



THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT / THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF  
NEW YORK / ALBANY, NY 12234

# **Resource Guide for the Education of New York State Students from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction**

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at Brooklyn College

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Dear Colleague:

The Resource Guide for the Education of New York State Students from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction was developed as a resource for all educators and policy makers, specifically, for those who service English Creole-speaking Caribbean populations. It's designed to promote a greater understanding of the culture and linguistic needs of this student population in the State's public schools.

The principal objective is to enable teachers and administrators to use this understanding as a vehicle which informs policy and program development decisions and improves their ability to support students in their effort to attain proficiency in the English language and meet the State's standards of academic achievement in all core subject areas.

The staff of New York State Haitian Language BETAC at Brooklyn College composed this document with input from researchers, writers and practitioners in the field of first and second language acquisition.

As more districts are exposed to this information and consider developing initiatives designed to better meet the needs of this population, all ideas, insights and perspectives should be documented and shared. We invite your comments on this resource guide and appreciate your input relevant to the education of our students.

Please direct your comments to:

Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies  
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Sincerely,

Dr. Pedro Ruíz 

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## FOREWORD

The publication of the *Resource Guide for the Education of New York State Students from Caribbean Creole-Speaking Countries where English is the Medium of Instruction* represents a major advance for equity in education. The New York State Education Department has reviewed the best contemporary information available on the nature of and current issues on languages in the Caribbean. This will enable the Department to formulate an enterprising policy for the education of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students. Without supportive intervention, Caribbean students who display insufficient skills in Standard American English will have a difficult time developing academic skills in a New York State classroom. New York State thus becomes one of the few jurisdictions in which the special linguistic and cultural background of these students can be incorporated into educational planning, curriculum structure, and program delivery.

This is not simply a manual of procedures. It provides a sensitively written, accurate overview of the cultural and linguistic background of Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students. In particular, it calls on educators in New York State to be aware of the needs of these students and to pay attention to grammatical and other features of Creole languages that can influence students' pathways to learning Standard American English. In addition, a brief summary of the social history of the countries is provided together with an outline of the contemporary considerations which impact on Caribbean English Creole-speaking students and their parents as they encounter the American educational system. These elements allow educators to appreciate the procedures prescribed for determining which students need special attention, and to recognize the value of the instructional strategies proposed.

Teachers who study this document will gain insights into the strengths their students bring to the classroom, and into the specific challenges they face in acquiring Standard American English for scholastic and social purposes. The Resource Guide includes a wealth of resources in the form of suggested readings, reference material and data organizations that can support teaching and cultural initiatives that are appropriate for teachers. I have every confidence that teachers, students, and the Caribbean English Creole community in public education will endorse this document.

Lawrence D. Carrington  
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## PREFACE

New York State has historically been the crossroads for immigrant populations. Over the last three decades, students from Caribbean countries in which English is used as the medium of school instruction have arrived with their families at an accelerated pace. The students arrive at all grade levels, and at varying ages and levels of educational preparation. Their life experiences, shaped by the dynamic blending of language, culture and familial traditions, are as varied as the countries from which they come. They speak separate, distinct languages, which have been categorized by linguists under the generic rubric of ‘Caribbean Creole.’ This family of Caribbean Creole languages is a critical means for communicating, which has been forged by and continues to reflect the cultural traditions and beliefs of the students and their families.

Many of the students from these islands and territories are literate in the standard version of English used in their society, but may be unfamiliar with the Standard American English. Others primarily use an English-based Creole or a language other than English as their primary linguistic resource. Many have not achieved the proficiency of Standard American English necessary to negotiate the new learning standards successfully.

**Section I: Contextual Background** introduces the reader to such factors as the screening, identification, assessment, and placement of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students. Additionally, language, geography and the socio-cultural, linguistic, and historical forces, which provide a context for understanding the prior experiences of students from the Caribbean, are discussed. These factors have shaped the identities of Caribbean students instructed in formal English, and act as a lens through which they filter reality, negotiate meaning, and shape their responses to the challenges they encounter in their new environment. Educators need to be sensitive to this context as they develop screening, identification, assessment, and placement procedures, as well as instructional strategies for implementing the new learning standards with the population of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students.

**Section II: Promising Instructional Approaches, Techniques, and Strategies** is a direct outgrowth of Section 1 and provides vital information regarding guiding assumptions, best practices, instructional approaches, and instructional strategies and techniques. This section identifies the range of instructional strategies teachers can use to make the curriculum accessible to Caribbean English Creole-speaking students who receive formal instruction in English. Section 2 should be implemented in a manner that supports and amplifies the contextual background provided in Section 1.

**Section III: What the State and Districts Should Do** provides a framework for addressing the educational needs of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students in school districts throughout New York State with respect to the establishment of guidelines, the conducting of workshops and conferences, funding, and monitoring in accordance with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, under the Title III provisions governing “Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students” and set forth under Public Law 107-110, promulgated on January 8, 2002. Section 3 also includes a summary description of New York State’s Learning Standards. New York State’s Learning Standards reflect the assumption that all children can learn if provided with instruction that is academically challenging and culturally relevant. Section 3 is followed by an extensive bibliography and a useful glossary in the form of a “Definition of Terms.”

It is highly recommended that administrators, classroom teachers, clinical, guidance, and counseling personnel consult the glossary of terms, which is written with the intention of providing instructional insights concerning the Caribbean English Creole-speaking student population.

Finally, the Resource Guide is completed with an Appendices section, which includes invaluable information on Commissioner's Regulations Part 117 and the Home Language Questionnaire. The purpose of CR Part 117 is to establish standards for the screening of every new entrant to the schools to determine which pupils are possibly gifted, or have a possible handicapping condition. The purpose of the Home Language Questionnaire is to establish and implement uniform screening and identification procedures that can help determine how well every new entrant to the schools understands, speaks, reads and writes English. This section is followed by a special bibliography of selected publications on Caribbean languages developed by members of the Society for Caribbean Linguistics (SCL) to assist educators in conducting research on Caribbean Creole linguistics.

In accordance with provisions for the Emergency Immigrant Education Program (**EIEP**), set forth under Title III of the No Child Left Behind (**NCLB**) Act of 2001, governing "Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students," this Resource Guide explains how such factors as placement, identification, instruction, and evaluation relate to Caribbean English Creole-speaking students who receive formal instruction in English. Additional information can be obtained from the New York State Education Department, Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies, Room 367 EBA, Albany, New York 12234, and (518) 474-8775.



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## INTRODUCTION

The staff of the Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies takes great pleasure in introducing the *Resource Guide for the Education of the Students in New York State from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction*. The conceptualization of this document was first initiated by the New York State Education Department in 1983 through multiple efforts and initiatives involving many educators and advocates in the field of education of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, and included workshops, conferences, legislative proposals, and the drafting of several resource guides and documents in the intervening years. All of these efforts, including the present document, were supported through the collaboration of the State, the City, BOCES, and institutions of higher education.

In the more than twenty years since the project was first conceptualized significant changes have occurred in the field of education and educational research. These have impacted on our understanding of English language learners, and on the education of the tens of thousands of immigrant students who attend the public and nonpublic schools of New York State. Among these students are immigrant students from the Caribbean region where English is used as the medium of instruction.

While many of these students have fared well in traditional educational programs designed for native speakers of standard American English, many others encounter a formidable task of narrowing the gap between their prior knowledge, skills, educational experience and cultural background, and those skills and experiences associated with an American school system. The setting of higher achievement standards and educational benchmarks, as well as the raising of national educational goals for accountability, testing, and academic standards, as outlined in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, have challenged State and Local educational agencies throughout the nation to develop and implement more effective and more equitable methods of educating all cohorts and all sectors of the student populations in American public and nonpublic schools.

In view of the national incentive for education, the purpose of this resource guide is to enable teachers of language arts who provide English instruction to Caribbean English Creole-speaking immigrant students, to bring about the needed changes that will challenge these students to meet our State's new rigorous standards. The resource guide is designed to help all teachers, and in particular those teachers of English, to incorporate new and challenging language learning strategies through an intensive interdisciplinary program of English language and literacy development. All language arts teachers will find the learning experiences and classroom strategies and practices recommended in the resource guide valuable in their everyday instruction of Caribbean English Creole-speaking immigrant students.

American educators and policy-makers are advised that the Title III initiative, providing "Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students," under Public Law 107-110, dated January 8, 2002, and outlined under "Subpart 4, Emergency Immigrant Education Program" as an incentive of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, is the new measure or standard that American schools must now adhere to in order to establish uniform guidelines for all English language learners and immigrant students.

By developing and implementing a *Resource Guide for the Education of the Students in New York State from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction*, the Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies of the New York State Education Department has embarked upon a pioneering effort to provide equitable and quality education for the diverse population of Caribbean English Creole-speaking immigrant students who attend the public schools in New York State.

It is our goal that this resource guide will serve as a bridge that links the Caribbean immigrant children's home countries with their new American country, and will guide them to move more smoothly, effectively, and confidently into a new life that supports and is respectful of their linguistic and cultural heritage. We look forward to working with you to provide Caribbean English Creole-speaking immigrant students with a challenging and engaging literacy program.

Dr. Pedro J. Ruiz, Coordinator  
Office of Bilingual Education  
and Foreign Language Studies

## OVERVIEW OF CARIBBEAN STUDENTS IN NEW YORK STATE

It is important to recognize and to emphasize from the outset that this document provides a limiting definition of the term “Caribbean” that essentially excludes “Latin America” and Haiti, as well; and which focuses, instead, on those Caribbean ‘Non-Hispanic’ nations, territories and dependencies of the Caribbean Archipelago, including the country of Belize, in Central America, and the countries of Guyana and Suriname on the continent of South America. More to the point, this limiting definition is intended to specifically target the population of immigrant students to be served, who come from those countries of the region where English is used primarily as the medium of instruction and/or where the students to be served have linguistic, cultural and historical affinities that identify them as a population entity unto themselves, not formerly served, and in need of state-wide educational resource services.

Figures 1, 2 and 3, in this document, which immediately follow this section and the section on “**Census Information**,” present a graphic representation (a map display) of the countries, territories and dependencies that are the primary focus of this resource guide. Furthermore, the more restrictive and less inclusive definition of the term “Caribbean” employed in this resource guide, is in accordance with the rationale of the New York City Department of City Planning’s report on “*The Newest New Yorkers 2000: Immigrant New York in the Millennium.*” In that document, an important pragmatic decision is made to distinguish the geopolitical entity “Latin America” from that of “Caribbean Non-Hispanic,” the focus of this resource guide. Examined contextually, the primary purpose of this present study is to develop and publish a resource guide that identifies, prescribes and formulates guidelines for statewide educational services to an historically underserved, yet substantially large immigrant population of students in New York State.

In 1990, it was estimated that there were 898,621 residents in New York State from the Caribbean region, excluding Bermuda and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Bureau of the Census, New York City Planning Office and Immigration & Naturalization Services, 1990). The majority of these immigrants were concentrated in Brooklyn, Queens, The Bronx, Manhattan, Westchester, Rockland, and Suffolk counties. During a twenty-year period, the numbers of immigrants increased from 500,000 in 1980, 752,000 in 1987, to 804,866 in 1990 and 2000 (Source: “*The Newest New Yorkers 2000: Immigrant New York in the New Millennium,*” New York City Department of City Planning, Population Division, October 2004)

Thousands of Caribbean immigrant children continue to enroll in New York schools each year, with the heaviest concentrations being in Brooklyn, Queens, Bronx, and Mount Vernon. The Federal Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP) census report indicates that the numbers of these students in New York State schools increased from 13,174 in 1990 to 24,016 in 1996. Most of the students came from Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago, the most populated Caribbean countries where English is used as the medium of instruction. The New York City Department of City Planning’s Year 2000 report (published October 2004) confirms this steady and prevailing growth, by revealing that, for New York City alone, in 2000, the Caribbean countries of Jamaica, Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago, continued to be the major source countries of this population. It is noteworthy to mention, that despite recent immigration trends that display a relative ‘lull’ or falloff in the annual flow of immigrants from the Caribbean Basin impacting on the United States, the immigration figures for New York

State (and New York City, in particular) continue to be phenomenal. The New York City Department of City Planning's Year 2000 report states it this way: "By 2000, just over nine percent of the nation's foreign-born lived in New York City. Nevertheless, the city was home to a disproportionate share of the nation's foreign-born, given that it accounted for under three percent of the U.S. population in 2000" (page 9 of the Department of City planning report). Significantly, the Caribbean, non-Hispanic immigrant population for New City alone, during the reported year of 2000, represented 20.6% of the overall immigrant population impacting on New York City, as revealed by the New York City Department of City Planning report. For this same period, the national (the entire United States) immigrant figure for the Caribbean non-Hispanic population was 5.2%, thus revealing that New York State and New York City, in particular, continue to be a major state for the settlement of immigrant populations, particularly those from the Caribbean.

**Emergency Immigrant Education Program:** Public Law (City, State and federal) provides guidelines for the provision of appropriate educational services for **all** students, including immigrant population of students. Under the provisions of Title III, Sec. 301, governing "Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students," of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, Public Law 107-110, promulgated in January 8, 2002, the Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP) was authorized to be appropriated to carry out Subpart 4 of Part B which, under Sec. 3241, stipulates the following purpose:

*"The purpose of this subpart is to assist eligible local educational agencies that experience unexpectedly large increases in their student population due to immigration –*

*"(1) To provide high-quality instruction to immigrant children and youth; and*

*"(2) To help such children and youth –*

*"(A) With their transition into American society; and*

*"(B) Meet the same challenging State academic content and student academic achievement standards as all children are expected to meet."*

Under Sec. 3101 of the NCLB Act governing "English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement and Academic Achievement," the following specific provisions are elaborated for immigrant students, including the target population identified in this resource guide:

*"(1) To help ensure that ... immigrant children and youth, attain English proficiency, develop high levels of academic attainment in English and meet the same challenging State academic content and student academic standards as all children are expected to meet;*

*"(2) To assist ... immigrant children and youth, to achieve at high levels in the core academic subjects so that they can meet the same challenging State academic content all children are expected to meet ...*

*"(3) To develop high-quality language instruction educational programs designed to assist State educational agencies, Local educational agencies, and schools ... serving immigrant children and youth;*

*"(4) To assist State educational agencies and Local educational agencies to develop and enhance their capacity to provide high-quality instructional programs designed to prepare ... immigrant children and youth ...*

***“(7) To streamline language instruction educational programs ... to help immigrant children and youth develop proficiency in English, while meeting challenging State academic content and student academic achievement standards;***

***“(8) To hold State and educational agencies, Local educational agencies, and schools accountable for increases in English proficiency and core academic content knowledge ... by requiring ... “(B) adequate yearly progress for ... immigrant children and youth ....”***

In accordance with the Title III provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, the New York State Education Department (NYSED) receives funds under the federal Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP) to assist eligible school districts with programs and services for recently arrived immigrant students in public and nonpublic schools. Activities funded through this project focus on raising standards and meeting graduation requirements for all eligible students, including recently arrived students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction. In the New York City Department of Education, the Office of English Language Learners (OELL) supervises the administration of the Emergency Immigrant Education Program that is coordinated statewide by the Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies (OBE/FLS) of the New York State Education Department. This is done by conducting an annual census to determine the number of eligible students and their countries of origin; providing technical assistance to eligible districts; preparing grant applications to the U.S. Department of Education, and managing and processing the grants to school districts. In New York State, EIEP annually funds programs in close to 80 districts for recently arrived immigrant students from more than 200 countries.

## **CENSUS INFORMATION**

Seventeen of the twenty-two Caribbean countries employ English as the medium of instruction. The following chart lists the 17 countries and the number of students identified between 1997 and 2000. The 2000 Census figures reveal that, in comparison with previous years, there appeared to be a slight downward trend in the number of immigrant students reported from the Caribbean Creole-speaking countries where English is used as the medium of instruction, with the largest number of this population reported to be from Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Guyana respectively.

**Figure 1**

Figure 1 indicates the Caribbean English Creole-speaking students in New York State by country of origin, 1997-2000 (Source: Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies, New York State Education, Albany, New York, 2000).

<b>Country</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>
Antigua & Barbuda	283	254	218	242
Bahamas	67	80	37	77
Barbados	768	683	659	490
Belize	242	308	252	226
Bermuda	58	50	27	18
British Virgin Islands	203	198	174	194
Cayman Islands	5	10	8	2
Dominica	197	207	134	204
Grenada	623	586	687	627
Guyana	5,928	6,720	4,631	3,541
Jamaica	8,212	9,001	8,468	8,557
Montserrat	10	2	4	5
St. Lucia	289	310	423	405
St. Kitts & Nevis	134	160	112	104
St. Vincent & Grenadines	431	408	451	445
Suriname	187	222	167	121
Trinidad & Tobago	4,939	5,778	4,176	3,866
<b>Totals</b>	<b>22,576</b>	<b>24,977</b>	<b>20,628</b>	<b>19,124</b>

Many recently arrived students from the Caribbean Creole-speaking countries where English is used as the medium of instruction in their home schools, quickly adjust to the New York school system, while others experience difficulty adjusting to the new educational environment. Therefore, the New York State Education Department finds it compelling to build the capacity to understand and address their diverse and unique needs.

Students from the Caribbean can benefit from an instructional program, which builds upon their language knowledge, versatility, and cultural background. Their native Creole language or dialect, their form of Standard Caribbean English, and their native culture should be valued and respected. On the basis of individual evaluation, local districts should identify the most effective means of instruction and the educational needs of these students in a manner consistent with sound educational practice. Above all, the students must receive full access to quality educational programs and instructional experiences available to every other student.



Furthermore, it is critical that educators recognize and address the acculturation needs of newly arrived students from the Caribbean countries. Although many of these students speak some variety of English, they are nevertheless new arrivals to the United States, to its culture, and to Standard American English (SAE). Educators must address the cultural and linguistic needs of these students in a sensitive, informed, and intelligent fashion.

Like students who are traditionally designated as English language learners, many Caribbean Creole-speaking students who are instructed in Standard Caribbean English, Standard British English, or Standard American English, have a gap to close between their competent listening and speaking knowledge of Creole languages and the listening, speaking, reading, and writing expectations of a standard variety of English. For some of these students, closing this gap is tantamount to learning a new or second language. Therefore, it is vital to create linguistic and culturally sensitive instructional environments where the students can achieve cognitive academic language proficiency. In order to achieve this goal, educators must understand, accept, and value the students' language, culture, and prior experiences. The recommendations and the initiatives in this document support this objective.

Educators and classroom teachers may consider the following profile characteristics of students from Caribbean countries where English is used as the medium of instruction for purposes of designing appropriate instructional strategies. It is important to emphasize that these students may have different levels of formal educational preparation.

#### Students from the "English-Speaking" Caribbean:

1. Speak English and a local Caribbean Creole or a language other than English.
2. Manifest varying degrees of understanding and proficiency in both the Standard Caribbean English spoken in their country, as well as in Standard American English.
3. May be bilingual, speaking English and one of the varieties of other languages spoken in the Caribbean.
4. Are from cultures and traditions different from those of the United States.
5. May be unfamiliar with the socio-cultural features of American society.
6. May have strong academic skills commensurate with their age and grade level.

## ***SECTION I: CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND***

### ***A. The Caribbean Region***

The Creole-speaking countries of the Caribbean in which English is used as the medium of instruction reflect a range of diversity and distinctness. The thousands of islands, islets, and keys that comprise the archipelago of the Caribbean stretch approximately 2,200 miles and comprise an aggregate land area of about 92,000 miles. The nations, states, and territories in the Caribbean Sea of which English is used as the medium of instruction represent a portion of this land mass and are geographically grouped as being part of the Greater and Lesser Antilles.

The history of these islands has been influenced by many factors. The experiences of the colonial powers (e.g., Great Britain, Spain, Holland, and France), expansionist policy, the impact of slavery, the displacement and genocide of Amerindian populations, and the arrival of diverse Asian populations and other groups which have contributed to the ethnic and cultural heterogeneity of the islands and territories. The language characteristics, mores, and social customs of the diverse ethno-linguistic groups who have settled in this region and interacted over several centuries have shaped the dynamic and evolving national identities of these societies.

### ***B. Countries Where English Is Used as the Medium of Instruction***

Despite the region's heterogeneity, the unifying forces of language, religion, historical memory, and political experience create a shared vision among the peoples. In the Caribbean countries where English is used as the medium of instruction, and in those mainland territories such as Belize and Guyana, efforts are underway to forge regional approaches and overlapping policies toward local and international issues through the Caribbean community and Common Market (CARICOM), an ever-evolving geopolitical entity.

The commonalities among some of these countries include:

**Agriculture.** Agriculture remains dichotomized into plantation systems and family farming. Plantations are highly capitalized and are mechanized. Small farms rely on hand labor, and farmers often do not hold title to the land, engaging in extended family farming or sharecropping.

**Mining.** Mining is an important part of the economic base of some of the countries. For example, Jamaica has large reserves of bauxite.

**Industry.** Petroleum has given rise to an important refining industry in Trinidad and Tobago.

**Religion.** Religious groups include Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism, Islam, and Rastafarianism.

**Constitutional Institutions.** These include British-type legislatures, judiciaries, and executive arms of government.

**Language.** The medium of instruction in schools is English, although a national Creole on each island serves as the common means of expression and communication. These Creole languages differ across the islands, territories, and provinces of the Caribbean region.

Issues, which stimulate diversity in the Caribbean Basin, include the following:

**Population.** Comprised of descendants of Africans, East Indians, Chinese, Amerindians, Middle Easterners, Europeans, and the blending of any two or more of these groups;

**Multilingual (“English-Speaking”) Communities.** Made up of three broad political categories: (1) the territories of Caribbean Community and Common Market [CARICOM], (2) the dependencies of the United Kingdom, and (3) the U.S. Virgin Islands;

**Size.** The considerable variations in relative size of the territories;

**Geography.** The geographical spread of several small territorial units across the expanse of the Caribbean Sea, Central America, and mainland South America, making communication less easy than is desired;

**Identity.** The desire and effort of each territory to establish its own unique identity;

**The People.** Caribbean peoples from multilingual societies in which English is used in schools as the medium of instruction are characterized as having:

Shared traditions

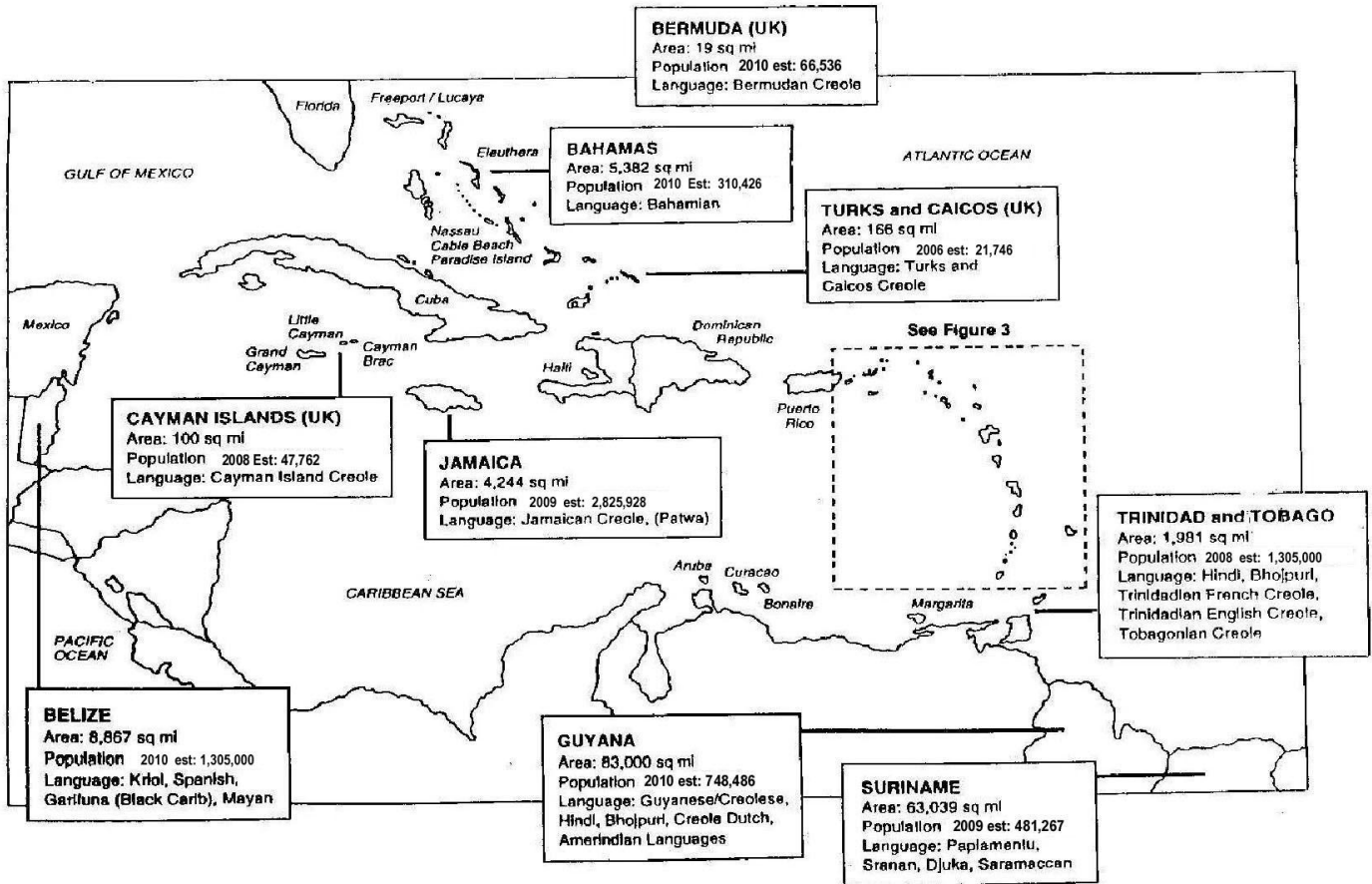
A similar historical memory, shaped by similar geographical and economic realities, and

A particular set of values, which support their perceptions of themselves and impact on the bonds that they establish with their compatriots and neighbors within and outside of their region.

Nineteen of the Caribbean countries collectively have been called the West Indies, the Commonwealth Caribbean, or the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). This includes 13 Caribbean Islands and countries of Central and South American which were former colonies of Great Britain, and 6 current colonies, or dependencies, or territories (see Figures 2 and 3, which immediately follow).

Figure 2

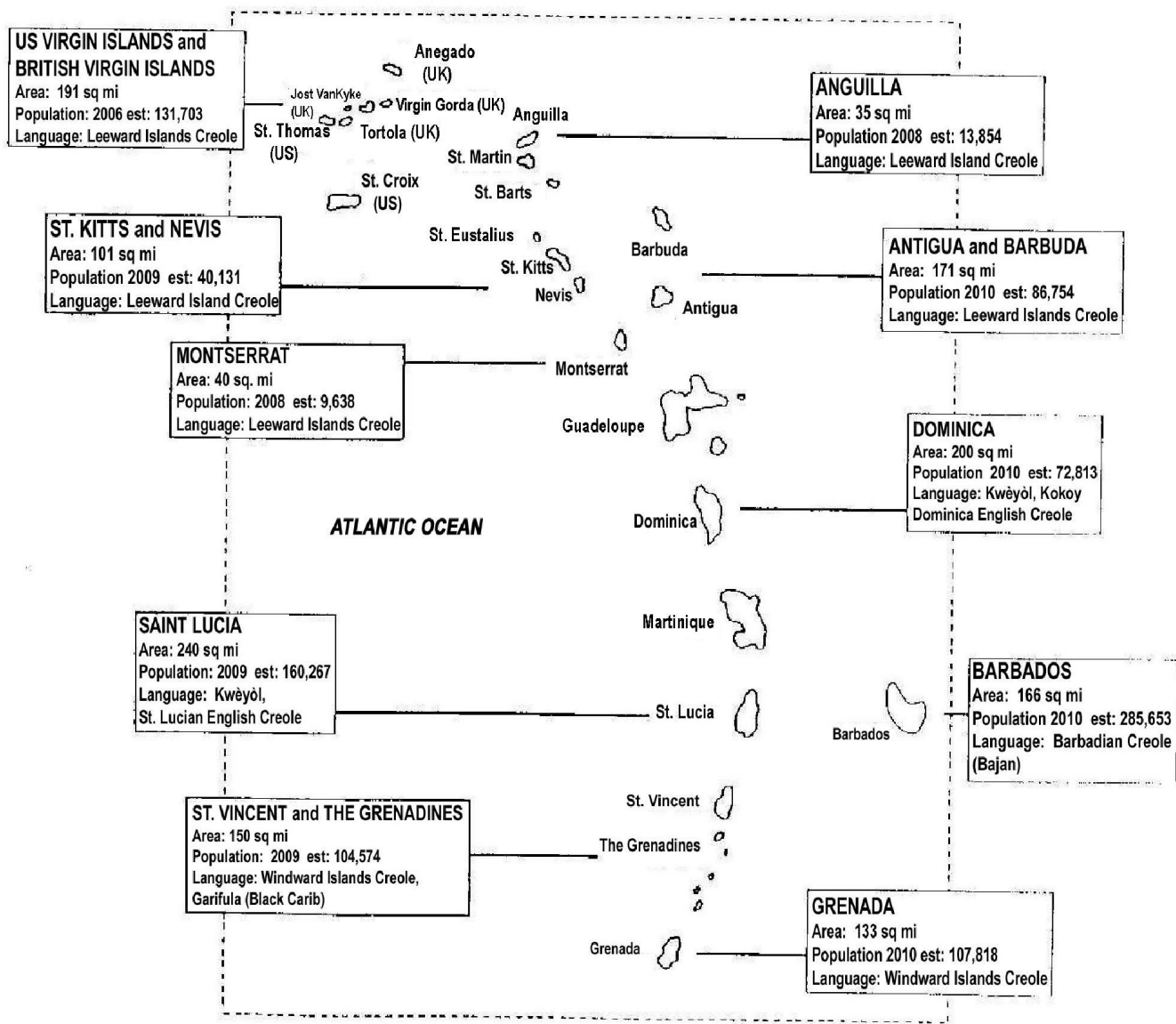
Caribbean Region



Sources: *TIME ALMANAC 2010*, *Encyclopedia Britannica INFORMATION ALMANAC 2010*

Figure 3

**US and British Virgin Islands and Other Countries or Territories**



Sources: *TIME ALMANAC 2010*, *Encyclopedia Britannica INFORMATION ALMANAC 2010*

The groupings of these countries of the region are:

**Independent Countries:** (1) Antigua and Barbuda, (2) Bahamas, (3) Barbados, (4) Belize (Central America), (5) Dominica, (6) Grenada. (7) Guyana (South America), (8) Jamaica, (9) St. Kitts and Nevis, (10) St. Lucia, (11) St. Vincent and the Grenadines, (12) Suriname (South America), and (13) Trinidad and Tobago

**Crown Colonies:** (14) Bermuda, (15) Cayman Islands, (16) Montserrat, and (17) Turks and Caicos Islands

**British Dependencies and U.S. Territory:** (18) Anguilla and (19) British and United States Virgin Islands

**“When I want to understand what is happening today,  
or to decide what will happen tomorrow, I look back.”**

*Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.*

### ***C. History and Social Institutions***

The history of the Caribbean is one of the Diaspora of peoples. From its first Amerindian settlers many thousands years ago through the period of European colonization to the present era of self-determination and nationhood, the islands and territories of this region have been witness to migration and displacement of cultures and language groups.

***The Amerindians:*** The two main Amerindian groups present in the Caribbean islands during the late 1400s were the Arawaks (Tainos) who settled mainly in the Greater Antilles and Trinidad, and the Carib Indians who inhabited northern Trinidad and the islands of the Lesser Antilles. The Amerindian population was soon decimated owing to slavery and a host of conditions associated with that institution.

***Colonialism and Plantation Slavery:*** The mid-17<sup>th</sup>-century development of a sugar plantation society based on forced labor was an important factor in Caribbean history. The islands changed from small farms producing cash crops of tobacco and cotton with the labor of a few indentured servants and men, women, and children bonded to large plantations requiring vast expanses of land and enormous capital outlays to create sugar cane fields and factories.

It is estimated that more than 10 million Africans were forcibly transported to the Americas and placed in bondage. Although Europeans tried to eradicate links of language, kinship, and culture, African populations retained their shared cultural and linguistic heritage. Elements of West and Central African religions, languages, and kinship patterns are still present in the islands and territories today.

The plantation created a non-egalitarian social hierarchy based on racial distinctions and law. The use of slave labor brought about significant demographic changes in law, customs, languages, and social relationships. Caribbean society, in which a relatively homogeneous ethnic group was already divided by distinctions based on class and economic standards, was transformed into one based on overlapping divisions of caste, class, and ethnicity.

The British slave trade was abolished in 1807 and the institution of chattel slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire in 1834.

***Post-Emancipation Societies:*** In the Caribbean Basin, nineteenth-century emancipation created fewer changes than anticipated. Many of the freed men, women, and their children either abandoned the plantations, left to cultivate their own unproductive land, moved to town, or emigrated to Central America. Other ethnic groups arrived, including East Indian indentured immigration to Trinidad and Tobago, as well as Guyana and, to a lesser extent, to Jamaica. Post-Emancipation societies also witnessed the movement of Chinese, Syrian, Portuguese, Lebanese and Jewish merchants and traders to Trinidad and Tobago, and to the Greater

**Independence:** The demise of the British Empire after the Second World War led to the first phase of independence. Jamaica was the first island to achieve independence in 1962, and Trinidad and Tobago followed three weeks after. In 1966 Guyana and Barbados became independent. The period between 1973 and 1983 saw changes in the status of the Bahamas, Belize, Grenada, St. Vincent, and other states in the region.

Since 1983, vast socio-economic changes continue to affect the region positively, to its present status, where the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) has become multilingual in practice, with the addition of Dutch-speaking Suriname (on July 4, 1995), and French and Haitian-speaking Haiti (on July 2, 2002). Currently, CARICOM consists of fifteen full members, 5 associate members (Anguilla, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands; and 7 observer states (Aruba, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Netherlands Antilles, Puerto Rico, Venezuela). The chart which follows, reflects the 15 full members of CARICOM.

Date of Full Membership of the 15 CARICOM Countries	
Antigua and Barbuda	July 4, 1974
Bahamas	July 4, 1983
Barbados	August 1, 1973
Barbados	November 30, 1966
Belize	May 1, 1974
Dominica	May 1, 1974
Grenada	May 1, 1974
Guyana	August 1, 1973
Haiti	July 2, 2002
Jamaica	August 1, 1973
Montserrat	May 1, 1974
Saint Kitts and Nevis	July 26, 1974
Saint Lucia	May 1, 1974
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	May 1, 1974
Trinidad and Tobago	August 1, 1973

**Note:** The information on CARICOM was retrieved from [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Caribbean - Community](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Caribbean_Community). This information was last modified on June 17, 2010.

**Emigration from the Region:** After Independence, the continuing vestiges of colonial traditions and restrictions based on race and social class limited the options available to the vast majority of Caribbean nationals. The domination of island economies by multinational corporations and economic hardship accelerated emigration. Despite the recent drop in immigration numbers to the United States, many immigrants continue to come to New York State believing that its economy offers greater opportunity for educational opportunities, social mobility and prosperity. They especially believe that the State's educational system provides them with greater opportunities to demonstrate their talents and accomplishments.



## "The family is the nucleus of civilization"

*Will and Ariel Durant*

***The Family:*** In the Caribbean family, children are expected to relate to adults in accordance with a well-defined behavioral code, displaying the appropriate deference and respect for authority. Children may assume more adult responsibilities in the household earlier and are expected to help care for the younger children. This may interfere with their ability to participate in after-school programs.

The extended family does not depend solely on blood relationships in smaller Caribbean communities, in which all adults perform a parenting role with the children of the community. This support system is sometimes missing for immigrant families, which places an additional burden on parents not accustomed to seeking counseling and social services.

In recent years, the stabilizing forces of familial affiliation have been disrupted by urbanization and migration in which parents are separated, and in which families moving from rural to urban areas must develop new ways of adapting. As a consequence of urbanization and migration, intergenerational conflicts may emerge as children embrace values, which are incompatible with those of their parents.

Differences in child rearing practices between immigrant families and government officials of the host country are best resolved by intervention strategies that are acceptable to family members, and are offered in a caring and culturally sensitive manner (Meditz and Hanratty 1989, 27-28, 33-34).

***Religion:*** The church plays a significant role in the life of the Caribbean family. It provides spiritual guidance and a strong sense of continuity, since successive generations of a family tend to belong to the same congregation. Religion is perceived to be less a matter of formal, conscious observance than an internalized, unconscious, instinctive way of life, in which family rituals surrounding birth, marriage, death, and holy occasions are preserved.

From time immemorial, religious practice and the ritual of shamanism have been vibrant cultural strands that have played a major role in providing continuity and stability in a Caribbean environment that is rich in historical development and abounding with unanticipated modern change.

## **“Language is the light of the mind.”**

*John Stuart Mills*

### ***D. Language Characteristics: Caribbean Creole Languages***

English serves as the ‘lingua franca’ and is the medium of instruction in the majority of the CARICOM countries. In the CARICOM member states of Haiti and Suriname, the medium of instruction is in French and Haitian Creole and Dutch and Papiamentu respectively. In the remaining CARICOM states, English is used in government education and for administering other official functions. At the same time, however, the majority of the people also speak one of more than 22 English-based or French-based Caribbean Creole languages and/or dialects; and still others also speak Spanish, Garifuna, and Hindi. Linguists refer to the Creole language family as representing any number of the modern languages, which have evolved as a consequence of the ongoing interaction between distinct linguistic populations using different communicative systems, which impede effective dialogue.

The Creole family of languages is believed to have evolved from the synthesis of coexisting language systems among groups of people who became mutually interdependent within a physical space and time. Gradually, lexical components of one of the languages merged with those of the other language or languages, forming the local Creole spoken natively in various regions by a significant number of individuals. The family of Caribbean Creole languages initially fostered cross-cultural communications between European colonists and displaced African populations. They eventually replaced West African languages, emerging initially as an oral, auxiliary means of communication, or a ‘Basic Interpersonal Communication System’ (BICS). Today, they are used in daily communication, in addition to any of the European languages, such as English, French, or Dutch, which provide some of the constituent elements forming Caribbean Creole in such countries as Dominica, Guyana, Jamaica, Suriname, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad and Tobago. These languages, like all natural languages of the world, are rule governed; and many have been systematically documented.

**Origins:** Sociolinguistic research indicates that Creole is a family of independent languages spoken by an entire speech community. In many cases these languages were first developed as *Pidgins* (Proto-Creole), and used by ancestors who were displaced geographically, so that their ties with their original ancestral language and sociocultural identity were severed. Within the Caribbean region, that dislocation occurred largely as the result of slavery. Although the institution of slavery had a common thread, it evolved differently on some of the islands, exposed to one or more forms of European colonial occupation (English, Spanish, French, Dutch, Portuguese). As the mix of African ethnolinguistic populations varied from island to island, and from region to region, the interactions between English and the other European and African languages manifested themselves in different ways. Today, many of the Caribbean islands and territories have maintained their own distinctive Creole.

The English-based and French-based Creoles of the Caribbean evolved largely from contact between native speakers of English and native speakers of many different languages from Europe and from west and central Africa, including **Twí**, **Ewe**, **Fon**, **Yoruba**, and **Kikong**. While these Caribbean Creole languages have vocabulary that is largely European-based, their syntax, to a large measure, maintains strong structural influences of West African and Central African languages in both their surface and underlying structures.

As a consequence of the foregoing discussion on the language characteristics of Caribbean Creole languages, an important insight that has clear pedagogical implications is this: while the native, local, oral community language of many Caribbean students is an English-lexicon Creole, and functions effectively as the informal, basic interpersonal communication system (BICS) of its speakers, the more formal 'standard' (i.e., *written*) English employs different rules of grammar, and is used prescriptively as the medium of school instruction to promote the development of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, with the objective of having Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students obtain cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in Standard English.

It seems clear, then, that a Creole speaker, in the process of acquiring Standard Caribbean English (SCE), Standard British English (SBE), or Standard American English (SAE), must be given ample educational support to employ comparative-contrastive linguistic strategies to effectively negotiate and scaffold the transfer of oral language skills in the home and community language toward the development of both productive/expressive and receptive skills in the formal, academic school language. This is, of course, a formidable, but necessary, attainable goal that requires the engagement of both the teacher and the learner in the process of a transformation from *oral* literacy in the native language or dialect (the acquisition of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, or BICS) to the attainment of both *oral* and *written* literacy in standard English as the target language of instruction (the attainment of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, or CALP).

*Figure 4*

<i>Languages and Dialects Spoken in the Caribbean Nations, States, And Territories Where English Is Used as a Medium of Instruction</i>	
<b>CARIBBEAN NATION</b>	<b>LANGUAGES and DIALECTS</b>
Anguilla	Leeward Islands Creole
Antigua and Barbuda	Leeward Islands Creole
Bahamas	Bahamian
Barbados	Barbadian Creole (Bajan)
Belize	Kriol, Spanish, Garifuna (Black Carib), Mayan
Bermuda	Bermudan Creole
Cayman Islands	Cayman Islands Creole
Dominica	Kweyol, Kokoy, Dominican English Creole
Grenada	Windward Islands Creole
Guyana	Guyanese/Creolese, Hindi, Bhojpuri, Creole Dutch, Amerindian Languages
Jamaica	Jamaican Creole (Patwa), Dread Talk: The Language of Rastafari
Montserrat	Leeward Islands Creole
St. Kitts and Nevis	Leeward Islands Creole
Saint Lucia	Kweyol, St. Lucian English Creole
St. Vincent and The Grenadines	Windward Islands Creole, Garifuna (Black Carib)
Suriname	Papiamentu, Sranan, Djuka, Saramaccan, Cariban languages
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidadien French Creole, Trinidadian English Creole Hindi, Bhojpuri, Tobagonian Creole
Turks and Caicos	Turks and Caicos Creole
US and British Virgin Islands	Leeward Islands Creole

**"All our knowledge has its origins in our perceptions."**

*Leonardo da Vinci*

### ***E. Background Information on Caribbean Schools***

After emancipation in 1838, freed blacks were offered elementary school education through the churches, and the British government operated schools, but only with a limited curriculum. There was no effort to provide university education for the masses. However, when many Caribbean Creole-speaking countries gained independence in the 1960s, the governments began to develop new educational policies.

In the Caribbean region grades 1-6 are critical educational gates, because at about age 11, children in many of these countries take the Common Entrance Examination (CEE) or the "11 +" examination. Students are "placed" on the basis of this exam in secondary education. The percentages of placement vary widely in the region. Those who do not qualify are enrolled in the *New Secondary Schools*, or in grade 7 in the *All-Age Schools* or in the Vocational program of a *Comprehensive High School*.

Figure 5 on "Caribbean Educational Systems" (page 20) shows the organizational design of some school systems in the Caribbean region where English is used as the medium of instruction, with equivalent or comparable examples used in the United States of America.

During the last twenty years, the following ongoing changes have characterized schools in the Caribbean English Creole-speaking countries.

- Incorporation of the struggles, experiences and triumphs of the predominant Caribbean populations into the curriculum.
- Use of texts, which reflect relevant Caribbean content, with an increasing number of these texts written by Caribbean educators.
- Reduction of class register in overcrowded classrooms in recognition that a large class size has negative impact on teaching and learning.
- Use of summative evaluation as an assessment tool: major examinations determine the student's placement in the following school year, and public examinations determine secondary school selection.
- Resort to more teacher-centered instruction. Schools have prescribed routines, students wear a school uniform, and rote memorization and lectures are still emphasized.
- Use of the assembly, which, in religious-sponsored schools, might include formal religious observances, prayers, Bible readings and hymns. The assembly creates the tone for the day, sets a standard of deportment, and reinforces a sense of community.
- Acknowledgment, appreciation, and value of the native Creole language as providing an important medium for the transmission and maintenance of the indigenous cultures of the region.

## ***F. Learning Styles of Caribbean English Creole-Speaking Students***

In considering the learning styles of Caribbean English Creole-speaking children, it is important to note that learning styles differ across individuals. Therefore, in the application of any instructional processes and strategies, it will always be necessary to identify, attack, and solve any learning style problems of CEC children in particular learning contexts. Nevertheless, there is a general tendency of CEC-speaking children to display a posture of being “field dependent” rather than “field independent.” That is, they tend to regard their teachers as the purveyors of infallible information, and therefore seldom question or challenge the validity of information given, or initiate novel solutions to problems.

In a formal sense, “learning style” is a term that refers to consistent and enduring tendencies and preferences within an individual or group of individuals that distinguishes or differentiates one individual or group of individuals from another. Thus, some Caribbean English Creole-speaking students might be more visually oriented, others more tactile, some more tolerant of ambiguity, and still others more reflective than their Caribbean English Creole-speaking counterparts. It is understandable, therefore, that learning styles should manifest themselves in different ways as the “multiple intelligences” of learners.

In a critical examination of learning styles, educational researchers have noted fourteen characteristics of good or superior language learners. As good language learners Caribbean English Creole-speaking students:

1. Find their own novel way, taking charge of their learning by working independently or in small groups.
2. Make independent observations and organize information about language use and language practice.
3. Are creative, developing a “feel” for language by experimenting with its patterns of grammar and the words that comprise the language of study.
4. Construct opportunities for active practice in using the target language inside and outside classroom.
5. Learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to listen, speak, read, or write without understanding every word or phrase of the language being studied; being risk-takers.
6. Use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned.
7. Engage in risk-taking by making linguistic ‘errors’ work for them and not against them.
8. Use linguistic knowledge, including native knowledge of their home or community language in learning a second language or dialect (e.g., employ comparative-contrastive strategies to process and advance in the language being learned).
9. Use contextual clues to help them in comprehension.
10. Learn to make intelligent, intuitive guesses about language use and language meaning.
11. Learn chunks of language (i.e., ‘pre-fabricated’ constructions) as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform “beyond their competence” in Standard English.
12. Learn certain extra-linguistic ‘tricks’ that help to keep conversations going.
13. Learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence.

14. Learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of their situation (i.e., develop pragmatic competency).

As applied to Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, these fourteen characteristics of good language learners should be employed in such a way that the students can discern important insights about the language similarities and differences of Caribbean English Creole (CEC) and Standard American English (SAE). Classroom teachers should model and scaffold the process. Such an approach is cognizant of the need to establish language equity in the classroom, and is also essential to enable CEC-speaking children to move with confidence beyond minimum levels of competency in English and, at the same time, to accelerate their academic competency and mastery of Standard American English.

***Educational Concerns:*** Many immigrant Caribbean English Creole-speaking students arrive in the United States with an experience as students of limited or interrupted formal education (SIFE), due to a variety of factors. The SIFE phenomenon is due partly to the fact that compulsory education for most Caribbean countries ends at age 14, so that immigrant teenage students, who have completed their formal or their *former* education in their homeland Caribbean countries, are often called upon to return to school upon arrival in the United States. Others come from rural or remote areas where work on farms, in family businesses, in short-term jobs, or in petty trading disrupts regular schooling. Besides, where budgetary resources for education are limited by schools or by family circumstances, strenuous efforts are not always made to enforce attendance.

Consequently, some immigrant students may well include those who had previously been experiencing limited educational success; and may therefore often bring to the new class setting educational differences that have little or nothing to do with language disability, but more to do with a lack of equal educational opportunity or, most importantly, lack of recognition of the bilingual reality of the region. Many of these students, upon entering the American public schools, tend to be beyond the ages of their American classmates, or have not attained the educational experience expected of their grade placement. School administrators, counseling and clinical personnel, and classroom teachers should be prepared to address the multiple needs of these students.

The educational concerns confronted by school administrators and teachers are manifold. In the United States the tendency in many schools has been to make early referrals to Special Education when students' written or oral performance (their productive output) in English is deemed by individual teachers to be nonstandard or 'substandard.' The result has been a disproportionate placement of students of this category into Special Education without adequate or appropriate assessment of their native language competency, their psycholinguistic needs, or their academic potential as speakers of more than one language or dialect. In recent years the Office of Research, Evaluation and Assessment at New York City's Department of Education has estimated that about 43 percent of all new immigrant students in Special Education are from these 'English-speaking' Caribbean countries.

A number of corrective measures can be implemented to remedy the problem of over-referral of CEC-speaking children to Special Education services. In the first place school administrators and teachers need to recognize the linguistic richness and legitimacy of the family of Creole languages and approach language instruction from an *additive* perspective (acknowledging and validating the student's prior linguistic knowledge and native competency), rather than from an instructional approach that is *subtractive* (discounting the learner's valuable prior knowledge and understanding).

Beyond this, Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, with their varied cultural backgrounds, contribute to the enrichment of the culture of the classroom in multiple ways. These should be reflected in the use of classroom resources and materials that reflect the cultural wealth in a positive way. School districts should adopt a policy toward the ongoing training of staff district-wide, wherever there is a substantial population of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students in any particular school within a given school district. Finally, district and school administrators need to be accountable for the implementation and supervision of these training programs. For more detailed recommendations concerning the education of CEC-speaking children, please consult the Resource Guide by referring to Item H: "Factors to Consider in the Education of Caribbean English Creole-speaking Students."



**Figure 5**

<b>Caribbean Educational Systems Comparison Of Elementary And Secondary Educational Systems In Jamaica, Trinidad And Tobago, And St. Kitts</b>			
<b>USA</b>	<b>JAMAICA</b>	<b>TRINIDAD and TOBAGO</b>	<b>ST. KITTS</b>
<b>High School</b>	Traditional High School* Comprehensive High School* New Secondary School All-Age Schools Technical/Vocational High School*	Traditional High School Senior Comprehensive High School Composite High School	Senior High School
	Grades 10-13+ Ages 11-18	*▫ Forms 1-6+ Ages 12-19	Forms 3-5+ Ages 14-17*
	Not Compulsory *Admission to these schools is based on passing the Common Entrance Examination (CEE)	Not Compulsory *Admission to Form 1 by Common Entrance Examination (CEE) ▫ Some Form 4 students transferred from Junior Secondary	Not compulsory (after age 16) *Compulsory up to age 16
<b>Junior High</b>	Traditional and Comprehensive High Schools New Secondary School All-Age School	Junior Secondary School*	Junior High School
	Grade 7-9+ Ages 12-14	▫ Forms 1-3+ Ages 11/12-14	Forms 1-2+/Ages 12-14 Forms 3-4+/Ages 14-16
	Compulsory	Compulsory *Admission by Common Entrance Examination (CEE) ▫End of Form 3 transferred to schools above	Compulsory
<b>Primary</b>	Primary School Private Preparatory Schools Special Schools (Students with Special Needs)	Primary School Post-primary School*	Primary School Special Schools (Students with special needs)
	Grade 1-6+ Ages 6-12	Ages 6-11*	Ages 5-11
	Compulsory	Compulsory *Students aged 11+ who are unsuccessful in Common Entrance Examination (CEE) remain in Post-primary school	Compulsory
<b>Preschool</b>	Infant and Basic Government Supported Schools Private Kindergarten	Pre-primary/Kindergarten	Preprimary/Pre-K
	Ages 3-6	Ages 3-5	Ages 3-5
	Not Compulsory	Not Compulsory	Not Compulsory

+Note: “Grade” and “Form” are terms commonly used to designate levels of academic Achievement in Caribbean Nations, States, and territories.

Information on this chart was provided by: Mr. Wesley Barrett, CEO Ministry of Education, Youth & Culture, Jamaica; Dr. Mervyn Sandy, Minister of Education, Trinidad and Tobago and St. Kitts.

## ***G. Characteristics of Caribbean Educational Systems***

In Caribbean schools there are expectations that the teacher fills two roles: one in the school and the other in the community. This role expectation has been more prevalent in rural areas where teachers may live in the community in which they work. The following are general characteristics of Caribbean educational systems:

- High regard of parents for education coupled with the fact that they often do not visit the school unless invited; and do not challenge or influence decisions within the professional province of the teacher. A tendency to defer to the school is an expression of the high expectations placed in the power of schooling.
- Perception of the teacher as an authority figure in place of the parent invested with the responsibility of ensuring that students conform to certain behaviors in addition to imparting a body of prescribed content knowledge.
- The reluctance of students to volunteer answers in class for fear of being wrong; of not providing 'well-formed' responses, and losing the respect of the teacher. The teacher basically undertakes the initiatives and the students observe the rules of social etiquette. Respect for authority, punctuality, and school attendance is highly valued.
- The informal bridging of the linguistic gap between the native Caribbean English Creole (CEC) and the Standard Caribbean English (SCE) by native Caribbean teachers in order to assist students to process classroom information and to expedite the acquisition and comprehension of cognitive information and subject area content in the Standard Caribbean English. This practice is increasingly common at all levels of the Caribbean school system and extends to the level of higher (university) education.
- Requirement that students attend school until the age of 16. However, compulsory education may not be enforced and students may enter the New York State educational system with limited formal education and an inadequate level of literacy for comprehending the curriculum.

On the basis of this information it is evident that immigrant Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, who have been transplanted from their traditional native classroom settings in the Caribbean to more progressive classroom settings in the United States, will need to undergo much educational, cultural and linguistic adjustment in order to satisfactorily negotiate their way as successful, competent, and independent learners. American teachers of these students will also need to become sensitized to the particular educational needs of this population, and will need to adjust their classroom planning and routines, and their instructional services and resources accordingly.

## ***H. Factors to Consider in the Education of Caribbean English Creole-Speaking Students***

***Screening and Identification of CEC Students:*** Recently arrived students from Caribbean countries, where English is used as the medium of school instruction, should be identified upon enrollment through the Home Language Questionnaire as required for all newly enrolled students in the State. In addition, they should be screened to determine if they are possibly gifted, display language differences, or have a possible disability. The screening should include a review of their Caribbean school records, including a review of the students' history and grades from the home country, diagnostic testing, and interviews with parents. This process is important to an appraisal of the student's background knowledge, and is equally valuable in the determination of the language use and practice in the student's home when the student is with family members and siblings, and is away from school. School personnel in charge of intake records and the processing of student records from overseas must be available at the time of administration of the Home Language Questionnaire (HLQ) to assist parents, wherever necessary, with the proper completion of the HLQ. The information obtained from screening and identification must be kept on file as part of the school's permanent records. The school's intake personnel, including school counselors, should have knowledge of the cultural and linguistic backgrounds, as well as the educational experiences of Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students.

***Assessment and Placement of CEC Students:*** On the basis of information obtained from screening and identification of CEC students, a more thorough assessment, employing the administration of appropriately designed assessment criteria, must be made of the learner's competency of Standard American English, and of the learner's readiness and ability to perform in all subject areas, using Standard English as the medium of instruction. The assessment process should be comprehensive, and must include multiple and alternative assessment procedures conducted in collaboration with a school's guidance, counseling, and clinical personnel to account for such critical factors as identifying giftedness, possible disability, as well as distinguishing language **differences** from language **deficits** or language **disorder**. Decisions made at this level ultimately determine the placement of students in programs, and the instructional approaches that may be considered to be best suited to meeting the academic needs of the Caribbean English Creole learner. Each learner's individual instructional program must be tailor-made to meet the needs of the individual learner and must depend on the outcome of this procedure.

***Instructional Approaches:*** Students who are identified as native speakers of Caribbean English Creole (CEC), and who, at the same time, manifest a lack of competency in Standard Caribbean English (SCE), Standard British English (SBE), or Standard American English (SAE), as determined by formal assessment procedures, can profit immensely from an intensive instructional program that is sensitive to the needs of these students to bridge the gap from basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and native oral competency in Creole, to the development of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in a standard form of English. Such an instructional program must be diverse, flexible, and varied enough to meet the range of needs of CEC children, and to contain instructional elements that prepare these students adequately toward the development of competency in Standard American English. The instructional approach that is suggested is one that is eclectic enough to accommodate instructional methodologies and strategies along a continuum from discrete language skills to a whole language approach that incorporates the elements of a student-centered learning experience approach.

***A Program of English Literacy Development (ELD):*** Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, who are dominant in their native Creole language and who, at the same time, do not possess competency in a standard form of English, can profit from an instructional program of English Language and Literacy Development (ELD). English Language and Literacy Development (known otherwise as English Language Development or as English Literacy Development) is a specific discipline that focuses on the acquisition of competency in listening, speaking, reading and writing; and is particularly designed for English language learners at all phases of language learning, and particularly at the intermediate and advanced/transitional phases of English as a second language. At this instructional phase, a program of English as a Second Language (**ESL**) merges with English Literacy Development (**ELD**).

Programs in English Literacy Development also target native speakers of English Creole, particularly those who are preliterate in their native Creole and, at the same time, manifest a lack of competency in Standard English. The term “**preliterate**” refers to the class of language learners identified in this document (e.g., those from Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Guyana, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago) who come from sociocultural groups without formal, traditional written Creole languages; and in which English is used as the medium of instruction. A program of English Literacy Development incorporates various teaching methods and strategies, including the learning experience approach and the whole language approach, with an emphasis on balanced literacy in the four domains of language learning (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

Current Caribbean English Creole research -- Fischer, K (1992), “Educating Speakers of Caribbean English in the United States”, Applied Linguistics Association, Melbourne, Australia; Pollard, V. (2000), “The role of Jamaican Creole in language education,” Society for Caribbean Linguistics, University of the West Indies; Nero, S. (2000), “The changing face of English: A Caribbean perspective.” *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(3), 483-510; Nero, S. (2001). “Englishes in Contact: Anglophone Caribbean Students in an Urban College,” Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press; Winer, L. (1993); “Teaching speakers of Caribbean English in North American classrooms;” In A.W. Glowka and D. Lance (Eds.). Language variation in North American English (pp. 191-198), New York: Modern Language Association -- indicates that the language experience approach (LEA) is an essential component of the whole language approach (WLA), and is critical to the learner’s acquisition of constructivist strategies in the development of reading and writing, and in accelerating academic English language development. In this component of whole language the teacher activates the Caribbean English Creole-speaking student’s native language competency, and encourages these students to share their learning experiences with the class.

As example of the application of the language experience approach, during a reading exercise in English, or during a period of teacher-student consultation, the teacher (who may or may not be familiar with the learner’s native Creole language) can strive to engage the learner in **active listening and speaking**. The approach goes as follows: As the student reads, the teacher **writes** the Caribbean English Creole speaker’s words **verbatim** (i.e., without overt attempts at correcting learner ‘errors’); and then teaches the students to **listen** to themselves and to **read** what they have **said**. This exercise enables the learner to make valuable connections among the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

In this manner the teacher serves as a classroom resource and guide by recognizing that the learner, who is at the center of monitoring his or her learning process, also serves as a critical informant of the structure of the native Creole language, and, in a practical manner, contributes independently and authoritatively to the overall process of learning the standard variety of English.

This dynamic socio-cultural process of whole language instruction and the learning experience approach ensure that Caribbean English Creole (CEC) learners of Standard American English (SAE) understand in a very conscious and reflective way what they are being taught to read and to write. They also become conscious of the important differences in word-formation, grammar, and meaning between the native Creole language and Standard American English. That is, they develop competency in discrete skills analysis, as well as in discourse analysis. In this sense, the language experience approach can be considered to encompass the comparative-contrastive approach to language learning, in which structures of one language are compared and contrasted with those of the other language as part of the overall learning process. At the same time, both teacher and student maintain respect for the two languages.

It is important to recognize that the teaching emphasis of an English Language Development (ELD) program for native speakers of Caribbean English Creole (CEC) must be on the **product** of the learning exercise (competency in academic English), and not on the **process** (the acquisition of discrete skills). The focus on discrete skills analysis must be developed within the larger context of having the learner develop and utilize cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as contextual clues for processing large chunks of language, including language discourse. Ultimately, a learning experience approach that is sensitive to, and respectful of, the learner's native language, can be very effective in having the CEC learner of Standard American English successfully transfer cognitive skills from the natively acquired Creole language to the target Standard American English that is being learned.

***Issues of Language Difference and Language Deficit:*** A good understanding of the Caribbean English Creole-speaking student's mastery of a Creole language and the concomitant lack of competency in Standard English has important implications for deciding when Creole-speaking students are likely to display manifestation of language '**difference**' in contrast to that of language '**deficit**' or language '**disorders.**' As a general rule of thumb, it is safe to rule out language disorder if the Creole language user has attained facility and competency in oral use of the Creole language in a manner that identifies the learner as **orally functional or proficient** in the speech habits of his/her native language community. When, however, this facility is lacking in the subject's native Creole language, and is equally not present in a standard form of English (the target language of instruction), we can begin to probe further in order to determine possible language deficit. In any case, a mere 'unsatisfactory' or below par performance in a standard form of English, conducted in the formal context of a classroom environment, or in the artificial communicative environment in the presence of a speech clinician, counselor, or school psychologist, should not be used as the sole or exclusive diagnostic criterion for referring a Caribbean English Creole-speaking student for remediation classes, or for Special Education services.

In the effort to distinguish language *difference* from language *deficit* or language *disorder*, every opportunity must be made to conduct the initial oral interview in the learner's native Creole language, particularly in the case when a decision is to be made concerning the learner's competency, or lack of competency, in the native Creole language. In such a case, it is contingent on the school to secure and utilize the services of a diagnostician, classroom teacher, or even a parent familiar with the learner's native language to ascertain the learner's knowledge, use of, and competency in, the native language. Having the Caribbean English Creole-speaking student tested orally in the native language is essential to a determination of the student's competency in Creole, and the subsequent proper placement of the student for English language services.

***Evaluation of Instructional and Support Services:*** Instructional programs and services developed and implemented for Caribbean English Creole-speaking students need to be evaluated on an ongoing and regular basis with respect to all of the agencies, components, and resources involved in the provision of these services. These include school administrators and supervisors responsible for the overall implementation of services, as well as the classroom teachers, educational assistants, and other than teaching personnel (guidance, counseling, clinical) who make up the full complement of personnel providing critical services to this population. Important resources that need to be evaluated include the delivery and use of instructional tools and materials, and the deployment of technological resources to support and extend classroom instruction. In accordance with the federal government's "No Child Left Behind" (NCLB) policy and its measure to assess "Adequate Yearly Progress" (AYP), evaluation should include the yearly administration of an assessment instrument that has been developed to determine annual student growth and achievement in English language development. The evaluation procedure should also provide an accountability of individuals charged with responsibility of different aspects of program services, and an assessment of program goals, objectives and outcomes, including a timeline for accomplishing these goals, objectives, and outcomes.

***Limited or Interrupted Formal Schooling:*** As reflected earlier in Figure 5 (the chart on **Caribbean Educational Systems**), compulsory education in most Caribbean countries ends at age 16. As reported earlier in this document under the section, ***Educational Concerns***, students who may have completed their *formal* or their *former* education upon leaving their homelands, are required to return to school in New York. Sometimes there is a time gap between arriving here and registering in school, or an interval before the student's last formal educational experience in the homeland and placement in a school in this state.

Some students may not have the academic background or foundation for smoothly entering their new educational environment, and they may come from countries where their orally expressed Creole language does not have formal or standard written representation.

***Experiences of Immigration:*** Immigrant students need time to become accustomed to new social and communication styles, different expectations about student performance, and a different structure of the school and curriculum content. These factors can create anxiety and even confusion, which may be reflected as passivity or resistance. Immigrant students need time to adjust to a new educational environment. They need time to understand how performance is demonstrated and assessed, the organization of the school, and the content and implementation of the curriculum. These adjustments need to be mediated and supported with scaffolds by carefully designed school guidance and family outreach services.

***School Etiquette:*** Students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction come from traditional schools in which rules and etiquettes are rigorously enforced. A student entering a school in the United States may perceive that there are more flexible social interactions between different groups in the American classroom. The dissonance created by a comparison of experiences can lead to estrangement, passivity, or even hyperactivity. It is essential, therefore, that educators assist students in gaining insight and in developing strategies into appropriate classroom behaviors, as well as in providing them with incentives to assimilate and to acculturate.

***Parental Expectations:*** Caribbean parents expect that their children will do well. However, like many parents, they are sometimes unable to satisfactorily judge the academic strengths of their children. Parents who have only recently reconnected with their children in New York may lack an intimate knowledge of their children's academic progress. The difference between the parents' expectations and their children's actual performance can create conflict. Parents of immigrant children need support, training, and counseling to help them understand the process of schooling in New York State schools. Adequate provision should be made at individual school sites to provide for "Welcome Centers" where Caribbean parents and other family members can engage in orientation sessions on a regular basis. These "Welcome Centers" can also serve as outreach centers for the collaboration with community-based organizations that serve the Caribbean community in a number of important ways: health and medical care, legal and immigration services, employment and family counseling, sports and recreational activities.

## ***SECTION II: PROMISING INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES, TECHNIQUES & STRATEGIES***

### ***A. Guiding Assumptions: Successful Practices Related to Language Use***

Language is a tool that is the reflection of culture and one's thinking; and provides the resources for constructing meaning. Language should reflect the context, purpose, situation, or audience for which it is being used. Effective English language learning occurs when a strong connection exists between the language competencies, which must be learned in order for the student to assimilate content, and the learner's communication needs. Language learning occurs in multiple contexts and across the entire curriculum.

An effective English language and literacy development program for Caribbean English Creole-speaking students should include the following five assumptions:

- Caribbean English Creole (CEC) is a rule-governed communicative system, which is composed of several distinct, independent languages that are highly effective tools for self-expression and learning. It is another language variety that can be used to explore alternate solutions, as well as promote understanding of a school-based variety of English. The teaching of Standard English to speakers of Caribbean English Creole must take into account the importance of the *group reference factor* (i.e., the native Creole language). As Wolfram and Christian (1989) point out, "However it is done, the group reference factor must be incorporated into any program for there to be a hope for wide-scale success."
- Caribbean English Creole as a rule-governed language, is systematically used by its native speakers as a medium of communication, and can thus be systematically used to facilitate English language and literacy development through a comparative-contrastive approach to language learning.
- Caribbean students, who speak Caribbean English Creole or a variety of English, but not the Standard American version, should be given opportunities to develop an awareness of the similarities and differences of the two systems of communication. They should become competent language observers so that they can commit to acquiring new ways of speaking and writing, while remaining respectful of their native Creole competencies.
- Caribbean English Creole speakers, who command a repertoire of different language varieties, are able to use multiple perspectives to become more effective problem solvers and communicators.
- Caribbean English Creole students learn best when the focus of instruction is on meaning. Language is used in a socio-cultural context to talk about real-life situations, and as a tool to pose questions and clarify meaning. Language becomes a way to talk about and understand what we know, want to know; and what we communicate to others.



## ***B. Best Practices: What Research Tells Us***

Research that both informs and is informed by practice can have a powerful effect on teaching and learning. The following factors have been consistently identified in the professional literature, and by the New York State Education Department as well, as having a positive influence on achievement in English language arts through an intensive program of English language and literacy development (ELD); and are therefore likely to foster achievement of the *Learning Standards* by Caribbean English Creole-speaking students.

- **Extensive reading**  
Extensive reading of material of many kinds, both in school and outside, results in substantial growth in the learner’s vocabulary, comprehension abilities, and pool of information.
- **Interactive learning**  
Learning, in which children and young people are involved in thinking about, writing about, talking about, and debating their learning (i.e., engaging in the “Socratic method” of learning), produces far more effective growth than instruction in which they are passive consumers of information.
- **Extension of background knowledge**  
The more a reader knows about the topic of a text, the better the reader is able to relate to the text and construct meanings from it.
- **Instruction in reading and writing strategies**  
When strategies spontaneously used by skilled readers and writers are intentionally taught to less skilled learners, those strategies contribute to improved reading comprehension and written composition.
- **Integrated activities**  
Organizing instruction into broad, theme-based clusters of work through which reading, writing, and speaking activities are interrelated to promote understanding of the connections among activities and ideas facilitates deeper and more meaningful learning.
- **Attention to skills**  
Many children will not automatically acquire such basic skills as word attack or grammar without direct instruction. However, when children with reading problems receive skills-based instruction to the exclusion of ample opportunities to read for meaning, the development of both vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is likely to suffer.
- **Discussion and analysis**  
Instruction that emphasizes discussion and analysis rather than rote memory contributes most effectively to development of students' thinking abilities.
- **A range of literature**  
Reading and reflecting on a range of traditional and nontraditional literary works of high quality can help young people learn about the ideas and values of their own and other cultures, as well as about the experiences of different groups.
- **Emphasis on the writing process**  
Devoting time to all the processes involved in composing (planning, drafting, sharing, revising, and publishing) contributes to improved competence in writing.
- **Imaginative and informative language**  
Programs that provide balanced attention to both imaginative and informative reading, writing, listening, and speaking, promote competence in handling discourse of many kinds.
- **Early intervention**

Carefully designed early intervention can produce significant long-term improvement in reading and writing. However, research warns against extensively isolating Caribbean English Creole-speaking children or any children of language minority groups for remedial instruction; and highlights the need to provide extensive opportunities for children to read and write, rather than merely drill and practice skills in isolation.

- **Appropriate assessment**

Assessment that focuses on what is being taught in a school's curriculum and on the modes of instruction used in the curriculum promotes the Caribbean English Creole learner's growth toward curricular goals. It follows that alignment between curriculum and assessment must begin with goals that are central to the purposes for schooling.

### ***C. Instructional Approaches***

***Cognitive Academic Language Approach (CALLA):*** Caribbean English Creole-speaking children can benefit from the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), an instructional approach which is based on a cognitive model of learning, and which provides content-based ESL instruction, English language development (ELD), and special instructional strategies for concepts. It is a comprehensive approach that supplements but does not supplant content instruction in the mainstream.

***Cooperative Learning Approach:*** The *Cooperative Learning Approach* is based on the principle of encouraging students to work cooperatively towards a common task to promote individual learning. It is based on the belief that all learners, including Caribbean English Creole-speaking students, learn from each other, and that working in groups enhances learning, responsibility, and cooperation.

***Contrastive Analysis Approach:*** As a component of an English language development (ELD) program, the Contrastive Analysis (CA) approach has been successfully implemented in Canadian schools, and in schools in Great Britain with concentrations of immigrant students from Caribbean countries. This method involves an instructional procedure that is used to analyze the similarities and differences between two or more languages or dialects, with the aim of finding principles which can be applied to practical problems in language teaching; and with special emphasis on transfer, influence and equivalence. It stems from the belief that a detailed comparative and contrastive study of the first and second language or dialect might reveal the areas of difficulty that the students may have in acquiring the standard variety of a language.

***Natural Approach:*** The *Natural Approach* is based in the natural process of first language acquisition. Students strive first for communicative fluency in the target language of instruction, rather than accuracy in structure and phonology; taking part in various oral activities in which they use the language in meaningful situations, rather than just rote repetition. In this way, the meaning of discourse is stressed initially, and the form of discourse is later addressed.

***Language Experience Approach (LEA):*** The Language Experience Approach, which is generally used with beginning readers as well as older readers, is based on the students' prior linguistic knowledge and experiences. Using their native language competencies, the students dictate their own experiences or stories to the teacher, who charts this information to be used later in the language lesson as a reading text. The students' experiential background forms the basis for the reading

material. The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is an essential component of an English Language Development (ELD) program.

***Sheltered English Approach:*** As a component of an English Language Development (ELD) program, the Sheltered English Approach provides instruction through a modified curriculum, which emphasizes comprehension by presentation of concepts and skills through the introduction of additional context clues and language modifications, so that the content becomes comprehensible to the Caribbean English Creole-speaking student. The Sheltered English instructional model has been modified and expanded as the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) by educational researchers interested in having classroom teachers implement pragmatic models for effectively monitoring classroom teaching and learning.

***Whole Language Approach:*** The Whole Language Approach is based on the premise that language acquisition follows a natural developmental process and that language should be used as a whole system of communication. This approach is appropriate for both language and content area instruction in bilingual, ESL, ELD, and mainstream English settings. The teacher integrates the four language skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing – into the lesson, rather than planning instruction based on teaching discrete skills. Instruction, which uses a whole language approach, develops the learner's sub-skills through the contextualized use of meaningful language and interaction in both oral and written forms.

#### ***D. Instructional Strategies and Techniques***

***KWL Strategy:*** KWL is an established instructional strategy designed for group instruction, which focuses on linking prior knowledge to new concepts and ideas. This strategy is especially beneficial to second language learners and to learners whose native or dominant language is a Creole language, because it begins from what informal background knowledge students have about the content to what they expect to find out and learn in a formal way through the reading selection. Students are involved in the thinking process while reading expository text.

Example: The following examples present a student's KWL strategy map based on a unit on "The Desert." **K** represents "What we know" and is completed by the student before reading. **W** represents "What we want to find out" and is completed by the student before and during the reading exercise. **L** represents "What we learned/still need to learn" and is completed by the student after the reading exercise.

The KWL Strategy has been expanded upon by some researchers in education and language learning; and is depicted as the KWLH Strategy. In the KWLH Strategy, the letter **H** refers to *How*, or the manner in which the new information is received. The learner has to explain how the new information was acquired (i.e., demonstrate the *process* of learning).

**First Step**  
(ELA Standards #1 & 3)

<b>KWL Strategy Map</b>		
<b>K – What we know</b>	<b>W – What we want to find out</b>	<b>L – What we learned/still need to learn</b>
<i>sandy</i> <i>camels live there</i> <i>cactus</i> <i>high hills</i> <i>hot weather</i> <i>lizards</i> <i>little water</i> <i>Indians live there</i> <i>Dry - no water</i>	<i>Do elephants live there?</i> <i>What other animals live</i> <i>in the</i> <i>desert?</i> <i>How can something live</i> <i>without</i> <i>water?</i> <i>Where are deserts</i> <i>Who lives on them?</i>	
<p>Categories of information we expect to use:</p> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p>A.</p> <p>B.</p> <p>C.</p> <p>D.</p> </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p>E.</p> <p>F.</p> <p>G.</p> </div> </div>		

**Second Step**  
(ELA Standards #1 & 3)

<b>KWL Strategy Map</b>										
<b>K – What we know</b>	<b>W – What we want to find out</b>	<b>L – What we learned/still need to learn</b>								
<p>animals <i>camels</i> <i>snakes</i> <i>ant eaters</i></p> <p>weather <i>hot</i></p> <p>lots of <i>sand</i> <i>dunes</i></p> <p>not lots of <i>water</i> <i>grows</i> <i>pecan trees</i> <i>cactuses</i></p> <p>has <i>plateaus</i></p>	<p><i>What else grows?</i> <i>How animals survive?</i> <i>Does anyone live there?</i> <i>Where deserts are?</i> <i>How do plants survive?</i> <i>Where do people get water from when it's not raining?</i></p>	<p><i>Plants survive because they have a thick cover that don't evaporate easily.</i></p> <hr/> <p>Desert plants <i>cactus</i> <i>smell</i> <i>Low bushes</i></p> <p>Land formation <i>flowers</i> <i>canyons from rain</i> <i>mountain</i> <i>dunes</i></p> <p><b>Animals</b></p> <p>1. <i>Arts spiders beetles and other insect</i></p> <p>2. <i>Gila monsters rat bats foxes bobcats coyotes</i></p>								
<p style="text-align: center;">Categories of information we expect to use</p> <table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; padding: 5px;">A. <i>animals</i></td> <td style="width: 50%; padding: 5px;">E. <i>age</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;">B. <i>plant</i></td> <td style="padding: 5px;">F. <i>size</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;">C. <i>weather</i></td> <td style="padding: 5px;">G.</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;">D. <i>land formation</i></td> <td style="padding: 5px;">H.</td> </tr> </table>			A. <i>animals</i>	E. <i>age</i>	B. <i>plant</i>	F. <i>size</i>	C. <i>weather</i>	G.	D. <i>land formation</i>	H.
A. <i>animals</i>	E. <i>age</i>									
B. <i>plant</i>	F. <i>size</i>									
C. <i>weather</i>	G.									
D. <i>land formation</i>	H.									

From: Muth, 1989, 210, 216; modified in accordance with New York Learning Standards, New York State Education, 2001.

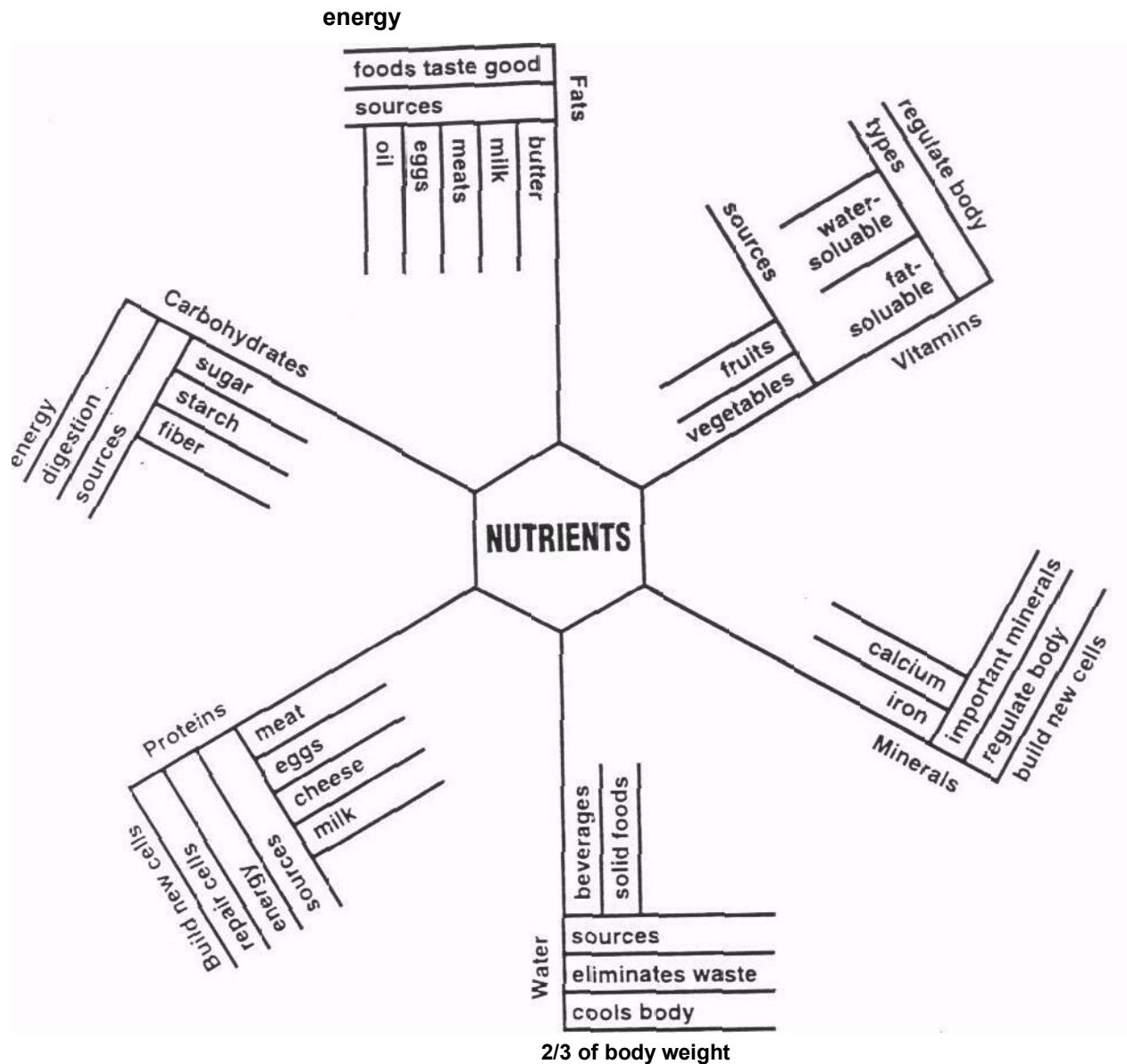
**Semantic Mapping:** Semantic maps are graphic representations of relationships among ideas. It is an effective strategy for relating the student's prior knowledge with new ideas. Through brainstorming, the students relate terminology to concepts which are organized in a hierarchical

manner, usually framing the concept or term in the center with relating terminology radiating outward from it.

Example: The semantic map on the next page derives from a lesson on nutrition. The map contains five subcategories of nutrients (fat, carbohydrates, water, minerals and vitamins) which are constituents of food. The subcategories are further divided into specific foods which contain those nutrients.

## Semantic Map

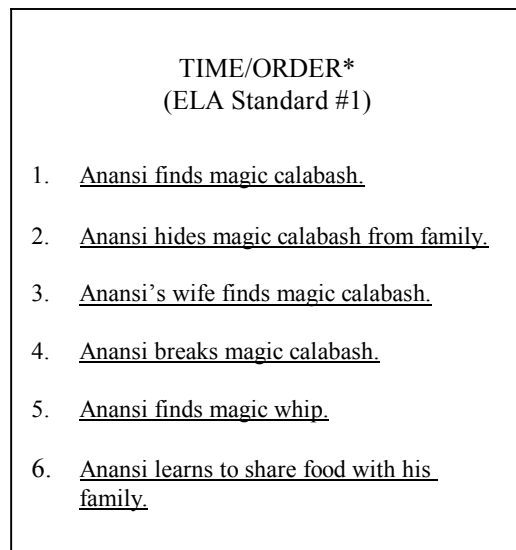
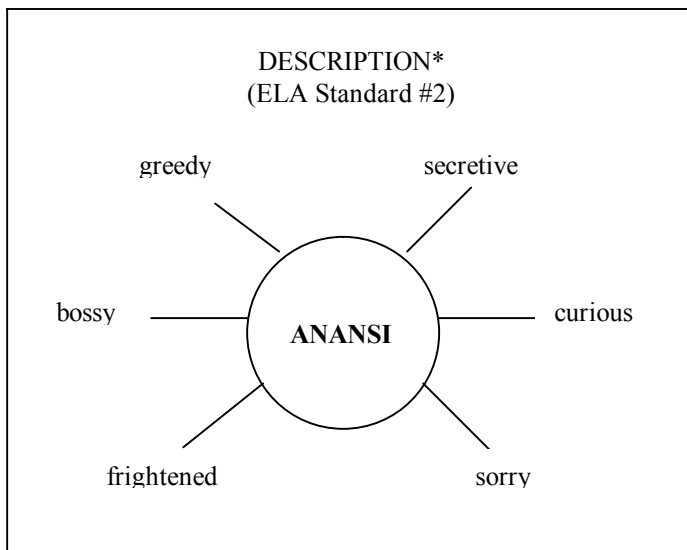
(ELA Standard # 1)



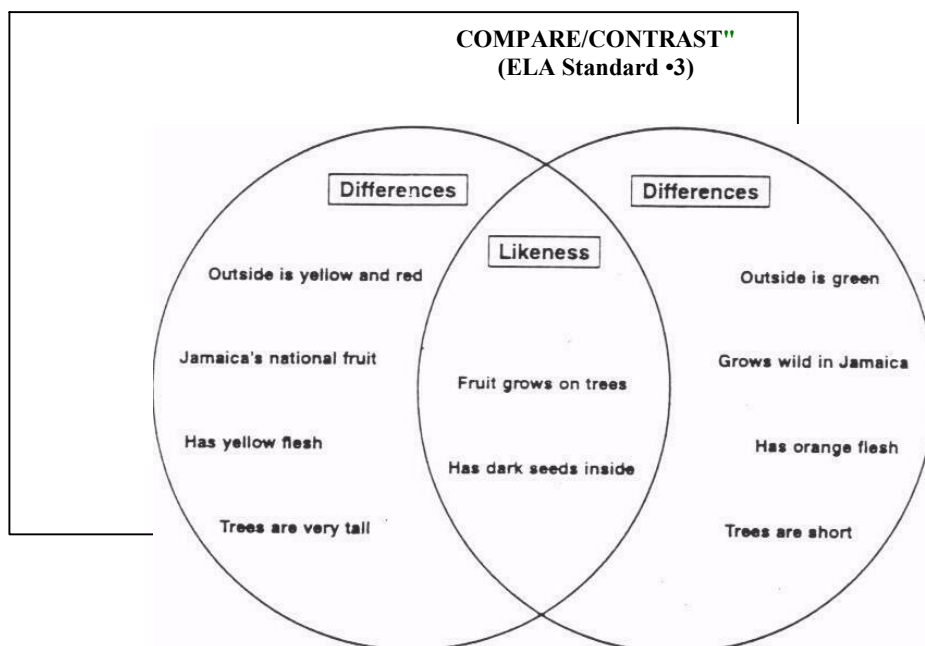
From: Crawley, 1988.157-158; modified in accordance with Best Teaching Practices Learning Standards,, NYSED, Albany, NY., 2001.

**Graphic Organizers:** Similar to semantic mapping, graphic organizers are visual representations of information in which ideas or concepts are diagrammatically arranged in a pattern to show relationships among them. Graphic organizers are excellent tools to assist students in visualizing and organizing complex ideas by breaking them down into their parts and in providing students with a global framework for understanding how the parts are related to one another. They can be used as a tool to comprehend the organization of text, to describe, compare/contrast, engage in cause/effect, problem/solution, and time/order arrangements in an **expository text**. The following pages show some samples of semantic organizers.

## *Samples of Graphic Organizers*

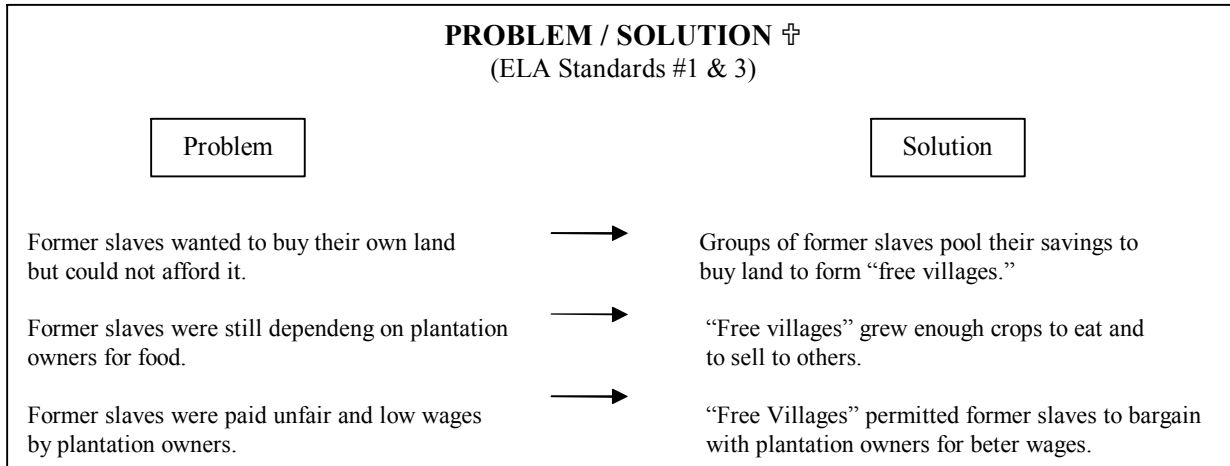


Derived from: *Caribbean Connections Jamaica*. 1991, 31, Modified (2001), in accordance with Best Teaching Practices, Learning Standards, New York State Education Department, Albany, New York..

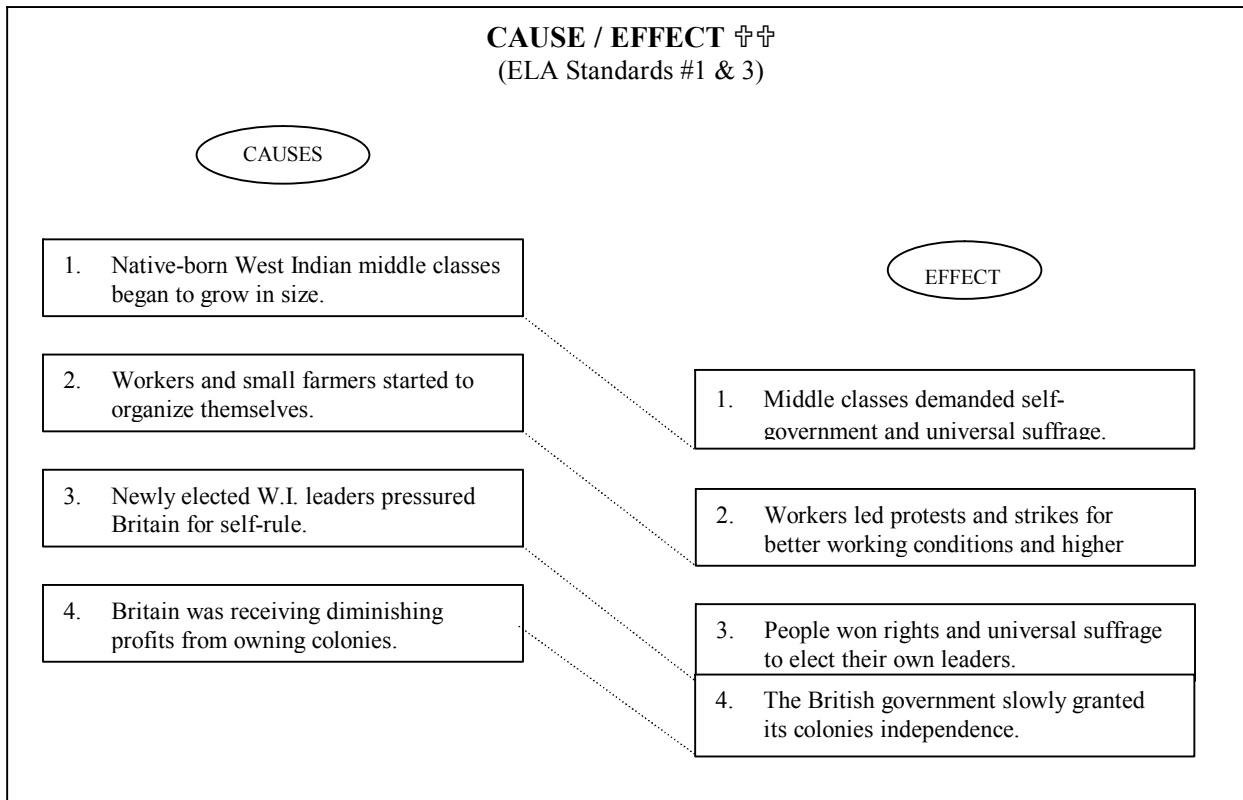


Derived from: *Caribbean Connections: Jamaica, 1991, 71-73*; a resource material for immigrant students.

## Samples of Graphic Organizers



Derived from: *Caribbean Connections: Jamaica, 1991, 68*  
Resource Material for Immigrant Students.

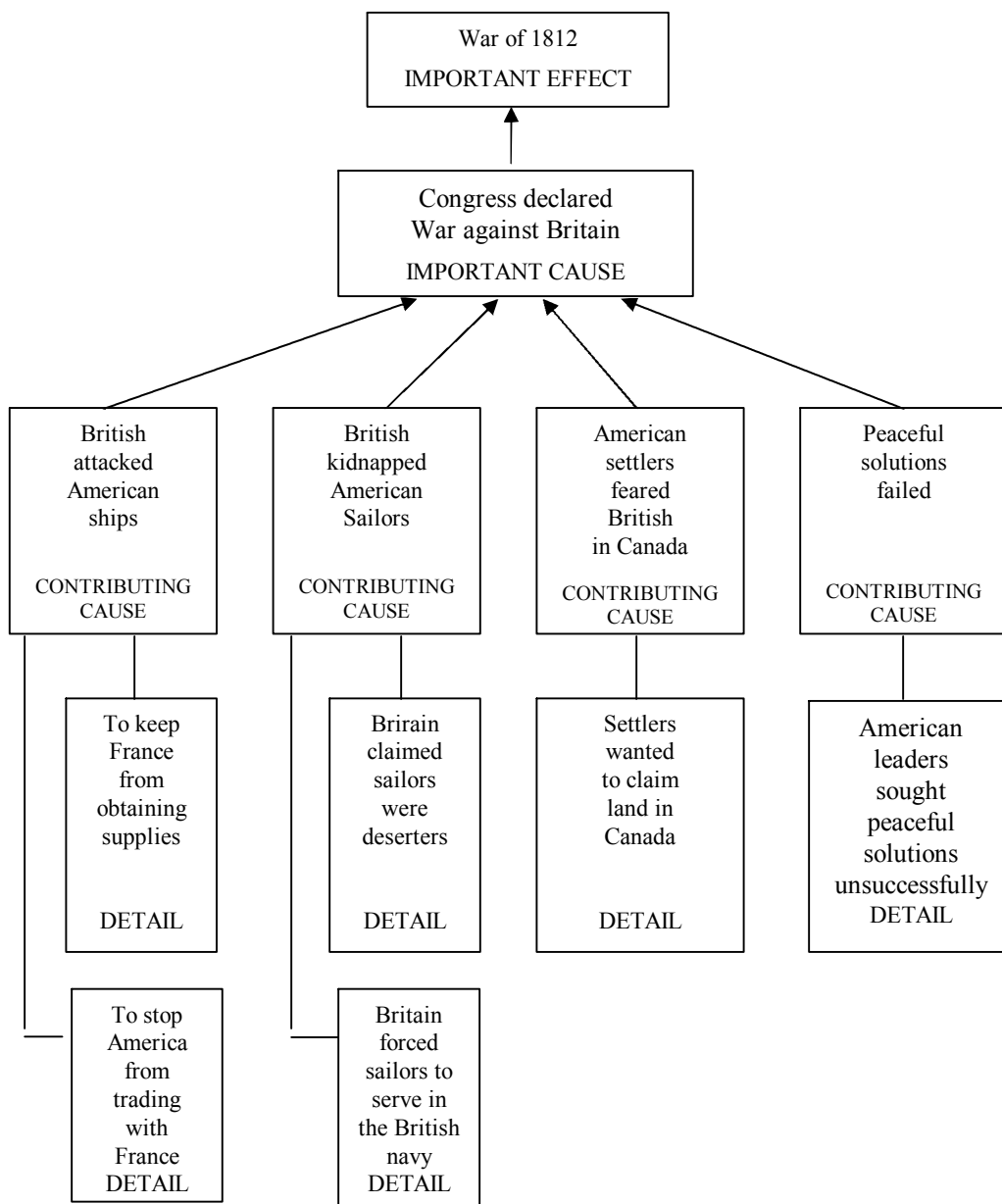


Deriv

ed from: *Caribbean Connections: Jamaica, 1991, 152-158*  
Resource Material for Immigrant Students; to be implemented in accordance with Best Practices, Learning Standards, NYSED, 2001.



**Graphic Organizer**  
**War of 1812**  
 (ELA Standards #1 & 3)



Student's First Draft of the "War of 1812" Written from the Graphic Organizer, Muth, 1989 9117); to be implemented in accordance with Best Practices, Learning Standards, New York State Education Department, Albany, NY., 2001.

**WHAT CAUSED THE WAR OF 1812**

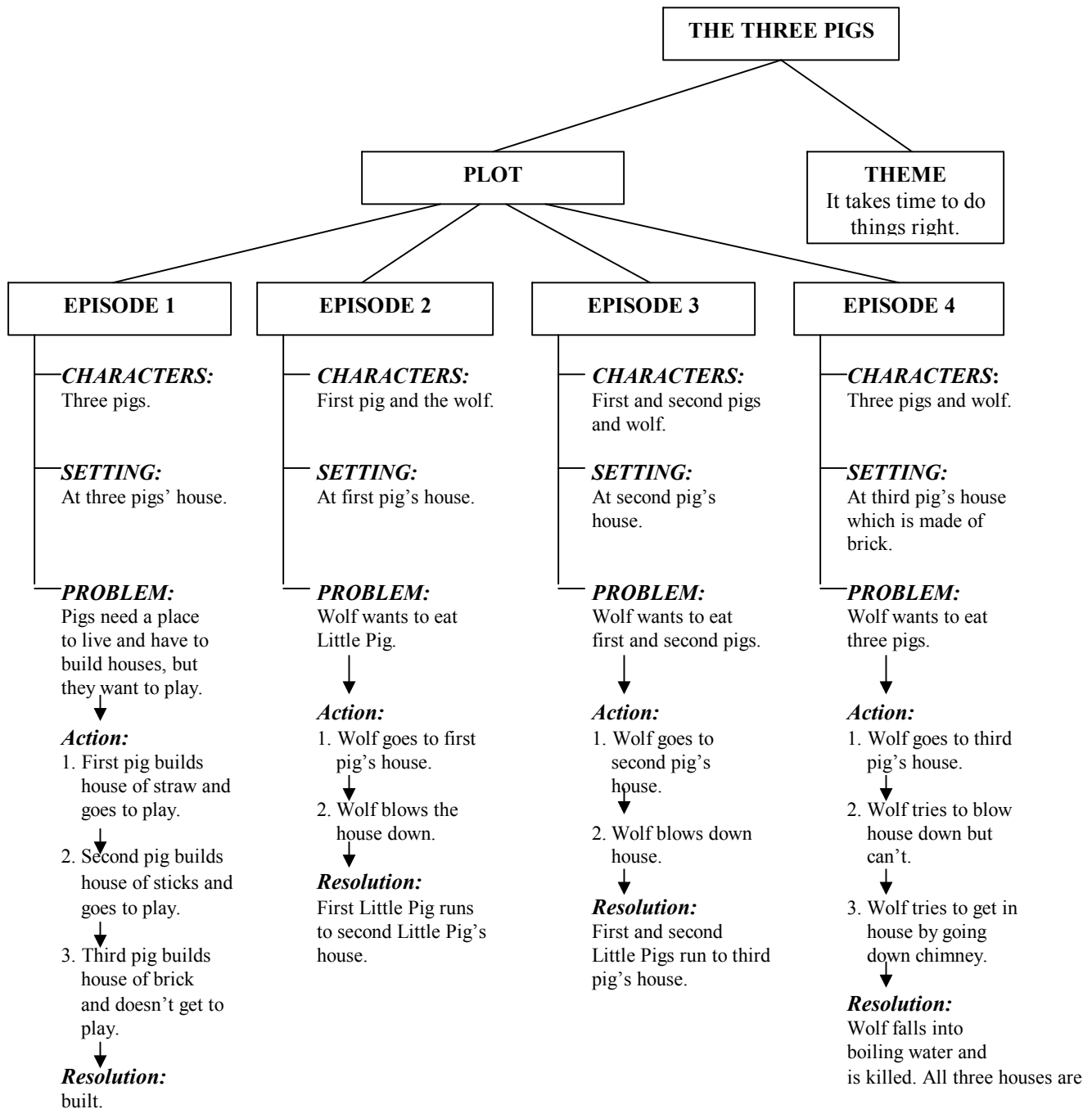
*There were several reasons the congress declared war with Britain. First, British attacked American ships to keep France from obtaining supplies. Second, Britain kidnapped American sailors. But Britain claimed that they were deserters and Britain forced sailors to serve the British Navy. Third, settlers feared the British in*

Canada because they wanted to claim the land in Canada. Fourth, all peaceful solutions failed. So that's what caused the War of 1812.

**Story Map:** The Story Map is another form to graphically organize and integrate the concepts and events of a narrative story. This instructional strategy, also called “story grammar,” assists the students in mapping the elements of a story (setting, problem, characters, episodes, and resolution), and in drawing predictions and inferences from the story.

Example:

## **Story Map** (ELA Standards #1 & 3)



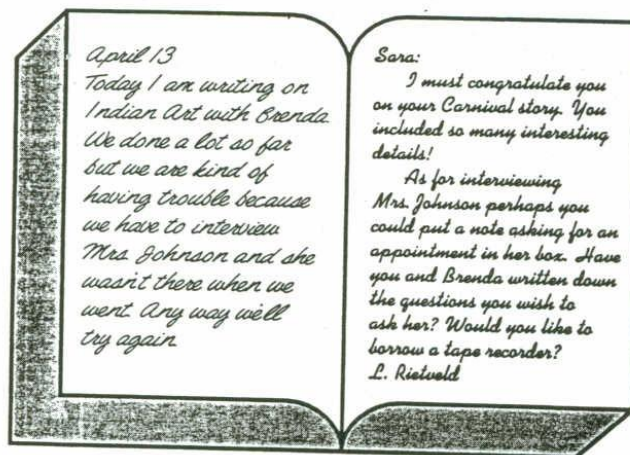
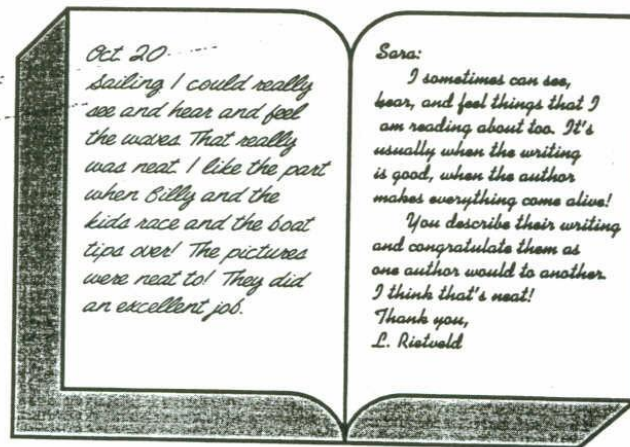
From: *Cooper 1989, 272; o be implemented in accordance with Best Teaching Practices Learning Standards, NYSED, 2001.*

**Dialogue Journal:** A Dialogue Journal is a written record which encourages students to write on a regular basis about things that really matter to them. A dialogue journal provides students with an opportunity to reflect and think critically about their responses to the natural world, to engage in a deeper level of analysis of their readings, and to construct their own ideas, as well as incorporate the ideas of others. Students may use one side of their open notebook to record notes from class, copy text from their readings, or record their observations of an experience. On the facing page, students write their reflection to those responses, commenting on their readings or observations.

Example: The following examples are taken from a third grade classroom in which the teacher provides time every day for students to write entries in two journals: a reading and a writing journal. They include examples of comments by the students about what they have been reading and writing, and their experience in engaging in this exercise. The teacher's entry represents a reflection in response to what the student has shared, and an attempt to extend the student's thinking.

## Dialogue Journal

(ELA Standards #2 & 4)



From: Tierney, Readence, and Dishner, 1989, 99; to be implemented in accordance with Best Teaching Practices, Learning Standards, New York State Education Department, Albany, New York, 2001

**Directed Reading:** Directed Reading is a teaching strategy developed by Betts (1946) to enhance students' comprehension of text. A Directed Reading Activity (DRA) is an essential component of an English Language and Literacy Development (ELD) program, and provides a format for systematic instruction on a group basis to be used in the teaching of content areas, English as a second language, or native language arts classes. The following is an example of how a Directed Reading activity can be implemented with CEC-speaking students:

Example: The following represents the different stages in a modified Directed Reading Activity.

1. Developing readiness for reading material:
  - a. Investigate and expand the students' language experience and educational background.
  - b. Preview the reading material being introduced.
  - c. Discuss vocabulary, concepts, and language patterns which are basic to the understanding of the reading material.
  - d. Develop a social, cultural, and academic purpose for reading.
2. Oral Reading (Shared Reading).
3. Choral Reading or Echo Reading.
4. Group Reading.
5. Silent Reading.
6. Developing Comprehension (Give at least three questions at each level):
  - a. Literal Level.  
Analytical-Interpretative.  
Applicative.  
Evaluative.
  - b. Clarify and guide further development of concepts and vocabulary (i.e. Pre/Post Semantic Mapping).
  - c. Refine further word recognition and sentence patterning facility.
7. Re-reading (Silent or Oral) for further clarification.
8. Follow-up Activities:
  - a. Discovery and research activities within and beyond the book.
  - b. Creative activities.

Adapted from: *Tierney, Readence, and Dishner*, 1989; to be implemented in accordance with Best Teaching Practices, New York State Education Department, Albany, NY., 2001.

A Directed Reading activity for Caribbean English Creole-speaking students can be particularly effective if classroom sessions are periodically recorded by the classroom teacher in such a way that students can listen to play-backs of their recorded reading of passages from selected texts and compare those with recordings of the text modeled by the classroom teacher, or by fellow classroom students.

The aim is to have the learner become consciously aware of and remedy any gaps in the understanding of the text and its application by the learner through the productive/expressive act of speaking, or the ‘receptive’ act of reading. It is to be noted that the ‘receptive’ act of reading becomes increasingly productive and expressive, as the learner continues to develop and apply learning strategies in a highly conscious and reflective manner that effectively aids the learning of the target language.

***Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review (SQ3R):*** This instructional technique is another way to approach guided reading by teaching Caribbean English Creole-speaking students a system of study skills in which they become more independent learners by constructing their own knowledge and posing their own questions. This system has five basic steps.

***Survey:*** The CEC students survey the text or unit of study to get a general idea of its contents. The titles, subheadings, introduction, pictures, graphics, maps. and summary are read and examined.

***Question:*** The CEC students pose a question that can be answered by reading the first portion of the text. For example, if the unit is on minerals and the first subheading is “Minerals and Their Uses,” the students could turn this heading into the question, “What are minerals and how are they used?” This question can be written down to guide the students in taking notes.

***Read:*** The CEC students read the text to answer the question .....

***Recall:*** The CEC students recall the information, answer the question in their own words, and write it down. If the student cannot answer the question, he or she needs to re-read this section. Students will continue with the Question, Read and Recall steps until the entire unit or chapter is read.

***Review:*** Once the students have finished with the previous steps, they review what was learned by looking at the written questions and answers. Students then recall this information.

The classroom teacher should anticipate that some CEC-speaking students are likely to demonstrate difficulty satisfactorily posing questions in Standard American English (SAE). For this reason, the teacher should model these steps using different types of texts; and careful attention should be placed on assisting the students to formulate the appropriate questions first, before the students are held accountable for applying this system of study independently.

Adapted from: *Cooper 1979, 272; to be implemented in accordance with Best Teaching Practices Learning Standards, New York State Education Department, Albany, NY, 2001.*

### ***Integration of the Caribbean Creole Literature and Culture into the English Literacy Development/Language Arts Curriculum:***

The incorporation of the literature and culture of Caribbean countries and territories into the New York State classroom curriculum is an integral and indispensable strategy in any intensive or accelerated English language development instructional program serving Caribbean English Creole-speaking students.

The appreciation of and respect for the students' culture and native Creole languages will facilitate the students' integration into the culturally pluralistic mainstream and, at the same time, will acquaint the students with their rich cultural, linguistic, and literacy heritage.

It is understandable that the degree to which readers share the same cultural and linguistic background affects the degree to which they can comprehend the text and relate to it. CEC readers who have grown up with similar kinds of stories are likely to have prior knowledge of, and know what to expect from, a new story couched in a similar cultural and linguistic medium. In addition to specific cultural details and assumptions in a story, the way in which a story is organized may also reflect a particular culture. Story 'grammars' are culturally bound and therefore may differ across cultures.

In conclusion, teachers may use a variety of strategies and approaches in the instruction of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students. However, they must keep in mind that even when Caribbean Creole languages may have some superficial lexical correspondence with English, they are, in many instances, syntactically, semantically, and phonologically distinctive. Thus, effective English language arts instruction may not be achieved through a single approach or strategy.

### ***SECTION III: WHAT THE STATE AND DISTRICTS SHOULD DO***

#### **A. What the State Should Do**

The New York State Education Department and school districts, especially New York City, have been trying to address the needs of Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students since 1983. Their efforts have included workshops, conferences, legislative proposals, and the preparation of a resource document. This section of the document lists the various key initiatives that have been supported through the collaboration of the State, the City, BOCES, and institutions of higher education.

Following are six initiatives that the State Education Department will continue to support to strengthen the capacity of the school districts to ensure that Caribbean English Creole-speaking students are able to meet the standards and pass the required assessments in accordance with the Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP), authorized under the provisions of Title III, Sec. 301, governing language instruction for immigrant students, of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, and in accordance with Sec. 3101 of the NCLB Act governing 'English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for immigrant students.'

Guidelines: *A Resource Guide for the Education of the Students in New York State from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction* will be completed, printed, and disseminated to districts with this population. In accordance with the Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP), authorized under the provisions of Title III, Sec. 301, governing language instruction for immigrant students, the Guidelines will contain detailed information on the students' backgrounds, their school systems, and guidance on programs and services that they should be provided. It will be the centerpiece for professional development activities for teachers and administrators.

Workshops/Conferences: Workshops on the resource document will be designed for key district staff. Following the turnkey training model, they will be expected to train teachers and other personnel in their districts.

Funds: In accordance with the Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP), authorized under the provisions of Title III, Sec. 301, governing language instruction for immigrant students, school districts will be required to channel the EIEP funds generated by the students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction exclusively for activities designed to meet their educational needs. In the year 2000 the youngsters generated over \$4 million in EIEP funds. Districts must also direct other State and Federal funds for programs needed by these students. Title I is another excellent source of funding for services for eligible students.

Comprehensive Education Plans: In accordance with the Title III provisions for immigrant students, school districts with students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction will be required to incorporate instructional strategies appropriate to their need in their district-wide comprehensive education plans.

EIEP Application: In accordance with the Title III provisions for immigrant students, school districts filing an application for the Emergency Immigrant Education Program will continue to be required to describe the instructional and staff development activities that will be implemented with the EIEP funding to address the needs of the students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction.

Monitoring: Under the Title III provisions for immigrant students, the State Comprehensive Monitoring teams will incorporate the review of services to students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction as part of the review process.

## **B. What the Districts Should Do**

The new standards and assessments apply to all students in New York State, including newly arrived immigrants from countries in the Caribbean where English is the medium of instruction. School districts must strengthen and continue to develop their capacity to ensure that these youngsters are successful and graduate. Many school districts have already put in place programs and initiatives designed for this student population.

Following are five crucial factors that school districts are asked to recognize and to take into account in order to help CEC students bridge cultural and educational gaps and succeed in American schools. These crucial factors and others are reflected in the Resource Guide for the Education of the Students in New York State from Caribbean Countries Where English is the Medium of Instruction:

- Expectation in Caribbean countries that the teacher fills two roles: one in the school and the other in the community. The role expectation has been more prevalent in rural areas where teachers may live in the community in which they work.
- High regard of Caribbean parents for education coupled with the fact that they often do not visit the school unless invited, and do not challenge or influence decisions within the professional province of the teacher. A tendency to defer to the school is an expression of the



high expectations placed in the power of schooling.

- Perception of the teacher as an authority figure in the place of the parent invested with the responsibility of ensuring that students conform to certain behavior in addition to imparting a body of prescribed content knowledge.
- The reluctance of Caribbean students to volunteer answers in class for fear of being wrong and losing the respect of the teacher. The teacher basically undertakes the initiatives and the students observe the rules of social etiquette. Respect for authority, punctuality, and school attendance is highly valued.
- Requirement that Caribbean students attend school until the age of 16. However, compulsory education may not be enforced and students may enter the New York State educational system with limited formal education and an inadequate level of literacy for comprehending the curriculum.

Screening: As reported in an earlier section of this document, recently arrived students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction should be identified upon enrollment through the Home Language Questionnaire, as required for all newly enrolled students in the State. In addition, they should be screened to determine if they are possibly gifted, have a possible learning disability, or display evidence of language difference or language deficit. The screening should include a review of their Caribbean school records, including a review of the student's history and grades from the home country, diagnostic testing, and interviews with parents. The school's intake personnel, including school counselors, should have knowledge of the backgrounds and educational experiences of the students.

### **C. Language Enrichment Experience for All Newly Arrived Students**

Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students who possess native oral competency in a Creole language and who, at the same time, are in the process of developing academic competency in a standard form of English, can benefit from a program of English language and literacy development (ELD). A program of English language and literacy development is a specific discipline that focuses on the acquisition of competency in reading and writing, and is designed for English Language Learners (ELL) and for native speakers of English Creole, particularly those who are preliterate in their native Creole and, at the same time, manifest a lack of competency in Standard English. The term “preliterate” refers to the class of language learners (e.g., those CEC-speaking students from Barbados, Belize, Guyana, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago, etc.) who come from socio-cultural groups without formal, traditional written Creole languages.

These students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction, and who are native speakers of a Creole language, acquire formal, academic language through direct instruction and through numerous encounters with exemplary models of Standard English. Research on language learning makes it very clear that the language achievement of these students depends upon the extent to which learners are engaged in actual acts of reading, writing, listening, and speaking for meaningful purposes. CEC students should be actively involved in using the target language of instruction as a medium for reflecting, discussing and extending their knowledge about the world and making intimate

connections between their personal experiences and the relevant body of knowledge which is the foundation of an effective learning experience in a school setting.

In an intensive language arts program of English language and literacy development, these students test their assumptions about the importance and role of language learning, as well as the usefulness of language as a tool for learning by having opportunities to use it to pose questions, seek clarification and provide solutions which they can share with others. The New York State English Language Arts (ELA) Standards support this objective.

## D. The English Language Arts Learning Standards

The English Language Arts Learning Standards for New York State include the following four components:

**Standard 1: Language for Information and Understanding.** Students will listen, speak, read, and write for information and understanding. As listeners and readers, students will collect data, facts, and ideas; discover relationships, concepts, and generalizations; and use knowledge generated from oral, written, and electronically produced texts. As speakers and writers, they will use oral and written language that follows the accepted conventions of the English language to acquire, interpret, apply, and transmit information.

**Standard 2: Language for Literary Response and Expression.** Students will read and listen to oral, written, and electronically produced texts and performances from American and world literature; relate texts and performances to their own lives; and develop an understanding of the diverse social, historical, and cultural dimensions the texts and performances represent. As speakers and writers, students will use oral and written language that follows the accepted conventions of the English language for self-expression and artistic creation.

**Standard 3: Language for Critical Analysis and Evaluation.** Students will listen, speak, read, and write for critical analysis and evaluation. As listeners and readers, students will analyze experiences, ideas, information, and issues presented by others using a variety of established criteria. As speakers and writers, they will use oral and written language that follows the accepted conventions of the English language to present, from a variety of perspectives, their opinion and judgments on experiences, ideas, information and issues.

**Standard 4: Language for Social Interaction.** Students will listen, speak, read, and write for social interaction. Students will use oral and written language that follows the accepted conventions of the English language for effective social communication with a wide variety of people. As readers and listeners, they will use the social communications of others to enrich their understanding of people and their views.

Many native speakers of Caribbean English Creole experience a substantive gap in their knowledge and oral competency of their Creole language and the Standard American English that is used as the medium of formal instruction. In recognition of this observation, they have long been identified in the multimedia as “*children of the gap*.” Language learners of this particular background need to have their learning of standard English carefully scaffolded by the classroom teacher, with ample opportunities provided to the learner to develop and apply learning strategies for transferring cognitive information from the native Creole language to English.

*Recommendations for English Language Arts:* As an essential component of an intensive English language and literacy development (ELD) program, **double periods** of intensive English language arts should be given to all newly arrived Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students until they have closed the gap between their literacy skills and those required of their age/grade level counterparts in New York. Instructional materials, literature, activities, and strategies that take into account the unique language experiences and background of the Caribbean English Creole-speaking students must be identified and incorporated into the language arts program. Instructional resources for use in the classroom and school library, which reflect and validate the authentic culture of the students should be identified and purchased. New York State's English Language Arts Learning Standards for listening, speaking, reading, and writing must be incorporated in all lessons and classes of the curriculum areas.

The New York State Education Department English Language Arts Resource Guide requires that all students, including those from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction:

- Read a minimum of 25 books or the equivalent per year across all content areas. The reading will include long and short works from classic and contemporary literature, adolescent fiction, nonfiction books and articles, nontraditional genres such as diaries and journals, little known works, students' own writing, and electronically produced texts.
- Write an average of 1000 words per month across all content areas. The writing will include formal, structured assignments, writing-to-learn activities such as summaries, learning logs, response journals, and other spontaneous and exploratory writing; self-sponsored writing for which students have selected their own topics, purposes, and audiences. Folktales and oral histories can also be explored in the ESL/ELD/ELA classroom using, for example, the Language Experience Approach (LEA) where CEC students can render into standard written English those stories with which they are familiar in the oral version of the native Creole language.
- Listen on a daily basis for specific purposes across all content areas. The listening includes frequent and valuable opportunities for CEC students to gather essential information from such sources as discussions, lectures, speeches, and broadcasts; to hear or view imaginative texts in Standard English, such as plays, films, or poetry reading; to analyze and evaluate oral arguments, speeches, or debates, to attend to the ideas and perspectives of others in informal settings.
- Speak with adults and peers on a daily basis to investigate topics across all content areas. The development of oral competency in academic English in all subject areas is crucial for CEC students, and will include informal situations such as class discussions, small group interactions, and class meetings, as well as formal situations such as debates, panel presentations, and formal presentations. CEC students should be provided with ample opportunity to explore and use language to develop and amplify concepts in all subject areas. It should be emphasized that the continuum of language functions, which are essential for reading and writing, as well as critical thinking skills, can be developed in all subject areas when CEC students are provided opportunities for self-expression with the scaffolding of selective feedback to ensure that they are communicating accurately and comprehensibly.

The followings are the essential linkages for the English Language Arts Standards:

Core Subject Content: Interdisciplinary curriculum, which addresses New York's new standards and prepares the students to pass the new assessments in all the required areas must be promoted and supported. Instructional opportunities should help CEC students to improve study and test-taking skills in all lessons. CEC students should have access to media centers to utilize technological tools to facilitate their learning across the curriculum. Additional tutorial opportunities should be available as needed through extended day, Saturday, and summer programs.

Assessment: Students from the Caribbean come from educational systems which employ assessment instruments, instructional approaches, and curricular designs that are different and even divergent from those in typical use in the American public school system. It is essential, therefore, that educators use assessment strategies which allow CEC students to demonstrate accurately what they have learned prior to their entry into the New York State educational system. Teachers must introduce the newly arrived CEC-speaking students to the testing regulations in New York, and teach them the test taking skills they need to succeed.

Staff Development: Intensive in-service courses should be provided to teachers and administrators on Caribbean English Creole-speaking (CEC) students, their backgrounds, and the best ways to help them meet the standards. Institutions of higher education with teacher education programs that are located in areas where there are large concentrations of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students should develop courses on the education of these students.

Parental Involvement: Any decisions the school makes about the future of children will impact upon their parents or guardians. Parents and guardians of students from Caribbean countries where English is the medium of instruction view success in school as enhancing the prestige and position of both the child and the family. Schools must make an effort to promote cooperation between school and home by engaging parents as partners. Research indicates that immigrant families are positive factors in their children's success in school. They must see themselves and be perceived as co-educators in making educational decisions about their children. Caribbean parents must be reminded of these expectations and be taught how to carry them out, because the roles are different from those that Caribbean parents played in the home country. The schools must plan intensive, continuous, clear parental briefings through informative meetings and workshops in order to involve the newly arrived parents to the new school.

## **E. NYSED Learning Standards.**

The section which follows provides a brief description of the NYSED Learning Standards in Social Studies, The Arts, Mathematics, Science, and Technology, Languages Other Than English, Career Development and Occupational Studies, and Health, Physical Education, and Home Economics.

### ***Social Studies***

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#### ***Standard 1***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, eras, themes, developments, and turning points in the history of the United States and New York.

#### ***Standard 2***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, eras, themes, developments, and turning points in world history, and examine the broad sweep of history from a variety of perspectives.

#### ***Standard 3***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the geography of the interdependent worlds in which we live - local, national, and global -including the spatial distribution of people, places, and environments over the Earth's surface.

#### ***Standard 4***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of how the United States and other societies develop economic systems and associated institutions to allocate scarce resources, how major decision-making units function in the United States and other national economies, and how an economy solves the scarcity problem through market and nonmarket mechanisms.

#### ***Standard 5***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the necessity for establishing governments, the United States Constitution, the American governmental system, the governmental systems of other nations, and international politics, past and present.

#### ***Standard 6***

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the basic civic values of American constitutional democracy, the roles, rights, and responsibilities of citizenship, and the avenues of participation in American civic life.

## ***The Arts***

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### ***Standard 1***

Students will actively engage in the processes that constitute creation and performance in the arts (dance, music, theater, and visual arts) and participate in various roles in the arts.

### ***Standard 2***

Students will be knowledgeable about and make use of the materials and resources available for participation in the arts in various roles.

### ***Standard 3***

Students will respond critically to a variety of works in the arts, connecting the individual work to other works and to other aspects of human endeavor and thought.

### ***Standard 4***

Students will develop an understanding of the personal and cultural forces that shape artistic communication and how the arts in turn shape the diverse cultures of past and present society.

In the implementation of the NYSED Learning Standards in The Arts and in other subject areas, it is highly recommended that instruction capitalize on the oral traditions of CEC-speaking students. For example, folktales, oral histories, and dub poetry can be explored in the English Language and Literacy Development (ELD) classroom using, the Language Experience Approach, the Whole Language Approach, and the Balanced Literacy Approach, where CEC-speaking students can render into written English those stories with which they are familiar in the oral version of their native Creole languages. Classroom activities should include activities that allow CEC-speaking students to:

- Listen on a daily basis for specific purposes across all content areas. The listening includes frequent opportunities to gather essential information from such sources as discussions, lectures, speeches, and broadcasts; to hear or view imaginative texts such as plays, films, or poetry reading; to analyze and evaluate oral arguments, speeches, or debates, to attend to the ideas and perspectives of others in informal settings. It should be noted that the discourse skills that Caribbean English Creole-speaking students need for reading and writing effectively, usually originate in enriched learning environments in which attentive listening and oral skills are emphasized as an instructional goal.
- Speak with adults and peers on a daily basis to investigate topics across all content areas. The speaking will include informal situations such as class discussions, small-group interactions, and class meetings, as well as formal situations such as debates, panel presentations, and formal presentations. It should be emphasized that the continuum of language functions, which are essential for reading and writing as well as critical thinking skills, can be developed when students are provided opportunities for self-expression with the scaffolding of selective feedback to ensure that they are communicating accurately and comprehensibly.

## ***Mathematics, Science, and Technology***

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### ***Standard 1***

Students will use mathematical analysis, scientific inquiry, and engineering design, as appropriate, to pose questions, seek answers, and develop solutions.

### ***Standard 2***

Students will access, generate, process, and transfer information using appropriate technologies.

### ***Standard 3***

Students will understand mathematics and become mathematically confident by communicating and reasoning mathematically, by applying mathematics in real-world settings, and by solving problems through the integrated study of number systems, geometry, algebra, data analysis, probability, and trigonometry.

### ***Standard 4***

Students will understand and apply scientific concepts, principles, and theories pertaining to the physical setting and living environment and recognize the historical development of ideas in science.

### ***Standard 5***

Students will apply technological knowledge and skills to design, construct, use, and evaluate products and systems to satisfy human and environmental needs.

### ***Standard 6***

Students will understand the relationships and common themes that connect mathematics, science, and technology and apply the themes to these and other areas of learning.

### ***Standard 7***

Students will apply the knowledge and thinking skills of mathematics, science, and technology to address real-life problems and make informed decisions.

As language learners with language differences that are qualitatively distinct from a standard variety of English, CEC-speaking students may occasionally display problem-solving strategies in mathematics, science, and technology that do not follow conventional approaches in an American school setting. Teachers of these students should develop intervention strategies that can assist these learners to effectively navigate their way toward fully achieving the objectives of the NYSED Learning Standards.



## ***Languages Other than English*** \_\_\_\_\_

### ***Standard 1***

Students will be able to use a language other than English for communication.

### ***Standard 2***

Students will develop cross-cultural skills and understandings.

## ***Career Development and Occupational Studies*** \_\_\_\_\_

### ***Standard 1***

Students will develop an awareness of the world of work, explore career options, and relate personal skills, aptitudes, and abilities to future career decisions.

### ***Standard 2***

Students will understand and demonstrate how academic content is applied in real-world and workplace settings.

### ***Standard 3***

Students will demonstrate mastery of the foundation skills and competencies essential for success in the workplace and

Students who choose a career major will acquire the career-specific technical knowledge skills necessary to progress toward gainful employment, career advancement, and success in postsecondary programs.

## ***Health, Physical Education, and Home Economics*** \_\_\_\_\_

### ***Standard 1***

Students will have the necessary knowledge and skills to establish and maintain physical fitness, participate in physical activity, and maintain personal health.

### ***Standard 2***

Students will acquire the knowledge and ability necessary to create and maintain a safe and healthy environment

### ***Standard 3***

Students will understand and be able to manage their personal and community resources.

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## DEFINITION OF TERMS

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills: The term “Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills” (BICS) was developed by Cummins (1980) to refer to “conversational fluency,” or the ability of the language learner to carry on a conversation in familiar “face-to-face” situations. Cummins argues that BICS, or conversational fluency, involves the use of high frequency words and simple grammatical constructions. He observes that native speakers of English (i.e., **standard** English) have generally developed competent conversational fluency by the time they enter school at age five. He also argues that second language (L2) learners generally develop second language conversational fluency within a year or two of exposure to the target language either in school or in the larger social and cultural environment where a standard form of English is spoken.

On a similar basis it can be argued that speakers of Caribbean English Creole (CEC) are likely to develop conversational fluency in standard English within a year or two of exposure to formal instruction in a school environment that employs comparative-contrastive instructional strategies, or other mediating instructional strategies to facilitate the transfer of native listening and speaking skills in Caribbean English Creole toward the acquisition of academic competency in English. A major distinction between ‘typical’ English language learners and speakers of Caribbean English Creole is that the latter do not normally acquire conversational fluency in ‘standard’ or ‘school’ English in a social and cultural environment that is exclusively immersed in Caribbean English Creole. Students of Caribbean English Creole may be bilingual (bilingual or bidialectal) to varying degrees in their native Creole and in a standard variety of English. Compare “BICS” with “CALP.”

Bilingual Education: Bilingual Education is an instructional program designed for English language learners. The term “Bilingual Education” refers to instruction in English and the English language learner’s native language, intended to facilitate academic progress and oral language and literacy skills in the two languages that are used for instruction. Bilingual classes provide limited English proficiency students with content area instruction in the native language and English, native language arts instruction, and instruction in English as a second language.

Caribbean Community (CARICOM): The term “Caribbean Community” refers primarily to the PAN Caribbean partnership of the Anglophone Caribbean states, which were former colonies of Great Britain. CARICOM is a major institutional base for regional cooperation and integration within the group of states not only internally, but also in dealings with external trading blocks worldwide. In recent years CARICOM membership has been extended to Suriname and Haiti, although these two countries are not former colonies of Great Britain.

The CARICOM Member States are the following: Antigua and Barbuda, Commonwealth of the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Commonwealth of Dominica, Grenada, Co-operative Republic of Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Lucia, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Republic of Suriname, and the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago. CARICOM Member States and Cuba have shared a close relationship that spans more than thirty years, beginning in 1972 with the establishment of the earliest diplomatic relations between Barbados, Jamaica, Guyana, and Trinidad and Tobago. Since then, all Member States of CARICOM have improved their diplomatic relations with their sister nation through the provision of scholarships to persons desirous of pursuing programs of study in the

Republic of Cuba. Since 1961, more than 1,200 CARICOM students have graduated from Cuban universities.

Caribbean Creole: The term “Caribbean Creole” refers generically to a family of modern languages developed during the last five hundred years and distinct from any standard variety of English, French, Spanish, Dutch, or Portuguese. Its origin can be found in the post-Columbian contact between Europeans, Africans, and Native Americans during the period of trading of slaves and the development of New World plantation economies. Caribbean Creoles, in structural composition, are believed to belong historically to the Niger-Congo family of West African languages and include such distinct Caribbean languages as Haitian Creole, Jamaican Creole, Sranan, Belizean Creole, and Guyanese Creole. See “Caribbean English Creole” (CEC) or “Caribbean French Creole” (CFC).

Caribbean English Creole (CEC): The term “Caribbean English Creole” is generic and non-specific, and refers to an English lexicon Creole family of languages of the Caribbean Region which evolved from contact between native speakers of English and native speakers of many different languages from West and Central Africa. Although this language family has an extensive base of English vocabulary, the grammar and phonology are clearly strongly influenced by several West African languages. The Caribbean English Creole (CEC) has been the native language family of many Caribbean nationals for several generations. CEC-speaking countries include Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago. The term “Caribbean English Creole” is also referred to as “Caribbean English-lexicon Creole.” Compare “Caribbean French Creole” (CFC).

Caribbean French Creole (CFC): The term “Caribbean French Creole” is generic and non-specific, and refers to a French lexicon Creole family of languages of the Caribbean Region which evolved from contact between native speakers of French and native speakers of many different languages from West and Central Africa. Although this language family has an extensive base of French vocabulary, the grammar and phonology are clearly strongly influenced by several West African languages. The Caribbean French Creole (CFC) has been the native language family of many Caribbean nationals for several generations. CFC-speaking countries include Dominica, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Haiti, and Saint Lucia. The term “Caribbean French Creole” is also referred to as “Caribbean French-lexicon Creole.” Compare “Caribbean English Creole” (CEC).

Caribbean Region: The term “Caribbean Region” is broadly used to refer to the entire Caribbean Basin encompassed by the Caribbean Sea, starting from the Greater Antilles of Cuba, Jamaica, Haiti, the Dominican Republic and Puerto Rico in the north and following the chain of the Lesser Antilles southward to Trinidad and Tobago, and Guyana on the mainland, the northern coastline of Venezuela and Colombia, and extending to Belize located in the eastern coastline of Central America and Mexico.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency: The term “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency” (CALP) was developed by Cummins (1980) to refer to the ability of the language learner to understand and produce increasingly complex oral and written language at a level that is essential for students to succeed in school. This academic language acquisition isn’t just the understanding of content area and vocabulary, but includes skills such as comparing, classifying, synthesizing, evaluating, and inferring. Research has repeatedly shown that English language learners (ELL), or students whose native or dominant language is not standard English, typically require at least five years of exposure to academic English to ‘catch up’ native-speaker norms of standard English, due both to the complexity of academic language and the fact that English language learners, and students of Caribbean English

Creole (CEC) as well, must catch up to a moving target of English dominant (L1) students who are competent in a standard variety of English. Compare “CALP” with “BICS.”

Commonwealth Caribbean. The “Commonwealth Caribbean” is a term that is sometimes used interchangeably with “Caribbean Community.”

Comparative-Contrastive Analysis (CA): The term “Comparative-Contrastive Analysis” refers to an educational strategy in the instruction of a second language or a second dialect. It involves the comparison and contrasting of both first and second languages or dialects, with the objective of making the structure of the second language or dialect more comprehensible to the learner. It facilitates the transfer of skills from the first language or dialect to the second language or dialect in all four modalities: understanding, speaking, reading, and writing English. The Comparative-Contrastive Analysis strategy is an important aspect of an instructional program of English Language and Literacy Development (ELD). See “English Literacy Development” (ELD).

Creole Language: The term “Creole Language” refers to a language **family** historically derived from a pidgin that becomes the mother tongue of a speech community. According to Wolfram and Christian (1989), “The word creole comes from the Latin *creare*, to create. When two groups of speakers do not have a mutual language, they often create an intermediary language from the two for purposes of communication, with a drastically altered grammar and a modified vocabulary taken predominantly from one of the languages. This type of language often develops under special social conditions, such as the need to communicate for trade or business purposes. This is probably what happened as Europeans from various countries, including the British Isles, developed trade routes along the coasts of West Africa. Over time, this intermediary language (called a *pidgin* language until children start learning it as their first language, when it then becomes a *creole*) became an established means of communication. The pidgin or creole that was first developed along the African coast came to the Americas with the importation of slaves.”

Creole (“mixed”) languages are found not only in the Caribbean Basin, but also in all regions of the world. When referring to languages, the nomenclature “Creole” is a non-specific umbrella term that designates a **family** of languages, rather than a specific language. Muhleisen (2003) has observed that Creole languages are characteristically associated with a negative image. Similarly, Neumann-Holzschuh and Schneider (2003) have observed that basic notions in the field of Creole studies, including the category of “Creole languages” itself, have been questioned in recent years. Thus, the term “Creole” is not linguistically precise and does not inform us, for example, whether a specific language being referred to is “Jamaican,” “Haitian,” or “St. Lucian;” or, for that matter, Hawaiian Pidgin of Hawaii, or Tok Pisin of Papua, New Guinea. However, these individual languages belong to the family of **Creole** languages, in the same way that English, Danish, Dutch, German, Norwegian, and Swedish belong to the family of **Germanic** languages, or French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, and Spanish belong to the family of **Latinate** or **Romance** languages.

In the Caribbean Basin the family of Creole languages may be further sub-divided into Anglophone, Francophone, Dutch, Portuguese, and Spanish lexicalized Creole languages. Just as it is inaccurate to suggest that someone speaks Germanic or Latinate/Romance, it is equally linguistically incorrect to state that someone speaks “*Creole*.” Because the Creole languages of the Caribbean employ the lexicon of European languages, they are sometimes categorized as sub-sets of these languages. See “Caribbean Creole.”

Creolization: The term “Creolization,” when used to describe the phenomenon of language behavior, is the process of elaboration in vocabulary, grammar, and register variation by which a **pidgin**, over an historical period, becomes a Creole or fully autonomous language. The so-called ‘*pidgin*’ is the elementary or earlier stage of formation of what over time evolves into the autonomous Creole language. A pidgin is, broadly speaking, a form of lingua franca communication. While a pidgin is used as a makeshift language, and is therefore known to have no ‘native’ speakers, a Creole language is a “community” or regional language that consists of a body of native speakers.

Dialect: The term “dialect” has several different meanings. In the technical meaning (according to Wolfram and Christian, 1989) “dialect refers to any given variety of a language shared by a group of speakers. This variation usually corresponds to diversities of other types within the group, such as geographical location, social class, or age. People who share important social and regional characteristics will typically speak similarly, and those whose characteristics differ will usually differ in their language as well....A further consequence of the technical meaning of dialect concerns its relationship to the term *language*. The way language is organized, variation is so much a part of language that a person cannot speak a language without speaking a dialect of that language. Everyone is part of some group that can be distinguished from other groups, and one of these groupings depends on how one talks. In other words, if a person speaks the English language, that person necessarily speaks some dialect of the English language....”

All languages of the world, without exception, consist of language varieties or “dialects.” One of these dialects is invariably acknowledged as the “**standard**” and is used as the means of literacy development, formal school instruction, and for conducting commerce, government, and legal affairs. The term “dialect” is sometimes used interchangeably with the term “language.” The criterion for distinguishing ‘*dialects*’ from ‘*languages*’ is somewhat arbitrary, and is taken in principle to be that of mutual intelligibility. For example, monolingual speakers of French cannot understand or speak Haitian Creole unless they have learned it, and vice versa. Similarly, monolingual speakers of English cannot understand or speak Jamaican Creole unless they have also learned it, and vice versa. Therefore, in both cases, Haitian Creole and French are different but related languages, just as Jamaican Creole and English are also different but related languages.

Discrete Language Skills: As employed by Cummins (2000), the term “Discrete Language Skills” refers to specific phonological, literacy, and grammatical knowledge that students can acquire both as a result of engagement with language and literacy, and direct instruction. Cummins argues that second language learners can learn these discrete language skills at a relatively early stage in their acquisition of English; and that these skills can even be learned concurrently with their development of basic vocabulary and conversational proficiency.

Emergency Immigrant Education Program (EIEP): The term **EIEP** refers to the educational programs authorized under the provisions of Title III, Sec. 301, governing language instruction for immigrant students to (1) provide such students with high quality instruction and (2) to help such children and youth (A) with their transition into American society, and (B) meet the same challenging State academic content and student academic achievement standards as all children are expected to meet. Originally authorized under Title VII of the Improving America’s Schools Act of 1994, this program provides funds to states on a formula basis to assist **Local educational agencies** in which immigrant student enrollment has increased significantly. Under the law, the term “immigrant children and youth”



means individuals age 3 through 21 who were not born in the United States and who have not been attending one or more schools in the United States for more than three full academic years. Eligible local educational agencies are those that enroll at least 500 students or where these students represent 3 percent of total enrollment (U.S. Department of Education). The EIEP was reauthorized under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. See definition of NCLB.

English Creole: The term “English Creole” refers to a worldwide grouping of Creole languages whose syntax is essentially West-African based, with vocabulary that is derived predominantly from English, but which also contains substantial lexical features from other languages, such as Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Dutch. “English Creole” refers to a grouping of Creole languages that are syntactically related to other Creole languages, which are lexically based in Spanish, French, Portuguese, Dutch, and Caribbean Indian languages. For comparison see “French Creole.”

English Literacy Development (ELD): “English Literacy Development” is also sometimes referred to in its broadest sense as “English Language and Literacy Development.” English Language Development, or English Literacy Development is a specific discipline that focuses on the acquisition of competency in reading and writing; and is designed for English language learners at all phases of language development, and particularly at the intermediate and advanced/transitional phases of English as a second language. At this instructional phase, English as a second language (ESL) merges with English Literacy Development (ELD) administered to speakers of English as a second dialect, or to native speakers of Creole languages.

Programs in English Literacy Development also target native speakers of English Creole, particularly those who are preliterate in their native Creole and, at the same time, manifest a lack of competency in Standard English. The term “*preliterate*” refers to the class of language learners (e.g., those from Guyana, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago) who have native oral competency in a Creole language, and who come from socio-cultural groups without formal, traditional written Creole languages. A review of the literature regarding currently used models of teaching English Literacy Development suggests that there are two basic models: the **skills-based**, with a focus on grammar, the development of discrete language skills, sentence combining, and model composition; and the **whole language**, with a focus on model composition, scales/guided revision, inquiry, and free writing.

As in the case of an ESL program, an ELD program is sensitive to, and respectful of, the learner’s native language competency. An ELD program is, in many respects, an extension of a traditional ESL program, and focuses on the attainment of an “*elaborated code*,” or academic competency in Standard English through the development of language and literacy, with emphasis on the development of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), discrete skills (DS), and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP).

An ELD program functions as the transitional bridge that links traditional ESL instruction with traditional ELA instruction. It is instructive to recognize that the continuum of services in a comprehensive program of language arts for English language learners, and for Creole-speaking students, would have the following representation: Native Language Arts → English as a Second Language → English Literacy Development → English Language Arts. An analysis of this instructional model is important to an understanding of the instructional needs of Caribbean English Creole-speaking students in relation to the instructional needs of all other categories of students. For comparison see “English as a Second Language” (ESL).

English as a Second Language (ESL): English as a Second Language is also referred to as English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). It is a specific discipline designed for English language learners, which uses an approach allowing these students to learn English systematically and cumulatively, moving from concrete to abstract levels of language in a spiraling fashion. A quality English as a Second Language program is sensitive to the student's first language and culture, and also incorporates comparative-contrastive analysis and multicultural education to facilitate the student's integration into the culturally pluralistic mainstream. Furthermore, the program must address all four modalities: understanding, speaking, reading, and writing.

A quality ESL program is designed to enable English language learners to achieve English proficiency and academic mastery of subject matter content and high order skills, including critical thinking, so as to meet appropriate grade promotion and graduation requirements. ESL students are exposed to a learning environment in which they participate actively. Instruction is always presented in a meaningful context; and it is categorized by three developmental phases: ESL I (Beginner), ESL II (Intermediate), and ESL III (Advanced/Transitional). These phases are based on the English language learner's English proficiency. At the intermediate and advanced/transitional phases of English as a second language, the instructional focus becomes increasingly academically oriented toward the development of English literacy. See "English Literacy Development" (ELD).

French Creole: The term "French Creole" refers to a worldwide grouping of Creole languages whose syntax is essentially West-African based, with a vocabulary that is derived predominantly from French, but which also contains substantial lexical features from other languages, such as English, Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch. "French Creole" refers to a grouping of Creole languages that are syntactically related to other Creole languages, which are lexically based in English, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Caribbean Indian languages. For comparison see "English Creole."

Immigrant Children and Youth: According to Title III of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, the term '**immigrant children and youth**' means individuals who  
“(A) are aged three through 21;  
“(B) were not born in any [U.S.] State [or territory]; and  
“(C) have not been attending one or more schools in any one or more [U.S.] States [or territories] for more than 3 full academic years.”

Language: According to Roberts (1993), the term "language" refers to a recognizable, identifiable, or accepted entity used by one or more communities of speakers. It is important to observe that the term "**language**" is a much broader term than that of "**speech**," which is a much more informal register of communication, and is restricted to **oral** communication. On the contrary, the term "**language**," with which a **standard** is associated, is a more inclusive term that refers to the more formal, rule-governed behavior of a community, region, or nation. Issues of "language" are concerned with literacy development, the employment of the four skills of **listening, speaking, reading, and writing**; and the overall goal of language planning.

In distinguishing "**speech**" from "**language**" it is instructive to recognize that the term "Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills" (**BICS**) is more readily associated with **speech**, or informal

language behavior. On the contrary, the term “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency” (CALP) is more readily associated with the goal to achieve literacy development and overall competency in *language*. It is noteworthy to mention that, in the case of monolingual Creole speakers in general, their development of BICS in the native Creole language will be understandably more developed and distinct from the development of BICS or CALP in a standard variety of English.

Language Assessment Battery (LAB): The LAB is the criterion developed by the New York City Department of Education to determine the level of English proficiency of English language learners and their entitlement to bilingual instruction or English as a second language (ESL) services. A Spanish version of the LAB is also available and is used to assess an English language learner’s native competency in that language. The English version of the LAB is sometimes used for diagnostic purposes to assess the overall competency in English of monolingual English speakers, or Creole and dialect speakers of English.

Language Difference: According to Wolfram and Christian (1989), the term “language difference” refers to *normal* variation in language from community to community, which is related to factors such as region, class, ethnicity, sex, age, and so forth....In language difference, an individual’s speech and language patterns reflect the *norms* of the community environment in which the language was learned.” Compare with *language deficit* or *language disorder*.

Language Disorder: According to Wolfram and Christian (1989), the term “language disorder” refers to cases where certain forms do not match the norms of a particular community, where an individual deviates in some way from community language patterns. In a small percentage of people in every community, speech and language are not appropriate according to community norms. These are the individuals who show genuine speech and language disorders. The key consideration in determining a ‘*difference*’ as opposed to ‘*disorder*’ is the language *norm* of the community from which the speaker comes. Compare with *language difference*.

Limited English Proficient (LEP): The term “Limited English Proficient” refers to individuals who, by reason of foreign birth or ancestry, speak a language other than English, and either understand and speak little or no English or score at or below the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile on an English language assessment instrument approved by the New York State Education Department Commissioner.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001: The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was signed into law by President George W. Bush on January 8, 2002. It is the latest revision of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The ESEA was first enacted in 1965 and encompasses Title 1, the federal government’s flagship aid program for disadvantaged students. The Term **NCLB** refers to the Federal Act of 2001 authorizing the U.S. Secretary of Education, in part, to determine the number of limited English proficient children in a State and in all States, and the number of immigrant children available from the Bureau of Census, or submitted by the State to the Secretary of Education. At the core of the No Child Left Behind Act are a number of measures designed to hold states and schools accountable for the academic achievement of all students; ensure that the teaching and professional staff is highly qualified; and provide parents with access to information and choice.

The NCLB Act is designed essentially to improve national educational goals for accountability, testing, academic standards, evaluation and assessment, professional development, school climate and school choice, and parental involvement and engagement.

By setting national standards for student achievement, and by holding students, teachers and other educators accountable for results, the NCLB Act also gives parents new opportunities to ensure that their children receive the very best education possible. The “Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students” policy of Title III, under Public Law 107-110, issued on January 8, 2002, is a key provision of the NCLB Act. See definition of Title III.

NYSESLAT: The New York State English as a Second Language Achievement Test (NYSESLAT) is administered on a yearly basis to English Language Learners (ELL) to assess their progress toward competency in English Language Arts (ELA). Normed on an English dominant population, the NYSESLAT should have the capacity to also measure annual progress toward English language competency of students with language differences, including those who are native speakers of Caribbean English-lexicon Creole.

Patois: The term “Patois” is generally used to refer to a geographical dialect or language variety which differs from the imposed standard language of the country. Because of this reason, it has the social perception of a nonstandard local variety of a language, which is not linguistically valid (Ferguson and Heath, 1982). Moreover, the term “patois” or *patwa* does not satisfactorily describe the many distinct Creole languages of the Caribbean. From a scientific and linguistic perspective it is more accurate to name these distinct languages after the country or region with which they are indigenously associated (as examples, **Guyanese Creole, Jamaican Creole, Haitian Creole**).

Pidgin: The term “Pidgin” is considered to be a simplified speech or *intermediary language* that is used for communication between people of different languages. The linguistic variation known as “*pidgin*” develops in areas where intense social intercourse between members of drastically different cultures takes place. The *pidgin*, which develops out of this linguistic heterogeneity, is a simplified system of communication. The maturation of pidgin and its adoption by subsequent generations results in a *creolization* of the language. Creoles are sophisticated variations of pidgin with increased vocabulary and grammatical devices and are considered normal languages by sociolinguists.

Second Language: The term “Second Language” refers to a language other than the one **acquired** natively and spoken at home. The second language must usually be **learned**, and is developed by formal schooling and/or by interpersonal contact with native speakers.

Title I: Title I: “Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged” (formerly Chapter 1) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, was initially amended in 1994 and

supports programs to assist economically disadvantaged and at-risk students. The 1994 reauthorization made it clear that limited English proficient students are eligible for services on the same basis as other students. Title I was reauthorized by Public Law 107-110 on January 8, 2002 under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. As promulgated in Sec. 101, “Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged,” the overall purpose of Title I is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency in challenging State academic achievement standards and state academic assessments.

Title III: Title III refers to Public Law 107-110, promulgated on January 8, 2002 under the No Child Left Behind (**NCLB**) Act of 2001, governing “Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students.” Title III under the No Child Left Behind Act consolidates the bilingual and immigrant education programs formerly entitled by Title VII of the Improving America School Act of 1994 into a State formula program and increases flexibility and accountability. (Most of the consolidation is accomplished only if the appropriation is at least \$650 million.) The focus of the title is on assisting school districts in teaching English to limited English proficient students/English language learners and immigrant students; and in helping these students meet the same challenging State standards required of all other students. See definition of NCLB.

West Indies: In the Caribbean, the term “West Indies” is employed as a name that historically, but not consistently, has distinguished the British Colonies from the French Antilles, the Netherlands Antilles, and the Spanish “**Antillas**.” However, the term “West Indies” is sometimes used to refer to all of the islands that make up the Caribbean Basin, and includes Belize in Central America, as well as Guyana, French Guiana, and Suriname in South America.

# APPENDIX A

## HOME LANGUAGE QUESTIONNAIRE

The University of the State of New York • The State Education Department • Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies, Albany, New York 12234

### Home Language Questionnaire (HLQ) (Caribbean Creole Version)

*Dear Parent or Guardian:*

*In order to provide your child with the best possible education, we need to determine how well he or she under-stands, speaks, reads and writes English. Your assistance in answering these questions is greatly appreciated.*

*Thank you*

#### TO BE COMPLETED BY SCHOOL PERSONNEL

**DISTRICT**

SCHOOL

GRADE

STUDENT NAME

DATE OF BIRTH

STUDENT IDENTIFICATION NUMBER

COUNTRY OF BIRTH/ANCESTRY

NUMBER OF YEARS ENROLLED IN SCHOOL OUTSIDE THE U.S.

NAME/POSITION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL COMPLETING THIS SECTION

DETERMINATION

- Possibly Creole Proficient  
 English Proficient

(✓ boxes that apply)

1. What language(s) is spoken in the student's home or residence?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_ *specify*
2. What language(s) are spoken most of the time to the student, in the home or residence?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_ *specify*
3. What language(s) does the student understand?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_ *specify*
4. What language(s) does the student speak?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_ *specify*
5. What language(s) does the student read?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_  Does not read *specify*
6. What language(s) does the student write?  English Caribbean Creole \_\_\_\_\_  Does not write *specify*
7. In your opinion how well does the student understand, speak, read and write Standard American English?

	Very well	Only a little	Not at all
Understands English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Speaks English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reads English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writes English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Year: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Parent/Guardian/Other \_\_\_\_\_

Month: \_\_\_\_\_

Day: \_\_\_\_\_

Date

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# APPENDIX B

## Commissioner's Regulations Part 117

### Diagnostic Screening of Pupils

#### Section 117.1 Scope of Part.

The purpose of this Part is to establish standards for the screening of every new entrant to the schools to determine which pupils are possibly gifted, or have a possible handicapping condition in accordance with subdivision (6) of section 3208 of the Education Law and/or possibly are limited English proficient in accordance with subdivision 2-a of section 3204 of the Education Law.

#### 117-2 Definitions, as used in this Part:

- (a) A pupil who has a possible handicapping condition shall mean a pupil who, on the basis of diagnostic screening, shows evidence of being a pupil with a handicapping condition as defined in section 200.1(d) of this Title.
- (b) A pupil who is possibly gifted shall mean a pupil who, on the basis of diagnostic screening, appears to meet the definition of gifted and talented as contained in section 142.2 of this Title.
- (c) A pupil who possibly is limited English proficient shall mean a pupil who, on the basis of diagnostic screening, appears to meet the definition of limited English proficiency as contained in section 154.2 of the Title.
- (d) New entrant shall mean a pupil entering the New York State public school system for the first time, or reentering a New York State public school with no available record of a prior screening.
- (e) For purposes of paragraph (a) of subdivision (5) of section 3208 or the Education Law:  

Pupils who score below level two on either the third grade reading or mathematics test for New York State elementary schools and pupils who obtain a comparable percentile score on the Regents Preliminary Competency Test in reading or writing shall mean pupils obtaining scores that have been designated by the commissioner as the scores indicating the need for diagnostic screening.

Those pupils exempted from testing as non-English-speaking shall be examined in the pupil's native language through similar procedures, and shall be screened for possible handicapping conditions if resultant scores comparable to those indicated above.



- (f) Diagnostic screening shall mean a preliminary method of distinguishing from the general population those pupils who may possibly be gifted, those pupils who may possibly have a handicapping condition and/or those pupils who possibly are limited English proficient.

### 117.3 Diagnostic Screening.

- (a) Each school district shall develop a plan for the diagnostic screening of all new entrants, pupils who score below level two on either the third grade reading or mathematics test for New York State elementary schools and students who obtain a comparable percentile score on the Regents Preliminary Competency Test, and all such new entrants, pupils and students shall receive such screening.

- (b) Such diagnostic screening shall be conducted:

- 1) by persons appropriately trained or qualified;
- 2) in the pupil's native language if the language of the home is other than English,
- 3) in the case of new entrants, prior to the school year, if possible, but no later than December first of the school year of entry, or within 15 days of transfer of a pupil into a New York State public school should the entry take place after December first of the school year,
- 4) in the case of pupils who score below two on either the third grade reading or mathematics test for New York State elementary schools, and students who obtain a comparable percentile score on the Regents Preliminary Competency Test, within 30 days of the availability of the test scores.

- (c) Diagnostic screening shall include, but not be limited to:

- 1) a health examination by a duly licensed physician, or evidence of such in the form of a health certificate, in accordance with section 903, 904 and 905 of the Education Law;
- 2) certificate of immunization or referral for immunization in accordance with section 2164 of the Public Health Law;
- 3) a determination of receptive and expressive language development, motor development, articulation skills and cognitive development;
- 4) a determination that the pupil is of foreign birth or ancestry and comes from a home where a language other than English is spoken as determined by the results of a home language questionnaire and an informal interview in English.

- (d) The results of the diagnostic screening shall be reviewed, and a written report of each pupil screened, shall be prepared by appropriately qualified school district staff. Such report shall include a description of diagnostic screening devices used, the pupil's performance on those devices and, if required, the appropriate referral
- (e) A pupil who may have a handicapping condition shall be referred to the committee on special education no later than 15 calendar days after completion of such diagnostic screening. Such referral shall be accompanied by the report of such screening,
- (f) A pupil identified as possibly gifted shall be reported to the superintendent of schools no later than 15 calendar days after completion of such screening. Such referral shall be accompanied by the report of such screening,
- (g) A pupil identified as possibly being limited English proficient shall be assessed in accordance with Part 154 of this Title.

## ***APPENDIX C***

## ***LIST OF SELECTED MATERIALS***

### Literature

#### *Author/Title/Description*

Agard, John. *The Calypso Alphabet*. Toronto: Fitzhenry and Whiteside, 1989.

Beautifully illustrated alphabet book features one alphabet letter per page. Each word is specific to the Caribbean context, and an ingenious rhyme threads throughout the text.

*Age Group: 5-6*

Bennett, Louise. *Anancy, and Miss Lou*. Kingston: Sangster's Book Stores, 1979.

*Age Group: 7-8*

Sadu, Itah. *How the Coconut Got Its Face*. Toronto, Ontario: Carib-Can Publishers, 1988.

*Age Group: 7-9*

Castillo, Jessie. *Garifuna Folktales*.

Short stories in both English and Garifuna, with illustrations.

*Age Group: 8-9*

Clifton, Lucille. *Everette Anderson Nine Month Long*.

New York, NY: Henry Holt and Company, 1978.

*Age Group: 9-10*

Sherlock, Philip. *Anansi the Spiderman*. Toronto: Fitzhenry and Whiteside, 1954.

Illustrated collection of stories of Anansi whose stories traveled to the Caribbean with the enslaved Africans.

Pollard, Velma, Editor. *Anansesem*. Kingston: Longman, 1985.

Collection of Folktales, Legends, and Poems from several Caribbean countries.

*Age Group: 9-12*

Sherlock, Philip. *West Indian Folktales*. Oxford University Press, 1987.

Illustrated collection of myths and legends, including some more Anansi stories.

*Age Group: 9-12*

Berry, James. *When I Dance*. Markham, Ontario: Penguin, 1990 (1988).

Collection of poems relating to the Caribbean experience and life in the multiracial cities of Great Britain. Berry uses both Creole and Standard English in his work.

*Age Group: 10*

Aardema, Verna. *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears*. New York, NY: The Dial Press, 1975.

A West African tale which narrates how the mosquitoes had the jungle in an uproar, and why he is not listened to today. Great for reading aloud.

*Age Group: 10-13*

Ashtine, Eauline. *Monkey Liver Soup*. U.K.: Nelson Caribbean, 1973.

*Age Group: 10-13*

Selvon, Samuel. *A Drink of Water*. Surrey, U.K.: Nelson (Nelson Caribbean) 1968.

A short story for slow readers, elegantly and movingly written. It deals with the very poor of Trinidad, and handles potential tragedy with understatement and delicacy. An elegant blend of dialect and Standard English.

*Age Group: 10-13*

Gross, Linda and Barnes, Miriam E, *Talk That Talk: An Anthology of Afro-American Storytelling*. New York. Simon and Schuster, 1989.

*Age Group: 11*

McKenzie, Earl. *A Boy Named Ossie. A Jamaican Childhood*.

*Age Group: 11-12*

Lewis, Theresa. *Caribbean Folk Legends*. New Jersey: Africa World Press, Inc., 1990.

Presents legends set in Trinidad and Tobago. Stories are a Mixture of African, French and Spanish myths which have become intrinsically West Indian.

*Age Group: 11-13*

Giuseppi, N. and Giuseppi, U. *Backfire: A Collection of Caribbean Short Stories*. Macmillan.

A very good collection (modeled on the classroom activity pattern), with some witty, bright, and entertaining short stories drawn from all over the Caribbean.

*Age Group: 12-14*

Guy, Rosa. *The Friends*. Harmondsworth. U.K.: Puffin-Penguin, 1977 (1974).

An unlikely but true friendship develops between Phyllisia, recently arrived from the West Indies, and the untidy, irrepressible Edith.

*Age Group: 12-14*

Irish, J. A. George Editor. *Big Business and Other Plays by V.B. Browns*. News York Caribbean Research Center, 1991.

Three works specifically edited for schools with an introduction and study guide, raising questions about youth, family, values, and attitudes in a truly entertaining comedy.

*Age Group: 12-15*

Clarke, A. *Growing Up Stupid Under the Union Jack*. Cuba: Casa de las Americas, 1980.

A criticism of colonial policies as childhood reminisces.

*Age Group: 12-16*

Anthony, Michael. *The Year In San Fernando; The Games Were Coming, Cricket in the Tree*. Heinemann Educational Books (Caribbean) Ltd. Caribbean Writers Series.

*Age Group: 13-15*

Guy, Rosa. *My Love, My Love or the Peasant Girl*. New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1985.

Tragic Lyrical tale of impossible love or a poor peasant girl for a rich boy from the city.

*Age Group: 14-16*

Lovelace, Earl. *The Wine of Astonishment*. London Heinemann, 1987.

*Age Group: 14-16*

Marshall, Paule, *Brown Girl, Brownstones*. London: Virago Press, 1982 (1960).

The coming of age of the daughter of Barbadian immigrants living in New York through the Depression and World War II.

*Age Group: 14-16*

Selvon, Samuel. *A Brighten Sun*. London: Longman, 1971 (1952).

*The story of a young East Indian in Trinidad. Set during the war years, this classic novel is informative about village life and the political changes occurring during that time.*

*Age Group: 14-16*

Chen, Willi. *The King of Carnival and Other Stories*. London: Hansib Publishing Company, 1988. Collection of stories capture the violence, trickery, pathos, and racial comedy of Trinidadian society.

*Age Group: 14-18*

James, C.L.R. *Minty Alley*. London: New Beacon, 1971 (1936).

Classic novel set in urban Trinidad, by one of the first Caribbean writers to make a reputation beyond the Caribbean. (James has also written books of social and political analysis)

*Age Group: 15-18*

Barret, Lindsay *Sing for Mumu*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., Ltd., 1967.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Belgrave, Velerie. *Ti Marie*. Oxford, English: Heinemann. 1988.

A passionate romantic tale of adventure of a girl of color, Elena, and a young Englishman set in Trinidad and the Southern Caribbean in the late 1970s.

*Age Group: 16-1*

Clarke, Austin. *The Bigger Light*. Toronto: Little, Brown, & Co. 1975.

An exposition about the separation of students from their West Indian culture, and their struggles with white, alien culture.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Edgell, Z. *Beka Lamb*. London: Heinemann, 1987.

A girl wins an essay prize at school, but finds conquering her habit of lying more difficult; portrait of ordinary life in Belize.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Gilroy, Beryl. *Frangipani House*. London: Heinemann, 1986.

Set in Guyana

*Age Group: 16-18*

Hodge, Merle. *Crick Crack Monkey*. London: Heinemann, 1970.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Kincaid, Jamaica. *Annie John*. Toronto: Collins, 1983.

The beautiful story of a girl growing up in Antigua.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Lovelace, Earl. *The Schoolmaster*. Oxford: Heinemann International, 1979.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Mais, Roger. *The Hills Were Joyful Together*. Oxford: Heinemann, 1981.

In a Jamaican setting, characters are in the repressed setting of the underclass.

*Age Group: 16-18*

Morris, Mervyn, Editor. *The Faber Book of Contemporary Caribbean Short Story*. London: Faber and Faber, Ltd. 1990.

*This collection includes stories now resident in Canada.*

*Age Group: 16-18*

Rhone, Trevor. *Old Story Time and Other Plays*. Essex: Longman Group, Ltd., 1982.

*Old Story Time comments on human values.*

*Age Group: 16-18*

Lamming, George, *In The Castle Of My Skin*. London: Longman, 1979 (1953).

Famous novel of adolescence in Barbados.

*Age Group: 17-18*

James, C.L.R. *Beyond a Boundary*. New York, Pantheon Books, 1983.

Memoir of boyhood in a Black colony, a celebration of the Game of cricket.

## **Language Readers**

Wilson, Don. Dennis Craig, and Hyacinth Campbell. *Language Materials Workshops; Primary Language Arts*. Heinemann Educational Books (Caribbean), Ltd., Language Arts Series.

Browne, Diane, and Peggy Campbell. *New Caribbean Junior Readers 1*. Aylesbury, England: Ginn and Company, Ltd., 1986.

## **Language Resource Guides**

Bonavita, Francesca. "Success for English-Creole Speaking Students with Language Disabilities: The Omega Program at Prospect Heights High School." *Adjustment of Caribbean Immigrants in New York Educational Dimensions*. New York: Caribbean Research Center, 1989, pp. 33-42.

Carrington, Lawrence D. "The Challenge of Caribbean Language in the Canadian Classroom." *TESL TALK*, vol. 14, No 4. 1993.

Folkes, Karl. *The Development of an Experimental Language Arts Program for Speakers of Caribbean English Creole*. Paper and Resources, pp. 1-18. Office of Bilingual Education, New York City Board of Education, June/July 1985.

Pollard, Velma. *From Jamaican Creole to Standard English: A Handbook for Teachers*. New York: Caribbean Research Center, 1993. May 1990.

Social Studies West Indian Culture and History

Ahyc, Molly. *Cradle of Caribbean Dance*. Petite Valley, Trinidad: Heritage Cultures, 1983.

Brathwaite, Edward. Editor. *The People Who Came: Book 1, Book 2, Book 3*. London: Longman, 1970-1972.

Clarke, Velta, and Reviere, E. W., Editors. *Establishing New Lives: Selected Reading on Caribbean Immigrants in New York City*, New York: Caribbean Research Center, 1989.

Irish, J. A. George, Sharon McNicol, and Tania Thomas. *Handbook for Immigrants: Some Educational and Social Issues in the USA*. New York: Caribbean Research Center, 1989.

Irish, J. A. George, B. Richards, and N. Seminoff, *Handbook for Jamaican Students Entering the United States*. New York: Union of Jamaican Alumni Association, 1994.

Resource Materials: Music/Films/Videos

Bennett, Louise. *Jamaica Labrish*. Kingston: Novelty Trading 1966. Audio Cassette.

Davis, Stephen, and Peter Simon. *Reggae International*. New York: Random House, 1982.

Smith, Michael Word. *Kingston: Light of Saba 1978/002: Me Cyan Believe It and Roots*. London: LKJ, 1980. Nine poems on *Me Cyan Believe It*. London: Island Records ILPS 9717.

BPN. "See Me Yah!" Series:

*West Indian Cultural and Historical Institutions*. 157504 20 minutes August 31, 1982.

*The Classroom Experience*. 157505 21 minutes. August 31, 1982.

*West Indian Literatures*, 157506 31 minutes. August 31, 1982.

*My Father Sun-Sun Johnson*. 125304 27 minutes. March 26, 1980.

*Seven Shades of Pale*. 14206 29 minutes. February 28, 1982.

*Only My Best Will Do*. 147805 20 minutes.

*Caribbean Eye*. Banyan Studios and UNESCO, Trinidad, 1991. Distributed by Crossbreed Productions, "Marie Villa" Garden Road #1. Worthing, Barbados, Series.

Thorn EMI IVB 1120. *The Harder They come*. 1972, Film.

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Cassidy, F. G. and LePage, R. B. *Dictionary of Jamaican English*. Cambridge University Press, 1980.

Holm, J. and Shilling, A. W. *Dictionary of Bahamian English*. New York: Lexik House, 1982.

Mondesir, J. and Carrington, L. D. *Dictionary of St. Lucien Creole*. Berlin: Mouron de Gruyter, 1992.

# APPENDIX D

## *SCL BIBLIOGRAPHY AND SCL PUBLICATIONS*

### ***SELECTED PUBLICATIONS ON CARIBBEAN LANGUAGE, LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS BY MEMBERS OF THE SOCIETY FOR CARIBBEAN LINGUISTICS (SCL)<sup>1</sup>***

Aceto, Michael and Jeffrey P. Williams *Contact Englishes of the Eastern Caribbean*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2003.

Alleyne, Mervyn C. *Syntaxe Historique Creole*. Paris: Karthala/Presses Universitaires Creoles, 1996.

Alleyne, Mervyn C. *Comparative Afro-American: An Historical-Comparative Study of English-based Afro-American Dialects of the New World*. Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma Publishers, Inc., 1980.

Alleyne, Mervyn C. *Studies in Saramaccan Language Structure*. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam, 1988.

Allevne, Mervyn C. *Theoretical Issues in Caribbean Linguistics*. Mona: The Language Laboratory, UWI, 1982.

Alleyne, Mervyn C. *Roots of Jamaican Culture*. London: Pluto Press, 1988.

Allsopp, Richard and Jeannette Allsopp, eds. *Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage, with a French and Spanish Supplement*. Oxford: OUP, 1996.

*Allsopp, Jeannette*. The Multilingual Caribbean Dictionary of Flora, Fauna and Foods in English, French, French Creole, and Spanish. *Kingston: Arawak Press, 2003*.

Arends, Jacques, Pieter Muysken and Norval Smith, eds. *Pidgins and Creoles: An Introduction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1995.

Aub-Buscher, Gertrud, et al. *The Francophone Caribbean Today: Literature, Language, Culture*. Mona: UWI Press, 2003.

Baker, Philip, ed. *From Contact to Creole and Beyond*. London: Battlebridge Publications, 1995.

Baker, Philip and Adrienne Bruyn, eds. *St. Kitts and the Atlantic Creoles. The Texts of Samuel Augustus Mathews in Perspective*. London: Battlebridge Publications, 1999.

<sup>1</sup> © Compiled by J. Ferreira – May 2003. Updated October 2003. Does not include unpublished works or articles.



- Baker, Philip and Anand Syya, eds. *Changing Meanings. Changing Functions. Grammaticalization in Contact Languages*. London: Battlebridge Publications, 1996.
- Byrne, Francis and Donald Winford, eds. *Focus and Grammatical Relations in Creole Languages*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1993.
- Carrington, Lawrence D. *St. Lucian Creole – A Descriptive Analysis of Its Phonology and Morpho-Syntax*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1984.
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- Christie, Pauline, ed. *Due Respect: Essays on English and English-Related Creoles in the Caribbean in Honour of Professor Robert Le Page*. Kingston: UWI Press, 2001.
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- Colot, Serge. *Guide de Lexicologie Creole – Pointe-a-Pitre: Ibis Rouge Editions/Presses Universitaires Creoles – GERECE-F, 2002*.
- Craig, Dennis. *Teaching Language and Literacy – Policies and Practices for Vernacular Situations*. Georgetown: EDS, 1999.
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- Hodge, Merle- *The Knots in English: A Manual for Caribbean Users*. Wellesley, MA: Calaloux Publications, 1997.
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- Muhleisen, Susanne, *Creole Discourse: Exploring Prestige Formation and Change Across Caribbean English-Lexicon Creoles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2002.

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Working Paper No. 1

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1973

Occasional Paper No. 2

ROBERTSON, Ian E. Dutch Creole in Guyana: Some Missing Links  
September 1974

Occasional Paper No. 3

HANCOCK, Ian F. Creole Features in the Speech of an Afro-Seminole Speaker of Bracketville,  
Texas  
May 1975

Occasional Paper No. 4

ROBERTSON, Ian E. Dutch Creole Speakers and Their Location in Guyana in the  
Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries

Occasional Paper No. 5

ROBERTSON, Ian E. A Preliminary Word List of Berbice Dutch  
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Occasional Paper No. 6

ALLSOPP, Richard. Africanisms in the Idiom of Caribbean English

Occasional Paper No. 7

HANCOCK, Ian F. Further Observations on Afro-Seminole Creole  
February 1978

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EDWARDS, Walter F. Sociolinguistic Models and Phonological Variation in Guyana

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LePAGE, Robert B. "Projection, Focussing, Diffusion," or Steps towards a Sociolinguistic  
Theory of language, illustrated from the Sociolinguistic Survey of Multilingual Communities.  
Stages I: Cayo District, Belize (formerly British Honduras), and II: St. Lucia  
July 1978

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CHRISTIE, Pauline. Assertive "No" in Jamaican Creole  
January 1979

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June 1979

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*October 1979*

Occasional Paper No. 14

BROADBRIDGE, Claire. Some Devices for Focus in Trinidadian

May 1980

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HUTTAR, George L. A Creole-Amerindian Pidgin of Suriname

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WATT SHILLING, Alison. Black English as a Creole: Some Bahamian Evidence

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August 1988

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AMASTAE, Jon. Complements of Factive and Inceptive Verbs in Dominican French Creole

October 1988

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AUB-BUSCHER, Gertrud. African Survivals in the Lexicon of Trinidad French-Based Creole

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Occasional Paper No. 24

DEVONISH, Hubert and Walter SEILER. A Reanalysis of the Phonological System of Jamaican Creole

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ROBERTS, Peter A. 'Have' and 'Be' in Caribbean Creoles: Elements of Continuity from Lexifier Languages

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JAGANAUTH, Dhanis. Time Reference in Two Creoles: the Non-Referential Component

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JAMES, Winford. The Noun Phrase in Tobagonian

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POLLARD, Velma The Role of Jamaican Creole in Language Education

April 2002