A Place for Ecopedagogy in Community Literacy. *Community Literacy Journal*, 7(2), 77-91.
- Denbo, S. (2008). Nature's Business: Incorporating Global Studies, Environmental Law and Literacy, and Corporate Social Responsibility into the Business School Curriculum Through Interdisciplinary „ÄBusiness-Science,Ä Study Tour Courses. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 25(2), 215-240. doi: 10.1111/j.1744-1722.2008.00052.x
- Dietz, S. (2007). The Impacts of Climate Change: Perspectives from the Stern Review. *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 13(2), 173-185.
- Donehower, K, Hogg, C, & Schell, E. (2007). Toward a sustainable citizenship and pedagogy. In K. Donehower, C. Hogg & E. Schell (Eds.), *Rural Literacies* (pp. 155-193). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Dopico, E, & Garcia-Vazquez, E. (2011). Leaving the classroom: a didactic framework for education in environmental sciences. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 6(2), 311-326. doi: 10.1007/s11422-010-9271-9
- Duailibi, M. (2006). Ecological literacy: What are we talking about? *Convergence*, 39(4), 65-68.
- Edwards, S., Skouteris, H., Rutherford, L., & Cutter-Mackenzie, A. (2013). "It's All About Ben10[TM]": Children's Play, Health and Sustainability Decisions in the Early Years. *Early Child Development and Care*, 183(2), 280-293.
- Eilam, E, & Trop, T. (2011). ESD Pedagogy: A Guide for the Perplexed. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 42, 43-64. doi: 10.1080/00958961003674665
- Elshof, L. (2009). Toward sustainable practices in technology education. *International Journal of Technology & Design Education*, 19(2), 133-147. doi: 10.1007/s10798-008-9074-4
- Eppley, K. (2011). Teaching rural place: pre-service language and literacy students consider place-conscious literacy. *Pedagogies*, 6(2), 87-103. doi: 10.1080/1554480x.2011.563495
- Erbař, A, Tuncer, G, & Tekkaya, C. (2012). An Evaluation

- of Environmental Responsibility and Its Associated Factors: Reflections from PISA 2006. *Çevre Sorumluluğu ve İlihtili Faktörlerin Bir Değerlendirmesi: PISA 2006 Bulguları*.(46), 41-62.
- Eryaman, M, Yalcin-Ozdilek, S, Okur, E, Cetinkaya, Z, & Uygun, S. (2010). A Participatory Action Research Study of Nature Education in Nature: Towards Community-Based Eco-Pedagogy. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 6(3), 26-37.
- Ferreira, J. (2009). Unsettling orthodoxies: education for the environment/for sustainability. *Environmental Education Research*, 15(5), 607-620. doi: 10.1080/13504620903326097
- Fiske, S.J , Crate, S.A, Crumley, C.L, Galvin, K, Lazrus, H, Lucero, L, . . . Wilk, R. (2014). Changing the Atmosphere: Anthropology and Climate Change. Final report of the AAA Global Climate Change Task Force. Arlington, VA: American Anthropological Association.
- Gee, J. (2000). The new literacy studies: From socially situated to the work of the social. In D. Barton, M. Hamilton & R. Ivanic (Eds.), *Situated literacies* (pp. 180-196). London: Routledge.
- Gordon, K, Soares, L, & Steigleder, S. (2012). Preparing America's workforce for jobs in the green economy: A case for technical literacy *Duke Forum for Law & Social Change (DFLSC)*, 4, 23-44.
- Graff, H. (1979). *The Literacy myth: Literacy and social structure in the nineteenth century city*. New York: Academic Press.
- Grierson, D, & Hyland, C. (2010). Towards a Framework for University-wide Postgraduate Programmes in Sustainability. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 5(2), 549-564.
- Haigh, M. (2005). Greening the University Curriculum: Appraising an International Movement. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 29(1), 31-48. doi: 10.1080/03098260500030355
- Hanlon, P, & McCartney, G. (2008). Peak oil: Will it be public health's greatest challenge. *Public Health*, 122(2), 647-652.
- Hare, R, Jo, J, Moreton, E, Stamm, A, & Winter, D. (2011). Identifying and Understanding Valid Sustainability Information: The Crossroads of Evidence-Based Practice, Science Literacy, and Information Literacy. *Issues in Science and Technology Librarianship*(67).
- Heath, S.B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language life and work in communities and classrooms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Howard, P. (2012). Educating the Imagination: Teaching for Sustainability through a Bioregional Literacy Curriculum. *Journal of Education for Sustainable Development*, 6(2), 327-340.
- Huckle, J. (2009). Consulting the UK ESD community on an ESD indicator to recommend to Government: an insight into the micro-politics of ESD. *Environmental Education Research*, 15(1), 1-15. doi: 10.1080/13504620802578509
- Huckle, J. (2011). Bringing sustainability into sharper focus. *Teaching Geography*, 36(3), 118-119.
- Ivanic, R. (2004). Discourses of writing and learning to write. *Language and education*, 18(3), 220-245.
- Jewett, M. (2011). Between Dreams and Beasts: Four Precepts for Green English Teaching. *English Journal*, 100(3), 30-38.
- Kahn, R, & Humes, B. (2009). Marching out from Ultima Thule: Critical Counterstories of Emancipatory Educators Working at the Intersection of Human Rights, Animal Rights, and Planetary Sustainability. *Canadian Journal of Environmental Education*, 14(1), 179-195.
- Kilcup, K. (2009). Fresh Leaves: Practicing Environmental Criticism. *PMLA: Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, 124(3), 847-855.
- Klosterman, M, Sadler, T, & Brown, J. (2012). Science Teachers' Use of Mass Media to Address Socio-Scientific and Sustainability Issues. *Research in Science Education*, 42(1), 51-74. doi: 10.1007/s11165-011-9256-z
- Lambert, J, & Smith-Sundburg, S. (2006). Ocean Science in the Classroom. *The Science Teacher*, 73(6), 40-43.
- Lankshear, C , & Knobel, M. (2011). *New Literacies: Everyday Practices and Social Learning*. New York: Open University Press.
- Lebo, N, Eames, C, Coll, R, & Otrell-Cass, K. (2013). Toward Ecological Literacy: A Permaculture Approach to Junior Secondary Science. *Australian Journal of Environmental Education*, 29(2), 241-242. doi: 10.1017/aee.2014.9
- Levinson, B, & Holland, D. (1996). The cultural production of the educated person: An introduction. In B. Levinson, D. Foley & D. Holland (Eds.), *The cultural production of the educated person: Critical ethnographies of schooling and local*

- practice* (pp. 1-51). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Levy, B, & Zint, M. (2013). Toward fostering environmental political participation: framing an agenda for environmental education research. *Environmental Education Research*, 19(5), 553-576. doi: 10.1080/13504622.2012.717218
- Luke, A. (1999). *Education 2010 and new times: Why equity and social justice still matter, but differently*. Paper presented at the Education Queensland Online Conference. <http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/newbasics/html/library.html>
- Lundahl, M. (2011). Teaching where we are: Place-based language arts. *English Journal*, 100(3), 44-48.
- Macris, A, & Georgakellos, D. (2006). A new teaching tool in education for sustainable development: ontology-based knowledge networks for environmental training. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 14(9-11), 855-867. doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2005.12.009
- Manske, J. (2013). Teaching Controversial Science: Where Values and Science Converge. *International Journal of Science in Society*, 4(1), 135-142.
- Martin, S, & Jucker, R. (2005). Educating Earth-literate Leaders. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 29(1), 19-29. doi: 10.1080/03098260500030298
- McCright, A. (2012). Enhancing Students' Scientific and Quantitative Literacies through an Inquiry-Based Learning Project on Climate Change. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 12(4), 86-101.
- McFarlane, D, & Ogazon, A. (2011). The Challenges of Sustainability Education. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (1947-2900)*, 3(3), 81-107.
- McMillan, E, & Vasseur, L. (2010). Environmental Education: Interdisciplinarity in Action. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 5(3), 435-445.
- Mills, K. (2010). A Review of the "Digital Turn" in the New Literacy Studies. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(2), 246-271. doi: 10.3102/0034654310364401
- Moje, E, & Lewis, C. (2007). Examining opportunities to learn literacy: The role of critical sociocultural research. In C. Lewis, P. Enciso & E. Moje (Eds.), *Reframing sociocultural research on literacy: Identity, Agency and Power* (pp. 15-48). New York: Routledge.
- Moore, J. (2005). Is Higher Education Ready for Transformative Learning? *Journal of Transformative Education*, 3(1), 76-91. doi: 10.1177/1541344604270862
- Morin, O, Tytler, R, Barraza, L, Simonneaux, L, & Simonneaux, J. (2013). Cross cultural exchange to support reasoning about socio-scientific sustainability issues. *Teaching Science: The Journal of the Australian Science Teachers Association*, 59(1), 16-22.
- Mueller, M. (2011). Ecojustice in science education: leaving the classroom. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 6(2), 351-360. doi: 10.1007/s11422-011-9333-7
- Murcia, K, Haigh, Y, & Norris, L. (2010). Learning from Community Service: Engaging "Australia Tanzania Young Ambassadors" with Sustainability. *Issues in Educational Research*, 20(3), 276-293.
- NewLondonGroup. (1996). A Pedagogy of multiliteracies. *Harvard educational review*, 66(1), 60-92.
- Nolet, V. (2009a). Preparing Sustainability-Literate Teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 111(2), 409-442.
- Nolet, V. (2009b). Preparing Sustainability-Literate Teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 111, 409-442.
- Nordstram, Hanna Kaisa. (2008). Environmental Education and Multicultural Education - Too Close to Be Separate? *International Research in Geographical & Environmental Education*, 17(2), 131-145. doi: 10.2167/irgee232.0
- Orr, D. (1992). *Ecological Literacy: Education and the transition to a postmodern world*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Pahl, K, & Rowsell, J. (2011). *Literacy and education: Understanding new literacy studies in the classroom* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Parry, M, Rosenzweig, C, Iglesias, A, Livermore, M, & Fischer, G. (2004). Effects of climate change on global food production under SRES emissions and socio-economic scenarios. *Global Environmental Change*, 14, 53-67.
- Paten, C, Palousis, N, Hargroves, K, & Smith, M. (2005). Engineering sustainable solutions program: Critical literacies for engineers portfolio. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 6(3), 265-277.

- Payne, L. (2009). Using a wiki to support sustainability literacy. *ITALICS: Innovations in Teaching & Learning in Information & Computer Sciences*, 8(1), 45-52.
- Payne, L. (2010). Motivating sustainability literacy. *ITALICS: Innovations in Teaching & Learning in Information & Computer Sciences*, 9(2), 21-29.
- Powers, A. (2004). Teacher Preparation for Environmental Education: Faculty Perspectives on the Infusion of Environmental Education Into Preservice Methods Courses. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 35(3), 3-11.
- Prendergrast, C. (2003). *Literacy and racial justice: The Politics of learning after brown v. board of education*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Rogers, R. (2003). *A Critical discourse analysis of family literacy practices: Power in and out of print*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.
- Rogers, R. & Schaenen. (2014). Critical Discourse Analysis in Literacy Education: A Review of the Literature. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 49(1), 121-143.
- Rose, M. (2010). EnviroTech: Enhancing Environmental Literacy and Technology Assessment Skills. *Journal of Technology Education*, 22(1), 43-57.
- Rose, M. (2012). EnviroTech: Student Outcomes of an Interdisciplinary Project That Linked Technology and Environment. *Journal of Technology Studies*, 38(2), 80-89.
- Sagy, G. & Tal, A. (2015). Greening the Curriculum: Current Trends in Environmental Education in Israel's Public Schools. *Israel Studies*, 20(1), 57-85. doi: 10.2979/israelstudies.20.1.57
- Scheuerman, R, Gritter, K, Schuster, C, & Fisher, G. (2010). Sharing the Fire: Place-Based Learning with Columbia Plateau Legends. *English Journal*, 99(5), 47-54.
- Schneider, J, Kozdras, D, Wolkenhauer, N, & Arias, L. (2014). Environmental E-Books and Green Goals. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 57(7), 549-564. doi: 10.1002/jaal.286
- Schoedinger, S, Cava, F, & Jewell, B. (2006). The Need for Ocean Literacy in the Classroom: Part I. *Science Teacher*, 73(6), 44-47.
- Scribner, S, & Cole, M. (1981). *The psychology of literacy*. London: Harvard University Press.
- Selby, D. (2006). The Firm and Shaky Ground of Education for Sustainable Development. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 30(2), 351-365. doi: 10.1080/03098260600717471
- Shannon, P. (2000). What's my name?: A Politics of literacy in the latter half of the 20th Century. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 35(1), 90-107.
- Sharma, D, & Shardendu, S. (2011). Assessing farm-level agricultural sustainability over a 60-year period in rural eastern India. *Environmentalist*, 31(3), 325-337. doi: 10.1007/s10669-011-9341-x
- Spiropoulou, D, Antonakaki, T, Kontaxaki, S, & Bouras, S. (2007). Primary Teachers' Literacy and Attitudes on Education for Sustainable Development. *Journal of Science Education & Technology*, 16(5), 443-450. doi: 10.1007/s10956-007-9061-7
- Stables, A, & Bishop, K (2001). Weak and Strong Conceptions of Environmental Literacy: Implications for environmental education. *Environmental Education Research*, 7(1), 89-97.
- Stark, M. (2011). Information in Place: Integrating Sustainability into Information Literacy Instruction. *Electronic Green Journal*, 1(32), 1-16.
- Stibbe, A (Ed.). (2009). *The Handbook of Sustainability Literacy: Skills for a Changing World*. Totnes, Devon: Green Books.
- Stone, M. (2007). Rethinking School Lunch: Education for Sustainability in Practice. *Canadian Journal of Environmental Education*, 12(1), 19-32.
- Street, B. (2001a). Introduction. In B. Street (Ed.), *Literacy and development: Ethnographic perspectives* (pp. 1-17). London: Routledge.
- Street, B (Ed.). (2001b). *Literacy and development: Ethnographic perspectives*. London: Routledge.
- Suchet-Pearson, S, & Howitt, R. (2006). On Teaching and Learning Resource and Environmental Management: reframing capacity building in multicultural settings. *Australian Geographer*, 37(1), 117-128. doi: 10.1080/00049180500512010
- Summers, M, Kruger, C, Childs, A, & Mant, J. (2000). Primary School Teachers' Understanding of Environmental Issues: an interview study. *Environmental Education Research*, 6(4), 293-312. doi: 10.1080/13504620050174561
- Teksoz, G, Sahin, E, & Tekkaya-Oztekin, C. (2012). Modeling Environmental Literacy of University Students. *Journal of Science Education & Technology*, 21(1), 157-166. doi: 10.1007/s10956-011-9294-3
- Tranter, P, & Sharpe, S. (2007). Children and peak oil: An Opportunity in crisis. *International Journal of*

Children's Rights, 15(3/4), 181-197.

VanDeveer, S. (2011). Consuming Environments: Options and Choices for 21st Century Citizens. *Review of Policy Research*, 28(5), 517-524.

Waldo, M. (2008). Sustainability, Cognition, and WAC. *WAC Journal*, 19, 5-14.

Wals, A. (2009). A Mid-DESD Review: Key Findings and Ways Forward. *Journal of Education for Sustainable Development*, 3(2), 195-204.

Walsh, M. (2010). Multimodal literacy: What does it mean for classroom practice? *Australian Journal of Language & Literacy*, 33(3), 211-239.

Wason-Ellam, L. (2010). Children's literature as a springboard to place-based embodied learning. *Environmental Education Research*, 16(3/4), 279-294. doi: 10.1080/13504620903549771

Willis, P. (1981). Cultural production is different from cultural reproduction is different from social reproduction is different from reproduction. *Interchange*, 12(2-3), 48-67.

Winter, J, & Cotton, D. (2012). Making the hidden curriculum visible: sustainability literacy in higher education. *Environmental Education Research*, 18(6), 783-796. doi: 10.1080/13504622.2012.670207

Woolard, K, & Schieffelin, B. (1994). Language ideology. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 23, 55-82.

WRI. (2005). Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis *Millenium Ecosystem Assessment*. Washington, DC: World Resources Institute.

Wright, D. Wynne. (2006). Civic Engagement through Civic Agriculture: Using Food to Link Classroom and Community. *Teaching Sociology*, 34(3), 224-235.

Wyatt, M. (2014). Academics' Conceptions of Teaching Sustainability. *Australian Journal of Environmental Education*, 30(2), 278-279. doi: 10.1017/aee.2015.16

Yagelski, R. (2005). Stasis and Change: English Education and the Crisis of Sustainability. *English Education*, 37(4), 262-271.

Zoller, U. (2011). Science and Technology Education in the STES Context in Primary Schools: What Should It Take? *Journal of Science Education & Technology*, 20(5), 444-453. doi: 10.1007/s10956-011-9306-3

Zoller, U. (2012). Science Education for Global Sustainability: What Is Necessary for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment Strategies?, Editorial, *Journal of Chemical Education*, pp. 297-300.

Retrieved from

<http://proxy.library.upei.ca/login?url=http%3a%2f%2fsearch.ebscohost.com%2flogin.aspx%3fdirect%3dtrue%26db%3dehh%26AN%3d75900423%26login.asp%26site%3dehost-live%26scope%3dsite>

About the Author



Lyndsay Moffatt is an Assistant Professor at the University of Prince Edward Island in Prince Edward Island, Canada.

She began her teaching life in Toronto, Ontario, Canada and has been interested in issues of social justice and literacy for as long as she can remember. Recently, she has been thinking about the role educators and researchers in addressing issues of environmental sustainability and believes we all have a role to play.

Students' Linguistic Knowledge and Competence: A Learning Resource in the Writing Classroom

Jane Bean-Folkes
Rowan University

Abstract — This study examines the challenges that multilingual students face while learning Standard English. Teaching the language of grammar includes instruction in both language and writing. However, what does this combination entail when it comes to teaching? What is the benefit of using ongoing formative assessments in writing classrooms? How does the use of multiple languages impact language minority student's growth as writers? Language learning is viewed as a sociocultural process (Lee, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978) used to construct a language, and is framed by the differing perspectives between language attitudes and school communities (Alim & Smitherman, 2012; Perry & Delpit, 1998; Smitherman, 2004). The purpose of this research is to discover the resources used in the teaching of language and literacy within an urban middle school context.

Keywords: *language arts, writing instruction, multilingualism, design-based/formative methodology, sociocultural*

I walked into Ms. Francis's first period seventh-grade classroom on a crisp fall morning in September 2013. The students were preparing for the day by working on a brief activity, and I observed them talking to each other both in Spanish, the language of home, and English, the language of school. What struck me the most about the students' movement between these two languages was that their teacher did not correct or urge them to only speak the language of school. I pondered what possibilities for language learning could take place in this natural oral discourse of language mixing.

The linguistic make-up of United States classrooms today is far more varied than it was a mere two generations ago, and information published in the 2010 *Census Briefs* suggests that this diversity is continuing to increase (Humes, Jones, & Ramirez, 2011). Indeed, U.S. students now speak not only a multiplicity of languages, but also a variety of dialects, including versions of English

with which many teachers have little familiarity. Amidst all of this diversity and change, teachers of language study, literacy, and writing often find themselves operating within the contested space of the multilingual classroom. Martinez (2013) and Creese and Matin (2003) have studied the interactions among teachers and learners within this space and have found evidence that underlying ideologies—such as teacher preference for one language over another—can impact student learning. It is therefore imperative that, as educators and education researchers, we use the resources available to us to prevent explicit and implicit biases that establish language divides within the classroom. Such a divide, I would argue, perpetuates a two-tiered education system, in which students whose home languages or dialects are undervalued in our society experience lower levels of academic achievement and higher levels of frustration, particularly concerning the challenge of learning written academic English.

Scholarly literature provides ample evidence that such a two-tiered system exists. Most notably, this division can be seen in the achievement gap between urban Black and Hispanic students (as well as other students of color), and their White, suburban and/or private-school attending peers (Cohen, White, & Cohen, 2012; Currie & Thomas, 1995; Phillips, Brooks-Gunn, Duncan, Klebanov, & Crane, 1998). There is an even larger gap between the dominant population and students of color who have learning disabilities, which is beyond the scope of this study (Cohen, White, & Cohen, 2012). Literature that documents the gap between urban Black and Hispanic students and their White counterparts should never be far from our awareness as educators and should, indeed, be made known to a wider audience (Cohen, White, & Cohen, 2012).

Research on the challenges between students who are speakers of non-standard versions of English and teachers of written academic language has been explored (Bean-Folkes, 2009, 2010, 2014). I empathize deeply with students who are Black, Hispanic, or of any other race, whose communities and home languages may be poorly understood or even looked down upon in our schools. Indeed, as an African American, I grew up in a culture that

is profoundly oral in orientation; and, as research has confirmed, this has an impact on patterns of thinking, speaking, and writing (Heath, 1983). I had to learn ways to bridge the gap between my “natural” writing and the written language of school—which was both a challenge and a learning journey, but it left me well-positioned to understand the paths that other “multilingual” or “language-different” students traverse in their attempts to achieve this goal.

Literature Review

Learning to write well is a transformative process. Researchers in this area (Bomer, 2007; Calkins, 1986/1994; Graves, 2003; Murray, 1998; National Commission on Writing, 2006) have shown that students benefit from consistently working across time through the process of *collect, select, develop, draft, revise, edit, and publish/celebrate* a self-selected topic. However, in many classrooms writing instruction is not a transformative experience for most students. It is not even a practice in the same way we tend to think of writing as a practice (Elbow, 1998; Goldberg, 1986). Rather, it is a procedure, and often a tedious one. In addition, learning to write is also a social-cultural process through which students learn to inter-act with others using their community and experiences to develop ideas for writing (Elbow, 1998; Lee, 2007; Paris, 2011). Other theories that inform this work come from two areas: *culturally relevant pedagogy* (Ladson-Billings, 1995)—or, in its more recent manifestation, *culturally sustaining pedagogy* (Alim & Smitherman, 2012; Paris, 2011).

Applied to the teaching of writing, *culturally sustaining pedagogy* refers to sustaining the cultural and linguistic practices of all students while engaging these participants in the use and learning of the language of school. Theory and practice in this domain draw on insights from *sociolinguistics*, from which standpoint a number of scholars have examined the impact of using informed approaches when instructing non-dominant-speaking language learners (Heath, 1983; Labov, 1972; Smitherman, 1977; Sweetland, 2006). Moreover, the sociolinguistic approach views language learning as a constructive, socio-cultural process (Lee, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978) and recognizes the multiple varieties of any language as natural phenomena. As such, it provides a rationale for pedagogy that treats diverse languages, grammars, and modes of speaking as equally valid and valuable, which allows students’ knowledge of and competence in these language modes to play a role in the instructional process (Alim & Smitherman, 2012; Delpit, 1998; Smitherman, 2004).

Methodology

Background of the Study

This study of the teacher’s intervention into writing and language learning came about through a common interest in supporting students’ abilities to write well and meaningfully while embracing the language of home. The middle school, located in a northern New Jersey community, is 71% Hispanic. At the beginning of the 1980s, before a sharp change in demographics, the community was predominantly White, and dominated by middle-class, English-speaking families. However, at the time of the study, which occurred during the 2012-2013 academic year, Spanish was the dominant language, though it is important to note that the students’ cultures and dialects were diverse, deriving mainly from Mexico and various parts of Central and South America. And yet, even though Spanish was the primary language spoken at home for most students, it was not spoken all the time within the school community. In fact, most of the students were proficient enough in Spanish and English to converse in both languages with school personnel, peers, family, and friends. The interventions used to support multilingual students in writing guided the research for this article through the following questions:

- What is the benefit of using ongoing formative assessments in writing classrooms?
- How did the use of multiple languages impact language minority students’ growth as writers?

Participants

Teachers. The teacher participant was identified early in the fall of 2012 through a form of snowball sampling (Miles & Huberman, 1994), after the Language Arts Department chair and lead teachers were asked to nominate a likely teacher candidate for such a study. After several conversations, Ms. Francis emerged as the prime candidate due to her interest in making an impact on the challenges she perceived her students facing in the writing classroom. (Please note that all names in this study are pseudonyms.)

Ms. Francis a vibrant White teacher in her twenties who was in her second year of teaching at the school and spoke only English. The 25 students in her seventh-grade class spoke a variety of Hispanic dialects, predominately from Mexico, the Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico. Indeed, the linguistic diversity of the school community and her classroom differed greatly from the monolingual context of both her upbringing and the community in which she currently resides. This contrast had little impact on her perspectives of her students, and she warmly embraced the linguistic diversity her students brought to the classroom.

Students. The 25 student participants were 13 girls and 12 boys in Ms. Francis' first- and second-period seventh-grade class, which was a double literacy block consisting of two 45-minute classes. The decision was made to focus on seventh graders because the students were of an age at which they could communicate their thoughts about writing and language even though many were still in the early stages of their acquisition of academic English and in attaining a command of standard written English. In fact, the class included several students who were struggling with the language of school, and who benefited from extra support in literacy. At the same time, many of the students were full regular education students who no longer received English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction, a fact that emerged as a point of individual pride among these students as well as for the group as a whole.

Research Design

In designing and carrying out the study, I drew upon *design-based research*, which blends empirical educational research with the theory-driven design of learning environments (Brown, 1992; Design-Based Research Collective, 2003). Design-based research relies on tools and techniques used in other proven research paradigms, such as thick descriptive datasets, systematic analysis, and triangulation of multiple sources and kinds of data to connect intended and unintended outcomes. In this method, design is a central factor that allows the researcher to uncover supports for learning, create usable knowledge, and advance theories of learning and teaching in complex settings. It can also be viewed as a way to contribute to the growth of the human capacity for educational reform.

The Intervention (Collaboratively Designed Unit). As a researcher, I worked collaboratively (visibly) with the participants for a period and then stepped back to observe (invisibly) the intervention decisions. Before the unit began, the work began with the submission of students' pre-written samples, which were used to determine a shared consensus for the intervention. Post-written samples were used to assess student progress. The repeated process of collective knowledge obtained in the pre- and post-writings were used across the units to set new learning goals.

During the course of implementation, the units ran with the same structural pattern for four to five weeks in length, with the following structural design described below.

Week One serves as an introduction to the genre of study and an exposure to Mentor texts (Calkins, 1994; Fletcher, 1993; Murray, 1998; Ray, 1999). These texts provide an example for the type of writing the students will be doing. In addition to reading the Mentor texts during this week, students also gather ideas and possible topics for writing.

During Week Two, students study writing exemplars and receive instruction on the qualities of good writing; e.g., structure, elaboration, craft, meaning, and significance. During this week, the students select and develop topics that they want to publish across the remaining weeks.

During Week Three, students receive instruction on how to revise their writing. During this week, the teacher provides specific writing strategies with which students are expected to experiment in their writing.

In Week Four, students receive instruction on a variety of strategies to improve the quality of their writing through revision.

During Week Five, students focus on polishing their work for the reader, editing for mechanics (spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and grammar), and further revising to prepare the text for their reading audience.

Ms. Francis followed this general pattern in the units; however, she occasionally extended their duration or placed emphasis on individual elements based on her interactions with the students.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection took place within this overall Unit Structure. The Daily Structure of the writing block consisted of the same components in the following order: Admit Slip, mini-lesson, modeling, active engagement, independent time, and outcome of the lesson. The Admit Slip is a written formative assessment tool used at the beginning of a class to assess students' understanding of the content. The mini-lesson lasted from eight to ten minutes, in which time the teacher explicitly taught a writing skill or strategy. During the lesson, the teacher modeled writing in front of the students before actively engaging them in applying the skill or strategy she had modeled. After the lesson, the students worked independently for thirty minutes while the teacher engaged them by using the Think, Pair, Share and 10:2 Reflection Strategies, working with students one-to-one or in small groups. She provided time for the students to experiment with the strategy before moving the class into an independent writing time.

These strategies encouraged students to work independently and to reflect on their accomplishments. A formative assessment was given at the end of each class to assess student's learning outcomes. This consistent structure, a part of the intervention, was intended to provide them with a framework that focused their expectations, supporting learning through familiarity and repetition. This also allowed us to review the volume of writing students were producing.

From October 2012 to early June 2013, I observed the teacher in the classroom at least once each week during

the language arts period. During this intervention/implementation phase, I used field notes to document my observations regarding the classroom environment, instructional methods, student-teacher and student-student interactions. While observing, I also looked for indications that the teacher recognized the language knowledge that students brought with them to the classroom.

The collaborative work between practitioner and researcher allowed us to focus on the process of learning rather than the mere outcome of the intervention. In the exit phase of the study, I interviewed the teacher and the students. Together with the observation data, these interviews provided a rich, thick description (Bradley & Reinking, 2011) of the classroom context and of the interactions that took place therein. Writing in *Education Week*, Debra Viadero (2009) has reported that funding agencies such as the Institute of Education Sciences and the U.S. Department of Education favor evidence derived from research of this kind because the repetitive process of designing, testing, revising, and retesting supports the validity and reliability of the findings. Moreover, the use of design-based research assists in making an intervention relevant to instruction. Finally, narrative-based data collection provides insight into the interactions and interpersonal relationships among the teacher and learners.

As a means of exploring students' language use with respect to writing, I engaged in participant observation, and conducted semi-structured individual and group interviews. I collected data one morning a week over the course of the seven months. I also observed and took field notes, which allowed me to observe informal interactions between students. Initially, the students were careful about my presence; however, over time they grew more comfortable with me.

After each day in the field, I reviewed my notes, adding questions and reflective remarks regarding connections to prior observations and to the empirical and theoretical literature. The resulting composite notes were then converted into a narrative that was analyzed cyclically for themes and patterns (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A similar process was undertaken with the interview and focus group transcripts. Finally, patterns in the field notes and in the teacher and student interviews were triangulated to construct the following narratives of the classroom experience.

Findings

The following narrative selections results from the classroom practice observed in this research. They tell the stories drawn from two class sessions early in 2013, not long after the midpoint in the school year. At this time, the class was involved in a unit on the persuasive essay.

March 1, 2013 – Learning About the Power of Language

Students begin filing into the classroom at 8:45 AM. They grab breakfast from the crate, eat, and—as will be discussed—they “code-switch” between English and Spanish while catching up on the events of the previous day:

"Hey, did you see him?"

"¿Que pasa? [What's up?]"

Ms. Francis announces that we will begin class in ten minutes.

"Hand me my notebook, Miguel."

"¿Como estas? [How are you?]"

"Hey, amigo!"

Students continue to talk as they meander over to the students' cabinet to take out their language arts notebooks, writing folders, and classwork folders. The bell rings at 9:00 AM. Ms. Francis then transitions the class into working on their Admit Slips. Students are writing about their opinions and exploring ideas after viewing two pictures of a monkey. On the board, Ms. Francis lists the vocabulary of the day:

- Nocturnal
- Toxin

"I should see pens up and ready!" she says. Students begin to work on their Admit Slip activity. On the front board is a “Do Now” to activate prior knowledge. Students are in a unit of study on persuasive writing (see Figure 1). They are learning about opinion writing by stating their perspectives after viewing two pictures of a monkey. This genre of writing empowers students as writers by teaching writing skills and strategies that enable their voices to be heard.

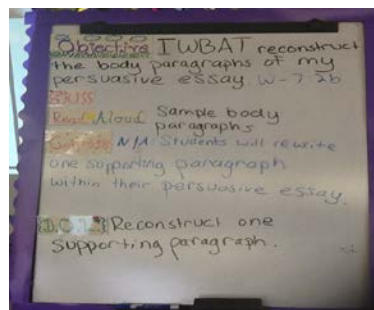


Figure 1. Persuasive essay chart

The daily schedule on the board reads:

Admit Slip – Students are writing about their opinion and exploring after viewing two pictures of a monkey.

SWBAT – Explain how facts within an article affect the reader's perspective (RL. 7.6).

Skill – Facts/Point of View

Read Aloud – Cute but Deadly?

Daily Outcome Learning – Explain how this fact affects your point of view on the topic.

Ms. Francis gathers the students together and redirects their attention to the day's Admit Slip work. She says, "Today we will begin by viewing two pictures of monkeys." Ms. Francis projects a PowerPoint slide with the images on the front board. The students remarked,

"She's so cute!"

"Look at her!"

"She's so pretty!"

Ms. Francis says, "Write down your feelings," as students continue to make remarks:

"Look at her eyes."

"She's scary."

"It looks nice but scary."

"I want to hear your opinion." Ms. Francis prods. "How many think she is cute? Raise your hands."

"I think it has big cute eyes!" one student states.

The projected slide changes to read: "What is your opinion? Write it down." Ms. Francis then remarks, "She may not be so cute."

The slide changes to a map of Borneo and pictures of forests. (Ms. Francis does this to provide background knowledge or schema for reading the article she is about to hand out (<http://news.sky.com/story/1025410/poisonous-nocturnal-monkey-found-in-borneo>.) She asks, "How might your point of view change after reading this article based on facts about this monkey?"

The slide changes to read: "What are facts?"

A student says, "Facts are true."

"Yes, facts can be proven," Ms. Francis agrees. "Let's identify facts or evidence that support your new point of view. How might your point of view change based on facts in the article? Read along with me." (Ms. Francis reads the article aloud, which is at a frustration level for some students in the class.) She reads aloud and models her thinking for the class.

"So small"... [She reads some more.] "Poisonous bite?" She stops and thinks aloud, "...that's not cute! That's changing my point of view [of the monkey]. Hmmm, a deadly bite!...Nocturnal—that's one of our vocabulary words." She points to the front board. "Sleeps during the day and is active at night." Ms. Francis writes the definition on the board and students write it in their notebooks. She reads further. "Oh another vocabulary word: toxin. Toxin means poison, very dangerous." She writes it on the front board as students copy into their notebooks.

She continues reading. "She covers her babies with the toxin." Then, she stops to share her thinking out loud. "What's the purpose of this?" Using the document camera, she places the article down and draws a box around this statement in the text. Ms. Francis stops her reading out loud and asks, "What does this teach us about facts?"

A student answers, "Gives information."

"Why is it important to research about the affect?" Ms. Francis asked.

A student replies, "Tells you more."

"Yes, it does! I would bring [this cute monkey] to my house if I did not know the facts. Now think! How can facts help your persuasive essay?"

Student: "It can change reader's opinion."

Ms. Francis: "Would [writing] 'he is ugly' [be enough]?"

Students: "NO!"

Ms. Francis: "Facts can change a point of view."

Ms. Francis stresses the importance of writers using facts and not merely opinions in strong writing in order to have their voices heard. This is an important skill to learn when writing about animals or crafting a letter to a governmental agency. Afterwards, as usual, students transition into their own space and needs for writing. During the independent time, Ms. Francis moves around the class to conference with students one-to-one and in

small groups:

"Hi Louis. Tell me what you are working on."

"I am writing about how brothers are better than sisters."

"Good! What part of your writing are you working on now?"

They discuss Louis' progress, and after Ms. Francis leaves, the other members of his seating group chat with him in Spanish about his discussion with the teacher. It appears that they are clarifying and drawing meaning from her conversation with Louis.

In a discussion about how Ms. Francis addressed *language* interventions in her classroom, she stated, "I do not think about supporting language in the lessons." Nevertheless, in this classroom excerpt, it was clear that she provided clear interventions for language and language learners when she focused on vocabulary words at the beginning of her lessons, as well as in the work she put into providing word walls and vocabulary lists on the board or in handouts (see Figure 2). The fact that language learning was embedded throughout the writing time versus the more traditional use of a workbook may have not matched her preconceived notions of language learning. Hence, this may have given Ms. Francis the impression that language was not taught.



Figure 2. Class Word Walls

However, as one student stated: "Every day we always have vocabulary words and Ms. Francis always goes over them. [At times,] we've had to draw a picture that goes with [the word] or make a connection to understand the word." In addition, the flow of the lesson also supported language development. Ms. Francis asked students what they knew about a term or about a place in order to activate prior knowledge and schema. Also, as seen in the narrative presented, she used exercises and supports

such as Admit Slips, charts, PowerPoint slides, and sample texts to support her students' language development.

March 4, 2013 – Language Use

When I sit with Ms. Francis in her classroom one week later, she is preparing for the students to arrive to continue work on the persuasive essay. She looks over a stack of papers. "I'm surprised by how much my students are writing," she shared.

"Why do you think this?" I asked. Suddenly, the door opens and students enter the room.

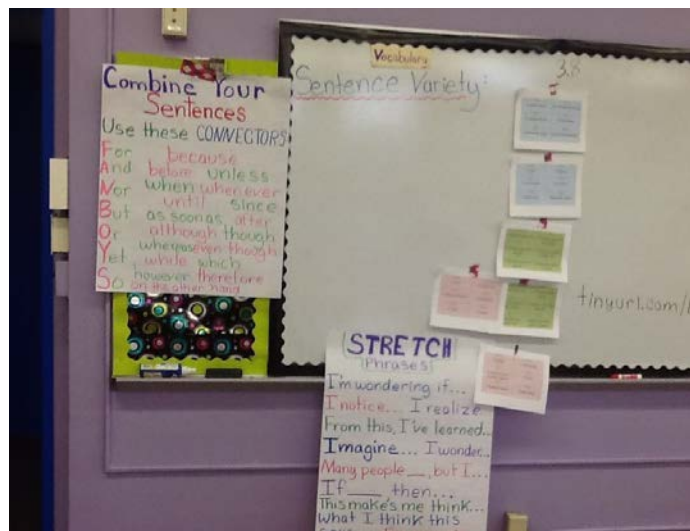


Figure 3. Class Wall Charts to Support Writing

Their conversations range from what happened over the weekend to the current Admit Slip work. There is lots of chatter, bantering, and jostling for placement. I can hear two boys who are sitting near me have what seems to be a deep conversation in Spanish, while many students around them are conversing in English. I note that Ms. Francis has several charts hanging in the room that cover topics like "Sentence Starters," "Stretch Your Thinking," and "Stretch Phrases" (see Figure 3). I ponder, what impact the environmental charts might be having on the student's ability to write?

Discussion

I begin the discussion with a look at creating space for language use because the research inquiry focuses on how the use of multiple languages impacts minority students' growth as writers. I walk over to hear Anthony and Miguel discussing the articles in front of them. Miguel points to the chart on the front board and reads silently. Anthony addresses Miguel in Spanish. The two boys talk, and then Anthony begins to write. As I walk around the room, most of the students have written at least one

paragraph, while others have written two paragraphs using facts and stretch phrases.

Later, I met with small groups of students in a corner of the classroom and interviewed them. I asked each group the same questions. I did this because I wanted to add a layer of richness to the discussion regarding the student interactions and interventions.

"Writers, I asked you to join me today because I am interested in knowing: Where in the classroom would you go for help in writing? Where in the classroom would you go for spelling help? Who in your classroom helps you to write in English? How do they help you?" As I sat waiting for an answer, I wondered: "What insights would the students have about the use of language in the classroom?"

"I look in the corner," Miguel points to the corner where the writing charts are housed above the computers.

"You can just look here," Elana gestures to the wall in back of us that houses vocabulary words and terms.

I also asked several students: "What language do you speak?" They resoundingly replied, "English!" At times, their responses even suggested that my question was insulting to them. I found this interesting, since many of the students interacted with one another in the classroom with a combination of Spanish and English. It was interesting to note that in the classroom students are unconsciously aware of switching between two languages. In their minds they considered themselves speaking only English.

As Gloria Anzaldúa (1999) states: "If you want to really hurt me, talk badly about my language. Ethnic identity is twin skin to linguistic identity—I am my language. Until I can take pride in my language, I cannot take pride in myself" (p. 81). Several of the students were born in the United States, and they apparently wanted me to know that they identified themselves as born Americans and as English speakers.

At the same time, however, several students admitted that their relationship to the language was not simple or easy. As one stated: "I had to take three years [of English as a Second Language (ESL) classes], from third grade up to last year." Another explained: "I was [in a] bilingual [program] from Pre-K to second grade and [then] I was transitioned into all English classes." These statements illuminate the pride students felt about speaking English. In this community, moving from ESL to English-only classes was viewed as an accomplishment and was associated with a certain level of status.

In their book *Understanding English Variation in U.S. Schools*, Hudley and Mallison (2011) write about the importance of teachers being linguistically informed. When teachers know how language works, they are better informed regarding instruction that will enable students to achieve skills in the particular forms known as academic

English and standard written English. In this context, these same writers also note that "standard" is often equated with *good*, *right*, or *proper* English, and that, either explicitly or implicitly, other varieties of English are consequently seen as wrong. Moreover, terms like "standard English" suggest a parallel with *standardized tests*, which currently assess the knowledge and skills that are most highly acknowledged within the educational system (p. 12).

Regrettably, some of the students in Ms. Francis' class may have fallen prey to the implicit stigma that such a value-laden ideational schema can attach to so-called *non-standard* varieties, or to languages other than English in America. Thus, while the pride in their English skills may have contributed positively to self-efficacy for these developing writers, their rush to distance themselves from Spanish-speaking identities may suggest a schism or divide in their overall sense of confidence about and competence in the domain of language.

In practice, the students in Ms. Francis's class frequently used a hybrid form of their home language and school languages, and Ms. Francis actively encouraged this linguistic behavior. In fact, it was common to hear students like Anthony and Miguel move in and out of Spanish naturally as they worked through the challenges of completing a lesson. In so doing, the students were exhibiting a phenomenon known as *code-switching*. Woodlard (2004) defines code-switching as an "individual's use of two or more language varieties in the same speech event or exchange" (pp. 73-74).

The nature or value of code-switching as a communicative and/or learning strategy has been much debated. Some scholars see it as a crutch, or as a reflection of the speaker's insufficient competence in one or both languages (Gumpres, 1982; Lance, 1975). Other authorities, however, are less judgmental. For example, Zentella (1997) describes code-switching as "a convenient way to handle linguistic gaps" (p. 99; see also Martinez, 2013). As such, one can say that it allows discourse to move forward, and this not only facilitates linguistic practice (i.e., development toward fluency), but allows language and content learning to take place.

Indeed, the majority of responses from the students' conversations indicate that they relied heavily on the classroom environment. Students clearly acknowledged the use of the vocabulary corner on the front board and the use of charts to support language for writing. Often during writing time I would observe a student stop and look up at the vocabulary board to locate a precise word to use in their draft.

In addition, several students answered the same question by saying that they looked "to [their] classmates" for help with their writing. In all these cases, it was particularly evident that an oral discourse played a major role in developing knowledge of the written language. Often, students would converse at their group tables.

Regarding this tendency, one explained: “I think we help each other. Like, if we need to know how to spell a word, we just ask a friend.”

Reflection on Classroom Practices

In considering the students’ conversations, I discovered that the classroom practices supported the use of both languages and it had a great impact on the instruction for these students and how this teacher of writing used linguistic strengths to teach writing to non-dominant speakers. The students understood what was being said in class; yet, exhibiting what Martinez (2013) refers to as *semiosis*, they needed to converse in their home languages in order to truly comprehend and take action. As noted, such multilingual conversation was actively encouraged in Ms. Francis’s classroom, and the resulting lack of tension surrounding the use of idioms other than academic English appeared to have a positive impact on student motivation and performance.

In addition, Ms. Francis made use of a variety of language interventions that contributed to learning. Specifically, she modeled the use of vocabulary, various discursive devices, and writing-expanding structures. Moreover, she encouraged multilingual language interchange, and used environmental supports such as charts to support students’ success in the writing units. She was purposeful in her teaching, and crafted explicit instruction based on the needs of her students. The students knew to look for supports in the form of charts when they were stuck. This shows that Ms. Francis had succeeded in communicating her expectation that the students should make active use of the classroom environment to support learning.

Curricular Outcomes

By using the pre-writing samples, the teachers and I were able to design lessons that would help students become better writers in ways that included their home language. This provided insights on the benefit of using ongoing formative assessments in the writing classroom. The intent of the intervention was to affect the writing of multilingual students and to impact their learning of language and writing. Furthermore, the curricular outcomes across the school year demonstrate that the students’ writing grew in volume and complexity, and many students had shifted from receiving ones or twos on the assessment rubric (with a five point scale), to fours and a few fives. The rubric focused on the writing areas of: organization, elaboration, craft, meaning/significance, and conventions. In short, the interventions worked. The students improved as writers.

In September, Ms. Francis’ students had a difficult time sustaining twenty minutes of independent writing time. They did not know what to say or how to go about

“saying” it in writing. Nevertheless, they did so orally, as the year progressed, their oral discussions turned into writing. The students benefited from the formative assessments that were supported through modeling, the use of vocabulary, environmental supports, and multilingual language interchange. In the latter regard, instead of Ms. Francis’ creating a space with a deficit perspective—i.e., a classroom in which one form of language was valued over others—she allowed *culturally sustaining pedagogy* to take place.

The use of both languages helped writers to communicate in writing. By embracing her students’ identities and languages, she confirmed her students as writers. Rather than enforce a single academic language policy, she allowed them to make linguistic choices within the classroom domain. In so doing, she supported the use of more than one world language while helping her students develop multicultural and multilingual capabilities as they made meaning of what they were learning about academic English, about each other, and about themselves.

Conclusion

Due to the limited context, it is difficult to generalize the findings of single-site studies like the one presented here (Berliner, 2002). However, studies like this one matter because they provide a detailed window into the particular experiences of participants in one writing workshop involving multilingual seventh-graders. There are many aspects of this experience that may be common to others working in the contested space of the multilingual language classroom. As such, the study suggests that this space *need not be contested*—at least not in the sense of a negative or detrimental dynamic; rather, the use of students’ primary languages can support learning, and this approach—together with the use of other proven and targeted instructional practices—can make learning to write both more successful and equitable for all students.

This paper focuses specifically on the multilingual *writing* classroom and on the ideological and methodological questions: *Should teachers of writing, irrespective of the linguistic make-up of their classrooms, teach writing generically, as if all students were the same and had the single goal of assimilating to the academic linguistic norm? Or is there a potential benefit to embracing the linguistic diversity of students—as well as the linguistic knowledge and competence of individual students—as a learning resource?*

Instead of privileging one language over another, teachers should be encouraged to embrace the rich linguistic and cultural diversity of today’s classrooms. In reaching this goal, it is crucial for teachers to find ways to acknowledge and validate students’ diverse linguistic knowledge, and to make these strategies staples of their language, literacy, and writing instruction. In this way, they can support all students— not only to achieve a better

command of academic English— but to become more thoughtful, engaged, and communicative writers.

REFERENCES

- Alim, H. S., & Smitherman, G. (2012). *Ar-ticulate while black: Barak Obama, language, and race in the U.S.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Anzaldúa, G. (1999). *Borderlands, la frontera: The new mestiza*. San Francisco, CA: Aunt Lute Books.
- Bean-Folkes, J. (2009). *Teaching African American students written academic English through writing: Three African American students, a researcher, and their teachers*. Retrieved from Dissertation Abstracts International, 449. (AAT 3368419)
- Bean-Folkes, J. (2010). Schools of hope: Teaching literacy in the Obama era. In E. Thomas (Ed.), *Reading the African American experience in the Obama era: A handbook for teaching, learning, and activism* (pp. 71-87). New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Bean-Folkes, J. (2014). *Bridging the gap between language and writing instruction to support skillful writers*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Berliner, D. C. (2002). Comment: Educational research: The hardest science of all. *Educational Researcher*, 31(8), 18-20.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X031008018>
- Bradley, B. A., & Reinking, D. (2011). Revisiting the connection between research and practice using formative and design experiments. In N. K. Duke & M. H. Mallette (Eds.), *Literacy research methodologies* (pp. 188-212). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Brown, A. L. (1992). Design experiments: Theoretical and methodological challenges in creating complex interventions in classroom settings. *Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 2(2), 141-178.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327809jls0202_2
- Calkins, L. M. (1994). *The art of teaching writing*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Cohen, D. J., White, S., & Cohen, S. B. (2012). Mind the gap: The Black-White literacy gap in the national assessment of adult literacy and its implications. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 44(2), 123-148.
- Creese, A., & Martin, P. (2003). Multilingual classroom ecologies: Inter-relationships, interactions, and ideologies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 6(3-4), 161-167.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050308667778>
- Currie, J., & Duncan, T. (1993). *Does head start make a difference?* Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.3386/w4406>
- Delpit, L. (1998). What should teachers do? Ebonics and culturally responsive instruction. In T. Perry & L. Delpit (Eds.), *The real Ebonics debate: Power, language, and the education of African American children* (pp. 17-26). Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Design-Based Research Collective. (2003). Design-based research: An emerging paradigm for educational inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 32(1), 5-8.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X032001005>
- Elbow, P. (1998). *Writing without teachers* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34, 906-911.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.906>
- Fletcher, R. (1993). *What a writer needs*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Goldberg, N. (1986). *Writing down the bones: Freeing the writer within*. Boston, MA: Shambala Publications.
- Gumpres, J. J. (1982). Conversational code-switching. In J. J. Gumpres (Ed.), *Discourse strategies* (pp. 59-99). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511611834.006>
- Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hudley, A. H. C., & Mallison, C. (2011). *Understanding English language variation in U.S. schools*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Humes, K. R., Jones, N. A., & Ramirez, R. R. (2011, March). Overview of race and Hispanic origin: 2010. *2010 Census Briefs*. Washington, DC: United States Census Bureau. Retrieved from
<http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/briefs/c2010br-02.pdf>
- Labov, W. (1972). *Language in the inner city: Studies in the Black vernacular*. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465-491.
- Lance, D. M. (1975). Spanish-English code-switching. In E. Hernandez-Chavez, A. Cohen, & A. Beltramo (Eds.), *El lenguaje de los Chicanos* (pp. 138-153). Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Lee, C. (2007). *The role of culture in teaching and academic literacies: Conducting our blooming in the midst of the whirlwind*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Martinez, R. (2013). Reading the world in Spanglish: Hybrid language practices and ideological contestation in a sixth-grade English language arts classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 24(3), 276-288.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *An expanded sourcebook: Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Murray, D. M. (1999). *Write to learn*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- National Commission on Writing. (2006). *Writing and school reform*. Retrieved from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/writingcom/writing-school-reform-natl-comm-writing.pdf
- Paris, D. (2011). *Language across difference: Ethnicity, communication, and youth identities in changing urban schools*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511978852>
- Perl, S., & Wilson, N. (1998). *Through teacher's eyes: Portraits of writing teachers at work*. Portland, ME: Calendar Island Publishers.
- Phillips, M., Brooks-Gunn, J., Duncan, G. J., Klebanov, P., & Crane, J. (1998). Family back-ground, parenting practices and the Black-White test score gap. In C. Jencks & M. Phillips (Eds.), *The Black-White test score gap* (pp. 103-145). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution. Retrieved from https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=Ywb7r1oOxJYC&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=The+Black-White+test+score+gap+&ots=xpu5OZ0gnx&sig=QrlesHI_u95ZZUA8zmj07h3gkEU#v=onepage&q=The%20Black-White%20test%20score%20gap&f=false
- Ray, K. W. (1999). *Wonderous words: Writers and writing in the elementary classroom*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Smitherman, G. (1977). *Talkin' and testifin': The language of African-American America*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Sweetland, J. (2006). *Teaching writing in the African American classroom: A sociolinguistic approach*. Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations. (AAT 3235360)
- Viadero, D. (2009). Director of research aiming for 'usability' with federal studies. *Education Week*, 29(13), 10.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. V. John-Steiner, M. Cole, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman (Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Woodlard, K. A. (2004). Codeswitching. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A companion of linguistic anthropology* (pp. 73-94). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Zentella, A. C. (1997). *Growing up bilingual: Puerto Rican children in New York*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

About the Author



Dr. Bean-Folkes is an assistant professor in the Department of Language, Literacy & Sociocultural Education at Rowan University. Her research interests involve multilingual classrooms, the written academic language, African American Language, sociocultural and sociolinguistic perspectives of education for African American students and other non-dominant language speakers as they learn the academic language. She considers herself a researcher/practitioner, working in urban K-12 classrooms with students, teachers and administrators from diverse backgrounds.

Past & Present: Arizona's Language/Literacy Policies and Their Educational Impact

Laura Gomez
Arizona State University

Abstract — In Arizona, growing anti-immigrant sentiment has produced language policies which target and marginalize the Latina/o people. This paper presents the results of a narrative review answering the question, "How do ongoing political shifts in Arizona impact education programs focused on English Language Learners?" The past and current socio-political climate regarding language policies and their educational impact in Arizona are outlined. The results highlight how Arizona's policies serve to codify the marginalization of language minority groups.

Keywords: *language policy, literacy, dual language programs, bilingual education, two-way immersion, Arizona, official language, Spanish, English only*

In the United States, there are roughly 40 million Spanish speaking Latina/o immigrants (U.S. Census Bureau 2011b) and many more citizens who speak Spanish as a home language. Despite past language laws, currently, the United States does not officially acknowledge the country's linguistic diversity. The US has not codified any Official Language or Official Languages (Patten, 2011). An official language legally outlines which language(s) the government uses for all of its services and transactions (Saal, 2015). The United State's lack of a national language policy leaves state and local governments the purview to enact their own state specific language legislation.

Therefore, local and state language laws/policies around any language have the expansive potential to impact not only immigrants, but also US citizens who speak a language other than English in their home. Currently, 27 states, including Arizona, and all U.S. territories have mandated English as the official language of the state, which means that citizens do not have the right to government services or materials in a language other than English (Patten, 2011). The repercussions of such legislation particularly impact public schools. For example, in Arizona alone, there are 150,000 English

Language Learners (ELL), 13 percent of K-12 public school enrollments, and the majority speak Spanish (Arizona Department of Education, 2010).

Since the United States' founding, Bilingual Education (BE) was utilized by immigrant communities to integrate themselves into American culture while also fostering their cultural and linguistic heritage (Ovando, 2003). However, throughout the years, the support for bilingual education at the state level has fluctuated (Gandara, Losen, August, Uriarte, Gomez, & Hopkins, 2010). Focus has shifted from bi-literacy and heritage education to English only and educational "assimilation" based language curriculum (Nieto, 2009).

Particularly, in Arizona, growing anti-immigrant sentiment supports the approval of language policies that target and marginalize Latina/o students. Anti-immigrant sentiments that propel language laws, and, therefore, education policy, are an important social justice issue to discuss within literacy research. These policies serve to marginalize language minority and Latina/o students. Unfortunately, some of these policies are not new perspectives at either the federal or state level.

U. S. Bilingual Education: A Historical Overview

1848-1864 – Language Policy in the Expansionist Era

As the U.S. expanded in both territory and population, language policy shaped the educational experience of new and existing residents. Bilingual Education (BE) for Spanish-speaking students has beginnings in the southwest after the appropriation of Mexican territory by the United States through the Mexican-American War (Acuña, 2000). In 1848, after the Mexican American War (1846-1848), Mexico and the United States signed the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (Acuña, 2000), which gave Mexicans the right to speak Spanish in the United States. As a result of the treaty, public schools taught non-native English students in monolingual or bilingual settings depending on the school. However, Mexican students were mainly in segregated schools with fewer resources than Anglo Americans (Gándara, & Orfield, 2010). During

the 1700s and most of the 1800s, much of U.S. society was accepting of many languages - as immigrants from all over the world arrived in the US (Thomas & Collier, 2012). As a result, many Bilingual Education programs flourished across the country in regions with high numbers of non-English speakers (Kloss, 1998; Thomas & Collier, 2012).

However, at this time, not all groups were accepted equally and restrictive policies against certain “immigrant languages” soon spread across the country. For example, in contrast to Mexican-Americans who decided to stay in the new United States territory and were protected to utilize Spanish in the classroom by the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty, Native Americans were prohibited from being taught in their own native language in public spaces, especially in classrooms. In 1864, Congress prohibited the use of Native American languages in educational settings (Maffay, 1998; Harvey, 2015). In doing so, congress set the precedence that the approach to teaching language minority students should be one of “Americanization” where language minority students are assimilated by language immersion into mainstream society (Ovando, 2003). As the country grew, so did the nativist sentiments from those older immigrant groups who were considered themselves “real Americans.” These groups utilized their status as “Americans” to marginalize recent immigrants. Recent immigrants were considered the “other” and therefore ostracized from full participation in U.S. society by the implementation of policies and laws to minimize, if not completely eliminate, their legal status as well as limit their political and social participation (Galindo & Vigil, 2006; Johnson, 1997; Perez Huber, 2010; Perea, 1997; Sanchez, 1997).

The exclusion and marginalization strengthened the idea of defending national identity from “foreign threats” (Higham, 1955) and has historically targeted specific groups according to societal perceptions of who fits into the American national identity. In 1864, Native Americans were the threat. On the other hand, in 1906, due to an immigration wave of Italians, Slavs, and Jews, the attention shifted to these new immigrants and potential foreign threats. As a result, in 1917, Congress passed the first federal language law that required individuals to know English in order to receive naturalization (Gandara et al., 2010; Ovando, 2003). See Figure 1.

1917-1960 – Language Policy in the World War Era

In 1917 the U.S. entered WWI, and as a result of foreign threat, the Federal Government increased federal aid for the teaching of English only, which restricted schools from implementing bilingual programs (Higham, 1955). Anti-German sentiment rapidly turned into hostility towards all minority languages, and by the mid 1920s, BE was dismantled across the country (Gandara et al., 2010). By 1923, 34 states mandated English-only instruction in all schools, placing a roadblock for bilingualism and bi-literacy (Kloss, 1998, Ovando, 2003). However, in 1958,

the study of foreign language was promoted for English only monolinguals through the National Defense Act in response to the Cold War.

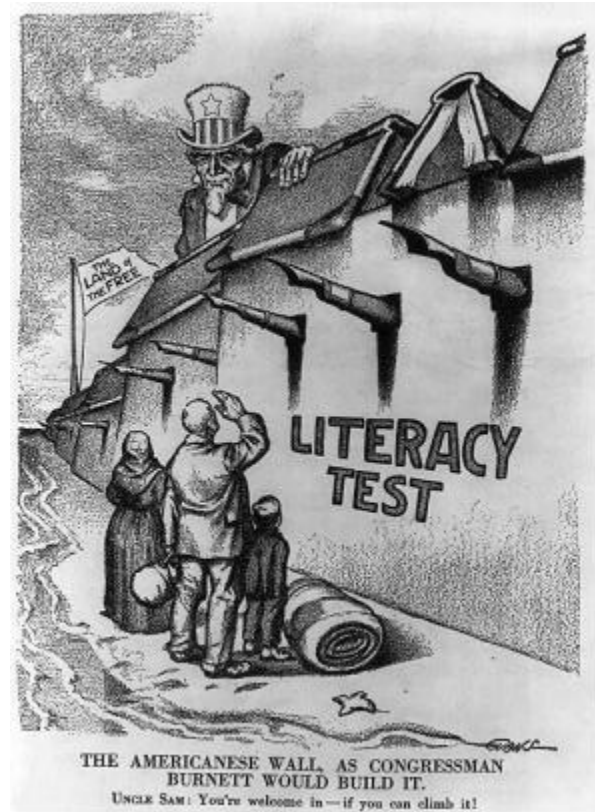


Figure 1. *[“The Americanese wall - as Congressman \[John Lawson\] Burnett would build it” 1916.](#)* (Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division)

1960-1975 – Language Policy in the Civil Rights Era

In the beginning of the turn back to inclusion and Bilingual Education, in 1961, Dade County, Florida implemented full bilingual/bi-literate education programs for Cubans as a result of a Cuban immigration wave to Miami propelled by the Cuban revolution of 1959 (Garcia & Otheguy, 1989; Zuazo, 2004). Shortly thereafter, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 established the Office of Civil Rights, and, soon after establishment, the Immigration Act was passed (Gandara et al., 2010). With the organization of the Civil Rights Movement and its corresponding legislation, marginalized communities received support through the law to move forward their interests. This included language minority individuals who wanted support for culture and heritage revitalization through language restoration within bilingual education.

As the fight for inclusion grew around the country, Florida implemented full bilingual programs, and Congress approved the Bilingual Act of 1968, which allocated school funding for the implementation of

bilingual programs for the integration of native-language instruction into public schools (Ovando, 2003). Unfortunately, the Bilingual Act of 1968 lacked measures to effectively implement Bilingual Education (BE) programs for minority and low-income communities. Yet, BE was seen by Latino communities as a means for not only maintaining Spanish, but also as a way to conserve their culture and heritage. For this reason, in 1974, Chicano students in Texas demanded to speak Spanish, study Chicano history, and be taught by Chicano teachers (Acuña, 2000). These Chicano/a students and their supporters made it their social responsibility to defend and demand their right for equitable education through bilingualism.

The growing demand from students, parents, and community opened way for *Lau v. Nichols* where the Supreme Court ruled that schools without special provisions to educate language minority students were not providing equal education and violated the Civil Rights Act of 1964. As a result of the *Lau v. Nichols* ruling, the Federal Government, driven by the Equal Educational Opportunities Act, allocated 64 million dollars for Bilingual Education. *Lau v. Nichols* also provided guidelines, known as the Lau Remedies, for schools to identify and determine the English proficiency of language minority students to regulate the qualifications for educators who would work with language minority students. Furthermore, *Lau v. Nichols* also required district accountability by reporting effective educational outcomes language minority students, which of course included literacy (Gandara et al., 2010; Ovando 2003).

As the Civil Rights movement was bringing attention to the need for social change, the federal Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was a historic landmark that led new policies for the education of minority students. The three main purposes of the Bilingual Education Act were to "Increase English-Language skills, maintain and increase mother-tongue skills through bi-literacy, and support the cultural heritage of the student" (Leibowitz, 1980, p.24; Thomas & Collier, 2012). By 1971, a total of 30 states were requiring implementation of transitional bilingual education for students with limited English proficiency (Ovando, 2003; Ovando, Combs & Collier, 2006). By 1975, with the increase support of BE, the National Association for Bilingual Education was founded.

1980s-2000s – Language Policy in the Reagan Era and Beyond

Even as programs for Bilingual Education increased, the US political landscape of the Cold War era and the policies following the "Nation at Risk" report served to undermine the traction of such programs. Opponents of Bilingual Education argued that schools were not meeting the needs of minority language students, and, therefore, called for their removal. Further, as anti-immigrant and nativist sentiments increased, so did the population of

foreign-born residents by 40 percent in the 1980s. For example, in 1980, Miami Dade county passed an ordinance outlining English as the official language of the county in a backlash to the influx of 125,000 Cuban refugees following the Mariel boatlift (Ovando, 2003). This ordinance effectively stipulated the end of bilingual education programs for the school system. See [Latino Americans | Episode 6 | Peril and Promise](#)

In 1994, California had passed Proposition 187, making it illegal for children of undocumented immigrants to attend public schools (Cal. Educ. Code, 1996; Gandara et al., 2010). The Federal Court ruled Proposition 187 unconstitutional, but in 1998 California's voters overwhelmingly approved Proposition 227, eliminating BE programs and requiring all instruction to be in English only. After California, in 2000, Arizona passed its version of English only laws, Proposition 203 followed by Massachusetts (August, Goldenberg, & Rueda, 2010; Cummins, 1979; Dressler & Kamil, 2006; Genessee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2012).

Following the political and social backlash toward bilingual education, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) eliminated Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), the Bilingual Education Act. NCLB completely removed the word "bilingual" from the legislation, which negatively affected funding for bilingual programs (Gandara & Baca, 2008; Johnson, 2007; Menken, 2009; Menken, 2008a; Wiley & Wright, 2004). The Bilingual Education Act was replaced with Title III of NCLB: The English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act (Olneck, 2005). In contrast to the Bilingual Education Act, Title III placed any language, other than English, within a deficit framework, and, therefore, a "problem" to be remediated (Ruiz, 1984). Further, Title III did not allow funding for even transitional bilingual programs (Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Negative public opinion and policy toward bilingual education gave rise to the growing popularity of Dual Language Programs (Wilson, 2011), also known as Two-Way Immersion Programs. As a result of the anti-immigrant sentiment in parts of the US, the lack of support in federal legislative educational policies and in an effort to avoid negative connotations and (re)assure continued funding, "Bilingual Education" programs were re-coined Dual Language Programs (DLPs) or as Two-Way Immersion Programs (TWIP) (Thomas & Collier, 2012; Wilson, 2011).

The term *dual language* was substituted bilingual education and soon became the umbrella term utilized to identify bilingual immersion, heritage language maintenance, one-way, two-way, 90:10 and 50:50 instruction, enrichment, and developmental language programs (Soltero, 2004; Thomas & Collier, 2012). The program monikers were chosen to avoid unwanted nativist attention and ensure continued state funding. Through

policy such as NCLB, DLPs are persuaded to disassociate from being classified as bilingual education serving ELL populations.

Instead of Bilingual Education, the priority of the cited legislation was for ELLs to learn English rapidly. As a result, in Arizona and in other states, schools with high percentages of ELLs were closely observed and judged, and this close observance discouraged the use of native language instruction (Crawford, 2002). In addressing the nativist driven social and policy changes of the time, Bilingual Education was erroneously (re)positioned as anti-American, ineffective pedagogy.

Methodology

Following the tradition of critically assessing and summarizing the literature (Hemingway & Brereton, 2009), a narrative review was conducted to answer the question: "How do ongoing political shifts in Arizona impact education programs focused on English Language Learners?" A narrative review is a way of summarizing the literature from a holistic interpretation of the multiplicities and ranges in understanding scholarly research, information, and topics in order to demonstrate a comprehensive shared experience in educational phenomena (Jones, 2004; Collins and Fauser, 2005).

Concurrently, a document analysis was used to demonstrate the fluctuation and shifts of bilingual education as influenced by political and social contexts. A document analysis is not only a description of the content within a document, but the intention, the purpose, and the motivation behind the particular context in which the document was written (Glenn, 2009). The author reviewed scholarly literature, legislative bills, and other documents including artifacts from the Arizona Department of Education to present the past and current political and social trends affecting the education climate regarding bilingual education and language policy. Collected items were examined to understand the background and history of individual policies and their interplay within the educational context for language minority education in the US with particular focus on Arizona.

Ultimately, the narrative review and document analysis necessitated a review of the history of bilingual education policy (see Historical Overview section above), focusing on the evolution of dual language programs in the United States. The narrative review helped the author identify the ongoing political and social trends that have impacted bilingual education/dual language policies, and, as a result, language minority students. Ultimately, the narrative review and document analysis revealed the political and social trends impacting the current dual language and bilingual education policies in Arizona.

Results

Following analysis, Arizona's educational policies directly impacting bilingual education are outlined.

Arizona's Proposition 203

The Anti-bilingualism campaigns propelled by anti-immigrant, and anti-"otherness" sentiments peaked with the passing of Proposition 203 known as *English for the Children* in November of 2000. The new policy implemented the mandated that ELLs needed to be taught English by being taught in English (Arizona Revised Statutes, 2000; Wright & Pu, 2005). However, Prop 203 ignored the damage this policy would have on ELL's literacy and, therefore, student achievement. The mandate stated that students labeled as ELLs were to receive education separately in English language classrooms utilizing Structured English Immersion (SEI) for one year. Unfortunately, this educational policy "solution" was/is not based on research in the field which does not support SEI as either sufficient for developing linguistically diverse students' skills in English or their home language (Genessee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Warnings against Proposition 203 came before and after the passing of the policy stating that the negative effects of Structured English Immersion (SEI) were likely to emerge in later years as a result of students being completely immersed in a language they do not understand. According to the warnings, the cumulative effects of ELLs not understanding the curriculum would take a significant toll (Mahoney, MacSwan, & Thompson, 2005).

Program Selection

Prior to Proposition 203, Arizona school districts were able to select from a variety of program models, including various forms of bilingual education, to develop both English proficiency and other academic skills for their ELLs. However, this flexibility regarding the choice of program models for ELLs ended in school districts with Proposition 203 (Mahoney, MacSwan, Haladyna & Garcia, 2010). Proposition 203 might not have completely removed bilingual education programs from public schools, but it forced English immersion programs as the default choice for families (Wright & Choi, 2006).

With the implementation of Proposition 203, the vast majority of bilingual programs in K-12 schools have been eliminated or transformed into more marketable/fundable programs such as Dual Language Programs (DLPs) (Thomas & Collier, 2012). However, the results from the narrative review and document analysis indicate that the access to DLPs for minority language students is denied by Prop 203. The mandate of DLPs to include only proficient English users is highly correlated to social economic status and race (Kitch, 2009; Yancy, 2012). ELL

students cannot participate in DLPs until they are deemed “English proficient” by a standardized assessment or if the parent requests a waiver. The three options of the waiver process for the Arizona Department of Education are as follows:

Waiver 1 (A.R.S. §15-753B.1) *My child already knows English: the child already possesses good English language skills, as measured by oral evaluation or standardized tests of English vocabulary comprehension, reading, and writing, in which the child scores approximately at or above the state average for his/her grade level or at or above the 5th grade average, whichever is lower; or,*

Waiver 2 (A.R.S. §15-753B.2) *My child is 10 years or older: it is the informed belief of the school principal and educational staff that an alternate course of educational study would be better suited to the child's overall educational progress and rapid acquisition of basic English language skills as documented by the analysis of individual student needs; or,*

Waiver 3 (A.R.S. §15-753B.3) *My child has special individual needs: the child already has been placed for a period of not less than thirty calendar days during this school year in an English language classroom and it is subsequently the informed belief of the school principal and educational staff that the child has such special and individual physical or psychological needs, above and beyond the student's lack of English proficiency, that an alternate course of educational study would be better suited to the student's overall educational development and rapid acquisition of English. A written description of no less than 250 words documenting these special individual needs for the specific child must be provided and permanently added to the child's official school records and the waiver application must contain the original authorizing signatures of both the school principal and the local superintendent of schools (Arizona Department of Education, 2014).*

Teacher Preparation

At the same time, teacher preparation specifically for language diversity, including English as a Second Language (ESL) and Bilingual Education (BLE) endorsements, has decreased in Arizona. Since 2006, the number of teachers with BLE endorsements has fallen by 16 percent, and teachers with ESL endorsements have decreased by 7 percent (Arias & Harris-Murri, 2009). As a result, the number of teachers who are knowledgeable in effectively working with linguistically diverse students will continue to fall (Arias & Harris-Murri, 2009).

Four-Hour English Language Development (ELD) Block Model

Further negatively affecting the education of ELLs, their literacy, and academic achievement is the implementation of the four-hour ELD block model. In order to provide a prescribed instructional program, as a result of Proposition 203, the Arizona English Language Learners Task Force was established in 2006. As a result, the Task Force created what is now called the four-hour ELD block model (Garcia, Lawton, & Diniz de Figueiredo, 2010, 2013). The four-hour block model requires ELLs to receive ELD services in an English immersion setting for at least four hours of the school day during the first year of being classified as an ELL student. The four-hour block model supports the idea that ELLs can achieve proficiency in English in a faster pace and with a deeper understanding in an English-only instructional environment (Mahoney, MacSwan, Haladyna, & Garcia, 2010).

However, the four-hour block model enacts extensive and continued daily segregation as well as grouping of students by language proficiency. This grouping and segregation of students does not align with research in the field of second language acquisition nor does it align with cognitive infrastructure theories connected with the development of second language learners (August, Goldenberg, & Rueda, 2010; Martinez-Wenzl, Perez, & Gandara, 2010). The segregation of ELLs in the four-hour block model is not based on any type of research that supports the isolation of these students for a majority of the day –as this research is nonexistent (August et al., 2010; Krashen, Rolstad, & MacSwan, 2007; Rios-Aguilar, Gonzalez Canche, & Moll, 2012). According to Lillie, Markos, Estrella, Nguyen, Trifiro, Arias, & Wiley, 2010), in order to be an effective educator, teachers should focus on both grade-level content and active communication skills when educating language minority students in order to achieve the same academic levels as their native English-speaking peers. Furthermore, Garcia et al. (2010) state that in order to advance in language learning, language minority students need abundant opportunities to interact and network with those students who have a higher English proficiency than their own so that they are able to hear and participate in language and cognitive activities in which academic content is utilized. Moreover, Johnson's (2012) research, based in Arizona, has highlighted the value of bilingual peers assisting ELLs in content area instruction in what the author calls peerlingual education. However, when students are segregated, peerlingual education is not possible.

In regards to the segregation component of the four-hour block model, Gándara and Orfield (2010) concluded that, in Arizona's schools, the excessive segregation is most harmful to language minority students' achievement and literacy as well as negatively impacts their social and emotional development. This instructional model which

mandates the separation of ELLs from mainstream students for at least four hours of the school day, silences and marginalizes language minority students (Curran, 2003; Garcia et al., 2010; Bernhard, Cummins, Campoy, Ada, Winsler, & Bleiker, 2006; Morrison, Cosden, O'Farrell, & Campos, 2003; Osterman, 2000, Rios-Aguilar-Rios & Gandara, 2012). In study results, students report feeling isolated (Lillie, 2011), both physically and socially (Lillie et al., 2010). More concretely, school principals reported having a strenuous time complying with the mandate of segregating students by language proficiency considering their understandings of effective ELL instruction (Jimenez-Silva & Grijalva, 2012).

Perhaps, one of the most negative effects for minority language students being submitted to this isolation while learning English for four hours a day, is that they are being excluded from the core academic areas of math, science, and social studies (Lillie et al., 2010). This lack of access to core academic content ultimately deprives ELLs from receiving the instruction to develop the same content/disciplinary understandings, literacy skills, and Tier 3 vocabulary, as their English-proficient counterparts (Garcia et al., 2010).

Interestingly, since in Arizona, Dual Language Programs are programs for "English proficient students," they can avoid the segregation instruction dictated by the English Only mandates of Proposition 203. However, ELL students are purposefully excluded from DLPs in Arizona – depriving them of the right to a more equitable education.

Ban on ethnic studies (H.B. 2281)

H.B. 2281 was signed on May 11, 2010 and prohibits Arizona school districts and charter schools from offering classes that, (1) promote the overthrow of the United States Government, (2) promote resentment toward a race or class of people, (3) offer classes that are designed for students of a specific ethnic group, or (4) that advocate ethnic solidarity instead of the treatment of students as individuals. This policy directly affected Tucson Unified School District's Mexican American Studies (MAS) program (Feldman, 2012).

Despite the fact that the goal of the MAS program was to support literacy by increasing student achievement among Latina/o students in providing them with curriculum rooted in Latina/o history and culture (Gómez & Benton, 1998), and the research supporting that they were attaining this goal (Cabrera, Milem & Marx, 2012; Casteel, Gilzean & Faulkner, 2011), MAS was considered in violation of HB 2281. As a result, MAS, and other similar programs, were eliminated by districts under the threat of penalty equivalent to ten percent of state funding (Horne, 2010). This ban on "ethnic studies" has also resulted in over 100 books being banned from classrooms.

Discussion

Arizona's policies serve to marginalize culturally and linguistically diverse learners in acting as explicit gatekeepers of linguistic and cultural capital and the legislating the official curriculum of schools.

Policy as Gatekeeper of Linguistic and Cultural Capital

Dual Language Programs have the potential to provide literacy and cultural awareness for students through bilingualism and biliteracy. Numerous studies demonstrate the effectiveness of Dual Language or Bilingual programs which sequentially or concurrently teach language acquisition skills to students in one language and have them transfer that knowledge to a second language (August, Goldenberg, & Rueda, 2010; Cummins, 1979). For example, the skills of the awareness and ability to identify letters with their sound, word reading, as well as spelling in one language, can efficiently be transferred into a second language (Abu-Rabia, 1997; Gholamain & Geva, 1999). The knowledge transferred across languages is also true when it comes to vocabulary in English-Spanish bilinguals (Garcia, 1998; Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996) as well as reading comprehension skills (Reese, Garnier, Gallimore, & Goldengerg, 2000).

However, language minority students in Arizona are systematically excluded from participating in DLPs because their first language is not English. Even the waivers comes with their own "burden of proof" and logistical hurdles for guardians. Particularly for non-native English speaking parents, these waivers can prove a barrier to access. Arizona has purposefully restricted the number English Language Learning students enrolled in bilingual programs through the onerous waiver process (Jimenez-Silva & Grijalva, 2012).

Yet, DLPs in the state of Arizona are rapidly increasing, and, although they are not called bilingual programs, their goal is to create biliterate and bilingual students better able to compete in the 21st century global economy (Darling-Hammond, 2010). While this increase in support might be seen as the state shifting to support bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy for ELLs, it is not. The increase in program development is not focused on all students, as indicated by exclusionary policy and its corresponding waivers. Rather, bilingual programs are seen as educational vehicles for increasing social mobility and cultural capital (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977) for language *majority* students. The policy-as-gatekeeper process is executed through segregation employed by proposition 203, the 4-hour block model, the structure of DLPs, and the low access to DLPs in low-income working class Latino neighborhoods.

DLPs are being promoted in popular media as preparing native English-speaking students for a highly

competitive global economy (Darling-Hammond, 2010) to disassociate their services from ELLs. This explicit disassociation purposefully ignores the ethics of equitable education for the high number of Latinos in the state and the priority given to their own cultural capital and academic achievement through (in)appropriate educational programming. This codified marginalization is systematically excluding ELLs from participating in programs that yield high academic student achievement.

Policy as Gatekeeper for Official Curriculum

Molly Quinn (2010) speaks of the official curriculum as not only "the course of study, body of courses, or program of training at a school or university," but she also points to the curriculum studies perspective which raises questions about "the relationship between knowledge and power, ideology and institution the politics of education and teaching, and processes of standardization, legitimization, and accountability that come to define what constitutes curriculum" (p. 617).

Although these more critical perspectives on the official curriculum are usually more implicitly understood in educational policy and practice, the Arizona policy banning ethnic studies makes explicit this connection between knowledge, language/culture, and power as well as political ideology and education. Further, the policy concretely affirms racist and nativist societal sentiments (Perez Huber, 2011). This lack of access to culturally relevant instruction and pedagogy effectively serves to exclude a large percentage of Latina/os from achieving educational equity of access within the curriculum and instruction of their local public schools (Ladson-Billings, 2003). This exclusion instills continuous and deep rooted, second-class status for working class Latinas/os living in the U.S. Like ethnic studies, bilingual education (which transformed into dual language) was eliminated in Arizona, regardless of the research evidence demonstrating that students who receive bilingual education/dual language successfully achieve fluency in a second language as well as higher academic achievement (August, Goldenberg, & Rueda, 2010; Cummins, 1979; Dressler & Kamil, 2006; Genessee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2012). Also, ELLs in Arizona, which are represented by a high number of Latinos/as are systematically being excluded from participating in DLPs which is a social justice issue since they are not given access to DLPs which are programs that yield high academic student achievement.

Conclusion

As shown in this narrative review, Arizona has supported and passed questionable language/literacy policies that significantly impact educational equity for already marginalized groups – particularly English

Language Learners (ELLs) (Garcia, Lawton, & Diniz de Figueiredo, 2010; Martinez-Wenzl, Perez, & Gandara, 2010; Rios-Aguilar, Gonzalez Canche, & Moll, 2012). These policies are driven by nativist sentiments (Perez Huber, 2010, 2011) which influence the political, social, and, therefore, educational climate against Language minorities and Latinos in the state. Policy makers and politicians, who push for these exclusionary educational policies, must be held responsible for inequitably preparing all students to take their place as future working citizens of Arizona.

REFERENCES

- Abu-Rabia, S. (1997). Verbal and working memory skills of bilingual Hebrew-English speaking children. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics*, 13(1), 25-40.
- Acuña, R. (2000). *Occupied America: A history of Chicanos* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Arias, M. B. & Harris-Murri, N. (2009, April). *Language policy and teacher preparation: A view from Arizona*. Paper presented at American Education Research Association. San Diego, CA.
- Arizona Department of Education. 2010. Home language survey. Accessed March 1, 2013, <http://www.azed.gov/search-results/?q=home-language-survey><http://www.azed.gov/search-results/?q=home-language-survey>
- Arizona Revised Statutes, Title 15 (Education), Chapter 1, Article 1, 15-112 (2000).
- August, D., Goldenberg, C., & Rueda, R. (2010). Restrictive state language policies: Are they scientifically based? In P. Gandara & M. Hopkins (Eds.), *Forbidden languages: English learners and restrictive language policies*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- August, D. & Shanahan, T. (Eds.) (2006). *Developing literacy in second- language learners: Report of the national literacy panel on language- minority children and youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bernhard, J.K., Cummins, J., Campoy, F.I., Ada, A.F., Winsler, A., & Bleiker, C. (2006). Identity texts and literacy development among preschool English language learners: Enhancing learning opportunities for children at risk for learning disabilities. *Teachers College Record*, 108(11), 2380-2405. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9620.2006.00786.x
- Bourdieu, P. & Passeron, J. (1977). *Reproduction in education, society, and culture*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). "Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method", *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27 – 40. doi:10.3316/QRJ0902027
- Cabrera, N.L., Milem, J.F., Marx, R.W. (2012). An

- empirical analysis of the effects of Mexican American Studies participation on student achievement with Tucson unified school district. *Tucson: University of Arizona College of Education Report* Retrieved from https://www.coe.arizona.edu/sites/default/files/MA_S_report_2012_0.pdf
- CAL. EDUC. CODE §§ 48215, 66010.8 (West Cum. Supp. 1996).
- Casteel, T., Gilzian, G. & Faulkner, G. (2011). *Curriculum audit of the Mexican American studies department*. Tucson Unified School District. Cambium Learning and National Academic Educational Partners. Retrieved from http://www.tucsonweekly.com/images/blogimages/2011/06/16/1308282079-az_masd_audit_final_1_.pdf
- Crawford, J. (2002, Summer). Obituary: The Bilingual Education Act, 1968-2002. *Rethinking schools online*, 16(4), 1-4. Retrieved from http://www.rethinkingschools.org/special_reports/bilingual/Bil164.shtml http://www.rethinkingschools.org/restrict.asp?path=archive/16_04/Bil164.shtml
- Collins, A. J. & Fauser, C.J.M. B. (2005). Balancing the strengths of systematic and narrative reviews. *Human Reproduction Update*, 11 (2), 103-104.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49 (2), 222-251.
- Curran, M.E. (2003). Linguistic diversity and classroom management. *Theory into practice*, 42(4), 334-340. doi:10.1207/s15430421tip4204_11 http://esl.eportalnow.net/uploads/1/0/4/5/10458746/linguistic_diversity_and_classroom_management.pdf
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). *The flat world and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Dressler, C., & Kamil, M.I. (2006). First and second language literacy. In D. August & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*, 197-238. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- English for the Children, A.R.S. § 15-751-755
- Evans, R. O. (1916). The Americanese wall - as Congressman [John Lawson] Burnett would build it [print]. Retrieved from <http://loc.gov/pictures/resource/cph.3b00563/>
- Feldman, Megan. 2012, March 19. Arizona ethnic studies ban's unintended results: Underground libraries. *The Daily Beast*. Accessed March 1, 2013 from <http://www.thedailybeast.com/articles/2012/03/19/arizona-ethnic-studies-ban-s-unintended-result-underground-libraries.html> <http://www.thedailybeast.com/articles/2012/03/19/arizona-ethnic-studies-ban-s-unintended-result-underground-libraries.html>
- Galindo, R. & Vigil, J. (2006). Are anti-immigrant statements racists or nativist? What difference does it make? *Latino Studies*, 4, 419-447. doi:10.1057/palgrave.lst.8600224 <http://www.u.arizona.edu/~jag/POL596A/Isjantiimmig.pdf>
- Gandara, P., & Baca, G. (2008, September). NCLB and California's English language learners: The perfect storm. *Language Policy*, 7(3), 201-216. doi:10.1007/s10993-008-9097-4
- Gándara, P., & Orfield, G. (2010) Segregating Arizona's English learners: A return to the "Mexican Room"? *Civil Rights Project*.
- Gandara, P. Losen, D., August, D., Uriarte, M., Gomez, C. & Hopkins, M. (2010). Forbidden Language: A brief History of U.S. Language Policy (p.20-36). In Gandara, P. C., & Hopkins, M. (Ed). *Forbidden language: English learners and restrictive language policies*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Garcia, G.E. (1998). Mexican-American bilingual students' metacognitive reading strategies: What's transferred, unique, problematic? *National Reading Conference Yearbook*, 47, 253-263.
- Garcia, E., Lawton, K., & Diniz de Figueiredo, E. (2010). The education of English language learners in Arizona: A Legacy of persisting achievement gaps in a restrictive language policy climate. *Civil Rights Project*.
- Garcia, E., Lawton, K., & Diniz de Figueiredo, E. (2013). The Education of English Language Learners in Arizona: A History of Underachievement. *Teachers College Record*, 114(9) 1-18.
- García, O., & Otheguy, R. (1989). *English across cultures, cultures across English: A reader in cross-cultural communication*. New York; Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Genessee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K.J., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2006). *Educating English Language Learners*. NY: Cambridge University Press
- Gholamain, M., & Geva, E. (1999). Orthographic and cognitive factors in the concurrent development of basic reading skills in English and Persian. *Language Learning*, 49(2), 183-217. <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/0023-8333.00087/abstract>
- Gomez, C., & Benton, B. (1998). *Nuestro futuro: A blueprint for the future*. Bilingual Education/Hispanic Studies and Second Language Acquisition Review Committee Report. Tucson: Tucson Unified School District.
- Harvey, S. P. (2015). *Native tongues: Colonialism and race from encounter to the reservation*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

- Hemingway, P., & Brereton, N. (2009). *What is a systematic review?* Retrieved from <http://www.whatisseries.co.ukhttp://www.whatisseries.co.uk>
- Higham, J. (1955). *Strangers in the land: Patterns of American nativism 1860–1925*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Horne, T. (2010). Finding by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of violation by Tucson Unified School District Pursuant to A.R.S. § 15-112(B). Retrieved from <http://www.azag.gov/issues/TUSD%20%20Ethnic%20Studies%20Findings.pdf>
- Jimenez, R.T., Garcia, G.E., & Pearson, D.P. (1996). The reading strategies of bilingual Latina/o students who are successful English readers: Opportunities and obstacles. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 31(1), 90-112.
- Jimenez-Silva, M. & Grijalva, G. (2012, March). *Arizona principals and the implementation of SEI*. Paper presented at the American Association of Applied Linguistics. Boston, MA.
- Jones, K. (2004). Mission Drift in Qualitative Research, or Moving Toward a Systematic Review of Qualitative Studies, Moving Back to a More Systematic Narrative Review. *The Qualitative Report*, 9 (1), 95-112.
- Johnson, E. J. (2012). Arbitrating repression: Language policy and education in Arizona. *Language and Education*, 26(1), 53-76. <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ949917>
- Johnson, K. (1997). The new nativism: Something old, something new, something borrowed, something blue. In J. F. Perea (Ed.), *Immigrants Out! The new nativism and the anti-immigrant impulse in the United States* (pp.165-189). New York: New York University Press.
- Johnson, D. (2007). *Language policy within and without the school district of Philadelphia*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
- Kitch, S. (2009). *The specter of sex: Gendered foundations of racial formation in the United States*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Kloss, H. (1998). *The American bilingual tradition*. Mchenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics/Delta Systems.
- Krashen, S., Rolstad, K., & MacSwan, J. (2007). *Review of "Research Summary and Bibliography for Structured English Immersion Programs" of the Arizona English Language Learners Task Force*. Takoma Park, MD: Institute for language and education policy. Retrieved from <http://www.terpconnect.umd.edu/~macswan/http://www.terpconnect.umd.edu/~macswan/>
- Leibowitz, A. H., National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education & InterAmerica Research Associates. (1980). *The Bilingual Education Act: A legislative analysis*. Rosslyn, Va: InterAmerica Research Associates, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Lillie, K. E. (2011). *Giving the students a voice: Surveying students about Arizona's structured English immersion restrictive language policy*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation.) Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.
- Lillie, K. E. (2012, March). *Policy as Practice Arizona's Implementation of Structured English Immersion (SEI)*. Paper presented at the American Association of Applied Linguistics. Boston, MA.
- Lillie, K.E., Markos, A., Estrella, A., Nguyen, T., Trifiro, A., Arias, B., & Wiley, T.G. (2010). Policy in practice: The implementation of structured English immersion in Arizona. *The Civil Rights Project*.
- Maffay, J. W. (1998). Language imperialism versus linguistic rights: The case of Native Americans. Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations. (1398956). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com.ezproxy1.lib.asu.edu/docview/304455466?pq-origsite=summonhttp://search.proquest.com.ezproxy1.lib.asu.edu/docview/304455466?pq-origsite=summon>
- Mahoney, K., MacSwan, J., & Thompson, M. (2005). The condition of English language learners in Arizona: 2005. *Arizona Education Policy Initiative*.
- Mahoney, K. MacSwan, J., Haladyna, T., & García, D. (2010). *Castañeda's third prong: Evaluating the achievement of Arizona's English learners under restrictive language policy*. In P. Gándara & M. Hopkins (Eds.), *Forbidden languages: English learners and restrictive language policies* (pp. 50-64). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Martinez-Wenzl, M., Perez, K., & Gandara, P. (2010). Is AZ model better than other models? *Civil Rights Project*.
- McGuinn, P. (2012). Stimulating reform: Race to the top, competitive grants and the Obama education agenda. *Educational Policy*, 26(1), 136-159. doi:10.1177/0895904811425911
- Menken, K. (2008a). *English learners left behind: Standardized testing as language policy*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Menken, K. (2009). No child left behind and its effects on language policy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 29, 103-117.
- Mintrop, H., & Sunderman, G. (2009, June). Predictable failure of federal sanctions—Driven accountability of school improvement—And why we may retain it any- way. *Educational Researcher*, 38, 353-364.
- Morrison, G. M., Cosden, M. A., O'Farrell, S. L., Campos, E. (2003). Changes in Latino students' perceptions of school belonging over time: Impact

- of language proficiency, self-perceptions and teacher evaluations. *The California School Psychologists*, 8, 87-98.
- Nieto, S. (2009). *Language, culture, and teaching: Critical perspectives* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Olneck, M. (2005). *The No Child Left Behind Act's abolition of the Bilingual Education Act: Dismantling progress or furthering opportunity?* Paper presented at the conference on Accountability, Equity, and Democracy in the Public Schools: The No Child Left Behind Act and the Federal Role in Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
- Osterman, K. (2000). Students' need for belongingness in the school community. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3), 323-367.
- Ovando, C. J. (2003). Bilingual education in the United States: Historical development and current issues. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 27(1), 1-24.
- Ovando, C.J., Combs, M.C., & Collier, V.P. (2006). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts* (4th ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Patten, A. (2001). Political theory and language policy. *Political Theory*, 29(5), 691-715.
- Perea, J. (1997). *Immigrants OUT! The new nativism and the anti-immigrant impulse in the United States*. New York: New York University Press.
- Perez Huber, L. (2010). Using Latina/o critical race theory (LatCrit) and racist nativism to explore intersectionality in the educational experiences of undocumented Chicana college students. *Educational Foundations*, 24(1-2), 77-96. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ885982.pdf>
- Perez Huber, J. (2011). Discourses of racist nativism in California public education: English dominance as racist nativist microaggressions. *Journal of Educational Studies* 47(4), 379-401. doi: 10.1080/00131946.2011.589301
- Quinn, M. (2010). Official curriculum. In C. Kridel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of curriculum studies*. (pp. 617-619). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412958806.n332>
- Reese, L., Garnier, H., Gallimore, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2000). Longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of emergent Spanish literacy and middle-school English reading achievement of Spanish-speaking students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(3), 633-662.
- Rios-Aguilar, C., Gonzalez Canche, M.S., & Moll, L.C. (2012). A study of Arizona's teachers of English language learners. *Teachers College Record*, 114(9) 1-33.
- Rios-Aguilar, C. & Gandara, P. (2012) Horne v. Flores and the Future of Language Policy. *Teachers College Record*, 114(9), 1-13.
- Ruiz, R. (1984). Orientations in language planning. *NABE Journal*, 8, 15-34.
- Saal, L. K. (2015). Official Language. In S. Thompson (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Diversity and Social Justice* (pp. 547-548). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Sanchez, G. (1997). Face the nation: Race, immigration and the rise of nativism in late twentieth century America. *International Migration Review*, 3(4), 1009-1030. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/2547422?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents
- Soltero, S. W. (2004). *Dual language: Teaching and learning in two languages*. Boston: Pearson/A and B.
- Telles, R. (Producer). 2013. *Latino Americans: Episode 6, Peril and Promise*. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t_0joisnf1E
- Thomas, W.P., & Collier, V.P. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence, University of California-Santa Cruz.
- Thomas, W.P., & Collier, V.P. (2012). *Dual language education for a transformed world*. Albuquerque, NM: Fuente Press.
- U. S. Census Bureau. 2011a. Language spoken at home. 2011 American Community Survey 1-year estimates. Accessed March 1, 2013, http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_11_1YR_S1601&prodType=tablehttp://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_11_1YR_S1601&prodType=table
- U.S. Census Bureau. 2011b. Selected characteristics of the foreign-born populations by region of birth: Latin America. 2011 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates. Accessed March 1, 2013, http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_11_1YR_S0506&prodType=tablehttp://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_11_1YR_S0506&prodType=table

- U.S. Department of Education (2009). Race to the top executive summary. *Executive Summary*, Retrieved September 20, 2013 from <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/racetothetop/executive-summary.pdf><http://www2.ed.gov/programs/racetothetop/executive-summary.pdf>
- Wiley, T. & Wright W., (2004). Against the undertow: Language-minority education policy and politics in the "age of accountability". *Educational Policy*, 18(1), 142-168.
doi:10.1177/0895904803260030
- Wilson, D.M. (2011). Dual language programs on the rise. *Harvard Education Letter*, 27 (2). Retrieved from Harvard Education Publishing Group <http://hepg.org/hel/article/496>
- Wright, W. E., & Pu, C. (2005). Academic achievement of English language learners in post Proposition 203 Arizona. Tempe: Language Policy Research Unit, Educational Policy Studies Laboratory.
- Wright, W. & Choi, D. (2006). The impact of language and high-stakes testing policies on elementary school English language learners in Arizona. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 14(13). Retrieved March 18, 2012 from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v14n13/http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v14n13/>
- Yancy, G., & MyiLibrary. (2012). *Look, a white: Philosophical essays on whiteness*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Zehr, M. A. (2010). Groups say race to top overlooked ELL pupils; grants went to states with fewer ELLs, big academic gaps (English-language learners). *Education Week*, pp. 18.
- Zuazo, J. J. (2004). *Cambio de codigo y mantenimiento del Espanol por Cubano Americanos en Dade County, Florida y Filadelfia, Pennsylvania* (Order No. 3128597). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305124667). R

About the Author



Laura Gomez is a Ph.D. Candidate at Arizona State University in the Education Policy and Evaluation Program.

Her concentration is in K-12 Education policy, equity, and diversity with an interdisciplinary background. Her scholarship is grounded in educational equity, access, and institutional forms of social and educational stratification. Particularly, she is interested in how these stratifications are supported by laws and policies that form hegemonic hierarchal systems which marginalize populations based on race, class, gender, nationality, and language.

Third Graders Revitalize the Zuni Pueblo Language One Letter at a Time

Rivi Edaakie
Zuni Public School District
Sarah R. Kostelecky
Marjori Krebs
Cheryl Torres
University of New Mexico

“Daily Zuni language and cultural lessons take place, but this project allows the students to be active participants in keeping our language alive”

-Rivi Edaakie

Abstract — In this article, we will examine how one third grade heritage language teacher, Ms. Edaakie, *took action* by helping her students address the problem of revitalizing the Zuni language in authoring and publishing a digital Zuni Language Alphabet Book. Through Ms. Edaakie's interview and subsequent reflection of this project, the authors focus on the importance of language revitalization for Indigenous Peoples as part of a critical culturally sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy which integrates the Zuni perspective on Project-Based Learning.

Keywords: *Heritage Language, Pueblo language revitalization, project-based learning, culturally responsive pedagogy, culturally sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy*

Ms. Edaakie is a third grade Zuni Language Teacher in the Zuni Pueblo, located in western New Mexico. She is also an active participant in ZETAC--Zuni: Engaging Teachers and Community, a school-university-community partnership that is sponsored by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. Participants in ZETAC are being supported to become teachers in the Zuni Public School District (ZPSD) and to become experts in implementing Project-Based Learning (PBL) in their classrooms. In this article, we focus on Ms. Edaakie's PBL work with her students to revitalize their Zuni Language in their community.

Ms. Edaakie was not only a participant in the Project-Based Learning (PBL) workshops that helped to promote the sense of empowerment in the District but also an

Educational Assistant (EA) in a third grade classroom. She currently holds a Heritage Language certificate that licenses her to teach the Zuni language in Zuni classrooms. In her role as an EA and Zuni language instructor, Ms. Edaakie guided her students in a PBL focused on both preserving and revitalizing their language by creating a Zuni Language Digital Alphabet Book.

Setting

The Zuni Public School District (ZPSD) is located within the rural Indigenous community of Zuni that encompasses approximately 450,000 acres across counties in New Mexico and Arizona, where the Zuni have lived for thousands of years. See Figure 1. The current population of Zuni is approximately 12,097, and 32% of its residents live below the poverty line. In the ZPSD, encompassing over 600 square miles, the largest racial/ethnic group is American Indian (94.1%), followed by Hispanic (3.8%), and White (2.0%). The District is comprised of 1,336 students and 100 teachers (Zuni Public School Review, 2014).



Figure 1. *Doya Yalanne* [Corn Mountain].

The Zuni Language

Origins

There are 19 Pueblo tribes in New Mexico and their languages come from three distinct language groups (Sando, 1992). The Zuni language is considered a language isolate and unrelated to the languages spoken by other Pueblo People of New Mexico. According to the Zuni, their language has been spoken since their emergence into this world (Cocke, Porterfield, & Wemytewa, 2002). As of 2006, 85.7% of Zunis spoke their Indigenous language at home with only 14.3% speaking English only; most Zuni speakers are bilingual, speaking both English and Zuni. Generally, the Zuni children are fluent speakers, with 1,818 children between the ages of 5-17 being identified as fluent speakers of Zuni (Bonvillain, 2006). These home usage statistics are important to consider for instruction of the language into future generations – as they reflect the vitality of the Zuni language. Comparatively, trends for other Indigenous languages indicate that only a small percentage of young people speak their Native language (Bonvillain, 2006).

Traditionally, for the Zuni, language was learned in Pueblos orally through daily communication. Zuni and other languages are essential to the continuation of the Pueblo way of life as they contain the cultural knowledge, songs, kinship organization, and ceremonial rituals of the people that will not survive otherwise. Further, ceremonies and prayers cannot be conducted in English, nor can English be spoken in religious spaces (Zuni Pueblo, 1999). Complicating revitalization and preservation efforts, tribes have been resistant to creating a written form of the language as a way to maintain control of sacred information (Bishop, 2008; Martinez, 2000). This thinking is changing somewhat as Pueblos attempt to maintain their languages and culture by investigating multiple strategies including written forms.

Transition to Print

In the 1960s, linguist Curtis Cook attempted to translate the *Bible* into Zuni, but, finding that an alphabet did not exist, proceeded to create one using the International Phonetic Alphabet (Romero, 2006). The written form of the Zuni language, or *Shiwi'ma Bena:we*, utilizes the English alphabet, minus eight letters (Cocke, et al., 2002). Other characters were added to incorporate Zuni sounds not represented. Cook also recorded community elders and storytellers as part of his work to document the language. In 1974, Cook authored the *Zuni Language Learning Manual*, published by the Gallup-McKinley County Schools, for bilingual education use within the schools.

Also during this time, a few short children's books were written and published in Zuni. Some were traditional stories, such as Eriacho and Cook's (1974) *Kya:k Holi*

[translated: *A Long Time Ago*]. Others portrayed typical activities of everyday life - such as going to school. In addition, Eriacho (1973) translated the popular children's book, *Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?* written by Bill Martin, Jr., who gave his permission to turn the story into Kwap *Do'unaye?* [translated: *What Do You See?*].

Problem

Access to, knowledge of, and education in a child's home language is a legal right and social responsibility outlined in the 2011 UN Declaration on the Rights on Indigenous Peoples (http://legal.un.org/avl/ha/ga_61-295/ga_61-295.html), the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights (<http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (<http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx>).

To support the heritage language education of local students, the Zuni Literacy Project was created to support teachers integrating the Zuni language into their classrooms; however, the development of classroom materials to support such instruction is both a time-consuming and detailed process. The Zuni Public School District Bilingual Department teachers, who are licensed by the state, have worked to develop materials, but curricular gaps still exist. Because the Zuni language has only been written down for a little more than 50 years, there are still discrepancies in spelling and usage among those who speak and write the language.

This leaves many Zuni teachers to create their own classroom materials. Ms. Edaakie sought to fill this need through project based learning with her students. For their project, her students solved the pragmatic problem of material creation by authoring an alphabet book in their Zuni language. Additionally, the book increased students' sense of responsibility to preserve and revitalize their own language through a project that also has authentic audience and meets a genuine community need. For the project, each student was assigned a letter of the Zuni alphabet and worked on that page of the book. Students included Zuni words that began with that letter and digital photographs of those words, which they found in their Pueblo community.

In order to capture Ms. Edaakie's project in her own words, she responded to a series of questions regarding the project. The responses below have not been edited.

Solution: The Zuni Language Alphabet Book An Interview with Ms. Edaakie

1. How did you come up with this idea?

As a Zuni language instructor, I noticed that a majority of the students were not fluent in their home language enough to hold a conversation with me. I wanted a way for

my students to engage in dialogue with their elders and yet have something tangible with which to reference. Originally, my idea was to produce non-fiction Zuni books about topics that were culturally relevant. After some frustration with narrowing down topics, I was guided to the idea of creating a Zuni Alphabet Book for starters. I was then able to assign each student a letter from the Zuni alphabet so each would be responsible for a part of the book.

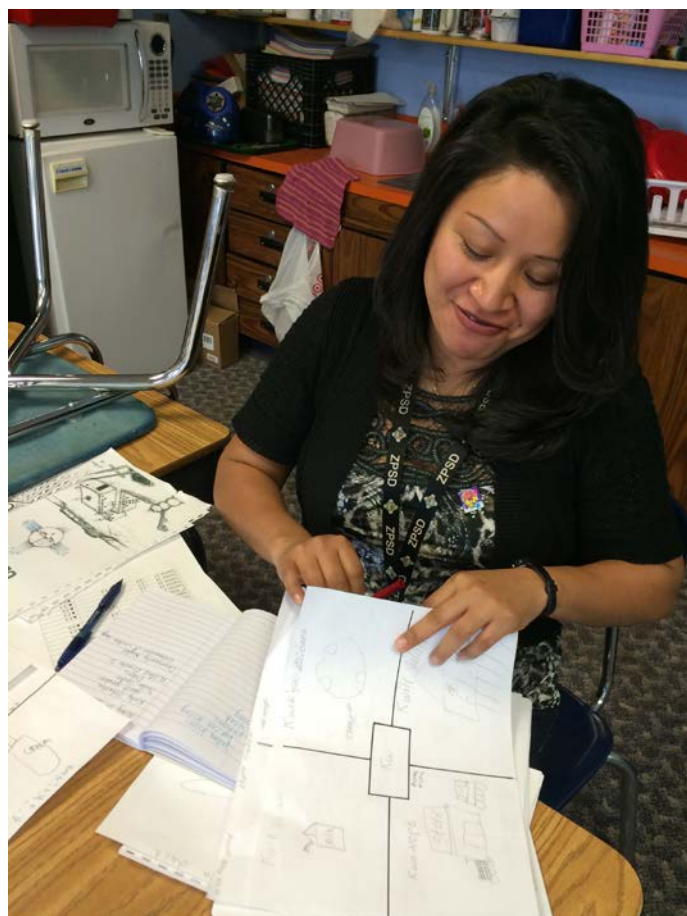


Figure 2. Ms. Edaakie reviewing students' work.

2. How did the project link to the Zuni Core Values?

As part of my entry event for this project, I showed the video, "Who Speaks Wukchumni?" (Vaughan-Lee, 2014, <http://www.nytimes.com/video/opinion/10000003061982/who-speaks-wukchumni.html>) to my students. The video was of one of the very last members of an endangered tribe in California to speak their native language. In the video, the last fluent member was an elderly woman who developed a language dictionary with the help of her daughter and grandson. Through questioning and reflection, I was able to get the students to think about how the video's content related to our language in our

community. The students expressed their respect for all elders in general. As a class, we were able to recognize A:shiwi Core Values in our thinking and the emotions we evoked from analyzing the video's content.

3. Regarding the Zuni Language, how does this project support students' learning the language?

Daily Zuni language and cultural lessons take place, but this project allows the students to be active participants in keeping our language alive. Since each student is accountable for a specific Zuni alphabet letter, they are more inclined to learn words that start with that letter. As a part of their homework one week, students took an assigned section of a Zuni glossary home and drew objects or actions that begin with their alphabet. In the hopes to establish more dialogue between families, students were encouraged to get help from their parents to choose appropriate words, or get more information about the vocabulary. For classwork, I developed object-naming worksheets for a few letters per day. Each sheet would display six images, one for each letter. At the end of this activity, students would choose one of the images to write about. Students would flip the worksheet and write four facts or opinions about the chosen image.

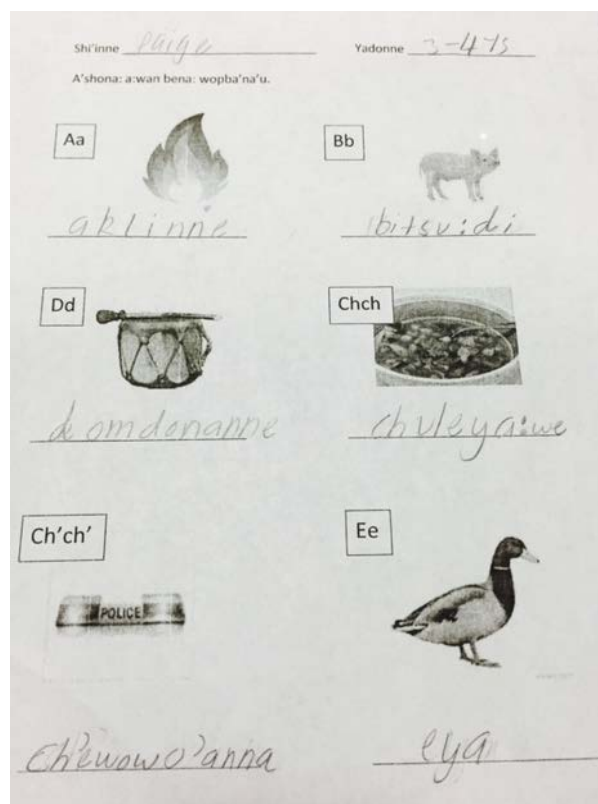


Figure 3. Zuni Language Word Identification Page

o	o'nanne n. tooth o'nanwe (pl.)
o short sounding vowel	obaklanne n. upper palate of the mouth obaklewe (pl.)
o: longer voiced vowel	obi sour
o' shorter voiced vowel	obikwayinanne n. flour sifter obikwayinawe (pl.)
o: longer voiced vowel with abrupt stop	obikwayk'e: a sifting flour
o:lo gold	obikwayk'ekkye sifted flour
o:ye n. wife. a:waye (pl.)	obikwayk'yanna will sift flour
o'a process of making	ochallawe many items broken up into pieces
o'anna will be made	ochallanne one item broken up into pieces
o'bikkwinne Belt for bullets	ochitdoye face is powdered, make up on face
o'do:dashe n. mosquito	ochidoye face is powdered, make up on face
o'donne n. faucet or beak of a bird o'dawe (pl.)	ocho expression of admiration or desire for something good or nice
o'k'yamolliya fat person	ochodeya a situation or condition is admirable, to think highly of
o'lanna big person	ochoma envy
o'lanna'kye was a big person	ochomakya was envious
o'lannak'yanna will be a big person	ochomannz will be envious

Figure 4. Zuni Glossary Page

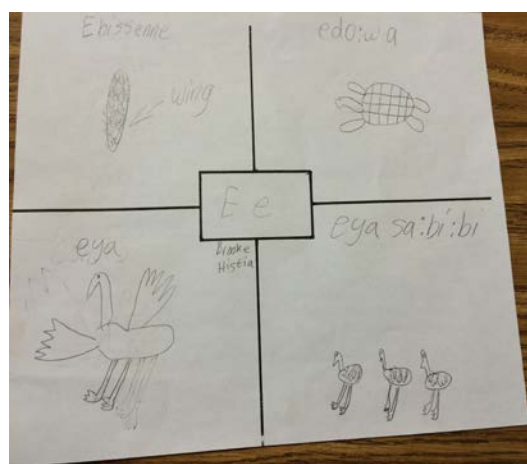


Figure 5. Zuni Alphabet Letter Worksheet

4. Why is it important for students to learn the Zuni Language?

During classroom discussions, I've posed this same question to my students. After watching the video, "Who Speaks Wukchumni?" they seem to always answer, "To keep our language alive!" Throughout early discussions about our language, students continued to develop their understanding of its value and the roles they had in sustaining it. The video reflections that were shared allowed the students to become more aware of their shared responsibility in not only keeping the language alive, but also in keeping up the traditions of Zuni. These reflections became a driving force in pursuing our project further and kept the students emotionally engaged.

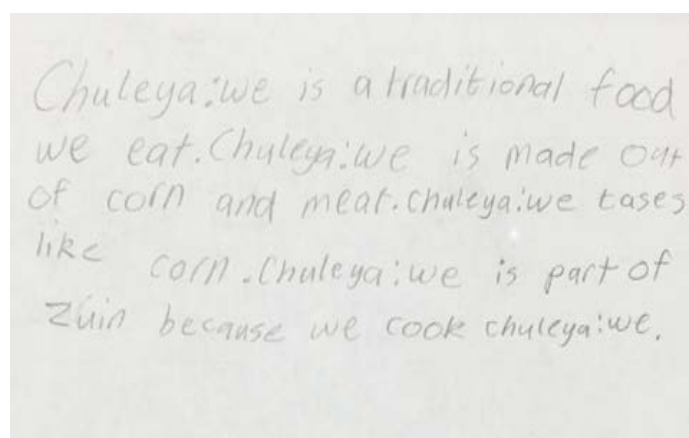


Figure 6. Student Reflection: "Chuleya:we is a traditional food we eat. Chuleya:we is made out of corn and meat. Chuleya:we tastes like corn. Chuleya:we is part of Zuni because we cook chuleya:we."

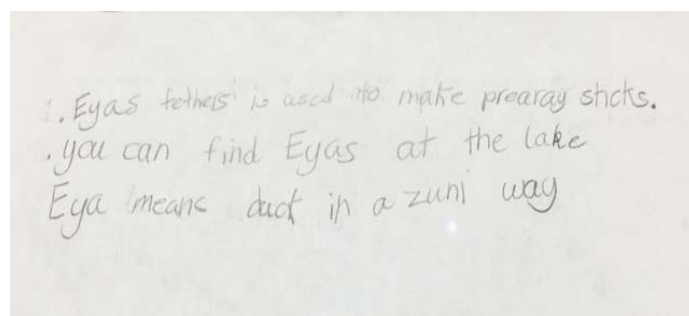


Figure 7. Student Reflection: "Eya's feathers are used to make prayer sticks. You can find eyas at the lake. Eya's means 'duck' in a Zuni way."

5. If someone else wanted to do this project, what are the steps that you took?

One of the key elements of my project at its beginning stages was the entry event. I would relate this part of the project to a springboard because as soon as I got the students hooked with the emotionally engaging video, it became clear that the students were more driven to move forward. My third graders needed to develop their Zuni language arts skills, so I had to create worksheets that would help their progress. For this, I had to work backwards. I showed them an example of what I expected them to have on their book by the time it was ready to publish. Keeping the end in mind, we worked on skills that would help get them there. Because we did not have a camera to work with right away, we continued with other Zuni lessons but several students or I would always try to find ways to relate our project to the lesson of the day. Day one with the camera consisted of lessons on the safe handling of the camera. We learned about the general features of our new device by watching a YouTube video. Day two with the camera was spent outside with each

student taking one or two pictures. It was also my first time working with a more professional camera so the kids and I discovered how to operate it together.

6. What might you do differently next time?

I think I would let the students investigate more problems on their own that we could potentially address. The idea was more mine than theirs and this is why it was a little difficult for me to guide them to think the way I did. If the students were to come up with their own topic or idea with an investigation activity, I think they would have been more engaged from the beginning. The entry event really helped change this so I'm really glad I found the video when I did. I came across it by chance but it was perfect for stimulating the students for our project. I think I would also try to partner up more with community programs. It was in my plans initially to partner up with the Pueblo Senior Center, but I never followed through in contacting them.

7. What suggestions do you have for someone trying this?

I would suggest giving the students more choice in which topic they'd like to write about. This would keep the students engaged in what they're doing. Student voice and choice are important in ensuring that they take ownership of the project and so they don't think they're only working on the project for a grade. I would also advise in planning well and becoming connected to a community partner. One of my frustrations was narrowing down topics and figuring out what topic each student would focus on. It is also sometimes my fear that things won't go as planned and this results in procrastination on my part. At this stage of my project, I had to take a step back and ask for help. I was fortunate to have been guided to focus on one book the whole class could work on, rather than having each student work on their own book. It's ok to ask for help when you're feeling stuck.

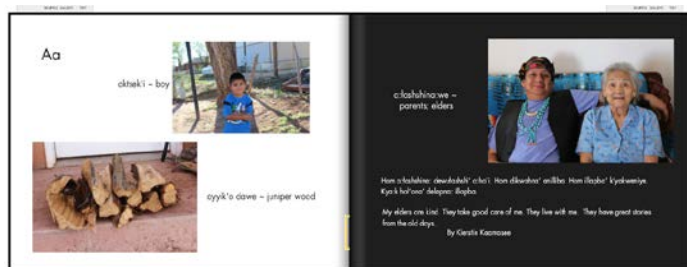


Figure 8. Page 1. "The Letter A"

8. What benefits did you see in your students?

I saw more initiative and confidence in my students. They became experts at putting the camera together and

handling it with care. Even the most timid girl, who was once afraid to hold the camera, was showing confidence and independence when it became time for her to take pictures of a cooking activity. I also notice each day that my third graders are becoming very good readers and spellers of the Zuni words. Early in the year as part of an informal assessment, I asked small groups to jot down as many Zuni words as they could. After five minutes, there wasn't a group that could show more than two words on their lists. More recently I assigned the same activity and this time, there was more collaboration and longer lists. When it became time to move on to the next activity, the students moaned and requested for more time to work on their growing lists. I was so proud of them for working so hard and being focused. Beyond this, I could sense their expanding respect for their home language and balanced classroom culture.

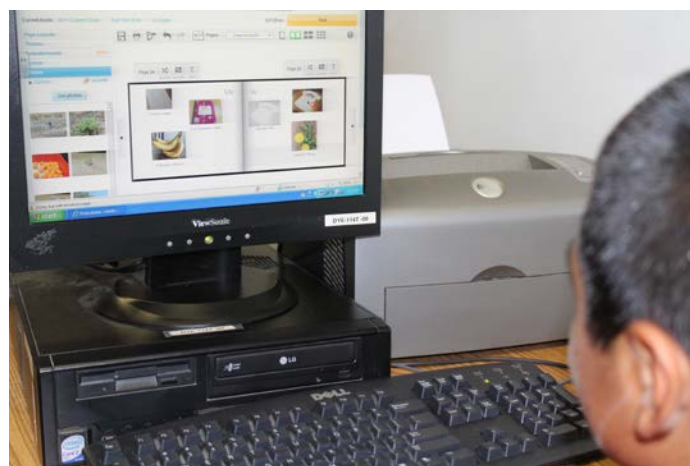


Figure 9. Student creating his page in the digital book.

9. What were the outcomes of the project?

The outcomes of the project include more engaged student participation, a greater respect for the Zuni language, skills in photography, a deeper understanding of our roles in keeping our language active, phonemic awareness of the Zuni alphabet, and continued practice of the A:shiwi Core Values.

10. What were the changes you saw in individual students?

I certainly became quickly aware of how one student was becoming an expert at Zuni language spelling rules. Another student was able to break out of her shell and gained more confidence because I relied more on her to share the Zuni words she knew that most others didn't. Some students became more vocal in the class, saying phrases in the Zuni language they've heard at home or in the community. I started seeing students using their strengths.

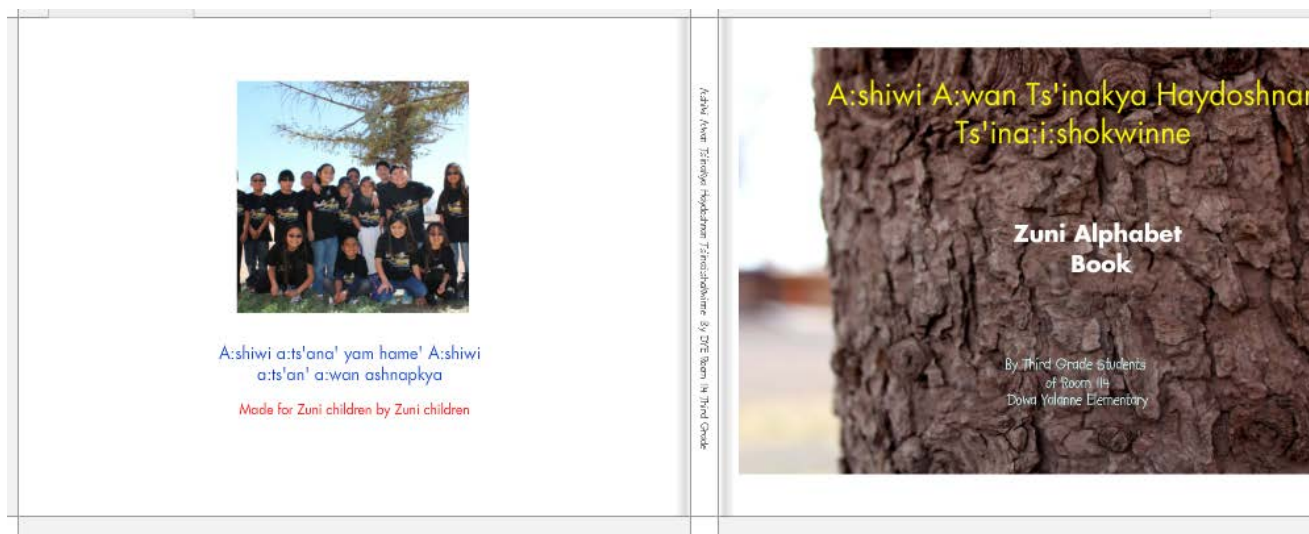


Figure 10. Back and Front Cover of Zuni Alphabet Book

11. What were the reactions from families?

The parents seemed intrigued by the project and proud that their son or daughter was taking part in something they felt was important.

Reflection: An Alphabet Book as a Culturally Sustaining/Revitalizing Literacy PBL Project

Ms. Edaakie's work is framed within socio-cultural theories of teaching and language learning including those of Nieto (1992, 2010) and McCarty and Lee (2014). Nieto (2010) discusses the importance of culture and learning wherein the teacher should be the "cultural accommodator and mediator" (p. 70) in the classroom to promote student academic achievement. Ms. Edaakie, as the teacher, is also responsible for drawing upon cultural elements to establish a "positive learning community" (p. 84), where the "native language is considered an asset to learning" (1992, p. 117). In order to foster learning and empowerment, teachers, like Ms. Edaakie, must take culture into account, along with the social and political contexts of the community (Nieto, 2010).

In building on this theme of culture, language, and learning, McCarty and Lee (2014) explain this type of education through the lens of *culturally sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy* (CSRP). The three major concepts in this approach frame the "sociohistorical and contemporary contexts of Native American schooling" (p. 102). The first concept in CSRP is the recognition of educational sovereignty by Indigenous peoples, working to change the educational system that was left by the legacy of colonization. Second, CSRP focuses on the revitalization of language as a way to reclaim what was "disrupted and displaced by colonization" (p. 102). Third, CSRP recognizes the importance of accountability for

these practices at the community level, "serving the needs of those communities as defined by those communities" (p. 103).

Since teaching is a social and cultural practice, teachers know and understand the communities in which they teach (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2012; Puig & Recchia, 2012). Similarly, teachers must purposefully involve families in their children's education, creating a sense of family empowerment through partnering with the classroom teacher and the school (Bailey, 2001; Nieto, 2010; Puig, 2012). Dr. Cornel Pewewardy (1993), a Comanche-Kiowa researcher from Portland State University, connects culturally responsible pedagogy for Indigenous students in this way:

Culturally responsible pedagogy involves providing the best possible education for children that preserves their own cultural heritage, prepares them for meaningful relationships with other people, and for living productive lives in the present society without sacrificing their own cultural perspective. (p. 83)

In the area of Indigenous languages, he continues:

One of the main tribal connections to Indian identity is tribal languages, many of which are still spoken. Many historical Indian tribes were wiped out (particularly by Europeans) and other groups have no one left who remembers the tribal language. In what is today the continental United States alone, there lived hundreds of aboriginal groups speaking some 250 distinct languages. In that connection, decades ago, perceptive teachers of Indian students saw the advantages of using Indian languages and recognized the gap between what Indians wanted and what was forced upon them in mission and government schools. (p. 83)

In order to help education work in favor of Indigenous children, culturally responsible pedagogy, along with reclaiming and revitalizing Indigenous approaches to education, can help provide answers to teachers, parents, and students (Cajete, 2012; McCarty & Lee, 2014; Pewewardy, 1993).

In undertaking a Culturally Sustaining/Revitalizing literacy PBL project, Ms. Edaakie's exemplifies how sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy (McCarty & Lee, 2014) in the classroom can address many student, family, and community needs. First, she recognizes that students' literacy in their Zuni language will be their key to sustaining and revitalizing their community. She knows she is empowering them through their language instruction to keep not only their language, but also their culture relevant and present. Second, Ms. Edaakie is helping her students reclaim their history and heritage by involving them directly in saving/preserving and teaching their language in their community. Third, through partnering with parents and other community members through interviews, stories, and sharing, she is directly responding to the community's authentic use of their Zuni language and the need to provide learning materials for future students and families.

Connection to Zuni Core Values

In the interview, Ms. Edaakie gives an explicit example of culturally sustaining/revitalizing practices as she explains how she made an emotional connection and direct connection to the Zuni Core Values, which are the nine Pueblo Community value statements. The Zuni School District has adopted these Core Values and is working to incorporate them into each classroom in the district. The Zuni (*A:shiwí*) Core Values (Zuni Public Schools, n.d.) are as follows:

- 1) We will all live accordingly.
- 2) We will respect one another.
- 3) We will think before we act and consider the consequences.
- 4) We will help one another.
- 5) We will give advice and counsel one another.
- 6) We will be honest and trust one another.
- 7) We will love one another.
- 8) We will be kind and generous to one another.
- 9) We will listen and pay attention to one another.

Within the alphabet book project, Ms. Edaakie's students were able to practice these core values in action. As students collaborated on one unified project in service to one another and their community, they further developed keen listening and advice skills. They were able to recognize and improve their respect for each other's

ideas, opinions, traditions/home practices, and language assets. Perhaps most importantly, they were given space to identify their work in the classroom with Zuni Core Values and understand the importance of their role in revitalizing the Zuni language.

Project-Based Learning for Language Preservation and Revitalization

Ms. Edaakie's students' Zuni Language Project is an authentic example of Project-Based Learning. Project-Based Learning (PBL) through its components of hands-on exploration, connection to community and curriculum, valuing local knowledge and expertise, and reflection. As explained by Ms. Edaakie through her interview, successful PBL necessitates an emotional connection for the students with the project and also develops a need to know (Larmer & Hallerman, 2011). The students' project incorporates all the important elements of a successful PBL project - including emotional connections, connections with the community, and hands-on learning. Through the project, students were able to articulate "keeping their language alive" as not only a focus of the project, but also a cultural value that they were active participants in preserving and revitalizing. In short, Ms. Edaakie's students' project helped them understand the connections between literacy and social responsibility, and how they could *Take Action*.

REFERENCES

- Bailey, D. B. (2001). Evaluating parent involvement and family support in early intervention and preschool programs. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 24(1), 1-14. doi: 10.1177/105381510102400101
- Bilingual Multicultural Education Unit. (2003). New Mexico Public Education Department.
- Heritage Language Revitalization. Retrieved from: <http://www.ped.state.nm.us/BilingualMulticultural/dl08/HeritageLanguageRevitalization.pdf>
- Bishop, R. (2008). Freeing ourselves from neocolonial domination in research: A Kaupapa Maori Approach to Creating Knowledge, In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln, (Eds), *The landscape of qualitative research (3rd ed)* (pp. 145-184), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bonvillain, N. (2006). *The Zuni: Indians of North America*. New York: Chelsea House.
- Cajete, G. A. (2012). Decolonizing Indigenous education in a Twenty-First Century world. In W. Yellow Bird & M. Yellow Bird, (Eds.), *For Indigenous minds only: A decolonization handbook* (pp. 145-156), Santa Fe, NM: Shoot for Advanced Research Press.

- Cochran-Smith, M., McQuillan, P., Mitchell, K., Gahlsdorf Terrell, D., Barnatt, J., D'Souza, L., & Gleeson, A.M. (2012). A longitudinal study of teaching practice and early career decisions: A cautionary tale. *American Educational Research Journal*, 49(5), 844-880. doi: 10.3102/0002831211431006
- Cocke D., Porterfield, D., & Wemytewa, E. (2002). *Journeys home: Revealing a Zuni Appalachia collaboration*. Zuni, NM: Zuni A:shiwi Publishers.
- Cook, C. D. (1974). *Zuni language learning manual*. Gallup-McKinley Public Schools: Gallup, NM.
- Eriacho, W. (1973). *Kwap do' unaye?* Zuni, NM: Zuni Public School District.
- Eriacho, W., & Cook, C. D. (1974). *Kya:k holi*. Zuni, NM: Zuni Public School District.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). But that's just good teaching: The case for culturally relevant pedagogy. *Theory into Practice*, 34(3), pp. 159-165.
- Larmer, J., & Hallerman, S. (2011). *PBL in the elementary grades: A step-by-step process for designing and managing standards-focused projects*. San Francisco: Buck Institute for Education.
- Martinez, R. B. (2000). Languages and Tribal Sovereignty: Whose language is it anyway? *Theory Into Practice*, 39(4), 211-219, doi:10.1207/s15430421tip3904_4
- McCarty, T. L., & Lee, T. S. (2014). Critical culturally sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy and Indigenous education sovereignty. *Harvard Educational Review*, 84(1), 101-124, 135-136.
- New Mexico Public Education Department. (2010). Licensure. Retrieved from: <http://www.ped.state.nm.us/licensure/2010/dl/10/chklstNativeAmericanLanguage&CulturePreK-12.pdf>
- Nieto, S. (2010). *The light in their eyes: Creating multicultural learning communities*. 10th edition. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Nieto, S. (1992). We speak in many tongues: Language, diversity, and multicultural education. In C. Diaz (Ed.) *Multicultural education for the 21st Century*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.
- P21: Partnership for 21st Century Learning (n.d.). Framework for 21st Century learning. Retrieved from: <http://www.p21.org/our-work/p21-framework>
- Partnerships Make a Difference. (2015). What is PBL? Retrieved from: <http://www.partnershipsmakeadifference.org>
- Pewewardy, C. (1993). Culturally responsible pedagogy in action: An American Indian magnet school, In E. Hollins, J. King, & W. Hayman (Eds.), *Teaching diverse populations: Formulating a knowledge base* (pp. 77-92), Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Partnerships Make a Difference (n.d.). What is PBL? [Zuni Educators' Views]. Retrieved from <http://www.partnershipsmakeadifference.org>
- Puig, V. I. (2012). Cultural and linguistic alchemy: Mining the resources of Spanish-speaking children and families receiving early intervention services. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 26(2), 325-345.
- Puig, V. I., & Recchia, S. L. (2012). Urban advocates for young children with special needs: First-year early childhood teachers enacting social justice. *The New Educator*, 8(3), 258-277. doi: 10.1080/1547688X.2012.697018
- Romero, C. (2006, August 4). Man helps save Zuni language. *The Tucson Citizen*. Retrieved April 27, 2015, from <http://tucsoncitizen.com/morgue/2006/08/04/21426-man-helps-save-zuni-language/>
- Sando, J. S. (1992). Pueblo nations: Eight centuries of Pueblo Indian history. Santa Fe, N.M.: Clear Light.
- United Nations Declaration on Human Rights. (2015). Retrieved from: <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/copyright/>
- United Nations Human Rights. (1989). Convention on the Rights of the Child. Retrieved from: <http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx>
- Vaughan-Lee, E. (2014). *Who speaks Wukchumni?* Opinion-Documentary. *New York Times*. Retrieved from: <http://www.nytimes.com:video:opinion:100000003061982:who-speaks-wukchumni.html>
- Wiessner, S. (2007). United Nations declaration on the rights of Indigenous Peoples General Assembly resolution 61/295. Retrieved from: http://legal.un.org/avl/ha/ga_61-295/ga_61-295.html
- Zuni Public Schools (n.d.) Core Values. Zuni, NM: Zuni Public Schools.
- Zuni Public School Review (2014). *Zuni Public Schools*. Retrieved from <http://www.publicschoolreview.com>.

Zuni Pueblo. (1999). Zuni Language. Pueblo of Zuni.

Retrieved from: <http://www.ashiwi.org>

About the Authors



Rivi Edaakie has been an Educational Assistant in the Zuni Public School District for 15 years, and is currently in a third grade classroom. She is also a student at the UNM in the Elementary Education Teacher Preparation Program, pursuing K-8 Licensure. Rivi is a licensed Native American Culture and Language teacher for the Zuni Pueblo. She is a mother of two daughters, and is actively involved in her Pueblo community life.



Sarah R. Kostelecky is a faculty librarian at the University of New Mexico Libraries. She provides reference services, library instruction and engages in community outreach. In her prior position she was the Library Director at the Institute of American Indian Arts in Santa Fe, New Mexico. Her research interests include diversity in academic librarianship and Indigenous language revitalization strategies.



Marjori Krebs is an Associate Professor at the University of New Mexico in the College of Education as a member of the Department of Teacher Education, Educational Leadership and Policy. Marjori has been a classroom teacher and university faculty member for over 30 years. Her experiences include Undergraduate and Graduate Program Coordinator, Partnership Coordinator for the UNM President's Office, and working with teachers around the state in project-based learning strategies.



Cheryl Torrez is an Associate Professor in the Department of Teacher Education, Educational Leadership and Policy at the University of New Mexico. Cheryl has worked with and within PK-12/University settings for over two decades: as a classroom teacher, cooperating teacher, a Teacher-in-Residence in a university, and as a university-based teacher educator. Her research interests and scholarship include clinical preparation, social studies education, and teacher education across the professional life span.

Gillen's *Educating for Insurgency: The Roles of Young People in Schools of Poverty*

Stephanie A. Flores-Koulish
Christopher Early
Loyola University Maryland

Gillen, J. (2014). *Educating for Insurgency: The Roles of Young People in Schools of Poverty*. AK Press: Oakland, CA.

In veteran urban educator Jay Gillen's new book, *Educating for Insurgency: The Roles of Young People in Schools of Poverty*, we find an elegant collaboration of inspiration, practical realities, and most importantly, humanistic perspectives to re-think urban education and promote new democratic possibilities within education. Using the author's work with the Baltimore Algebra Project as the book's foundation, Gillen promotes the importance of rethinking impoverished schools and their students merely as disengaged statistics and tragedies, but instead as capable actors with conscience and compassion.

Further, he encourages readers to move from an attitude of de-personalization toward personhood for urban students and their schools. Gillen accomplishes this task by encouraging readers to trust that students are capable of thoughtful expression, exploration, and a reconstruction of problems pertaining to themselves, their peers, schooling, and their communities. All of this ideally works together to promote an insurgency, or a busting down of otherwise intractable social reproduction ideas. Gillen writes:

The problem is chicken and egg. To the extent that schooling simply reproduces existing class dynamics, no changes in how schooling works will matter till class dynamics change. But class dynamics are unlikely to change until a revolutionary or insurrectionary consciousness develops among the young—and their consciousness develops largely through schooling (p. 18).

Gillen encourages readers by explaining that such an insurrection must be operationalized at scale. In this case, he describes the Baltimore Algebra Project, which hones

students' skills at critical engagement in democracy within their school system and city of Baltimore, Maryland under the guise of a successful mathematics program. The Algebra Project methodology is best described in Algebra Project founder's Robert Moses' text, *Radical Equations: Civil Rights from Mississippi to the Algebra Project*. Moses writes, "The Algebra Project is founded on the idea that the ongoing struggle for citizenship and equality for minority people is now linked to an issue of math and science literacy" (p. 14). In other words, a major purpose of the Algebra Project considers mathematical literacy as a form of logical argumentation denoted in esoteric symbols. A peer-tutoring model accomplishes this by instructing secondary students in mathematics.

This serves a deeper purpose, however, by providing students an opportunity to organize and refine their practices of symbolic expression in a protected space under the auspices that education is the end goal, which is not untrue. Mathematics tutoring definitely takes place and students enhance their mathematical literacy, but students also take away the fundamental purpose of gaining strength in logical argumentation for the application of analytical social engagement in their lives and communities. Students then use the skills they cultivate through practice and discussions in the safety of the Algebra Project to every protest, rally, sit-in, and march they orchestrate – all of which are inspired by social injustices experienced in their own lives. In this way, students extend the method of the class "to the street or to the school board meeting or to the courtroom, or to other settings that students decide to engage, until the educational business-as-usual falls apart" (p. 138). Thus, the end-goal of Gillen's insurgency is inherently political through critical pedagogy praxis.

The insurgency about which Gillen speaks becomes literal, aimed at overhauling a system of education that has failed children in poverty. Gillen intends for a more equal society, with education reform being one tool used

in constructing this end goal. Echoing Paulo Freire Gillen expresses that such change is driven by the actions of the oppressed. Accordingly, he envisions a system of education that empowers students – especially those in poverty – to catalyze a revolution of what he refers to as a caste system of education. Rather than focusing on literacy as an end product per se, literacy is a tool used in preparing students to be taken seriously in this revolution. To this end, Gillen is both teacher and organizer, roles he views as synonymous in the praxis of critical pedagogy.

Such a revolution begins with remonstrance against the status quo. Gillen argues that students in schools of poverty are already protesting our current system of education every time they don't do assigned work, are truant, or disrespect school authorities. These practices of student dissent are symbolic expressions of greater strife, evincing discontent toward a system that does not share their priorities – a system that views them as *Objects* to be controlled rather than fully-agentic *Subjects* who deserve respect (*Objects* and *Subjects* being used in a grammatical sense). But these forms of rebellion are often both disorganized and self-detrimental. Instead of demanding more from education, students in schools of poverty often distance themselves from it. In recognizing that student obstinacy is rooted in the unsatisfied demand for a more equitable role in co-constructing their educational experience, Gillen claims that teachers of critical pedagogy can begin the work of organizing to channel students' energies toward a commonly beneficial goal.

Gillen's work skillfully demonstrates critical pedagogy as praxis in the spirit of Freire using the strategies for organizing successfully employed by civil rights champions Ella Baker and Moses. In *So Much Reform, So Little Change*, Charles Payne (2008) paints a dreadful picture of urban education as technocratic to an extent whereby "procedure would regularly triumph over common sense" (p. 18) leading to an environment of demoralization. As an urban school veteran, Gillen agrees and goes beyond that depiction in his book's introduction to describe the ways in which urban schools can even lead inhabitants to illnesses. In many ways, Gillen echoes Payne in the ways that they each paint urban education systems as "irrational institutions" (p. 61). But through the work of Baker and Moses, Gillen finds an optimism that eluded Payne. He depicts on-the-ground portraits moving beyond a bleak hopelessness and toward real democratic possibilities in their re-imagining of urban education with students as agentic *Subjects* reading and shaping their communities. Many of the possibilities are grounded in a humanistic approach whereby relationships are crucial; Gillen describes a variety of these authentic interactions in the book, all of which are valuable for new and veteran teachers.

There are three areas that could be viewed as needing

clarification in this text. First, though there is much for critical pedagogues to laud in Gillen's text, other individuals could also interpret what he's doing in the same way some viewed and condemned La Raza studies in Tucson (McGinnis & Palos, 2011): indoctrinating youth in the language of rebellion, to the neglect of a construct of "traditional" values as defined by social conservatives. Additionally, critics might wonder if there are any elements that could be viewed as coercion of naïve adolescents, however well intentioned.

Second, it is also unclear just what he means by finding a common goal: is it a commonly agreed upon next step toward the goal he identifies (and gets the students to adopt), or is there room for a common goal defined purely by students? Further explanation of the process and details used to identify or introduce specific collective aims would help to mitigate these concerns. Providing more concrete reform strategies would help those who wish to adopt similar strategies in their own classrooms and school communities, though Gillen discusses the ideas underlying this process more than specifics of the process itself.

Finally, some readers might take offense at his characterization of his students as "descendants of slaves" or at least see it as a gross hyperbole for even mentioning slavery. Without more strongly establishing the basis for these underlying assumptions, readers might not enter his discussion with the same conviction he has and may be prone to dismissing even the more universally applicable elements of his style of education (e.g. viewing students as fully agentic humans).

Scholars and graduate education students with experience and interest in urban education, critical pedagogy praxis, and the promise of schooling for democratic engagement will be most interested in this book, thus assuaging the limitations we list above. There is much inspiration that Gillen provides in this text. Throughout it, Gillen underscores an invocation for teachers: "Don't lose your humanity." He speculates that:

This new insurgency will have to be even more seriously earned and more disruptive than the nation's turmoil in the 1960s, because this time the prize is not merely eating at a lunch counter, riding on a bus, or even voting. This time, the prize will be a social, political, and educational arrangement that does not permit one caste to exclude the children of another caste from the common good (p. 142).

In the wake of recent protests that have occurred following the deaths of multiple black males at the hands of police and other authority figures, even in Gillen's city of Baltimore, his work is timely. The perspective gained through the type of education Gillen describes, that which

values critical thought, arms a future electorate with the cognitive tools needed to evaluate and constructively change their society. Our democracy – in which all who have the right to vote have agency – requires an informed electorate, capable of using a variety of actions, including the vote to enact change. In this way, suffrage and education are both tools to the desired end goal, equality. Thus, Gillen's book is long overdue.

REFERENCES

- McGinnis, E. I., (Producer), & Palos, A. (Director). (2011). *Precious Knowledge* [Motion picture]. USA: Corporation for Public Broadcasting.
- Moses, R. (2001). *Radical Equations: Civil Rights from Mississippi to the Algebra Project*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Payne, C. (2008). *So Much Reform, So Little Change: The Persistence of Failure in Urban Schools*. Cambridge: Harvard Press.

BOSTON #ILA2016 - SAVE THE DATE

The **International Literacy Association 2016 Conference & Exhibits** takes place in July! Join us for this incredible professional development experience in **Boston, MA** from **July 9–11**. Full day Preconference Institutes will be held on **Friday, July 8**.

You can look forward to getting **teaching ideas, inspiration, and advice** from **authors, experts, and literacy leaders** at **ILA 2016**...and we'll look forward to seeing you there!

About the Authors



Dr. Flores-Koulis is an Associate Professor in the Curriculum and Instruction program and current director of the Center for Innovation in Urban Education (CIUE) at Loyola University MD. Her research interests include critical media literacy, community engagement, identity and adoption, specifically Latino/a adoptee identity, education policy, creativity, spirituality, and critical multicultural education. Her research provides her with many opportunities to practice engaged scholarship in and around Baltimore City.



Early is currently working toward completing his M.A.T. and teaching certification at Loyola University MD in Baltimore, Maryland. Prior to this, he earned a B.A. in English from The Ohio State University. He is particularly interested in the relationship between social justice, democracy, and education. He is originally from Westerville, Ohio.

Feeley's *Learning Care Lessons: Literacy, Love, Care, and Solidarity*

Lisa Gilbert
Saint Louis University

Feeley, M. (2014). *Learning care lessons: Literacy, love, care and solidarity*. London: The Tufnell Press.

Maggie Feeley's *Learning Care Lessons: Literacy, Love, Care and Solidarity* (2014) is a community-based critical ethnography amongst adult survivors of abuse at Irish industrial schools. This work, situated at the intersection of literacy and social responsibility, grew out of her 30-year career as a literacy tutor, organizer, and manager. These experiences convinced her of the importance of recognizing unmet literacy needs as a form of harm enacted by the state rather than an individual failure to learn:

Altogether, neo-liberal, situated and even Freirean critical theories of adult literacy have made little impact on the reality of persistent basic educational inequalities. In practice, despite much government rhetoric, funding for adult literacy research and adult learning programmes remains relatively low and participation rates continue to be stubbornly unrepresentative of measured need. This stagnation may be rooted in a state of denial that it is layered structural inequality that perpetuates unmet literacy needs, rather than the repeatedly cited failure of individuals or educationalists to meet the literacy challenge (p. 46).

Feeley's fieldwork was conducted in Dublin at the Lighthouse Centre (pseudonym), a space created by and for survivors with a mission of "healing through learning." Here, adults whose childhoods were spent in the care of the state, but whose lives were marked by an absence of care sought to improve their literacy skills through specialized learning support consciously designed to oppose and heal the harmful learning experiences of the past. Feeley logged over 1200 hours across three years spent in the field, maintaining a presence as a researcher, tutor, and substitute manager. She conducted 38 semi-structured interviews, of which 28 were with survivors

ages 40-65, and 10 with professionals who worked with or on behalf of survivors. From their testimonies arises strong evidence that the absence of care in learning relationships has a dramatic impact on an individual's development of literacy and hence the life course. Feeley coins the term "learning care" to draw attention away from the cognitive aspects of literacy acquisition and toward the complex interaction of affective experiences and dispositions that enable or impede this work (p. 10-11).

Building on Lynch's work in care relations, Feeley identifies four levels of learning care relationships: primary (within the home), secondary (within the school), solidary (amongst peers), and state (stemming from the state's attentiveness to ensuring structural equality). She draws expertly from theorists such as Freire, Foucault, hooks, and Goffman to argue that literacy work is not emancipatory if it focuses only on remedying an unequal distribution of skills. Rather, literacy work must focus on learning care relationships enacted in all directions, with a keen eye toward holding the state accountable when it creates and maintains systems of inequity:

A social harm perspective...would situate the root cause of persistent poor literacy performance in structural political inequalities rather than as is currently implied, that 'the difficulty' begins and ends with certain problematic (rather than harmed) individuals and groups. This would not be popular, as it would identify the state as the real source of harm and those who are educationally disadvantaged as victims of state neglect. While dominant discourses invest considerable effort in maintaining a focus on failing schools, falling standards, dysfunctional families, communities and identities, this deficit manner of framing literacy issues obfuscates the real root cause of educational inequalities and the locos of power and responsibility to ring about change (p. 80).

Throughout the work, Feeley and her participants

engage in a reflection on the transformative power of literacy across the life course. As she argues for the responsibility of the state in this regard, Feeley gives greater voice to the frustration expressed by survivors that media representations of industrial schools tended to focus on corporeal and sexual abuses while overlooking their ongoing educational disadvantage as a serious crime.

Feeley's attention to care-full research among a vulnerable population is exemplary. She built trust through a caring presence over a long period of time and sought to be of service by volunteering as a tutor. Survivors' memories were marked by themes of fear and even small reminders of past harms could provoke intense anxiety. Aware that interviews would, by their very nature, cross the boundaries of privacy that survivors of abuse had established to keep themselves safe, Feeley carefully structured the interviews so participants were aware of their own power in the situation. She writes,

This work was about the respectful negotiation of crossings at the safety barriers that people erected to protect them from harm. Alongside this was the maintenance of honest, learning relationships that were bound by professional and ethical codes of practice. Carrying out research with survivors of institutional abuse involved the careful removal of boundaries that silenced survivors about their experiences of care and learning literacy. This meant consciously redressing careless patterns of connection, believing and making important the narratives that people have shared, and doing so in a constructive and where possible, emancipatory manner (p. 38).

Participants were in charge of the pacing and duration of the sessions, and could choose an environment where they felt safe (for some, a room with a closed door could trigger intense discomfort rather than giving a sense of privacy). This physical openness assisted some participants who appreciated the presence of peers who could truly empathize with their grief as negative memories surfaced. Feeley also sought the supervision of a qualified counselor who helped her to maintain a professional boundary between her own emotions and those of her subjects.

Sensitive to the ways some research studies essentially abandoned participants after asking them to relive painful events, Feeley was careful to make clear the greater reasons for asking participants for these stories and planned a gradual withdrawal from the site, maintaining tutoring sessions with individuals where the personal relationship was essential to their learning. In

short, rather than concealing herself behind an academic duck blind, Feeley was dedicated to a transparent process, imbued with respect for her participants and valuing their experience of her as a researcher.

Feeley's commitment to embedding ethnography in the community had positive impacts in the lives of her participants. For some survivors, forgetting had been a form of resistance to harm, but they were now endeavoring to reconstruct their childhood experiences. When the interviews helped to surface lost memories, the research process aided their quest to know themselves and their past. The research project also spurred conversations about the importance of literacy and helped de-stigmatize the process of asking for help, thus empowering other adults not directly involved in the study. The demand for literacy services at the Lighthouse Centre rose so dramatically that Feeley was unable to meet all the requests for help and so new classes were added. These results fulfill some of the promise of practitioner research, simultaneously adding to knowledge while having a positive impact in the lives of those involved in the study.

Feeley's writing successfully eschews sentimentality, representing survivors' stories without exoticizing their experiences or conjuring a sense of pity. These are positive qualities, but some questions might be posed as to whether the book's structure allows it to fully harness the power of ethnographic inquiry. While making a compelling argument, the theory-driven nature of the work means the book is nearly halfway over before the first survivor's voice is heard. The heart of ethnography is storytelling, and this one lacks the immersive prose often associated with such narratives, instead reading more like a qualitative interview study.

We are offered a scattering of haunting images: a left-handed man who severed his right index finger to provide a ready excuse for his inability to write while keeping alive the possibility of future literacy (p. 8-9); a woman who drank from the toilet as a child for fear of punishment if the nuns heard water running from a proper tap (p. 89); an individual who recalls soaking leathers in castor oil and splintering bamboo canes for a priest who took particular 'care' in his administering of corporeal punishment (p. 149); a 60-year-old woman who still speaks in a child's voice, has blocked any memory of ever having attended school, and to this day hits herself upon making even a minor spelling mistake (p. 193). While poignant and no doubt representative of the truth of their experiences, these vignettes offer evidence that is more anecdotal than systemic, floating free in a manner similar to the quotes excerpted from interviews.

We are convinced the industrial schools were marked by a lack of care and the Lighthouse Centre represents a positive beacon in the lives of those interviewed, but we are not offered the vivid portrayals that would flesh out the individual, human ways this was so. The work might have been more persuasive for readers had Feeley chosen to profile particular survivors in-depth, pushing their stories to the front of each chapter and offering research-based analysis to follow. Likewise, there are sections that seem a bit far afield of her main argument; for example, in a sweeping passage covering more than a millennium of history to trace the European roots of literacy back to the 7th and 8th centuries (p. 41-44), it isn't entirely clear how this information advances her case, interesting though it may be.

Yet these concerns are small compared with the greater importance of Feeley's work, which surely deserves to find a wider audience. In an era where the educational discourse is dominated by themes of productivity, efficiency, and accountability, Feeley calls us to be wary of reforms targeted at those identified as disadvantaged and alert to forms of 'help' that may in fact be disguised, state-sanctioned neglect. In her description of boys' industrial schools where whistles commanded movement from class to class in strictly maintained lines (p. 135-138), we hear echoes hauntingly similar to some contemporary American charter schools who place emphasis on 'instilling discipline' in vulnerable, urban populations through a strict regulation of body and mind. In rejecting reductionist definitions of literacy as merely a set of marketable skills, Feeley's work provides important ballast against reforms centered on the premise that families and schools are failing students, instead redirecting our attention the failure of the state to create a society where families and schools enjoy equal capacities for care. These lessons in educational solidarity are surely ones worth learning.

About the Author



Lisa Gilbert is a doctoral student in education at Saint Louis University, where she teaches elementary social studies methods. A former museum professional, her research interests include types of learning that take place in non-school spaces as well as the use of critical theories related to race, gender, and class to explore ways in which individuals relate to historical narratives.

**RIGHT NOW YOU
ARE DOING
SOMETHING
880 MILLION
CAN'T.**



INTERNATIONAL LITERACY ASSOCIATION

By: Aimee Rogers

Award Criteria

Literary & Artistic Qualities

How the text fostered respect and understanding of diverse populations, promoted equality, justice, peace, and social responsibility; whether or not social issues were presented in their complexity; and, if social responsibility towards individuals, communities, societies and/or the environment was addressed

Principles of Reader Response

Whether or not the text invited reflection and socially responsible action by the reader and if it analyzed the cause of past injustices and showed possible alternatives to both past and recent injustices

Appeal to the Intended Audience

The Literacy and Social Responsibility Special Interest Group (SIG) of the International Literacy Association awarded the **2015 Social Justice Literature Awards** at the [International Literacy Association's 2015 Conference in St. Louis, Missouri](#).

An award was given in four categories: Fiction Novel, Nonfiction Chapter Book, Fiction Picturebook, and Nonfiction Picturebook. *Voices From the March on Washington* by J. Patrick Lewis and George Ella Lyon won in the fiction novel category. *Children Growing Up With War* by Jenny Matthews won in the nonfiction chapter book category. *Lend a Hand: Poems About Giving* by John Frank, illustrated by London Ladd won in the fiction picturebook category. And, *Twenty-two Cents: Muhammad Yunus and the Village Bank* by Paula Yoo, illustrated by Jamel Akib won in the nonfiction picturebook category.

The Literacy and Social Responsibility SIG initiated this award to recognize works of children's and young adult literature that illustrate social justice issues. The committee also hopes to recognize texts that foster socially responsible action by children, young adults and others

Read on to learn more details about each of the 2015 Winners!



Fiction Novel

Voices From the March on Washington

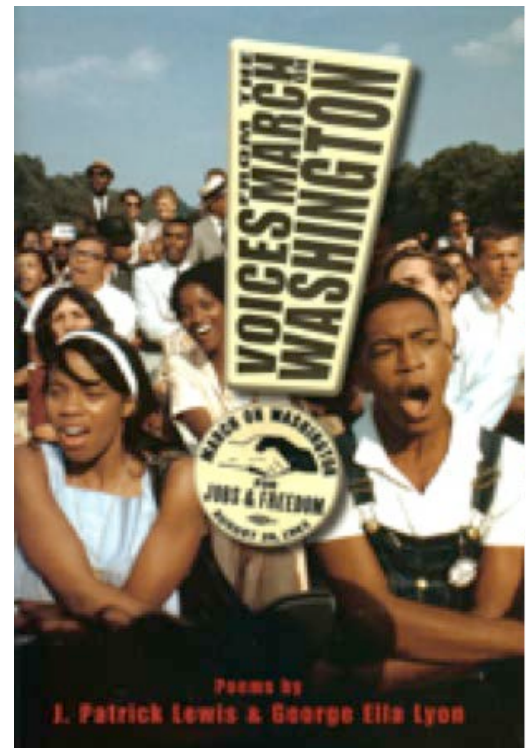
By J. Patrick Lewis & George Ella Lyon

Voices From the March on Washington by J. Patrick Lewis and George Ella Lyon tells the story of the March on Washington—the March for Jobs and Freedom—from multiple perspectives.

The March on Washington took place on August 28, 1963 when 250,000 people, of all races, gathered on the mall in Washington, DC to demand jobs and equal rights. The March is famous as the occasion for Dr. Martin Luther King's renowned "I Have a Dream" speech. The March itself eventually led to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Lewis and Lyon have composed a collection of poems from a variety of perspectives that taken together provide a vivid and varied view of the events leading to the March, the March itself and its ramifications.

The poems are written from the perspectives of six fictional characters. These are accompanied by poems from the perspectives of actual people in attendance at the March, such as Charlie Jackson, a detective assigned to protect Dr. King. An introduction and an afterword provide further information about the time period, the March and the attendees. In addition, there is a list and details of those who were involved in the planning of the March and a list and descriptions of other notable persons who appear in the book, such as Joan Baez and Marian Anderson.



Voices From the March on Washington

J. Patrick Lewis & George Ella Lyon, Authors

Publisher: WordSong, 2014

128 pages

ISBN-13: 978-1-62091-785-5

Age Range: 10 and up

Grade Level: 5 and up

INTERNATIONAL
LITERACY
ASSOCIATION



Nonfiction Chapter Book

Children Growing Up With War

By Jenny Matthews

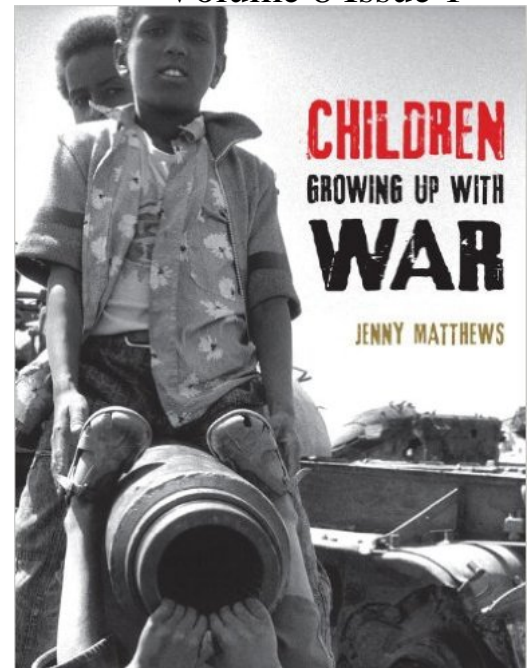
Jenny Matthews, the author of *Children Growing Up With War*, is a photographer.

She states that, “The main focus of my work is to document what goes on behind the frontline, and how it affects women, children, and families in their day-to-day lives” (p. 3). Matthews has accomplished her goal in *Children Growing Up With War* in which she shows the myriad ways children are impacted by war.

She has divided the book into sections; these are: home and displacement, family, health, work, and school and play. In each section she shares photographs and stories from the hundreds of children and families she has met throughout the world.

Matthews provides a worldwide perspective on the impact of war by including stories and photographs from a wide variety of places, such as Vietnam, Lebanon, Kurdistan, Uganda and Gaza.

As a result of the sections and the format, this is a book that can be dipped in and out of, which may appeal to some readers.



Children Growing Up With War

Jenny Matthews, Author

Publisher: Candlewick Press, 2014

48 pages

ISBN-13: 978-0-7636-6942-3

Age Range: 10 and up

Grade Level: 5 and up

Lexile Measure: 1030

INTERNATIONAL
LITERACY
ASSOCIATION



Fiction Picturebook

Lend a Hand: Poems About Giving

By John Frank

Illustrated by London Ladd

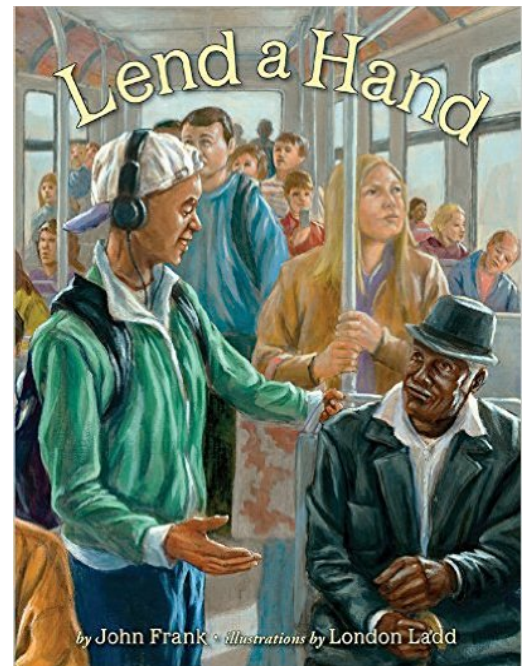
Lend a Hand: Poems About Giving is a collection of poems by John Frank that focus on small acts of kindness we can all perform to make a difference in the lives of one or many.

The actions in the poems range from sharing your sandwich with a new student to donating your hair to organizations that make wigs for those who have lost their hair to giving up your seat on the bus for an elderly passenger.

The poems are simple in their language, but complex in the messages they send about volunteerism and lending a helping hand.

London Ladd's acrylic, colored pencil and pastel illustrations perfectly capture the essence of the actions described in the poems.

Readers of all ages will likely be inspired to take action in their community after reading these poems.



Lend a Hand: Poems About Giving

John Frank, Author
London Ladd, Illustrator

Publisher: Lee & Low Books,
2014

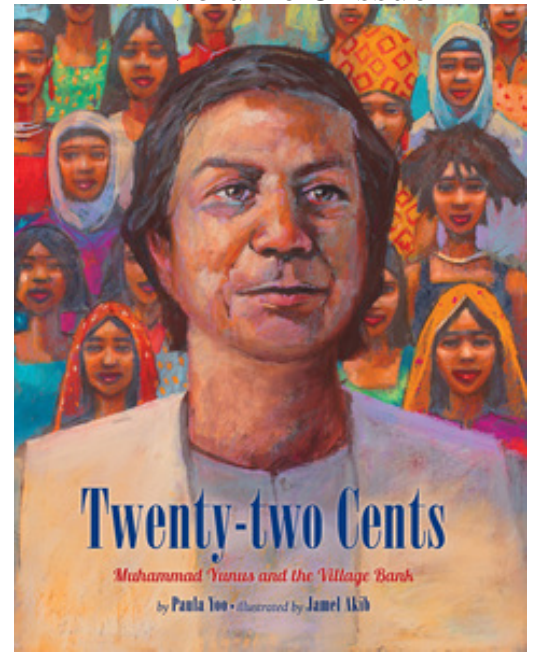
32 pages

ISBN-13: 978-1-60060-970-1

Age Range: 6-10

Grade Level: 1-5

INTERNATIONAL
LITERACY
ASSOCIATION



Nonfiction Picturebook

Twenty-two Cents: Muhammad Yunus and the Village Bank

By Paula Yoo

Illustrated by Jamel Akib

Muhammad Yunus was born on June 28, 1940, in a city that was then part of India; he went on to have a huge impact on millions around the world with the development of a bank(s) based on the idea of microcredit. *Twenty-two Cents: Muhammad Yunus and the Village Bank* by Paula Yoo, illustrated by Jamel Akib tells the story of Yunus and his impact.

Yunus decided to study economics because it might help him help those living in poverty to better manage their money. He went on to found the Grameen Bank in 1977, which means “village bank” in the Bangla language of Bangladesh.

The Grameen Banks provided small loans to small groups of borrowers; most of whom were women. Since it's founding Grameen Banks have loaned over ten billion US dollars to over 12 million people worldwide; ninety-four percent of the borrowers have been women. In 2006 Yunus, along with Grameen Bank, was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

The text is accompanied by chalk pastel illustrations by Jamel Akib, which bring the text to life with bright colors and textures.

Twenty-two Cents: Muhammad Yunus and the Village Bank

Paula Yoo, Author
Jamel Akib, Illustrator

Publisher: Lee & Low Books,
2014

40 pages

ISBN-13: 978-1-60060-658-8

Age Range: 8- 12

Grade Level: 3-6

Lexile Measure: 1010L

INTERNATIONAL
LITERACY
ASSOCIATION

LITERACY & SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

An eJournal of The International Literacy Association

Volume 9

Deadline to Submit Manuscripts is May 1, 2016

Publication – Fall/Winter 2016

As we move as an organization to focus **on transforming lives through literacy**, this peer-reviewed eJournal provides an international forum for educators, authors, and researchers from all levels to promote the intersection of literacy and social responsibility for learners of all ages. Some topics of interest include: community engagement, service-learning, informed and participatory citizenship, social justice, activism, the transformative power of literacy, and/or stewardship - among others. Manuscripts highlighting an appreciation for sociocultural and/or linguistic diversity of participants and researchers are encouraged. Manuscripts containing hyperlinked digital supplements/data displays are particularly welcome. Particularly, we seek submissions that highlight our 2015 conference theme, *The Transformative Power of Literacy*.

Types of Manuscripts Considered:

- **Full-length manuscripts** should not exceed 5,000 words excluding all references, figures and appendices (approximately 20-25 pages), and should not be published or under consideration for publication or public dissemination by another entity. Submissions must be blinded by (1) removing authors' names and affiliations from bylines, (2) blinding references to authors' published work, and (3) masking any geographic or institutional affiliation, or links to personal websites.
- **Book reviews** of professional literature and children's/adolescent literature are typically 750-1500 words and can focus on a single text or multiple, related texts. Reviews of children's/adolescent literature should suggest themes relating to community engagement, service-learning, informed and participatory citizenship, social responsibility, activism, the transformative power of literacy, and/or stewardship.

In submitting manuscripts, please attend to the following guidelines.

1. The submission has a separate cover letter stating that the manuscript has not been previously published, nor is it under consideration for another journal and that requirements for the manuscript type along with the 10 listed guidelines have been followed.
2. The submission has a separate title page with institutional affiliation, position, and contact information (physical address and email address) as a separate document.
3. A running head is used to identify the manuscript, along with page numbers, throughout the document.
4. An abstract of no more than 120 words is included along with 4-6 key words.
5. The submission file is in Microsoft Word format.
6. All URL addresses are active (live).
7. The text is double-spaced; uses a 12-point Times New Roman Font and employs italics rather than underlining (except for URL addresses).
8. The text adheres to the stylistic and bibliographic requirements of APA 6th Edition. For references, the authors should use the special hanging indent option found in the Paragraph sub-menu of the Format dropdown box.
9. Authors of accepted manuscripts must also provide written permission/ releases for use of material from another source (including student's writing samples, text or figures excerpted from another published work, etc.). Releases must also be provided for use of any person's words, likeness, or images/video.
10. Accepted authors agree to submit a current photo and bio.

All Submissions and Queries should be sent to:

LSRejournal@gmail.com

Editors' Contact Information

Tynisha D. Meidl, tynisha.meidl@snc.edu

Leah Katherine Saal, lksaal@loyola.edu

© 2015 *Literacy & Social Responsibility*, ISSN235-963X

For more information about Literacy & Social Responsibility SIG of ILA, visit <http://www.csulb.edu/misc/1-sr/>