

The Two-Way Immersion Toolkit

Elizabeth Howard, Julie Sugarman, Marleny Perdomo, and Carolyn Temple Adger



THE EDUCATION ALLIANCE at Brown University

Since 1975, The Education Alliance, a department at Brown University, has helped the education community improve schooling for our children. We conduct applied research and evaluation, and provide technical assistance and informational resources to connect research and practice, build knowledge and skills, and meet critical needs in the field.

With offices in Rhode Island, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands, and a dedicated team of over 100 skilled professionals, we provide services and resources to K-16 institutions across the country and beyond. As we work with educators, we customize our programs to the specific needs of our clients.

Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory (LAB)

The Education Alliance at Brown University is home to the Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory (LAB), one of ten educational laboratories funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences. Our goals are to improve teaching and learning, advance school improvement, build capacity for reform, and develop strategic alliances with key members of the region's education and policymaking community.

The LAB develops educational products and services for school administrators, policymakers, teachers, and parents in New England, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Central to our efforts is a commitment to equity and excellence.

Information about all Alliance programs and services is available by contacting:

The Education Alliance	Phone: 800.521.9550
at Brown University	Fax: 401.421.7650
222 Richmond Street, Suite 300	E-mail: info@alliance.brown.edu
Providence, RI 02903-4226	Web: www.alliance.brown.edu

Editor: Damaris Rodríguez Teixeira

Designer: Sherri King-Rodrigues

CΔL

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is a private, non-profit organization: a group of scholars and educators who use the findings of linguistics and related sciences in identifying and addressing language-related problems. CAL carries out a wide range of activities including research, teacher education, analysis and dissemination of information, design and development of instructional materials, technical assistance, conference planning, program evaluation, and policy analysis.

Editors: Elizabeth Howard, Julie Sugarman, Marleny Perdomo, Carolyn Temple Adger

Copyright ©2005 Brown University. All rights reserved.

This publication is based on work supported by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), U.S. Department of Education, under Contract Number ED-01-CO-0010. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of IES, the U.S. Department of Education, or any other agency of the U.S. Government.

Acknowledgments

This Toolkit represents the collective efforts of a large group of people who share a special interest in twoway immersion education and who contributed their time, energy, and creativity to the project.

For their contributions to the six lesson plans, we would like to thank Katrin Beinroth, International Charter School, Pawtucket, RI; Hiroko Darnall, Thomas Dooley School, Schaumburg, IL; Kim Leimer, International Charter School, Pawtucket, RI; Michael Ilan Loeb, PS 89—Cypress Hills Community School, Brooklyn, NY; Berky Lugo-Salcedo, PS 89—Cypress Hills Community School, Brooklyn, NY; Ana Inés Rubinstein, PS 89— Cypress Hills Community School, Brooklyn, NY; and Cristina Sandza-Donovan, Barbieri School, Framingham, MA.

For their contributions to the development of the two Q&A documents, we would like to thank Igone Arteagoita, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC; Margarita Calderón, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD; Mary Cazabon, Cambridge Public Schools, Cambridge, MA; Nancy Cloud, Rhode Island College, Providence, RI; Ester de Jong, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL; Kathy Escamilla, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO; Erminda García, Morris K. Udall Escuela de Bellas Artes, Phoenix, AZ; Else Hamayan, Illinois Resource Center, Des Plaines, IL; Linda Hardman, Nestor Language Academy, San Diego, CA; Kathryn Lindholm-Leary, San José State University, San José, CA; Patricia Martínez, Key School, Arlington, VA; Danette Meyer, School District 54, Schaumburg IL; Marjorie Myers, Key School, Arlington, VA; Ngoc-Diep Thi Nguyen, School District 54, Schaumburg IL; Deborah Short, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC; Cheryl Urow, Illinois Resource Center, Des Plaines, IL; and Marcia Vargas, 2-Way CABE, Covina, CA.

Finally, we would like to express our gratitude to Donald A. Ranard, a consulting editor to the Center for Applied Linguistics, for his assistance in editing the materials in the Toolkit. We would also like to thank the six internal and external reviewers for their feedback on an earlier version of this document.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction	3
Program Design and Implementation	7
Online Resources	7
Classroom Instruction	9
Q&A	9
Introduction	9
Language Development	
Literacy Instruction	
Cross-Cultural Competence	35
Assessment	
Supporting Special Student Populations	43
Teacher Supports	55
Model Lesson Plans	63
Introduction	63
First Grade Math (Japanese — Telling Time)	67
Third Grade Math (English — Tangrams)	
Third Grade Dance (Spanish)	93
Second Grade Library (English)	
Samples of Student Work (Treasure Hunt Worksheet)	
Fourth Grade Language Arts (English)	
Fifth Grade Language Arts (Spanish — Proverbs)	
Lesson Plan	
Supplementary Instructional Materials	
Study Guide	
Additional Resources	
Parental Involvement	
TWI Overview (English)	
TWI Overview (Spanish)	
Parents TWI Q&A (English)	

Parents TWI Q&A (Spanish)	187
Home-School Communication Template (English)	99
Home-School Communication Template (Spanish)	202
Additional Resources (English)	205
Additional Resources (Spanish)	210
Glossary	215
Appendix: Red Folder Process	217

INTRODUCTION

This Toolkit is meant to be a resource for teachers, parents, and administrators involved with twoway immersion (TWI) programs, particularly those at the elementary level. Two-way immersion is a form of dual language instruction that brings together students from two native language groups for language, literacy, and academic content instruction through two languages. While all forms of dual language instruction share the goals of promoting bilingualism and biliteracy development, gradelevel academic achievement, and positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors in all students, only TWI programs have relatively equal numbers of native speakers of both languages of instruction. In the United States, these two groups are native English language speakers and native speakers of another language, usually Spanish. Because of the integrated nature of the programs and the fact that instruction is provided to all students through both languages, TWI programs allow students to be both language learners and language models for their peers. For a more indepth discussion of the critical features of TWI programs, see *Two-Way Immersion 101: Designing and Implementing a Two-Way Immersion Program at the Elementary Level* (Howard & Christian, 2003) (http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm).

The success of two-way immersion education (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 1997, 2002), coupled with the increasing awareness that the United States needs linguistically competent and cross-culturally savvy citizens (Peyton, Ranard, & Mcginninis, 2001) has led to the growing popularity of the programs. Over the last 20 years, the number of TWI programs has increased dramatically, from only 30 documented programs in 1987 (Lindholm, 1987) to more than 300 programs in more than 25 states by 2005 (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2005).

However, as the need for teachers who are specialized in teaching in TWI programs has grown, only a handful of teacher preparation programs address the special conditions that TWI teachers face. (For a list of these teacher preparation programs, see http://www.cal.org/twi/FAQ. htm#pd_inst). Two-way immersion presents additional pedagogical and logistical challenges for teachers, as TWI teachers must help two groups of students with varying degrees of proficiency in the two languages of instruction achieve grade-level academic competence as well as language and literacy skills in both languages. Teachers must also help students develop cross-cultural skills, and the teachers themselves must be able to deal effectively and sensitively with culturally and linguistically diverse families. Furthermore, the logistical demands of TWI are often very challenging, as teachers frequently work in teams, with one member providing instruction in English and the other member providing instruction in the other language. This teaming approach requires a high level of coordination across teacher partners, and also places additional administrative demands on the teachers (e.g. report cards, parent conferences, etc.), as they are frequently responsible for a greater number of students in total than the typical elementary classroom teacher. The increased pedagogical and logistical demands on TWI teachers likewise present new challenges for administrators, who must not only work to support individual teachers in their roles and to elicit parental involvement from a frequently diverse group of parents, but also to provide leadership as to the necessary systems and supports at the program level that will enable the program to function cohesively.

This Toolkit is designed to meet the growing demand from teachers, administrators, and parents for guidance related to the effective implementation of TWI programs. Although the Toolkit is primarily intended to support teachers, administrators, and parents who are new to two-way immersion, those with experience in TWI may also find the Toolkit useful. The Toolkit is composed of three segments that address program design and planning, classroom instruction, and parental involvement, respectively. Because a lot of work has already been done in the area of program design, the program design and implementation segment does not include original material, but rather, summarizes useful resources that are already available to the public. The classroom instruction segment is the largest of the three segments, as this is an area where less attention has been focused up to this point. This segment includes a Question & Answer (Q&A) document on teaching in TWI programs; model lesson plans that show how best practices are implemented in the TWI classroom; a study guide to facilitate the use of the Q&A document and model lessons for professional development; and additional resources on effective instructional practices in TWI programs. The parental involvement segment is designed to be used by teachers and administrators in order to help promote stronger home-school connections, but of course parents are welcome to access the materials directly as well. Dual language parents were involved in the development of the materials in this section in an effort to make them parent-friendly, but teachers and administrators may choose to tailor the materials further to meet the specific needs of the parent

population in their particular program. This segment includes an overview of two-way immersion, a Q&A document that addresses questions and concerns that parents frequently have, a home-school communication template designed to help classroom teachers facilitate strong home-school connections, and additional resources that include suggested readings on parent involvement in two-way immersion programs and links to resources that parents may find useful. All of the parent materials are available in Spanish as well as English, as Spanish is the predominant partner language in most TWI programs in the United States.

Within and across the three segments, there is repetition of key ideas. This repetition is intentional, as the Toolkit is designed so that each component is accessible and comprehensible independent of other components. That is, because this is a web-based product, we assume that many readers will choose to access only those components that are of greatest interest to them. As a result, we have made the decision to repeat information at times in order to ensure that each component is self-explanatory. In addition, throughout the Toolkit, certain terms that may not be familiar to all readers are highlighted, and an explanation of the term can be found by simply clicking on it.

We hope that the materials included in this toolkit will be a useful resource to teachers, administrators, and parents, and that they will help to promote stronger program design and implementation, better instructional practices, and improved home-school connections in TWI programs across the country.

References

- Center for Applied Linguistics. (2005). Directory of two-way bilingual immersion programs in the U.S. Retrieved August 29, 2005 from http://www.cal.org/twi/directory.
- Howard, E.R. & Christian, D. (2003). Two-Way Immersion 101: Designing and Implementing a Two-Way Immersion Program at the Elementary Level. Educational Practice Report 9.
 Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence and the Center for Applied Linguistics: Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC.
- Lindholm, K.J. (1987). Directory of bilingual immersion programs. Educational Report No. 8. Los Angeles: Center for Language Education and Research, UCLA.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual Language Education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- Peyton, J. K., Ranard, D. A., & McGinnis, S. (Eds.). (2001). Heritage languages in America: Preserving a national resource. Washington, DC, and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (1997). School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students. Washington, DC: NCBE. Available: http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/ncbepubs/resource/effectiveness/index.htm.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (2002). A National Study of School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students' Long-Term Academic Achievement. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Available: http://www.crede.ucsc.edu/ research/llaa/ 1.1_final.html.

PROGRAM DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION: Online Resources

Development and Maintenance of Two-Way Immersion Programs: Advice from Practitioners (2001) by Julie Sugarman and Elizabeth R. Howard. http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/PracBrief2.htm

Dual Language Program Planner: A Guide for Designing and Implementing Dual Language Programs (2003) by Elizabeth R. Howard, Natalie Olague and David Rogers. http://calstore.cal.org/store/detail.aspx?ID=134

Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education (2005) by Elizabeth R. Howard, Kathryn Lindholm-Leary, Julie Sugarman, Donna Christian, and David Rogers. http://www.cal.org/twi/guidingprinciples.htm

Implementing Two-Way Immersion Programs in Secondary Schools (2000) by Christopher Montone and Michael Loeb.

http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR5.htm

Online Resource Guide for Two-Way (Dual) Immersion by Elizabeth R. Howard. http://www.cal.org/resources/faqs/rgos/2way.html

Program Alternatives for Linguistically Diverse Students (1998) edited by Fred Genesee. http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR1.htm

Trends in Two-Way Immersion Education: A Review of the Research (2003) by Elizabeth R. Howard, Julie Sugarman, and Donna Christian.

http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/report63.pdf

Two-Way Immersion 101: Designing and Implementing a Two-Way Immersion Education Program at the Elementary Level (2003) by Elizabeth R. Howard and Donna Christian. http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm

Additional Resources on CAL's TWI web page

Directory of Two-Way Bilingual Programs in the United States http://www.cal.org/twi/directory

Publications, Products, and Online Resources from CAL/CREDE Researchers http://www.cal.org/pubs/twoway_p.html

Frequently Asked Questions About Two-Way Immersion http://www.cal.org/twi/FAQ.htm

Comprehensive Bibliography of Two-Way Immersion Research http://www.cal.org/twi/BIB.htm

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION: Questions and Answers

Introduction

This Question and Answer (Q&A) document is meant to provide guidance on important aspects of instruction in TWI classrooms, such as language and literacy development, working with special student populations, and teacher preparation and support. To generate the questions, we visited two new TWI programs (a 50/50 program on the East Coast and a 90/10 program on the West Coast) and brainstormed questions with teachers in those programs.

We then grouped the questions into sections by theme: Language Development, Literacy Instruction, Cross-Cultural Competence, Assessment, Supporting Special Student Populations, and Teacher Supports. Next, we solicited responses for each thematic chunk from experts in the field. The experts (who are listed as contributors in the acknowledgements section of this document) have varying experiences in dual language education, as teachers, administrators, parents, teacher trainers, and researchers; many, in fact, have had multiple roles. In an effort to ensure that each answer represents consensus in the field on a given topic rather than the personal beliefs of an individual respondent, we solicited responses from two to five experts for each question. Finally, we synthesized the multiple responses into a single, unified answer to each question. Where possible, links to supporting documents referenced in the answers (such as guidelines for the identification of students with special needs) are provided as well.

When reading through the Q&A responses, it is important to keep a few things in mind. First, while we attempted to ensure consensus in the field by soliciting input from multiple experts for each question, it is certainly possible that there are other equally valid answers that are not included here, or that some answers provided here are not appropriate in certain contexts. Second, to the extent possible, the research base in support of the responses is provided; however, in some cases, no research exists to provide guidance. In those cases, the responses are based on the experts' accumulated experiential knowledge and anecdotal evidence with regard to best practices. For both of these reasons, the reader should not think of the answers as definitive responses that will always apply in every situation. Ultimately, it is the responsibility of each reader to consider his or her context and determine the extent to which these answers apply in that setting.

Finally, while these are questions posed by TWI teachers, in many cases the question and its answer could also apply to other language learning situations, such as transitional bilingual or English as a second language (ESL) education. This is not overly surprising, as most educational settings for second language learners share important characteristics and face similar challenges. However, to the extent possible, we provide responses specific to two-way immersion as well as vignettes from TWI programs to help clarify how the issue would play out in a TWI setting.

Language Development

Why do TWI programs strictly separate the two languages for instruction? Is there research to support this practice?

It is important that two-way immersion teachers help their students access each language of instruction through that language. Exposing them to consistent periods of instruction through each language is one way to help them figure out how the language works. Systematic translation of information is ineffective and can undermine students' second language development for several reasons:

- If students know that a translation in their stronger language will be provided, they are likely to tune out instruction in their weaker language.
- Teachers who rely on translation are less likely to make appropriate accommodations for comprehensible input through the second language—that is, they are less likely to try to adapt the language of instruction to the learners' level of comprehension.
- Translation is likely to be biased towards English during instructional time in Spanish or other partner languages. Too much reliance on translation can significantly reduce the time spent working in and through the partner language.

For these reasons, the importance of language separation is supported by dual language researchers in *Dual Language Instruction:* A Handbook for Enriched Education by Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan (2000) as well as *Dual Language Essentials for Teachers and Administrators* by Freeman, Freeman, and Mercuri (2005).

However, this is not to say that the two program languages should never be used simultaneously during instruction. Classroom discussions *about* language, such as cross-linguistic comparisons of vocabulary (e.g., cognates) are appropriate contexts for using both program languages together, as this type of joint use can strengthen students' development in each language as well as foster important links between the two languages (August, Calderón, & Carlo, 2002; Carlo, August, McLaughlin, Snow, Dressler, Lippman, Lively, & White, 2004). Similarly, because of the inevitable language shifts that occur when two different language communities come together, many Spanish-speaking communities in the United States speak a blended variety of Spanish and English, and it can be appropriate to provide opportunities for students in these communities to use such

hybrid language forms on occasion (Hadi-Tabassum, 2002). Such conscious teaching strategies support bilingual development by building on all the linguistic resources that students have and helping students to recognize sociocultural cues about when it is appropriate to use standard or non-standard forms of a language. However, TWI teachers must be **very** judicious in their simultaneous use of both program languages, and be conscious of how, why, and when they adopt this practice. The simultaneous use of both languages for translation of academic content is clearly not recommended.

In the 50/50 dual language programs of School District 54 in Schaumburg, IL (http://web54.sd54. k12.il.us/index.asp), teachers have found that when language separation is maintained in time, place, teacher, and content, students' language production in the partner language increases over time. They have observed this in Grades 2, 3, 5, and 6 in both their English-Spanish and English-Japanese programs.

Because research has shown that a natural language environment encourages the development of communication skills (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982), the Key Elementary immersion program in Arlington,VA, Public Schools (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml) promotes the development of a natural language environment and uses this as a guiding principle for their classrooms. As a result, the program discourages the use of translation because it disrupts the natural flow of speech. Teachers believe that if they have high expectations for their students and utilize appropriate instructional strategies, the students will make great progress in the two languages of the program.

Finally, while translation of academic content is not considered an appropriate teaching strategy in TWI settings, it can be appropriate to teach students translation and interpretation skills at the secondary level, when their language and literacy skills in both languages have reached high levels. For example, the International Studies Program in the Cambridge, MA Public School District (http://www.cpsd.us/cpsdir/Biling_intlCRLS.cfm) provides courses in medical and legal interpretation. These kinds of courses prepare students for jobs that capitalize on the students' bilingualism and biliteracy, and are therefore quite appropriate at the secondary level.

2. How long does it usually take students to start understanding and then start speaking in their second language? Does the rate vary by native language and program model?

The answer to this question depends on a number of factors. First, individual student factors such as age, personality, and gender influence the rate of second language acquisition. Early research on foreign language immersion found that a student's positive attitude and motivation contribute to the achievement of additive bilingualism (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, Lambert & Tucker, 1972). Second, instructional factors such as program model and the quality of the instructional environment also play a role in second language acquisition. Studies have shown that while the English language and literacy skills of native Spanish speakers in 90/10 programs are initially lower than those of native Spanish speakers in 50/50 programs, there are no differences between the two groups by the upper elementary or secondary grades. Conversely, for native English speakers, Spanish language and literacy skills of students in 90/10 programs are consistently higher than those of students in 50/50 programs at all grade levels (Lindholm-Leary & Howard, in press; Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Finally, sociocultural factors such as the language of the wider society and the extent to which each of the languages of instruction is valued and used in the community also play a role in second language acquisition. For more indepth resources on second language acquisition, see the annotated bibliography of materials for classroom instruction.

In School District 54 in Schaumburg, IL (http://web54.sd54.k12.il.us/index.asp), students start understanding classroom routines and simple phrases in their second language a few weeks after starting in the 50/50 dual language program. However, the rate of comprehension seems to vary between the two language groups. The majority of the English language learners have little difficulty understanding most of what is said to them in English by the end of first grade or the beginning of second grade. For children who are learning Spanish or Japanese, listening comprehension skills take longer. By the end of second grade or the beginning of third, these students understand much of what is said as long as it concerns a concrete topic. They often have difficulty if the speaker changes the topic or discusses something abstract. For English language learners, language production doesn't seem to lag far behind listening comprehension. In first grade most of the students respond in English when spoken to in English. Their vocabulary and knowledge of English sentence structure may be limited, but students seldom respond in Spanish when spoken to in English. For native English speakers, however, speaking proficiency generally takes longer to develop. They often don't respond in Spanish or Japanese when spoken to in those languages during first grade, unless specifically prompted to do so. They are also more likely to respond in the partner language if the question requires only a single word answer or uses a sentence pattern they have reviewed frequently. By the end of second grade, students use their second language more often to answer in class, but even in third grade some students will only speak in Spanish or Japanese when specifically prompted or reminded.

In Key's 50/50 program in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure. shtml), students begin to show comprehension of their second language within the first week of instruction. They are exposed to basic vocabulary and commands in their second language from the first day they arrive in school. The teacher models and repeats simple commands such as "Sit down," "Get up," and "Raise your hand," and asks the students to "act something out" or repeat what she does. By observing the teacher modeling the behavior and by seeing their peers respond to their teacher's commands, students are provided with a context for the new words they are learning.

Because the teacher repeats the same commands and follows a daily routine consistently, some students begin to show an understanding of these commands as early as the first week in the program. Two or three weeks after starting the program, students answer simple questions such as "How are you?" and "What day of the week is it?" with one word answers, such as "Fine" and "Monday." Initially students provide choral responses (whole group responses). Later, teachers direct questions to individual students. Many times the native speakers of the language of instruction volunteer the answer if a student doesn't know how to reply. By repeating what another student says, the second language learner begins to internalize vocabulary and language structures. By the second year in the program, most students can express themselves in full (if not totally correct) sentences.

3. How do you encourage students to use the language of instruction, particularly when it is the minority language? How do you get students to take risks when they are speaking in their second language?

There are many things that both teachers and parents can do to encourage learners to use the language of instruction and take risks with it.

At school, teachers establish the conditions for language use through the lesson planning process. In planning lessons, teachers make sure that they not only provide second language learners comprehensible input—that is, language they can understand—but also encourage communicative language output. This is the full cycle of second language development that teachers promote: making language comprehensible to the students (receptive language) and promoting language use on the part of the students (expressive language) (Cloud & Hamayan, 2005). Through careful planning, teachers first create activities to develop students' comprehension of the language needed to understand lesson content, and then they create tasks in which students actively use the language of instruction so that it can be fully acquired.

In effective lessons, teachers set up tasks in which meaningful communication takes place around the particular content being taught and in which learners are provided many opportunities to use the target vocabulary and expressions. For example, students might report what they noticed during a class experiment or in a story they have read, or they might work in pairs, taking turns asking and answering questions about the content. Effective teachers establish conditions in the classroom that encourage language use, and they provide feedback in a nonthreatening and supportive way (e.g., by praising students' efforts to speak in the language of instruction and honoring their attempts to communicate in that language). Effective TWI teachers also use stage-appropriate language—that is, language that matches a student's developmental level so that he or she can participate at or close to his or her proficiency level. Some students might point to an illustration, others might give a one word or short phrase response, and still others might give a full explanation.

In the classroom, there are many things that teachers can do to encourage students to use the language of instruction and to take risks with it.

- Provide a nurturing environment from the beginning of the year in which students feel comfortable taking risks with language. Respect students and expect them to respect each other and each other's mistakes. Provide feedback in a nonthreatening and supportive way (e.g., by praising students' efforts to speak in the language of instruction and honoring their attempts to communicate in it).
- Provide ample opportunities for speaking. This requires that teachers monitor the amount of time they themselves spend talking. Show genuine interest when students talk.
- Set up tasks in which meaningful communication takes place around the particular content being taught.
- Have a clear understanding of which language goals can be maximized in a lesson, and provide the students with model sentences they can use when speaking. For instance, for formulating a hypothesis during a science experiment, the teacher may provide the sentence frame for the students to use: "If I add water to the solution, then (this will happen)." This kind of support will make the students feel more secure about how to say what they have in mind.
- Use stage-appropriate language—language that matches the student's developmental levels—so that each student can participate at his or her proficiency level. In response to a question, one student might point to an illustration, another might give a one word or short phrase response, and a third might give a full explanation.
- Provide second language learners with basic interactional phrases to keep the conversation going. This focus on social language is often overlooked in teaching the partner language in particular. It can include phrases such as "How do you say _____ in Spanish," "It's my turn," and "Can I have _____?"
- Know that students will make mistakes and do not attempt to correct all of them (see Question # 4). It takes years to master a language.
- Consider setting up age-appropriate reward systems to motivate the students to use the second language, keeping in mind the varying cultural views, understandings, and practices concerning the use of rewards among students and their families.

• Praise, praise, praise. Again, it is important to be mindful about potential cultural differences with regard to the use of praise for students in the classroom.

In the 50/50 dual language programs in School District 54 in Schaumburg, IL (http://web54.sd54. k12.il.us/index.asp), teachers have tried different approaches to encouraging second language use, with various degrees of success. At one school, the parent teacher association sponsors the "I got caught speaking my second language" program. A student "caught" using the second language receives a ticket, which is entered in a weekly lottery. Another strategy is for teachers to add a pebble to a jar when students use their second language or when they help another student to use his or her second language. A full jar results in a class party. None of these extrinsic rewards is necessary when students are in the English language domain. Either students are intrinsically motivated to speak English, or the extrinsic motivators are already in the environment and the teacher does not need to create them.

Parents also have a role to play in getting their children to use their second language. They can provide their children with audio- and video-recorded materials (recorded books and songs, DVDs, or videos) in the second language. Parents can also create opportunities for language use by taking their child to places where the second language is used, such as restaurants, stores, and libraries. They can also work to establish family friendships across linguistic boundaries so that native English speakers and English language learners participating in the program interact outside of school (e.g., at parties, picnics, etc.) All of this needs to be made enjoyable for the learner so that language learning is not drudgery or mandatory (see Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000, pp. 55-61, 67-82); Downs-Reid, 1997; Gibbons, 1993, p. 11; LaVan, 2001).

4. How do you know when to correct a child's error and when to let it go? How do you try to prevent the fossilization of errors?

In *Dual Language Instruction:* A Handbook for Enriched Instruction (Cloud et. al., 2000, pp. 78-79), the authors suggest that teachers always keep the focus on meaningful communication and demonstrate genuine interest in what students are attempting to communicate in the language of instruction. Yet some researchers (e.g., Lyster, 1998) have noted that *form-focused intervention* may be required

in order for students to change their communicative behavior and that *soft correction* (e.g., gentle feedback and modeling the correct form) may not be sufficient to change students' language output. This would be especially true if students' errors are already fossilized or entrenched in their speech patterns.

In form-focused intervention, students are made explicitly aware of an error. They attempt to correct the mistake themselves, and once they are aware of the error and how to correct it, the teacher provides many opportunities for practice so that the new behavior is internalized. As a general rule, when the number of errors made is quite high (in the early stages of proficiency), correction is low and the focus is on the meaning of the communication. Once errors naturally decrease (at later stages of proficiency), teachers make learners aware of the remaining errors in their speech that they have not been able to work out on their own. Writing is a good place to work on errors because they are more visible. Effective teachers always have a particular focus of intervention in mind. Rather than pointing out every error in a child's speech or text, they focus on a feature of language that is giving the student particular difficulty. They might teach a mini-lesson on that feature and then provide practice opportunities and continuing feedback until the target feature or pattern is fully acquired.

Teachers in the Key 50/50 immersion program in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12. va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml), believe that it is impossible and counterproductive to attempt to correct every error students make. If, for instance, the student is explaining her mathematical reasoning but her flow of speech is constantly disrupted by the teacher, she may be discouraged from participating in class the next time. Or the teacher and students may lose track of the content goals for the lesson.

At the same time, teachers at Key believe that correcting the students' language is important, and it should be done early on to prevent the fossilization of errors. To do this, teachers need to have clear language goals for the students – they need to understand *what* should be corrected and *when*. Curriculum guides such as the *Arlington (VA) Public Schools Curriculum Framework* provide teachers with the specific language goals students need to develop at each grade level. By having both a content goal and a language goal for the unit, teachers can zero in on grammatical structures

that are targeted in the unit of study and concentrate on correcting only those structures during the content lesson. This allows teachers to maximize language learning without losing track of the content goals.

5. How do you determine if a child is experiencing a language delay? What do you do in that case?

According to Roseberry-McKibbin (2002), to assess a true language delay or disorder, both the native and second languages must be evaluated, with particular attention to the learner's performance in the native language. If there are language delays, the difficulties will be apparent in the native language as well as the second language, and they will be apparent in a variety of settings other than the school (e.g., at home and in the community) and with communication partners other than the teacher (e.g., family members and peers).

Some of the indicators of language delay that Roseberry-McKibbin (2002, pp. 221-222) recommends looking for are as follows:

- Difficulty learning language (especially the native language) at a normal rate, even with special assistance
- Deficits in vocabulary (especially in the native language)
- Communication difficulties at home and in interaction with peers from a similar background
- Family history of special education and learning difficulties
- Slower language development than siblings as reported by parents
- Over-reliance on gestures rather than speech (in the native language)
- Need for frequent repetition and prompts (especially in the native language) during instruction

Children with language delays should not be excluded from the TWI program unless their primary language is seriously restricted and the teacher and speech pathologist conclude that the student's native language needs to be strengthened prior to the introduction of a second language. As Genesee, Paradis, and Crago (2004, pp. 212) note,

"Parents and professionals alike should not have stereotyped assumptions about the value of bilingualism for children and about children's capacity to learn two languages. We know that in appropriate circumstances, children, even those with language impairment, have the capacity to learn two languages. Professionals and parents need to assess whether the circumstances that a given child is in are conducive to dual language learning. They should never automatically assume that having two languages is the exclusive domain of children with typical development."

In any case, English language learners with language delays cannot be prevented from having to deal with two languages since they are naturally exposed to both; therefore, it is better for them to do so with the support and guidance of teachers and parents who can help them generalize new linguistic behaviors across their two language environments (Cloud, 2002, p. 122). For example, a native-Spanish-speaking child with language delay could be taught to describe objects and actions in both Spanish and English. The reality of bilingual learners' experience is that they must cross linguistic boundaries. Teachers and parents should assist them to do so.

Once a child in a TWI program is identified as language delayed/disordered, how should mandated speech and language services be provided? It is generally best for the speech pathologist to "push in" to the TWI classroom and provide support directly to the student in the instructional setting of the classroom, and indirectly by helping the TWI teachers understand how to support the child's communicative attempts in both languages.

For more information on identifying students with language disorders, see Response #1 in the section "Supporting Special Student Populations."

6. What teaching strategies are effective for promoting language development?

There are many effective, research-based strategies that aid second language development. Several sources provide a wealth of information about this topic (see Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cloud et al., 2000; Echevarria, Vogt & Short, 2004; Gibbons, 2002; Herrell & Jordan, 2004). For example, in *Dual Language Instruction: A Handbook for Enriched Education* (Cloud et al., 2000 chaps 4, 5, 6;

see also the glossary in Appendix A), the authors highlight various effective strategies. These include Total Physical Response, shared story telling, songs, role play, simulations, demonstrations, experiments, cooperative learning, read alouds, shared reading, independent reading with leveled texts, learning logs and journals, interviews, literature response groups, use of charts and graphic organizers, group research projects, and student generated problems. Some strategies are designed to develop receptive skills and others are designed to provide language practice and promote expressive language. Teachers need to be well versed in all of these teaching strategies so that they can select the appropriate strategy for their purpose and vary instruction to make it interesting and enjoyable to learners.

A general principle of language teaching today is to provide students with language input they can understand and opportunities to use and practice that language. This principle implies that teachers must provide comprehensible input and provide authentic communicative tasks. Strategies for providing comprehensible input include modifying teacher language; using visuals, realia, and graphic organizers to provide nonverbal support; and building on students' background knowledge and experiences. Strategies for encouraging communication include cooperative learning structures to increase peer interaction and extending student responses by asking clarification or expansion questions.

In addition, teachers need to identify language development objectives as an integral part of their content teaching. These goals may differ for native speakers and second language learners within a thematic unit or a particular level. Without such objectives, it is unlikely that students will acquire all aspects of social and academic language proficiency.

In the 50/50 immersion programs in School District 54 in Schaumburg, IL (http://web54.sd54.k12. il.us/index.asp), teaching strategies such as the Total Physical Response Method designed to create comprehensible input are used during the preproduction and early production stages because they are effective for building receptive language. In addition, the Language Experience Approach is used with students at this level because it allows them to build language as they participate in activities that they can understand and then recount. Teachers write down (usually on the blackboard) what students dictate, thus promoting literacy development in the second language as well. Once students are able to answer questions, teachers find that sentence starters are an effective way to scaffold language production and encourage students to speak at length. Students who are beginning to speak and who have also developed basic literacy skills can benefit from vocabulary learning strategies such as instruction in prefixes, suffixes, word families, and cognates between languages. Students at higher levels of proficiency need to be exposed to language and texts that are understandable to them but that contain some new words and more complex structures so that they can continually build the vocabulary and fluency necessary to become proficient in the second language.

The following are some strategies that are used by immersion teachers in the 50/50 program at Key Elementary in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml):

- Identify the vocabulary that students will need to comprehend a lesson and preteach this vocabulary before the lesson.
- Identify both content and language objectives for all lessons.
- Slow down speech when necessary.
- Generate questions that promote higher order thinking but use varying levels of linguistic complexity depending upon the proficiency level of each student.
- Provide an environment that is rich in print. This includes word walls, labels for everyday items, and vocabulary lists that are tied to the content being studied in class.
- Provide plenty of high-interest reading materials (fiction and nonfiction) at various reading levels.
- Make sure the students have free time in which they can use the language of instruction to talk about their own interests.
- Use plenty of songs. Use commercially produced songs, and have students compose their own.
- Have students work in cooperative learning groups. Regroup when necessary.
- Assign individual work with clear guidelines and expectations.
- Plan activities that involve Total Physical Response.
- Include role-playing activities not only during the language arts period, but also in the content areas.
- Use drama and dance in class.

7. How does putting students in bilingual pairs (one native speaker and one second language learner) provide opportunities for language development for both students?

In paired interactions, students may be grouped together in one of two ways. They may be grouped in homogeneous pairs in which two students of the same language background and approximate proficiency level work together. Or they may be grouped in heterogeneous pairs in which one student is a native speaker of the language and the other, a second language learner. There are advantages to each arrangement, and the teacher's purpose determines which one to choose. In the homogeneous pairs, students receive social support for language learning in a low-risk environment established because the children perform at comparable levels of language proficiency. However, the main reason to mix students from two language backgrounds in TWI programs is so that they can serve as language models and supports for one another. The practice of putting students in bilingual pairs reinforces a native speaker's knowledge of the language and gives him or her a heightened status in the classroom. For the non-native speaker, the bilingual pairing is an opportunity to practice the language in a more relaxed setting than in front of the entire class.

Whichever pairing is used, a specific task structure must be created to ensure that students will use the language of instruction and provide helpful feedback to one another. Task structures in cooperative learning activities ensure active participation and specific roles for both learners. Dyads (pairs) are the ideal group size for cooperative language learning because they ensure opportunities for more or less simultaneous participation, as opposed to the sequential participation that typically occurs in whole group instruction. Dyads also maximize practice opportunities. In pairs, students participate at least 50% of the time if the activities are well constructed, whereas in whole class instruction an individual spends most of the time waiting for a turn to speak.

Here are some other issues to consider when pairing native and non-native speakers:

• Working with a native speaker can be intimidating rather than facilitating, resulting in less talk between the students. It is important to establish a climate of respect and support in the classroom and in the cooperative activities in particular.

- If native speakers do not have the needed academic content knowledge or academic language skills, their role as models may be limited and may in fact cause stress and a sense of failure. Teachers must ensure that native speakers can assume the role they're intended to play.

8. How do you challenge native speakers while keeping the language level manageable for second language learners?

In order to challenge native speakers, yet keep instruction manageable for second language learners, teachers must engage in *double planning*: First they plan the lesson with native speakers in mind and then they return to the plan and make accommodations for their second language learners. Through this process, they will think about the background knowledge and experiences of each group of students, the materials they will use to support instruction, the scaffolding techniques they will use for the second language learners, the grouping arrangements that will support both groups' learning, and the assessments they will design.

One key strategy that teachers use to challenge native speakers while keeping the language level manageable for second language learners is to vary their questioning techniques. For second language learners, teachers pose questions that are at their level of language proficiency, ranging from those that require only a physical response (such as pointing) or one-word answers for students at the lowest levels of language proficiency, to questions that require longer, more elaborated responses for those at higher levels of language proficiency. At the same time, teachers ask more linguistically sophisticated questions to the native speakers, thus ensuring that they are using rich academic language and continuing to develop their first language skills. In either case, it is important for the teacher to be sure that she is promoting higher order thinking through her questioning techniques for all students. This is more difficult to do in the case of students with limited language proficiency, but it is still possible (e.g. "Point to the largest animal;" "Would you rather live in the desert or in the mountains?" or (using a graphic organizer such as a T chart and

labeled pictures of many animals) "Which animals live in the desert? Which animals live in the mountains?") For both groups of learners, effective teachers use questions that are interesting to answer and cognitively and conceptually challenging, and they avoid low-level display questions that ask children to parrot back information that is self-evident.

Another helpful approach is the use of flexible grouping. There may be times when grouping by native language is appropriate for specific purposes. For example, two bilingual fifth grade TWI teachers realized that their native English speakers needed basic grammar instruction; they also realized that these grammar lessons would be boring and unnecessary for the native Spanish speakers. Therefore, they divided their students by native language background for two 45 periods each week for a period of several weeks. One teacher worked with the native English speakers on aspects of Spanish grammar in context (in Spanish), while the other teacher worked on critical thinking and academic vocabulary development with the Spanish speakers, also in Spanish.

As in this example, however, it is important to keep in mind that this type of homogeneous grouping is only appropriate for short periods of time when there are clear pedagogical reasons for it. Otherwise, there is the risk of compromising the model, both in terms of the amount of time that the two native language groups are integrated and the amount of instruction provided to all students through both languages. This is particularly the case in 50/50 programs, where the amount of instructional time in the partner language is already at the minimum and/or where students are already separated for a good portion of the day for literacy instruction through their native language. Ensuring that specials (art, music, PE, library, etc.) are included in the time allocations for each language is one way to help ensure that the chosen language balance (i.e. 90/10, 50/50, etc.) is maintained.

9. How do you help students perform at grade level in the content areas when they are learning through their second language, particularly when they are at low levels of proficiency in that language?

There are particular teaching strategies that allow teachers to keep the language demands low while the conceptual level is maintained at a high level. One such technique is the use of charts,

tables, maps, diagrams, and other graphic organizers. Through graphic organizers, students can organize, understand, and communicate information about the content that they are learning. Such visual tools allow teachers to maintain conceptual accuracy and help learners create schemas for internalizing important generalizations, concepts, and facts about a given topic accurately and fully. Graphic organizers automatically reduce the language load because there is only so much you can write in a chart or other graphical display. The particular graphic organizer that is used is chosen to match the information structure—for example, a cause and effect diagram would be chosen to visually impart information about a particular event in history or phenomenon in science. When teachers choose appropriate visual tools, they help students internalize information in a conceptually accurate way while limiting the verbal load placed on second language learners. It is an ideal methodology when used well (see Hyerle, 2000, 2001).

In addition, because instruction is provided through both program languages to all children in TWI programs, it is possible to make content links across languages and promote the transfer of content concepts in that way. In some programs, all subject areas are taught through both languages, making it very easy to make connections across languages. In other programs, content areas are divided by language, meaning that thematic instruction is necessary in order to reinforce similar vocabulary and concepts across languages and content areas.

Whether subject areas are taught through both languages or are divided by language, when more than one teacher is involved, constant communication and joint planning is crucial in order to ensure that these connections are made clearly and explicitly. For example, a two-way immersion program coordinator in SD 54 in Schaumburg, IL (http://web54.sd54.k12.il.us/index.asp), worked with a second grade teacher who was planning a science lesson on rock classification in Spanish. They knew that the native English speakers would be able to group the rocks by their characteristics in their second language; however, in order to have them understand terms like *luster, dull*, and *shiny*| in Spanish, the teachers knew that it would be more effective to have all of the students preview descriptive terms for the rocks in their first language during language arts (which is divided by native language in this program). Therefore, together with the English teacher, they planned to have students generate descriptive words for their rocks and write rock descriptions in their first language during language arts instruction. Later, when all of the students were grouped together for

science and needed to learn these words in Spanish, the native English speakers were better able to do so. (For further discussion on the importance of communication between teachers in TWI programs, see Response #2 in the Literacy Instruction section.)

A final technique that teachers can use to promote understanding of the content taught through the second language is to keep the parents informed of the themes studied in class, and to send home suggestions for activities that can reinforce the key concepts. For example, the teacher might suggest that parents take their child to a science museum when they are learning about rocks, while cooking together could be the suggested home activity when learning about measurement.

10. Are there instructional materials and assessment strategies for use in the content areas that take into account different stages of language learning?

Many published ESL and Spanish as a second language materials are multileveled or level-specific. Programs that have an actual second language instructional period for each native language group (delivered in linguistically segregated groups) might use commercially available, multileveled language development materials designed for second language instruction.

When language majority and language minority students are learning together (a grouping arrangement that should be occurring most of the time in a TWI program), access to leveled books is critical. Teachers can assess their learners' language and literacy levels and then supply them with materials at their instructional levels. Many leveling systems are now in use. These include Fountas and Pinnell, Reading Recovery, ATOS, and Lexile. (For a description of these systems, go to http://www.capstonepress.com/aspx/pLeveling.aspx.) Leveled books allow students at different levels to learn the same content as other students with materials they can use independently (see Cloud et al., 2000, Appendix B, for a listing of publishers of commercial materials).

When assessing the content knowledge of learners with varying language proficiency levels, it is important to link assessments to instructional objectives and teaching activities. Good assessment in two-way immersion is designed to optimize student performance; it is developmentally appropriate; and it is authentic, ongoing, and carefully planned. Assessment should also be based on performance

criteria that are clearly defined and communicated to students (Cloud et al., 2000, p. 141). Stratified checklists and rubrics that set up different expected behaviors for students at different proficiency levels are helpful. For examples of such assessments, see O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce (1996, chap. 7). For further information on assessment as it pertains to TWI programs and sample assessment tools, see Cloud et al. (chap. 7).

Some additional useful resources on assessment with second language learners are as follows:

- Grognet, A., Jameson, J., Franco, L., & Derrick-Mescua, M. (2000). Enhancing English language learning in elementary classrooms (http://www.cal.org/schoolservices/massdoe/CAL-Mass-DOE-Project.pdf).
- Short, D. J. (1993). Assessing Integrated Language and Content Instruction TESOL QUARTERLY[Vol. 27, No. 4, Winter 1993.
 (http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/tesol/tesolquarterly/assessin.htm)
- Mertler, C. A. (2001). <u>Designing Scoring Rubrics for Your Classroom</u>. (http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=25)
- Mantero, M. (2002). Evaluating Classroom Communication: In Support of Emergent and Authentic Frameworks in Second Language Assessment The University of Alabama (http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=8&n=8)
- WIDA Language Proficiency Standards (www.wida.us)

Literacy Instruction

1. What are the differences in instructional approach and sequencing in English and Spanish language arts? Does this vary by program model and grade level?

There are few differences in teaching literacy in English and in Spanish, especially as children become more fluent readers and writers. Instruction that highlights comprehension skills and reading fluency is appropriate in both languages.

Probably the greatest differences in teaching Spanish and English language arts occur in the primary grades during initial literacy instruction. These instructional differences are due to internal structural differences in the two languages. Spanish has a *shallow orthography*—meaning that there is a very clear sound/symbol correspondence: In most cases, each sound is represented by one letter, and each letter represents one sound. In contrast, English has a *deep orthography*, meaning that the sound/symbol correspondence is less clear. Many sounds can be represented in more than one way, and also many letters (or letter combinations) can represent more than one sound.

These differences affect the way early reading is taught in the two languages. In Spanish, an early literacy program that focuses on learning the sounds associated with letters and syllables can be very successful in teaching children to read. As a result, both English dominant and Spanish dominant children can learn to decode in Spanish effectively through a phonetic, syllabic approach. However, since sound/symbol correspondences are not always as clear in English, early English literacy programs tend to use a balance of phonics and sight word techniques.

In addition, the role of vowels in teaching language arts in Spanish is different than it is in English. Spanish literacy programs frequently start by teaching children the vowels, while in English teachers generally start with consonants.

2. How much coordination should there be in literacy instruction across the two languages? Does this vary by program model or grade level?

In TWI programs, it is essential that instruction be designed to encourage the transfer of skills, strategies, and knowledge across languages. This requires a high level of coordination between the two teachers who provide instruction in each language (or a great deal of reflection on the part of any individual teacher who provides instruction through both languages). For example, students should be encouraged to use the same reading strategy or the same graphic organizer in both a subject taught in Spanish and one taught in English. Similarly, teachers of each language can work together to further understanding of cognates and false cognates, contrastive sounds and features of the languages, and thematic vocabulary and concepts. In order to achieve this high level of coordination, it is helpful to have joint planning time on a regularly basis (preferably weekly).

In 90/10 programs in the primary grades, less coordination is required since almost all instruction is provided through Spanish, but even in that situation, it is helpful if the English language development component of the day can reinforce some of the content themes being instructed through Spanish.

3. What literacy skills transfer across English and Spanish and which need to be taught explicitly in each language?

There are universal literacy concepts and skills that all readers, regardless of language, possess. These skills and concepts transfer from one language to another and don't need to be explicitly taught. There are other skills and concepts that are language-specific and must be explicitly taught. Universal concepts and skills that transfer across all languages:

• Alphabetic and orthographic awareness. All readers understand that the marks on a page are symbols that represent sounds. Readers of alphabetic languages (such as English and Spanish) further understand that letters have names and sounds and that letters combine to form words, phrases, and sentences. Thus, the fact that letters have names and sounds transfers across English and Spanish. (But teachers need to teach children the different letter names and sounds in the two languages).

- **Meaningfulness of print**. A powerful source of transfer is the notion that print carries meaning. Readers know that reading is about deriving meaning from print. Using comprehension strategies to make meaning is a skill that transfers across languages.
- Habits and attitudes about reading and writing. Students who are successful readers and writers in their first language and who have good study habits in that language are able to transfer these attitudes and habits to reading and writing in a second language. Seeing oneself as a literate person and a successful student transfers across languages. This does not need explicit teaching in a second language.
- Higher level thinking and metacognitive skills and strategies. These skills transfer across languages: All good readers possess the skills of skimming, paraphrasing, summarizing, predicting, using dictionaries and other resources, and note-taking.
- Content knowledge. Knowledge transfers across languages: Content mastered in one language transfers to a second language.

Language-specific issues that have to be explicitly taught:

- Print directionality. Print may be read horizontally from left to right (as in English and Spanish), horizontally from right to left (as in Arabic), or vertically from right to left (as in Chinese). Thus, print directionality transfers across some languages (English and Spanish), but not others (English and Chinese). Whether directionality needs to be explicitly taught depends on whether the print directionality is the same or different across the two languages.
- Grammar and orthographic features. Each language has its own grammatical system and spelling system.
- Words. Vocabulary is language-specific and must be taught in each language, although in the case of related languages, such as Spanish and English, transfer can be facilitated through explicit instruction in cognates and common roots and affixes across English and Spanish.
- Cultural schema. These are cultural assumptions, values, and themes that are embedded in each language and culture. All literature is culturally based; however, the cultural values embedded in a text are language specific and do not transfer from one language to another. It is important that teachers explicitly teach the cultural schema that students need in order to successfully interact with text that is written in their second language.

• Story structure and rhetorical devices. It is important for teachers to help students learn that story structures and rhetorical devices may differ across languages. These differences need to be explicitly taught.

Helpful resources on this topic include Language Transfer (Odlin, 1989) and Learner English: A teachers' guide to interference and other problems. Second Edition (Swan & Smith, 2001). Both discuss transfer issues related to a variety of languages.

4. Are there standards for Spanish language arts? Should they be different for LI and L2 learners?

Some standards have been developed for Spanish, but much more work needs to be done in this area. The state of Texas has Spanish language arts standards, and the state of New York has developed Native Language Arts Standards for a variety of languages (www.emsc.nysed.gov/ ciai/biling/resource/NLA.html). In addition, some school districts (such as Arlington, VA) have developed them. Finally, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (www.actfl.org) has developed general standards for foreign language instruction in the United States, but these are not language specific, nor do they apply to native speakers.

5. What characteristics are important when choosing basal readers and other curricular materials for Spanish literacy instruction in TWI programs?

Literacy specialists recommend high-interest materials that take into account students' backgrounds, levels of proficiency, and learning preferences. In TWI programs, the following types of reading materials are particularly appropriate:

- Original texts in the partner language, rather than translations of English resources.
 Translated texts undermine the goal of cross-cultural awareness and true biculturalism, as they lack authenticity of themes, character motivation, and underlying values represented.
 The language is also unnatural and is not designed to capitalize on the playfulness, rhythm, and rhyme of each language.
- Texts that relate to students' backgrounds.
- Leveled texts (see Question #10 in the Language Development section).

- Both fiction and nonfiction books in a variety of genres and by many different authors.
- A combination of language rich materials that allow for teaching part to whole aspects of literacy.

7. What literacy skills are taught through the content areas and what are taught through language arts lessons?

Literacy skills are taught through both the content areas and language arts lessons. Explicit language arts instruction through both languages is an essential component of TWI instruction. But literacy skills can (and should) be taught through carefully planned content area units as well. Thematic content area units involve having students read a variety of both fiction and nonfiction material at a variety of reading levels. Literacy skills are taught through focused mini-lessons, readings, and writing projects throughout the unit. In particular, content-specific vocabulary, rhetorical structures, and skills (such as using glossaries, looking for sub-headings as a way of finding information, reading table of contents, skimming, etc.) lend themselves to instruction through the content areas.

8. How do you teach a classroom of students with varying levels of literacy and reading readiness?

As part of a balanced approach to teaching literacy, effective teachers use a variety of strategies for differentiating instruction. One successful strategy is to vary student grouping, sometimes grouping strong and struggling readers together and at other times grouping together students who are reading at similar levels. In heterogeneous groupings, stronger students support students who are struggling, while in homogeneous groupings, strong students can accelerate and struggling readers can receive extra help and attention from the teacher. Variability in grouping structure allows for differentiated instruction and maximizes all students' opportunities to learn to read and write. Other instructional supports include the use of paraprofessionals, cross-age tutors, after-school support, and resource teachers. Specifically, resource teachers such as Title I teachers, Reading teachers, literacy coaches, and others can work with the classroom teacher to provide extra support during reading instruction. It is important that these resource teachers be knowledgeable about the goals and structure of reading instruction in the TWI program (i.e. that native English speakers may be receiving initial literacy instruction solely through their second language, as in the case of

many 90/10 programs, or that all students may be receiving simultaneous initial literacy instruction through both program languages, as in the case of many 50/50 programs) so that they can provide appropriate supports. Finally, the use of leveled readers (see Question #10 in the language development section) can be useful when working with a group of students with varying literacy abilities.

9. Are any special supports given to students while they are developing literacy skills in their second language as opposed to their first?

Students who are developing literacy skills or are learning content in a second language should be provided with highly comprehensible environments for learning. Quality TWI instruction incorporates strategies and cooperative groupings designed to promote the acquisition of language, literacy, and content, and to help scaffold student learning in these domains.

Examples of such scaffolds include providing students with texts at a variety of reading levels (see Question #10 in the language development section), using hands-on activities to ensure understanding, reading stories in the second language that are thematically linked to those that have already been read in the first language in order to enable students to transfer their knowledge from their first to their second language, using cognate words (and explicitly pointing out that they are cognates), providing picture clues and other visual aids, and incorporating culturally relevant texts that tell familiar stories. In addition, there are a number of pre-reading strategies that teachers can use to help guide the students through stories before they actually read them. This initial walk-through can be especially helpful to students who are learning to read in a second language without the prior benefit of first language literacy (such as is the case with native English speakers in many 90/10 programs).

Cross-Cultural Competence

How can teachers promote positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors among students?

Teachers can promote positive cross-cultural attitudes by making sure that students have positive experiences with one another and interact successfully, especially in the partner language. When teachers explore student understandings of events and experiences, they ensure that learners are accurately interpreting what is going on around them. Over time, they help deepen students' appreciation of the other culture and its speakers, and expand their understanding. Teachers should concentrate as much, if not more, on values, norms, and perspectives of the partner language culture (as well as those of other cultures, particularly if they are represented in the classroom) as they do on visible cultural practices, such as holidays, foods, music, and dance.

Teachers can also inform second language learners of the expected behaviors and norms to follow in given environments so that they behave in culturally expected ways and receive positive feedback during those experiences. Becoming bicultural is as important as becoming bilingual, and it has to be actively fostered; it doesn't happen on its own. By having cross-cultural objectives in each lesson and unit, teachers ensure that they are paying adequate attention to this important goal of the program.

Children's literature is another avenue for exploring cultural meanings and perspectives. Teachers help students understand each others' lives when they choose materials that represent diverse perspectives and experiences and encourage students to discuss differences, looking at not just the story's surface features—its events, setting, and characters—but also its deeper values. For example, a teacher in School District 54 (http://web54.sd54.k12.il.us/index.asp) in Schaumburg, IL, recounted an episode in her class that occurred while students were reading a short story. One student questioned why the father in the story needed his son to make calls for him. She couldn't understand why an adult would ask a child to do this. The teacher then asked other students in the class to raise their hands if they had ever made calls for their parents and to explain why. Many students shared accounts of translating calls for their family members. Using this kind of literature validates the experiences of some students while it opens the eyes of other students to the lives of their classmates.

Other suggestions for promoting positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors follow:

- Be a good role model. Show appreciation and respect for people of differing cultural backgrounds.
- Celebrate linguistic diversity. Celebrate it within as well as across languages: Point out regional variations in vocabulary and other language features such as pronunciation.
- Invite cultural informants to come to the classroom so that students can see firsthand how members of a cultural group view certain events and experiences.
- Promote cross-cultural understanding among school staff by having open discussions about cultural issues at faculty meetings.
- Collaborate with the PTA in planning a multicultural evening where parents can exchange ideas, opinions, and food.

2. How can teachers incorporate a multicultural perspective into instruction?

Incorporating cultural perspectives into instruction can take place at the level of beliefs, values, norms, and practices. In TWI programs, the goal is to incorporate a multicultural perspective at all of these levels. Multicultural perspectives are first of all represented through curriculum and materials. But incorporating a multicultural perspective into instruction is much more than having multicultural materials (i.e., children's literature) in the classroom. Classroom interactions (direct eye contact, amount of adult guidance provided), student groupings, ways of rewarding and reinforcing desired behavior, use of time and space, and counseling and parent outreach efforts all reflect cultural norms and must be carefully planned (Cloud, 2002). When different student groupings, task demands, teaching approaches, and curriculum materials are used, learners become more culturally flexible and savvy. They are given a chance to develop bicultural contexts, they feel comfortable in both cultures, and they are able to look at things from multiple perspectives.

3. What are some good resources for multicultural instruction?

Primary source materials are a good way to provide multicultural instruction. In studying a particular historic period, various perspectives on the same event can be represented through first- person narratives (recorded oral histories, letters, journals, essays). Learners can come to appreciate historic

events in all their complexity from the perspectives of all parties involved. Studying different authors is another way to deepen cultural understanding. A good resource for students learning Spanish is *Latina and Latino Voices in Literature: Lives and Works* by Frances Day (2003). By studying authors from across the Hispanic world, learners can come to appreciate the perspectives, life styles, values and experiences of various Latin American peoples. Other useful websites with resources related to Latino culture include www.poemitas.com/cosicosas.htm; http://personal4iddeo.es/bernal/marisa; and http://www.bilingualbooks.com. Websites with resources related to Asian cultures are www.afk.com and www.falcom.jmu.edu/~ramseyil/mulasia.htm.

The following Web sites are other good sources of information for planning multicultural instruction:

• www.adl.org

The World of Difference Institute Training and Curriculum Guides offered through the Anti-Defamation League are a great resource for teachers from kindergarten to high school.

• www.tolerance.org

This site features *Teaching Tolerance*, a magazine published by the Southern Poverty Law Center that provides many classroom activities and materials to support multicultural instruction.

• www.cultureforkids.com

Culture for Kids is a great resource for teachers who wish to promote multicultural learning experiences for children.

• www.teachersdiscovery.com

This site provides information on books, videos, lesson activities for teaching Spanish and French languages and the cultures of Spanish- and French-speaking peoples.

• http://wwwl.lanic.utexas.edu/la/region/k-12/

This site provides resources for language study and social studies for native speakers of Spanish and Portuguese.

• http://www-bcf.usc.edu/~cmmr/Latino.html

This site features Spanish as a second language resources that incorporate culture and arts.

• www.dominie.com

This site provides information on authentic and translated literature, pre-K-5. (See cautions about the use of translated literature in Question #5 of the literacy instruction section.)

• www.multiculturalbooksandvideos.com

This site provides resources for teaching about different cultures.

Assessment

1. How do you distinguish between language proficiency and content knowledge when assessing student performance in the content areas?

In TWI classrooms, as in all second language learning environments, it is very hard to distinguish between language proficiency and content knowledge, as language is always involved in conveying information. However, using the recommended practice of developing both content and language objectives for each lesson or unit can help tease apart these two issues. Once these objectives have been developed, teachers can generate descriptors for differing levels of attainment (e.g., through the development of a rubric) in order to keep track of the level at which students are performing in language and in content. This will help illuminate the extent to which students know the language of the content area and the extent to which they have understood the concepts presented in that content area.

One advantage of the TWI setting is that it allows teachers to assess students in their native language if there is concern that their level of mastery of a content topic as assessed is compromised by limited second language proficiency. This may be particularly important for new arrivals in the upper elementary grades (specifically English language learners, for whom the TWI program is often the best placement), who are likely to be substantially behind their peers in second language proficiency.

It is very important that teachers not water down the curriculum because of concerns about limited language proficiency. It is one thing to adapt the language and something else to minimize the cognitive demands of a task. Regardless of the language proficiency of the students, it is important for teachers to require appropriate levels of thinking for completing academic tasks, such as retrieval, comprehension, analysis, knowledge utilization, and metacognition (Marzano, 2001). This is true even when the child is learning a second language or has a learning disability.

Some strategies recommended by Patricia Martínez, a teacher at Key Elementary School's 50/50 immersion program in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml), follow:

- Provide a word bank so that students can use those words to demonstrate their knowledge.
- Provide vocabulary on bulletin boards that are visible to students.
- Provide students with opportunities to draw as well as write responses.
- Provide assessments in the native language.
- Scaffold assessments by adding visuals and graphics, stressing important key words by using bold font and bulleted information, providing for a variety of ways to answer, limiting the amount of information on one page, and modifying the length of paragraphs and level of difficulty of vocabulary.
- Use performance-based assessments and anecdotal records to assess students' learning.
- Include self-evaluations in the teaching-learning process. The use of happy faces or other visual representations will help the student express how well they think they have learned the topic or what they feel they need to work on.
- Have students show what they have learned through role-playing.
- Have students keep a journal of their thinking processes.
- Take pictures of the students working and then have them explain what they were doing in each picture.
- Have students show they understand something by teaching it to another (perhaps younger) student.
- 2. What Spanish and English oral language assessments are used in TWI programs? What information do they offer about native speakers and second language learners? Should the same assessments be used for first and second language speakers?

A variety of standardized and nonstandardized assessments of oral language proficiency are used in TWI settings, as in other educational settings with second language learners. *The Language Assessment Scales (LAS)* (http://www.ctb.com/products/product_summary. jsp?FOLDER%3C%3Efolder_id=1408474395217507&ASSORTMENT%3C%3East_ id=1408474395213825), an assortment of *Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery-Revised (WLPB-R)* assessments (http://www.riverpub.com/products/clinical/bwmr/home.html), and the Bilingual Verbal Abilities Tests (BVAT) (http://www.riverpub.com/products/clinical/bvat/home.html) are three commonly used standardized oral proficiency assessments, with parallel versions in English and Spanish. Standardized assessments such as these and others are useful for program-level information about the performance of groups of students over time.

Nonstandardized assessments include the Student Oral Proficiency Assessment (SOPA) (http://www. cal.org/CALWebDB/FLAssess/FLADetail.aspx?id=142); the Stanford Foreign Language Oral Skills Evaluation Matrix (FLOSEM) (http://www.cal.org/CALWebDB/FLAssess/FLADetail.aspx?id=5); and the Arlington, VA, rubrics for immersion students in Grades 1-5 (http://www.cal.org/twi/rubrics/). Nonstandardized assessments such as these can be used either for program evaluation purposes, as described in relation to the standardized assessments in the previous paragraph, or for instructional purposes, since the information is specific enough about students skills to guide instruction.

In general, for instructional purposes, assessments that give teachers qualitative information about student performance are more useful than tests that simply produce a score. For this reason, portfolios that document student performance over time can be particularly informative. Sample portfolio items might include recordings of student speech or samples of student writing.

In addition, by using rating scales based on a set of rubrics, teachers can get a clear sense of what students are able to accomplish in oral language. Rubrics can be developed on the basis of teachers' own expectations and program goals. They should also be heavily based on existing ESL standards and foreign language standards, as well as English language arts standards and standards for the other language. Although many native English-speaking TWI students never attain native-like fluency in the second language, the same standards should be used as guidelines for proficiency attainment in both English and the partner language. Thus, rather than deciding whether to use the same assessments for first and second language speakers, teachers can compare progress in students' first and second languages.

At Nestor Elementary School (http://www.sbusd.k12.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), a 90/10 program in San Diego, staff administer the FLOSEM to all students at the end of each year in both Spanish and English. They also administer the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) (http://www.cde.ca.gov/ta/tg/el/) for all English language learners. In addition, all students

take the Pre-LAS in Spanish in kindergarten. Students who entered as monolingual or bilingual in Spanish are retested in Grade 2 if they did not score a 4 or a 5 in kindergarten. All English-dominant students are retested with the Pre-LAS in Grade 2 and then again with the LAS in Grades 4 and 6.

In Key Elementary's 50/50 program (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml), oral proficiency rubrics were designed by TWI program teachers for Spanish oral language assessments (http://www.cal.org/twi/rubrics/). These provide information about progress made during the course of the academic year. In English, the Stanford English Language Proficiency (SELP) (http://harcourtassessment.com/haiweb/Cultures/en-US/Products/Product+Detail. htm?CS_ProductID=015-8429-206&CS_Category=EnglishLanguageLearners&CS_Catalog=TPC-USCatalog) is administered to English language learners by the ESL teachers. This assessment establishes formal English language proficiency levels. Teachers also conduct informal assessments of students in both language groups, through observations and anecdotal records, on a continuing basis.

3. What is an ideal battery of assessments that a TWI program should use to monitor student performance over time?

There is currently no clear consensus in the field about an ideal battery of assessments for TWI programs, but there is consensus about guidelines that should be followed when choosing a battery of assessments. First, because TWI programs are designed to promote bilingualism and biliteracy, as well as grade-level academic achievement, it is important to assess students' development in language and literacy skills in both languages. Second, multiple measures should be used to provide a strong indication of students' abilities in the relevant domains. Finally, a combination of standardized tests (generally used for program evaluation purposes) and teacher- developed assessments (such as rubrics) that are tied to classroom instruction and provide information about individual student performance should be employed. A useful list of references on assessment issues with second language learners can be found in Assessment, *reform, equity, and English language learners: An annotated bibliography* (http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/asellbib.pdf).

Supporting Special Student Populations

I. How are students with special learning needs identified?

There is no research that directly addresses the issue of identifying and supporting special needs students in TWI programs in the United States. As a result, most of the research-based information presented here and in the other questions in this section relates to second language learners with special needs in general, regardless of educational context. To tailor this section to the interests of our readers, anecdotal information from TWI educators is also provided.

In TWI programs, as in other language learning environments, it can be difficult to tell whether a student who is learning in a second language is having problems in school because of a long-term learning disability or a temporary second language learning difficulty. In general, though, a common rule of thumb is that true learning disabilities will be evident in both the first and second languages, while a second language learning issue will only be evident in that language.

For native English speakers, this rule of thumb can present challenges for students in 90/10 programs in particular, as formal English literacy instruction in these programs does not generally begin until Grade 3. In this case, conducting some assessments in English and potentially delivering some interventions in English would help to determine if the learning difficulty is a second language issue or reflects a true learning disability.

In the case of minority students in general and language minority students in particular, federal regulations require the use of unbiased assessment measures and techniques, and they ask educators to address the overrepresentation of minority students in special education services. Despite this, children of Hispanic origin continue to be overrepresented nationally in the categories of learning disabilities, hearing impairments, and orthopedic impairments. The possible biases against students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds in the psychological assessment process is a topic that has been widely debated (e.g., Artiles & Ortiz, 2002; Brown, Reynolds, & Whitaker, 1999; Reynolds, Lowe, & Saenz, 1999), and best practice guidelines and alternative methods for assessing these students have been proposed (e.g. Gopaul-McNichol & Thomas-Presswood, 1998; Jitendra & Rohena-Diaz, 1996; Peña, Quinn, & Iglesias, 1992). These suggestions

have included using a variety of measures in both the first and second languages and relying on multiple informants in determining the needs of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

When a teacher identifies a student as having academic problems, the first thing that needs to be done is to start gathering as much information about the learner as possible. That information should include background characteristics, oral language proficiency and literacy skills in both the first and the second language, academic achievement in both the first and the second language, sensory abilities (hearing/vision), social skills, and emotional/behavioral issues. In addition, it is helpful to gather information about possible differences in functioning in these domains at home and at school. Because this is a lot of information to gather, it is generally advisable to form a team to collect and interpret data and determine a plan of action based on findings. When all of the relevant information has been gathered, the team makes the decision as to whether special education interventions (if they are different from second language support) would be best for the student, and if so, what types of interventions are required.

Teachers at Nestor Elementary (http://www.sbusd.k12.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), a 90/10 TWI program in San Diego, use what they call the red folder process (See Appendix: Red Folder Process for more details) to identify students with special needs. The red folder process is initiated when the teacher notices that a student is struggling academically. The folder contains a checklist that outlines the procedures that should be followed and documents interventions and their effects. The program also provides guidelines that differentiate recommendations for native Spanish speakers and native English speakers, with special attention to the elementary grades, when native English speakers are learning to read in their second language and therefore may be exhibiting second language learning issues rather than reading difficulties.

Following the procedures laid out in the red folder, the teacher works with the parents or guardians, the resource teacher, and other colleagues to implement interventions to assist the child with his or her academic difficulty. After 4 to 6 weeks, the teacher documents the effects of the first set of interventions, and additional interventions are implemented. If no progress is noted after several months of this process, the red folder is given to the Student Study Team (SST) and a more

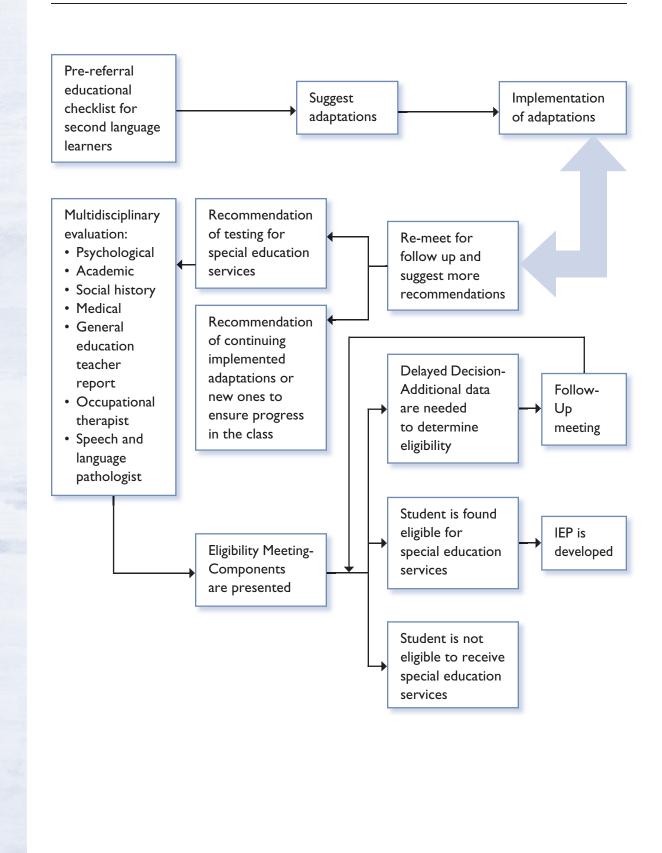
formal meeting is scheduled. At the SST meeting, parents meet with the resource teacher, the classroom teacher, and one or more of the following individuals: the principal, a school psychologist, a speech pathologist, a reading specialist, and additional resource teachers. Each case is different. In some cases, testing may be decided upon at the first SST meeting, while with others, the team may decide to try additional interventions and reconvene 1 or 2 months later to see how those interventions worked and whether additional supports are needed.

At Key Elementary (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/index.html), a 50/50 TWI program in Arlington, VA, there is a similar process for identifying children with special learning needs. As at Nestor, the process begins with the classroom teacher, who refers the child to the Student Assistance Team, which meets weekly, or more often if needed, to discuss the performance of referred students. If classroom interventions have been tried and have not been effective, the team completes a prereferral checklist (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/stud_serv/special_ed/2nd_lang_ learn_check.pdf) designed for English language learners. This checklist is meant to help educators make the distinction between a learning disability and second language acquisition issues.

Completing this checklist is a long process, taking from 2 to 10 weeks. The team first needs to decide on focal areas that will help them define their concerns about the child. The different areas addressed in the checklist are language, thinking, motor skills, writing, reading, mathematics, work and study habits, and social and emotional development. Each area is described in terms of a list of behaviors. For example, some of the targeted behaviors for writing difficulty are "forms letters correctly" and "holds head at an appropriate distance while writing."

Once the team has decided the areas of difficulty, team members review each of the described behaviors in that area and indicate whether the student can perform that behavior easily, adequately, or with difficulty, or has limited experience. All of the behaviors are evaluated separately for the first and second language. Finally, after having identified the specific areas of difficulty and the language(s) in which those difficulties occur, the committee chooses appropriate adaptations and instructional strategies from the checklist. In the area of writing, for example, some of the adaptations suggested are to use a slant board or to use color-coded cues to indicate where to begin or end writing.

Figure 1: The Special Education Referral Process in Arlington (VA) Public Schools



The strategies and adaptations are implemented for approximately one month, after which a follow-up meeting is held to discuss the student's progress. After this second meeting, the team can make the decision to either continue with the adaptations or propose the student for a Child Study. The Child Study is the first step in the special education eligibility process, and there is a reasonable certainty that a student who has been proposed for a Child Study has an academic or cognitive difficulty that is not related to second language learning issues. A graphic organizer of the special education referral process for English language learners can be found in Figure 1. This process is aligned with the new IDEA RTI (response to intervention) requirements (http://www.teachersandfamilies.com/open/parent/idea4.cfm)

At this point, a committee is formed to further assess the student's strengths and challenges. As mentioned previously, one difficulty in conducting these assessments is that they often contain biases that can affect student performance. For example, the norming populations for standardized diagnostic tests generally include few English language learners, particularly those at the lowest levels of English language proficiency. Additionally, test items may be culturally biased and may require the child to make inferences beyond what he or she has been taught in school. To address this concern, the committee conducting the Child Study relies upon multiple indicators in both the first and second language in order to get a more complete picture of the student. In addition to state standardized achievement tests and standardized achievement tests frequently used for diagnostic purposes, such as (e.g., the *Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery-Revised* (WLPB-R) (Woodcock, 1991) (see Question #2 in the section on assessment), the following are some of the most common measures used:

- Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) (http://www.tasaliteracy.com/drp/drp-main.html)
- Curriculum-based tests developed by classroom teachers
- Writing Samples
- Classroom Observations
- Oral language assessments by the classroom teacher and speech language pathologist if required. (see Question #2 in the assessment section for a list of commonly used language assessments.)

2. How can teachers support students with special learning needs in the TWI program?

TWI programs can be seen as ideal placements for special needs students, as many of the accommodations considered useful for these students (e.g., hands-on learning, thematic instruction, and multimodal instruction) are the same strategies recommended for two-way educators (Artiles & Ortiz, 2002; Genesee, Paradis, & Crago, 2004). Some of these strategies are highlighted in Table I.

 Table I: Strategies to Promote Second Language Development and Academic Achievement for

 Students with Special Needs (developed by Patricia Martínez, special education teacher, Key

Strategies that Support Second Language Learners	Strategies that Support Children with Learning Disabilities	Strategies that Support Both Groups
 Provide modifications for worksheets, tests, and other class materials. Help students make connections across languages in both content (e.g., by activating prior knowledge) and in vocabulary (e.g., through cognates). Engage students in authentic, high- interest reading material and in writing tasks that draw on their background experiences. Provide students with visual support for oral presentations. Paraphrase and keep oral instructions at student's level of anguage proficiency. Provide opportunities for oral expression, particularly in pairs or small groups. Encourage students to ask for help and explanations. Provide reading material in the student's native language so that he/she can continue learning and developing literacy skills in that language. 	 Recognize and use students' multiple intelligences. Use a multisensory approach (e.g., have students talk, write, draw, move). Allow for alternative responses for tests and classroom tasks (e.g., oral responses instead of writing) Teach memory strategies (e.g., chunking of information, making visual images, constructing mnemonics). Use manipulatives to help children transfer from concrete to abstract levels of thinking. Teach metacognitive skills (e.g., have students evaluate and monitor their own work). Use behavior charts. Provide visual calendars or a plan of the day. Provide organizational supports, such as daily planners, homework checklists, etc. 	 Provide extra time for task completion. Use instructional strategies such as cooperative learning and hands-on learning. Use performance-based assessment to determine mastery of a concept or skill. Minimize distractions in the environment (e.g., organize materials, use predictable routines) Present new information in context. Use graphic organizers. Teach prereading strategies. Allow extra time for processing and thinking. Provide instruction in small groups for greater individual attention. Inform students of learning objectives both orally and in writing.

Elementary (http://www.arlington.kl2.va.us/schools/key/index.html))

In working with both second language learners and students with special needs, the challenge is in maintaining high academic expectations while making the activities comprehensible and accessible. Without careful thought and planning, simplifying the language and providing other accommodations may have the unintended effect of lowering the thinking level required to complete an activity. Careful attention must therefore be paid to this matter, as students with learning disabilities are the ones who most need access to challenging curriculum.

The special education teacher can work closely with the classroom teacher to see how special education interventions can be worked into the everyday functioning of that classroom. If necessary, the special education teacher can work directly with the student, preferably as an added support in the classroom. This special education support can be given in both languages, so as not to disrupt the language development plan designed to attain bilingualism and biliteracy.

A final recommendation for supporting special needs students in TWI programs is to promote the attitude that all children can learn and that all children can learn in a TWI environment. If this is the philosophy of the teachers, administrators, and parents, then it is much more likely that the steps needed to provide support for special needs students in TWI programs will be taken and these children will be successful in the program.

3. How are special education services integrated with the TWI program?

The special education teacher needs to work closely with the classroom teacher to see how special education interventions can be incorporated into the classroom. One intervention might be to change the student's seating arrangement. Another might involve specific strategies, such as developing a brief outline for the student before a story is read (this could be done by the teacher, or better yet, by the student and his or her buddy or peer tutor).

Bringing the special education services into the classroom ensures that the interventions occur in the language of instruction, and that the student's language development plan is not unduly disrupted. The special education teacher also needs to work very closely with the classroom teacher to ensure that the special education services fit the instruction that is taking place in the classroom at that moment. At Nestor Elementary's 90/10 program (http://www.sbusd.k12.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), a Spanish-speaking student who qualifies for special education in kindergarten, first, or second grade is supported in Spanish. From third grade on, the decision is made on a case-by-case basis, although generally native English speakers receive services in English and native Spanish speakers receive them in Spanish. At about fourth or fifth grade, however, services for the Spanish speakers may be switched to English to support their progress in English, as that is the major educational language by that point.

Another factor is speech and language pathology services. If a child receives these services, they are provided in the native language, but as the student's bilingual competencies grow, the speech/language services become more bilingual as well. Even some native English speakers receive some speech/language support bilingually.

4. How can teachers support new students who enter the program in the upper elementary grades and do not have grade-level language skills in one or both program languages? How can teachers help them to participate in activities that require grade-level language skills?

To our knowledge, there have been no studies that directly address the issue of academic performance of late-entering students, most likely because it is a low frequency phenomenon as it is generally discouraged unless students can demonstrate grade-level appropriate language and literacy skills in both program languages. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that English language learners who enter TWI programs with previous instruction through their first language often achieve at similar levels as their peers. The difficulty is for English language learners who enter TWI, or any educational program, with little academic preparation. These students typically lag behind their peers in achievement in both languages. However, the TWI program still may be the most appropriate placement for these students if there are no other bilingual or newcomer programs available in the district. With respect to native English speakers, most programs do not allow these students to enter the program after first or second grade, unless they can demonstrate grade-level appropriate language and literacy skills in the second language that would enable them to keep pace academically.

Since ESL teachers and mainstream classroom teachers have been dealing for years with immigrant students with little English proficiency, much can be learned from the techniques that have been found to be appropriate in these situations. Specifically, teachers need to shelter their instruction by following the strategies suggested in the *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol* (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004; Short, Hudec, & Echevarria, 2002). This would involve, among other things, teachers differentiating their instruction by giving students with beginning levels of proficiency opportunities to learn new material in ways that do not rely on language. One great advantage of a TWI program is that children who arrive in upper elementary school with a limited educational background can have immediate access to the educational system because part of the day is taught in their first language.

At Nestor Elementary (http://www.sbusd.kl2.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), native English speakers are only accepted into the 90/10 TWI program until the end of first grade, so the issue of accommodating late-entering students only affects native Spanish speakers entering the program in the upper elementary grades. For late-entering students with strong oral language and literacy skills in Spanish, but with little or no English , the primary need is for vocabulary development. The school may provide these students with a pullout program that offers English language development at their targeted level. Assigning another student to be a language buddy is also helpful. This buddy can translate for the newcomer since the teacher does not translate the lessons.

Late-entering students highlight the need for the continued use of sheltered instruction strategies (such as preview/review and frontloading) at the upper elementary level. For students with limited L2 skills, the structures within cooperative learning offer support and a small group environment where students can take risks and receive feedback from an intimate group.

In the particularly challenging case of students who enter school without second language proficiency and with little or no school experience in their home countries, differentiated instruction is essential, and small group or one-on-one instruction may be required. This can present a logistical challenge, as it is hard for even the best teacher to find the time to provide a child with individual instruction. One solution is to call on a resource teacher for extra support, if such a teacher is available.

During whole class instruction, the teacher can help the student by providing him or her with some of the accommodations recommended by experts in this publication (see Response #2 in this section). The student will need opportunities to engage in conversations in a nonthreatening learning environment. Show and tell, sharing a favorite story, and similar strategies provide excellent opportunities for the student to practice his or her language skills. Speaking slowly and paraphrasing are invaluable when working with second language learners. Labeling things around the classroom and posting short sentences the new student can use to get through the day will also help. The teacher must make sure there is reading materials at the child's reading level and in the child's native language as well. Frequent references across languages will help the student transfer vocabulary and knowledge from one language to another. Worksheets and textbooks all need to be adapted to the child's language level.

5. How can the programs support students whose native language is not one or both of the program languages (i.e., third language speakers)?

Children who do not speak either language in which the TWI program operates represent a very small segment of the student population in those programs. Perhaps for this reason, there is no research looking at specific accommodations or supports for third language speakers.

However, anecdotal evidence and research on English language learning suggest there are several things that teachers and parents can do to help these students. First, teachers should be aware that such students are learning through a nonnative language at all times, unlike their peers, who are doing that only about half of the time. The use of sheltered instruction, a core teaching strategy in TWI programs, will help these children to understand the content material and keep pace with instruction.

In addition, the school should be encouraged to recognize the value of the students' native languages in any way possible. The halls, the school library, the public announcements, and the curriculum can reflect the existence of additional languages and the cultures they represent. Whenever possible, the third language should be brought into the TWI classroom so that all students get exposure to it. If necessary, translators should be made available periodically to ensure that parents understand written and oral information. Finally, parents can be encouraged to help their children continue to develop their native language at home, so that it is not lost in the process of learning new languages. For example, for many third language children, there are Saturday schools that can help them with their first language.

6. On what basis are children retained in TWI programs? What if a student is only having trouble in one language? How can you be sure that students are retained for academic difficulties and not limited second language proficiency?

Once again, this is an area where there is little research and therefore no clear guidelines or agreement about when or why to retain students. Relevant information from mainstream educational settings can be found in English and Spanish on the website of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) (http://www.naspcenter.org/resourcekit/). In addition, anecdotal information from two established, successful programs is provided here as examples of how the decision is made in TWI programs.

At Key Elementary (http://www.arlington.kl2.va.us/schools/key/index.html), the belief is that retention should not be an option at any grade level except kindergarten. At that level, most children who are retained have very low skills, often because they have not attended preschool. Compared with their peers, they do not appear ready to handle the academic demands of first grade.

At Nestor Elementary (http://www.sbusd.kl2.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), teachers who are considering retaining students look at their academic progress (comparing them to other students who speak their native language), their level of maturity, their family's support for or resistance to retention, their physical size, and their primary language. School personnel meet with parents and the Student Study Team to try to determine if another year in kindergarten or first grade will help the child reach his or her potential. If the consensus is that retention will not be effective, or if the family does not support it, the teachers will not retain the student.

Nestor Elementary's 90/10 model presents some challenges in identifying native English speakers who may benefit from retention, as in the primary grades all academic work is done in Spanish, the student's second language. The school takes into consideration the students' participation and

progress during the English portion of the day, but because that time involves oral language only in the primary grades, it provides a limited amount of information. The school also relies on English *Pre-LAS* scores as an indicator of a possible need for retention.

Teacher Supports

1. How can preservice teachers be prepared to teach in a TWI setting? What information and skills do they need in order to be effective in TWI programs?

Very little research has been conducted on this topic, but a study of eight veteran teachers in a variety of TWI programs across the United States (Howard & Loeb, 1998, http://www.cal. org/resources/digest/intheirownwords.html) yielded the following recommendations. First, it is essential for TWI teachers to understand and support the structure and goals of the program. An orientation to the program should include background information on the school—its mission and history—as well as a real understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of immersion education (e.g. Howard & Christian, 2002, http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm). Support for the program involves acceptance of the idea that it is perfectly possible for a child to become fully bilingual, biliterate, and multicultural. This acceptance can come from extensive discussions with peers and instructors about the social, political, affective, and cognitive consequences of bilingualism. It also comes from seeing firsthand the results of good TWI education. This can be accomplished through student-teaching placements in strong TWI programs, visits to such programs, and interviews with graduates of TWI programs.

Along with this program-level knowledge, teachers in the Howard and Loeb study (1998) stressed the importance of having well-developed teaching knowledge that includes subject matter competence (including familiarity with the state and district standards and curriculum in particular), an array of effective teaching strategies (such as sheltered instruction, http://www.cal.org/siop/), and the understanding that all students can learn and succeed. It is very helpful for preservice teachers to see these strategies in action in a TWI classroom (or preferably to use them themselves during their student teaching placements) and to have the opportunity to discuss them among themselves as well as with the teacher they have observed.

Finally, teachers in TWI programs stress the need for cross-cultural and linguistic knowledge. A basic familiarity with the languages and cultures involved in the program is essential, as is having some ideas about how to work with the two groups of parents, who can present challenges for inexperienced TWI teachers. Knowing how to elevate the status of the partner language in an

integrated setting (e.g. through its use in the wider school context, at assemblies, PTA meetings, in announcements, etc.) is very useful as well.

2. What are some useful and appropriate supports for new TWI immersion teachers?

Again, there is a limited research base in this area, but respondents stressed that in TWI settings, as in other educational settings, mentoring and peer coaching are two reliable and appropriate supports for new teachers. At Nestor Elementary's 90/10 program in San Diego (http://www.sbusd.k12.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), new teachers are placed with a veteran TWI teacher at the same grade level. This veteran teacher is to be their mentor and to provide training and guidance throughout the year. In addition, the TWI resource teacher provides new teachers with a program overview and meets with them periodically throughout the year to provide support as needed. Likewise, at Key Elementary's 50/50 program in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12. va.us/schools/key/index.html), the district provides a mentor for every new teacher, as they do for all new teachers in the district.

Other suggested supports for new teachers include the following:

- A resource teacher in the classroom or an assistant to help with differentiated instruction.
- Resources for teaching and evaluating the different components of language and content that are to be covered at a particular grade level and in a particular language (e.g., language and content standards, and lesson plan templates and examples such as those provided in this toolkit).
- Assistance with lesson planning from a mentor or another teacher at the same grade level.
- Opportunities for informal conversations and the exchange of ideas, such as school social gatherings.
- Workshops and other inservice professional development opportunities.
- Conferences, particularly those that focus on teaching in bilingual and/or TWI environments.
- Suggestions about how to be proactive and engaged with parents, for example, through a weekly newsletter in both program languages.
- Teacher research activities such as peer ethnography (e.g., Calderón, 1995) that promote discussion and reflection on teaching practices.

Other needed supports, based on interviews with teachers in the Amigos 50/50 program in Cambridge, MA (Cazabon, Lambert, & Heise-Baigorria, 2002) are as follows:

- Common planning time;
- High quality pedagogical materials in the partner language;
- Flexibility when scheduling specials (i.e. art, music, PE, library, etc.);
- In-class supports, such as paraprofessionals, volunteers, and interns;
- In-class coaching model for staff development;
- Help in working together with other program teachers as a team; and
- Networking with staff from other TWI programs. For new programs, it is possible to set up teacher mentoring programs with experienced teachers at more established programs in the area (or online mentoring with teachers in a school that is farther away).

3. What are some useful strategies that team teachers can use to communicate student progress and coordinate lesson planning? What does teaming look like in a TWI setting?

Given the lack of a research base on this topic, this response is shaped primarily by the experts' experiences with effective practices. At Nestor Elementary's 90/10 program (http://www.sbusd.kl2.ca.us/web/schools/ne/nestor.htm), each team chooses I day a week to stay late for team-level planning. At these planning sessions, team partners discuss student work, student progress, lesson planning, and other relevant topics. Guidelines for team teaching are also provided in the program's handbook on team teaching.

Key Elementary's 50/50 program (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/index.html) has implemented some strategies to support communication between the English and Spanish partner teachers. Every week, teachers type a summary of the activities they will be focusing on that week and share it with the partner teacher. This document also includes a list of vocabulary words and concepts that the students are going to be learning. Another strategy they use is called curriculum mapping (Hayes Jacobs, 1997). This is a document that outlines the different subject areas and highlights activities teachers are going to be doing across subjects on the same topic. Since content areas at Key are taught only in one language or the other (e.g., science in Spanish and social studies in English), this type of thematic planning helps to provide continuity in instruction across the two languages.

Activities that promote communication and interaction across team members are critically important. Calderón (1995) found a peer ethnography project to be an effective way to promote this type of communication and collaboration across team members in a TWI setting.

References

- Artiles, A. J., & Ortiz, A. A. (Eds.). (2002). English language learners with special education needs: identification, assessment, and instruction. Washington, DC, and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- August, D., Calderón, M., & Carlo, M. (2002). *Transfer of skills from Spanish to English: A study of young learners* (Final Report). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. (Submitted to the Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students, ED-98-CO-0071)
- Brown, R. T., Reynolds, C. R., & Whitaker, J. S. (1999). Bias in Mental Testing since "Bias in Mental Testing." School Psychology Quarterly, 14(3), 208-38.
- Calderón, M. (1995, April). Dual language programs and team teachers' professional development. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Carlo, M., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C., Dressler, D., Lippman, D., Lively, T., White, C. (2004). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs of English language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 39, 188-206.
- Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. A., & Heise-Baigorria, C. (2002). Field-initiated bilingual education research project. (Award number R306F960155-98). U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Chamot, A.U. & O'Malley, J.M. (1994). The CALLA Handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Cloud, N. (2002). Culturally and linguistically responsive instructional planning. In A.J. Artiles and A.A. Ortiz (Eds.), *English language learners with special education needs: Identification, assessment, and instruction* (pp. 107-132). Washington, DC, and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.

- Cloud, N., Genesee, F. & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction:* A handbook for enriched education. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Cloud, N. & Hamayan, E. (2005, January). *Getting more Spanish out of your language minority students in your dual language program*. Paper presented at the Third Annual Dual Immersion Pre-Conference Institute held at the 34th Annual International Bilingual/ Multicultural Education Conference, San Antonio, TX
- Day, Frances Ann. (2003). Latina and Latino voices in literature: Lives and works. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Downs-Reid, D. (1997). A dozen activities for promoting use of Spanish outside of school. *The ACIE Newsletter, 1*, 1.
- Dulay, H., Burt, M. & Krashen, S. (1982). Language Two. New York: Oxford.
- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M.E., & Short, D. (2004). *Making content comprehensible for English Language learners: The SIOP Model* (2nd ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Freeman, Y. S., Freeman, D. E., & Mercuri, S. P. (2005). *Dual Language Essentials for Teachers and Administrators*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gardner, R.C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Genesee, F., Paradis, J., & Crago, M.B. (2004). Dual language development and disorders: A handbook on bilingualism and second language learning. Baltimore, MD: Paul Brookes.

Gibbons, P. (1993). Learning to learn in a second language. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Gibbons, P. (2002). Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

- Gopaul-McNichol, S. A. & Thomas-Presswood, T. (1998). Working with linguistically and culturally different children: Innovative clinical and educational approaches. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Grognet, A., Jameson, J., Franco, L., & Derrick-Mescua, M. (2000). *Enhancing English language learning in elementary classrooms*. Washington, DC, and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- Hadi-Tabassum, S. (2002). Language, space, and power: A critical ethnography of a dual-language classroom. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University Teachers College, New York.
- Hayes Jacobs, H. (1997). *Mapping the big picture: Integrating curriculum and assessment*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum and Development (ASCD).
- Herrell, A. & Jordan, M. (2004). *Fifty strategies for teaching English Language Learners* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Howard, E. R., & Christian, D. (2002). Two-way immersion 101: Designing and implementing a two-way immersion education program at the elementary level (Educational Practice Report 9). Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm.
- Howard, E. R. and Loeb, M. (1998). In their own words: Two-way immersion teachers talk about their professional experiences. (ERIC Digest EDO-FL-98-14)
- Hyerle, D. (2000). Visual tools for constructing knowledge. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Hyerle, D. (2001). A Field guide to using visual tools. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Jitendra, A. K., & Rohena-Diaz, E. (1996). Language assessment of students who are linguistically diverse: Why a discrete approach is not the answer. *School Psychology Review*, 25(1), 40-56.
- Lambert, W.E. & Tucker, G. R. (1972). The bilingual education of children. The St. Lambert experiment. Rowley, MA: Newbury House

- LaVan, C. (2001). Help! They're using too much English! The problem of L1 vs. L2 in the immersion classroom. *ACIE Newsletter*l (4)2. Retrieved August 30, 2005 from http://www.carla.umn. edu/immersion/acie/vol4/Feb2001.pdf
- Lyster, R. (1998). Focus on form in content-based instruction. In M. Met (Ed.), *Critical issues in early* second language learning. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman-Addison Wesley.
- Marzano, R. J. (2001). Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for Increasing student achievement. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Valdez-Pierce, L. (1996). Authentic assessment for English language learners. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Peña, E., Quinn, R. & Iglesias, A. (1992). The application of dynamic methods to language assessment: A nonbiased procedure. *Journal of Special Education*, 26, 269-280.
- Reynolds, C. R., Lowe, P. A., & Saenz, A. L. (1999). The problem of bias in psychological assessment. In C. R. Reynolds & T. B. Gutkin (Eds.), *The handbook of school psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 549-596). New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Roseberry-McKibbin, C. (2002). *Multicultural students with special language needs. Practical strategies for assessment and intervention* (2nd ed.). Oceanside, CA: Academic Communication Associates.
- Short, D., Hudec, J., & Echevarria, J. (2002). Using the SIOP model: Professional development manual for sheltered instruction. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Slavin, R., & Cheung, S. (2003). Effective reading programs for English language learners: A bestevidence synthesis. Washington DC: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR). Available from www.csos.jhu.edu
- Thompson, L., Boyson, B. A., & Rhodes, N. 2001. Student oral proficiency assessment (SOPA):
 A foreign language listening and speaking assessment for children grades K-7.
 Administrator's Manual. Unpublished manuscript, Center for Applied Linguistics/National
 K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center, Washington, DC.

Woodcock, R. W. (1991). Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery-Revised (WLPB-R). Itasca, IL: Riverside. Retrieved from http://www.riverpub.com/products/clinical/wlpbr/home.html

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION: Model Lesson Plans

Introduction

Instructional planning in two-way immersion classrooms presents some special challenges, particularly for the new teacher. In addition to the variation in students' academic abilities, learning styles, and knowledge that all teachers encounter, TWI teachers also must be sensitive to linguistic variation. Students in TWI programs may have widely varying language proficiency levels in both their first and second languages, and teachers must balance the need to push native speakers to high levels of language and literacy development with the need to keep the linguistic load manageable for second language learners. Moreover, teachers in these settings are working to promote high levels of language and literacy ability in two languages.

Effective instruction in two-way immersion settings is complex and is achieved through a constellation of strategies. To address both content and language objectives, the successful TWI teacher activates learners' prior knowledge; engages students in culturally relevant activities; employs hands-on learning; uses authentic, performance-based assessments; and supports comprehension through a variety of techniques, such as scaffolding, comprehensible input, wait time, and language frames (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004; Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Soltero, 2004). All of these strategies are necessary for achieving the high-level academic goals set by state and district standards that all program types are accountable for, regardless of the language of instruction. The specific choices teachers make in content standards and themes will, of course, vary from program to program, reflecting local standards, curricula, and student knowledge.

Because TWI programs must help students meet both academic and linguistic goals, lessons for TWI classes—as exemplified by the lessons in this Toolkit—include both content and language objectives. For the English side of the program, basing lesson objectives on English language arts standards is fairly straightforward, as most states and districts have adopted English language arts standards for native speakers, and adaptations for English language learners can be found in state standards or in the TESOL standards (www.tesol.org). For the non-English side of the program, whether Spanish or another language, the situation is less straightforward. Because standards are,

for the most part, not available for the partner language (although New York, for example, does have native language arts standards for languages other than English, available at http://www. emsc.nysed.gov/ciai/biling/resource/NLA.html), programs tend to use ACTFL's foreign language standards (www.actfl.org). These standards may have limited applicability to English language learners studying their own language (e.g., native Spanish-speaking students studying Spanish) and to students in immersion programs in general. An added challenge for the TWI teacher is that language objectives must also be appropriate to the program model. What is appropriate for a 90/10 model will not always be appropriate for a 50/50 model, particularly in the primary grades when the ratios of instruction in the two program languages are very different in the two models.

There are several published frameworks for lesson planning for linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. The template used in this Toolkit draws heavily from two of them—the SIOP model (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004) and the *Give Me Five Framework* (Gordon, 2005, available through Dual U at www.dualu.org). Further modifications have been made based on discussions of lesson planning in the literature (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000), and feedback from Marleny Perdomo, a teacher at the Arlington, VA, Public Schools and Ester de Jong, a researcher at the University of Florida. The template is not intended to replace lesson planning frameworks that teachers may already be using. Rather, it is used here to highlight key features of lesson planning and delivery that need special attention in TWI settings.

The teachers who contributed their unit and lesson plans are all experienced in dual language instruction and have successfully taught these lessons in dual language settings. Together the lessons demonstrate effective dual language instruction at different grade levels, in different languages, and in different contexts. There are no lessons from a 90/10 program because to the extent possible, the lessons were solicited from programs within the area serviced by the Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Lab at Brown University, and the majority of 90/10 programs are on the West Coast. The lessons are meant to be illustrative and are not meant to be applied without adaptation to other classrooms. Rather, they are meant to be analyzed and discussed (perhaps in a teacher study group with the aide of the Study Guide that follows), with particular attention to how the lesson might be modified for a particular classroom. It is also important to keep in mind that these lessons are revisited and reinforced throughout the year by the teachers who developed them.

Each of the plans includes background information about the school in which it was taught, a unit plan that provides a context for the lesson, and a lesson plan that covers a single lesson within the unit. Each plan is followed by a "Teaching the Lesson" section that provides more detail on how the lesson has been delivered in a TWI classroom. The section elaborates on the materials used, the scaffolding and prior knowledge activation that is required, lesson adaptations for special populations within the class, elicitation of higher order thinking, student grouping, and ways to connect the lesson to the larger context of the school and the student's life. The section is meant to provide the thinking behind each lesson, both to enhance the reader's understanding of the unit and lesson plan, and to highlight ties to best practices and the theoretical underpinnings informing these practices.

The six lessons vary with regard to the language of instruction, grade level, and content area. They also highlight different strategies and components of dual language instruction. We suggest that teachers read through all of the model lessons for components that they may find useful in their teaching, as many of the techniques and suggestions can be applied across languages, grade levels, and content areas.

The first two lessons provide examples of math instruction. The first lesson is a first grade math lesson on telling time, taught in Japanese. It provides a good example of a lesson in a partner language other than Spanish, as well as an example of pair work, hands-on learning, and integrated language and content instruction. The second lesson is a third grade math lesson on Tangrams, taught in English. This lesson is an excellent example of thematic instruction, as it makes connection between math, art, and social studies. It also incorporates pair work, hands-on learning, and language/content integration.

The third and fourth lessons provide examples of content area instruction in 'specials' (e.g. physical education, art, music, and library). The third lesson is a third grade performing arts lesson on dance maps, taught in Spanish. This lesson also provides an excellent example of thematic instruction (dance and social studies), as well as an example of the use of Total Physical Response (TPR). The fourth lesson is a second grade lesson, this time focusing on library skills. The unit is taught through both English and Spanish, but the focal lesson included here is taught in English. This lesson provides

a nice example of a cooperative activity that helps to foster connections across languages through an emphasis on cognates. Samples of student work are also included with this lesson.

The last two lessons focus on language arts instruction. The fifth lesson is a fourth-grade lesson taught in English, although the larger unit from which it is drawn is taught through both English and Spanish. This lesson demonstrates an effective use of Readers' Theater to promote comprehension of text, and also shows how to foster cross-cultural awareness, one of the three primary goals of TWI instruction. The sixth and final lesson is a fifth grade language arts lesson taught in Spanish with references to a parallel (but not identical) lesson on proverbs taught in English. This lesson is a wonderful example of how to foster connections and transfer knowledge across languages. It is also a good example of how to use cooperative groups. This lesson is accompanied by supplementary instructional materials and video segments that show this lesson being taught by one of the co-authors, Marleny Perdomo, in a classroom at Key Elementary, a 50/50 program in Arlington, VA (http://www.arlington.k12.va.us/schools/key/brochure.shtml). Examples of student work are also included with this lesson.

References

- Calderón, M. E. & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and implementing two-way bilingual programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Cloud, N., Genesee, F. & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction:* A handbook for enriched education. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M. E., & Short, D. (2004). *Making content comprehensible for English language learners: The SIOP Model* (2nd ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Freeman, Y. S., Freeman, D. E., & Mercuri, S. P. (2005). *Dual Language Essentials for Teachers and Administrators*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gordon, J. (2005). Give Me Five: Instructional Planning for Diverse Learners. Des Plaines, IL: Illinois Resource Center

Soltero, S. W. (2004). Dual Language: Teaching and Learning in Two Languages. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Telling Time as an Everyday Use of Numbers (Phase I)

Hiroko Darnall

Thomas Dooley School, Schaumburg, IL

Dual Language Program Features

Program Model: 50/50

Languages: Japanese and English

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction: All students are taught in the partner language and English simultaneously.

Student Background Within the Dual Language Program

Linguistic Profile: 41% percent of students are native English speakers, 46% are native Japanese speakers, 4% are native speakers of another language, and 9% speak both Japanese and English at home.

Ethnic Profile: About half of the students (46%) are of Japanese origin. Other groups are white (32%), African Americans (9%), students of mixed Japanese/other parentage (9%), and Chinese (4%).

Percent of students in the program qualifying for free/reduced price lunch: 0%

Unit Plan

Grade: First

Time Frame of Unit: Three 45-minute lessons

Language(s) of Lessons: Japanese

Unit Theme: Telling Time as an Everyday Use of Numbers (Phase I)

Standards to Be Addressed

Illinois Learning Standards for Math

7.A. Ib: Measure units of time using appropriate instruments (e.g., calendars, clocks, and watches, both analog and digital).

Illinois Learning Standards for Language Arts

4.A. Ib: Ask questions and respond to questions from the teacher and from group members to improve comprehension.

4.A. Ic: Follow oral instructions accurately.

4.A.Id: Use visually oriented and auditorily based media.

Guiding Questions

What are ways to tell time? How does telling time help us everyday at school and in life? How do we estimate the time? Why is it so important to estimate the time? How are analog and digital clocks alike? How are they different? Why do we have so many clocks and so many different kinds of clocks? Where do we see the time notation as part of environmental print?

How do we write the time?

What doごぜん(*a.m.*) and ごご (*p.m.*) stand for?

Big Ideas

We use time in many different ways in our lives.

We schedule our school activities by time.

Different types of clocks serve different purposes to meet our various needs.

Estimating time is important in life.

Time can be expressed in written form.

There are different ways to express estimated time.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Numbers in Japanese

Parts of a clock

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Estimating time, using only the hour hand.

Understanding that the position of the hour hand indicates the hour to which a time approximation refers.

Understanding clockwise movement of the clock hands.

Matching daily school activities with approximate starting times.

Recognizing different kinds of clocks used for different purposes: for example, stop watch for sports and alarm clocks for waking up.

Telling approximate times, using just before_o'clock, just after_o'clock, and between_and __.

Knowing the relationship between times and routines.

Language Skills

Oral:

Telling time using the hour time counter \circlearrowright (o'clock)

____じです。(_____ o'clock.)

Asking the time

いまなんじですか。(What time is it now?)

Understanding directions

Polite command form

て form verbs + ください。

Time sequence words

さいしょに (first), つぎに (next), それから (then), さいごに (last)

Oral and Written:

The question marker ϑ , which changes a statement into a question.

The hiragana characters $* \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}, \text{ and } \mathcal{U}$.

Terms for telling time. (reading, speaking, listening)

ごろ (about), ちょっとまえ (just before), ちょっとすぎ (just after), and

_と_のあいだ (between _ and _).

Terms for school activities (reading)

こくご(reading), さくぶん(writing), さんすう(math), りか(science),

しゃかい(social studies), たいいく(P.E.), おんがく(music), ずこう(art),

おやつ(snack time), やすみじかん (recess), ランチ(lunch),

バイオリン (violin), どくしょ(silent reading),

かえりのしたく(getting ready for home), にほんご (Japanese).

Math vocabulary and phrases. (reading, speaking, listening)

じかん(time), とけい (clock or watch), なんじ (what time), はり (clock hand), ながい (long), みじかい (short), だいたい (about), ちょっと (a little), すぎ (past or after), まえ (before), じ (o'clock), ごぜん (a.m.), ごご (p.m.).

* There are 46 basic Japanese hiragana characters. Japanese words, when written phonetically, are made up of combinations of those characters. The three characters just above $(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$, for example, can be combined to make the word $\mathcal{E}\mathcal{V}\mathcal{V}$, which means *clock* or *watch*. Because each hiragana character usually represents an entire syllable (in most cases made up of a consonant followed by a vowel), a single character can form a word like \mathcal{C} , which means "o'clock."

Teaching/Learning Activities

Make lists of students' ideas during discussions and vocabulary activities.

Make a clock.

Read books on telling time.

Compare and contrast types of clocks.

Practice writing times in two different ways: $_$ \circlearrowright (_____o'clock) and _____:00.

Estimate time (as a whole class and in pairs).

Play games to learn school subject vocabulary.

Sing a song: 「おおきなのっぽのふるどけい」("A Big, Skinny Clock").

Make a simple book on telling time.

Practice writing *hiragana* characters: \mathcal{E} , \mathcal{H} , \mathcal{N} , and \mathcal{U} .

Materials/Resources

Two clock patterns: one with all the numbers and one with spaces for students to fill in the missing numbers.

Chart paper and construction paper.

CD player.

Worksheets for recording times.

Books on telling time.

Game cards.

Assessment

Informal assessment through observation, such as when students use their own clocks to show the time specified by the teacher. This verifies both oral comprehension and understanding of the content. The teacher may also ask students questions while they are engaged in activities.

Grading of teacher-made activity sheets.

Lesson Plan

Lesson Topic: Showing time on a clock and matching each class subject with its starting time.

Standards to be Addressed

Illinois Learning Standards for Math

7.A. Ib: Measure units of time using appropriate instruments (e.g. calendars, clocks, and watches, both analog and digital).

Illinois Learning Standards for Math for Language Arts

4.A. Ib: Ask questions and respond to questions from the teacher and from group members to improve comprehension.

4.A.Ic: Follow oral instructions accurately.

Guiding Questions

How does telling time help us everyday at school and in life?

How do we estimate the time?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Estimating the time, using only the hour hand.

Understanding clockwise movement of the hour hand.

Matching daily school activities with the approximate time.

Language Skills

Telling time using hour time hand \circlearrowright (o'clock).

Asking a question by constructing interrogative sentences, using the question marker 3° to change a statement into a question:

いまなんじですか。(What time is it now?)

____なんじですか。(What time is _____?)

Using the sentence pattern _____ じです。 (*It is _____ o'clock*) to indicate what time a school subject starts.

Usingごろ (about), ちょっとまえ (just before__), ちょっとすぎ (just after___), and ____と___のあいだ (between__ and ____) to estimate time.

Thinking/Study Skills

Sequencing the daily school activities according to times and applying the skill in other situations.

Materials:

School subject cards: word cards and corresponding picture cards.

Student-made clocks (one per student).

Six additional clocks to indicate the start time for the subjects.

Pocket chart.

Construction paper for key vocabulary.

Motivation

Whole Group Activity

Show the handmade clock made the day before and review how to show and say the exact time. Summarize and review what the students noticed about the clocks the previous day. Remind the students that the handmade clocks are different from the real clocks in the classroom. (Point out the vocabulary cards, 3π \ddot{c} [same] and 5π \ddot{c} [different], in the pocket chart.) Tell the students that they will learn to estimate time and that they will make a clock showing the estimated starting time for each subject.

Clarify what estimate means by showing examples. Add だいたいのじかん (estimated time) to the word list.

Teaching/Learning Activities (35 minutes)

Whole Group Activity

Use estimation language (e.g., I went to a movie at **about** 7:00 and came home **between** 9:00 **and** 10:00; I went to bed **just after** | 1:00; I got up **just before** 6:00.)

Ask students about their activities and represent the times they say on the clock.

Make a list of time estimation words for reference.

Pair Activity

Students practice telling time with their activity partners. Partners take turns setting the hour hand and telling the approximate time. The teacher encourages clockwise movement of the clock hand.

Whole Group Activity

Gather the students on the floor in front of the chalkboard where the pocket chart is hanging.

Go over the school day's schedule using the word cards.

Place the word cards in the pocket chart in order according to the schedule. Use さいしょに (first), つぎに (next), それから (then), さいごに (last).

Show the school subject picture cards and lay them on the chalkboard ledge.

Go over each card with the class and have volunteers match the picture and word cards.

Place the picture cards next to the corresponding word cards.

Use estimation language to discuss approximate start and stop times for each activity in the daily schedule. Have the students set their clocks to each time. Show the teacher's clock to the students so that they can check theirs for accuracy.

Tell the students that they will be doing this every day as a part of the calendar activity.

Assessment

Informal assessment through observation, such as when students work together in pairs to use estimation language to tell time, and when students use their own clocks to show the time specified by the teacher. Because this is a language-intensive math lesson, students' understanding of the vocabulary will be key to their successfully answering questions from the teacher and participating with their partners. The teacher should also be sure to note students' non-verbal behavior, i.e., how they move the hands on their personal clocks, to check for understanding.

Extension

Ask students to find out the times for their after-school activities, such as music lessons, sports practice, homework, and dinner. Send a note home to encourage parents to use estimated time for activities with their students, such as "you need to leave home about 4:00," or "your dad will come home just after 10:00 tonight."

Teaching the Lesson

This unit is introduced as part of establishing a daily routine near the beginning of the school year. The second phase is taught two months later.

Background

Many of the Japanese-speaking children who come to our program have strong native language literacy skills, as most of them go to the Japanese Saturday School. Nevertheless, those Japanese students who have spent several years in the United States generally need a boost to expand their vocabulary and gain control of certain grammatical forms, such as the passive voice and causative forms. Thus, I make a point of introducing more sophisticated vocabulary in content area teaching. I also attempt to use the more difficult structures whenever they fit naturally into the lesson. In addition, during the Japanese Language Arts time, I teach the areas of language that need reinforcement, using a Japanese textbook approved by the Japanese Ministry of Education. An important consideration in teaching Japanese is which politeness level to teach, formal or informal. Typical Japanese first graders use informal forms among themselves. However, they need to learn to use formal forms when they speak with those who are older in order to show respect. Therefore, I teach the formal form of the language. I find that the English-speaking students are able to pick up the informal forms by interacting with their Japanese-speaking peers.

In general, students' second-language skills are usually quite limited when they come into my room. In this lesson, the native English-speaking students are learning new concepts in Japanese. When I conduct the lessons, I make sure to provide visual clues and to accommodate students' learning styles. The use of TPR, gestures, music (including chants or songs), and visuals (drawings or pictures) is essential. Different colored markers, paper, index cards, a portable white board, and magnets to display the visuals are kept close at hand. I try to adjust instruction whenever students do not seem to be understanding, a situation that occurs often in dual language classes, so having these supplies immediately available can be a lifesaver.

Materials

A challenge in teaching in a Japanese dual language setting is the scarcity of Japanese teaching materials for both content and language instruction, especially at the elementary school level and for materials mandated for use throughout the district. Materials must be linguistically and culturally appropriate for the language of instruction. Thus during Japanese instructional time, we often use materials written in English and adapt them for Japanese language instruction. In math, the student lab books and activity books that come with the math curriculum are all written in English. For this particular lesson, materials are not a problem. Teaching children to tell time is probably universal. Any clock patterns available to teachers will do for this lesson.

In the first lesson of the unit, students make a clock with an hour hand only. Since they use this clock several times during math and other lessons, it is a good idea to laminate the hand for durability.

I go over the key vocabulary items with the students and write them on a sheet of white construction paper. With each lesson, I add words. The sheet is posted prominently in the classroom so that the children can refer to it. It stays up until the unit ends.

Motivation

On the day before the lesson, the students created a clock with an hour hand only and had time to explore it. They practiced showing the exact time from 1:00 to 12:00. Using this prior experience, I began the lesson described above by reviewing what the children had found out about the hour hand. Also I reviewed telling exact times.

Chants can help students become familiar with expressions such as

いまなんじですか。(What time is it?) and _____ じです。(_____ O'clock).

Teaching/Learning Activities

To clarify the meaning of estimate, I use the Natural Approach and TPR. For example, I first demonstrate the concept of estimate by showing an hour hand clock whose hand is not exactly aligned with a number on the clock. I say, "だいたい_____じごろです" (It's about ____o'clock), while showing the approximate time. I then repeat the process with different times. Those students who are ready to join in are encouraged to give the approximate times. Then I do the same activity with ______Uぢょっとまえ (just before __o'clock) and _____Uぢょっとすぎ (just after ___ o'clock). I tell the time and the students respond by indicating the time on their own clocks. I always show the possible acceptable times to the students. Every time I show an approximate time to the students, I say that it is an estimated time (だいたいのじかん).

Active and cooperative learning activities as well as playing games such as Time Bingo can also be used to enhance the understanding of the concepts. Students can be paired at their tables or in a whole group setting so that a native speaker is paired with a language learner. Additional practice for telling time is incorporated, as activities can be recycled for learning centers.

For those who can already tell time or estimate the time using the hour hand, an enrichment activity is provided. If the students are ready to use the terms $i \pm \lambda$ (*half*), 15 $s \pm \lambda$ (a quarter or 15 minutes), and so on, I introduce the vocabulary and encourage the learners to use those expressions for saying the "between" times. Math Exemplars are available for math-gifted children in both languages. These provide enrichment activities related to time.

At the end of the lesson, I review the key phrases and words listed on the white construction paper. One side of the sheet lists Japanese words, and the other shows the corresponding English words.

Assessment

Most assessment can be done informally through daily observation. For example, when the students are directed to show the time 3 じちょっとまえ (*just before 3:00*), their performance shows that they understand. Participation in a Time Bingo game can be assessed too. For example, students who have trouble finding where to place their markers are probably having difficulty with certain expressions or vocabulary terms.

When assessing, I try to differentiate between those students who have learned the academic concept but are having difficulty because of their stage in language development and those who are having trouble with the academic concepts. One way to do this is to write the time in digits followed by the words $5 \pm 2 \pm 2 \pm 2$ (just before) on a portable white board or an overhead, placing an arrow pointing counterclockwise above the words. If the students still cannot set their clocks to a little before the hour, it suggests that the problem is at least in part with their understanding of the concept. It is very important to provide visuals when assessing mastery of the concept in order to make sure that the students are not being penalized because of emergent proficiency status.

The worksheets and lab book that come with my district's math curriculum are also used for evaluation. They are written in English, but I explain the directions in Japanese and go over the material in Japanese. I encourage the children to respond in Japanese as much as possible.

Numbered Heads Together, a cooperative learning activity, provides everybody a chance to answer questions, so that speaking can be assessed. I ask a person from each group to respond verbally instead of writing the answer. The Japanese children often help their English-speaking peers if they need language assistance.

Since the basic content and language concepts of this unit will be used everyday in basic classroom routines, assessment through observation is ongoing. Students' progress toward these content and language objectives can be recorded on a record sheet during informal observations, allowing for ongoing monitoring of student performance. Students who need extra time to acquire the concept will be encouraged to practice frequently.



TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Tangram Geometry

Michael Ilan Loeb

PS 89—The Cypress Hills Community School

TWI Program Features

Program Model: 50/50

Languages: English and Spanish

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction: All students are taught in the partner language (Spanish) and English simultaneously.

Student Background Within the TWI Program

Linguistic Profile: Of 246 students enrolled in 2004, roughly one third spoke predominantly English at home, one third spoke predominantly Spanish, and one third spoke both languages.

Ethnic Profile: Most students (71%) are Latino, with families from the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, Mexico, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Colombia, and other Latin American and Caribbean countries. African American students, many with family ties to the English-speaking Caribbean, account for 27% of the student body. Asian and White students make up the remaining 2%.

Percent of students in the program qualifying for free/reduced price lunch: 85.4%

Unit Plan

Grade: 3 Subject: Math Time Frame of Unit: Five one-hour lessons Language(s) of Lessons: English

Unit Theme: Using the Chinese Tangram to deepen basic geometric understandings.

Standards to be Addressed

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics Grade 3-5 Geometry Standard:

Analyzing characteristics and properties of two- and three-dimensional geometric shapes and developing mathematical arguments about geometric relationships. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to classify two- and three-dimensional shapes according to their properties and develop definitions of classes of shapes such as triangles and pyramids. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to investigate, describe, and reason about the results of subdividing, combining, and transforming shapes. Students will explore congruence and similarity.

Applying transformations and using symmetry to analyze mathematical situations. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to predict and describe the results of sliding, flipping, and turning two-dimensional shapes.

Using visualization, spatial reasoning, and geometric modeling to solve problems. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to build and draw geometric objects and create and describe mental images of objects, patterns, and paths.

National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association Standards for the English Language Arts

Standard 4: Students adjust their use of spoken, written, and visual language (e.g., conventions, style, vocabulary) to communicate effectively with a variety of audiences and for different purposes.

Standard 12: Students use spoken, written, and visual language to accomplish their own purposes (e.g., for learning, enjoyment, persuasion, and the exchange of information).

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, ESL Standards for Pre-K Students

Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in the content areas.

Standard I: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.

Guiding Questions

What are Tangrams?

What are the geometric relationships among common shapes?

What happens when shapes are flipped, slid, or rotated?

What designs can be made using only the shapes of the Tangram?

What kinds of new shapes can be formed by combining several Tangram shapes?

Big Ideas

Listening closely is essential for following directions.

Shapes can be manipulated or transformed by flipping, sliding, or rotating.

Tangram pieces can be combined to create standard geometrical shapes or artistic designs.

Geometric understanding is important for artistic expression.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Familiarity with basic polygons—isosceles triangle, square, parallelogram, trapezoid.

Using visual information and manipulatives for mathematical problem-solving.

Following oral instructions to manipulate shapes.

Knowledge of Chinese culture and traditions.

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Name and classify Tangram shapes.

Develop geometric understanding of shapes, angles, congruence, and similarity.

Combine Tangram pieces to create new shapes.

Reproduce Tangram designs from drawings.

Create drawing from Tangram designs.

Learn how shapes can be manipulated by flipping, sliding, and rotating them.

Language Skills

Vocabulary Related to Study Unit

Tangram/Tan

Triangle, square, rectangle, parallelogram, trapezoid

Right angle

Flip, slide, rotate

Small, medium, large

Fold, cut

Pattern

Clockwise, counterclockwise

Congruent, similar

Listening

Comprehending oral instructions

Asking and answering questions

Requesting information and assistance

Speaking

Giving precise instructions using command form verbs and providing clarification as needed.

Requesting clarification.

Participating in full class, group, and pair discussions.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Become familiar with Chinese Tangram pieces and puzzles by participating in an interactive read aloud of *Grandfather Tang's Story*.

Make a 7-piece Tangram Set by following oral instructions.

Reproduce and color Tangram designs of familiar figures and objects using all 7 pieces by following solutions provided by teacher.

Find and draw solutions for making a square, triangle, parallelogram, rectangle, and trapezoid using 2, 3, 5, and all 7 Tangram pieces.

Create original artistic shapes using Tangram pieces.

Materials/Resources

Burns, M. (2000). About teaching mathematics: A K-8 resource. Sausalito: Math Solutions.

Tompert, A. (1990). . New York: Crown Publishers.

Changram: Chinese Tangram Puzzle Game (magnetic pieces and game board with 21 pages of suggested designs and solutions). Available from Selchow and Righter.

6" card stock squares.

Plastic Tangrams Sets (one set for each student or for each partnership).

Assessment

Observe students as they cut Tangrams. Are they able to understand the instructions? Are they able to fold and cut with precision? Can they recover if they have missed a step, or do they become frustrated? Examine finished sets for accuracy. Ensure that all 7 pieces have been created and that no edges were cut off.

Circulate while students work on shapes, paying close attention to the ability of individual students to flip, slide, and rotate pieces to make shapes. When they are stuck, can they follow peer instructions? Do they give instructions using precise mathematical language?

When working with and without a solution in front of them, can students mentally perform the rotations and flips necessary to recreate a design or must they physically move the Tans? Do they recognize shapes that merely need to be rotated or flipped? Can they recall previous solution strategies they have employed?

Save completed Tangram shapes graphic organizer and student Tangram art for classroom display and inclusion in math portfolios.

Lesson Plan

Lesson Topic: Becoming familiar with the 7-piece Tangram set and following oral instructions to create a personal version of the set.

Standards to be Addressed

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics Grade 3-5 Geometry Standard:

Analyzing characteristics and properties of two- and three-dimensional geometric shapes and develop mathematical arguments about geometric relationships. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to investigate, describe, and reason about the results of subdividing, combining, and transforming shapes. Students will explore congruence and similarity.

Applying transformations and using symmetry to analyze mathematical situations. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to predict and describe the results of sliding, flipping, and turning two-dimensional shapes.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, ESL Standards for Pre-K Students

Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in the content areas.

Standard I: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.

Guiding Questions

What are Tangrams? What are the geometric relationships among common shapes? What happens when shapes are flipped, slid, or rotated a shape? What designs can be made using only the shapes of the Tangram?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Name and classify Tangram shapes.

Learn how shapes can be manipulated by flipping, sliding, and rotating them, and how they can be combined to create new shapes or designs.

Language Skills

Math Vocabulary

Tangram/ Tan (each of the 7 individual pieces)

Square

Flip, slide, rotate

Small, medium, large

Fold, cut

Congruent

Similar

Listening

Comprehending oral instructions.

Speaking

Giving precise instructions using command form verbs and providing clarification as needed.

Examples:

"Pick up the small/medium/large _____."

"Put the small/medium/large ______ next to/below/above the _____."

"Rotate the small/medium/large _____ clockwise/counterclockwise."

Requesting clarification

Examples:

"Could you repeat that, please?"

"Where should I put the _____?"

Thinking/Study Skills

Following oral instructions.

Materials

Copy of Grandfather Tang's Story: A Tale Told with Tangrams.

Magnetic set of Tangrams or prearranged sets of Tangrams to demonstrate the transformations at the heart of Grandfather Tang's Story.

Teacher-made recording of oral instructions on how to make a Tangram from card stock cut into 6" squares.

Motivation

Read aloud *Grandfather Tang's Story:* A *Tale Told with Tangrams*. Discuss the 7 pieces of the Tangram introduced in the story and point out their origins in China. Preview the idea that a wide variety of animals and figures can be made with the Tans. (15-20 minutes)

Teaching/Learning Activities

I. Demonstrate how the 7 Tangram Tans can be flipped, rotated, and rearranged to produce different designs, referring to *Grandfather Tang's Story*. (5 minutes)

2. Use overhead, poster, or magnetic Tangram pieces to identify and label all 7 Tangram pieces. Briefly discuss the fact that some of the pieces are the same size (congruent) and some are the same shape but not the same size (similar). (5 minutes)

3. Pair students with their math partners and distribute Tangram kits and a template with the outline of a design that the students will make. Students work in pairs to use the Tans to complete the design. Students should be encouraged to use the precise math vocabulary and language structures noted above. Teacher will circulate providing hints as needed.

4. Meet back as a whole class to have students share their experiences in creating their designs, review the names of the seven Tans, review the concepts of similar and congruent, and set the stage for the subsequent lessons which will focus on more complex designs. (10 minutes)

Assessment

Observe students as they work in pairs to complete their designs. Are they able to work together using precise mathematical language? Examine finished sets for accuracy. Circulate while students work on shapes, paying close attention to the ability of individual students to flip, slide, and rotate pieces to make shapes. When they are stuck, can they follow peer instructions? Do students give each other instructions using precise mathematical language? Do students work together using the appropriate content and functional language structures to guide their interactions and complete their activity?

Extension

The unit on Tangrams can be the basis for future activities in math, art, and writing. Students can write a story similar to *Grandfather Tang's Story* that uses Tangram designs as illustrations or use Tangram figures to complete mathematical problems, such as finding the area of a square or other geometrical shape. Students can work on Tangram puzzles during center time, recreating designs from books or creating their own designs and recording them on paper.

Teaching the Lesson

This unit on Tangram geometry was originally created as an extension of a 2-D geometry unit in *Everyday Math* and as part of an ongoing social studies unit on Asia. It also has ties to visual arts and language arts. The book *Grandfather Tang's Story: A Tale Told with Tangrams* introduces the interdisciplinary unit. It is an engaging tale of friendly competition that encourages students to make predictions. It introduces the 7 pieces of the Tangram, addresses their origins in China, and most importantly, shows a wide variety of animals and figures that can be made with the Tans. This last aspect of the book is particularly important when working with second language learners, because it provides a visual preview for the activity that will follow. This book is especially useful as motivation for the lesson by bringing together the artistic expression demonstrated in the illustrations, the use of Tangrams as a basis for writing, and the explicit connections made between Tangram geometry and Chinese culture.

Trying to make basic shapes or copy Tangram designs without a model that shows how to arrange pieces is frustrating. Students may not remember to rotate or flip shapes. There are many things that the teacher can do to help reduce the cognitive demands of this task. First, by preparing different versions of the same outline with varying numbers of clues, the teacher will be able to help students achieve the content objectives. Second, by providing students with the vocabulary and the language structures that go with them, and by modeling the use of these language forms, the teacher will help ensure that the students meet the language objectives for the lesson. These types of visual and linguistic scaffolds are particularly essential in TWI classrooms because of the varying levels of language proficiency in the class.



TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Mapas Bailados: Creating Visual Representations of Dances Using Maps

Ana Inés Rubinstein

Cypress Hills Community School, Brooklyn, NY

Dual Language Program Features

Program Model: 50/50

Languages: English and Spanish

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction: All students are taught in the partner language (Spanish) and English simultaneously.

Student Background Within the Dual Language Program

Linguistic Profile: Of 246 students enrolled in 2004, roughly one third spoke predominantly English at home, one third spoke predominantly Spanish, and one third spoke both languages.

Ethnic Profile: Most students (71%) are Latino, with families from the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, Mexico, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Colombia, and other Latin American and Caribbean countries. African American students, many with family ties to the English-speaking Caribbean, account for 27% of the student body. Asian and White students make up the remaining 2%.

Percent of students in the program qualifying for free/reduced price lunch: 85.4%

Unit Plan

Grade: 3

Subject: Dance

Time Frame of Unit: Eight 45-minute lessons occurring 2 times per week during dance class, but connecting to and coinciding with mapping skills taught during social studies.

Language(s) of Lessons: Spanish

Unit Theme: Mapping and Dance Notation

Standards to Be Addressed

New York State Learning Standards for the Arts

Standard I: Creating, Performing and Participating in the Arts

Students will know and demonstrate a range of movement elements and skills (including such locomotor movements as walking, running, hopping, turning, etc.). Students will demonstrate a range of forms from free improvisation to structured choreography. Students will create and improvise dance phrases, studies, and dances, alone and/or in collaboration with others.

Standard 2: Knowing and Using Arts Materials and Resources

Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to access and use dance resources (such as choreography charts and maps). Students will demonstrate knowledge of audience/performer responsibilities and relationships in dance.

Standard 3: Responding to and Analyzing Works of Art

Students will demonstrate a knowledge of the technical language used in discussing dance performances. Students will demonstrate knowledge of choreographic principles and processes. Students will express to others their understanding of specific dance performances, including perceptions, analyses, interpretations, and evaluations.

Standard 4: Understanding the Cultural Dimensions of the Arts

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.

New York State Learning Standards for Social Studies

Standard 3: Geography.

Students will draw maps and diagrams that serve as representations of places, physical features, and objects.

ACTFL Standards for Foreign Language Instruction

Standard 1.2: Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics.

Standard 1.3: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

Standard 3.1: Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language.

Guiding Questions

What are some of the ways that we can remember the dances we make up?

What are some of the ways that professional dancers and choreographers remember the dances they make up?

What are some of the movement elements that we can use to make up a dance?

What can we learn by looking at a dance map?

What are some of the advantages or disadvantages of using notation systems versus video to record and remember dances?

Big Ideas

Dances are made up of smaller elements that we can describe in everyday terms.

Videotaping and notating using symbols (both invented and standard) are ways to record dances; each has its own benefits and limitations.

Symbols are arbitrary; therefore, it is necessary to provide their meaning in order to make them comprehensible to users (such as through a key).

Symbols and notation are useful for communicating specific movements, but we may need other forms of description and examples to teach all the details and the expressive feeling of a dance.

We can apply many of the principles used in making a dance map to making other types of maps; for example, both a dance map and a geographical map use keys and define the map's orientation. Maps are most effective when designed to fit the needs of the user.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Basic map-making.

The difference between locomotor and non-locomotor movement.

Using child-generated symbols in a sequence to map standard forms of non-locomotor movement. Identifying and using everyday movements to make up simple dances.

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Understanding the difference between locomotor and non-locomotor movement.

Clearly demonstrating where a movement begins and ends in space.

Clearly demonstrating changes of direction in space.

Clearly demonstrating a sequence of movement patterns in space.

Using consistent symbols and a key within a map to create a comprehensible "story".

Reading a map in order to decipher and perform a dance.

Observing and describing everyday movements in everyday activities.

Clearly distinguishing between different types of everyday movement in a dance (e.g. running vs. walking vs. turning vs. hopping). Deciphering and using Language of Dance (LOD) symbols. Using a video camera to record dance work in class. Comparing and contrasting dance notation and documentation systems.

Language Skills

Ordinal numbers: primero, segundo, tercero, etc.

Phrases: Hay que phrase followed by an infinitive (e.g., Hay que caminar), Este símbolo significa que... (e.g., Este símbolo significa que hay que brincar).

Prepositions that relate to spacial use: *hacia*, *desde*, *hasta*, *al lado de*, *a la izquierda de*, *a la derecha de*, *etc*.

Vocabulary: correr, caminar, dar vueltas, menear, brincar, clave, mapa, al comienzo, al final, empieza, termina, aquí, allá, una linea continua, una linea interrumpida, curvas, flechas, puntos, cruces.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Identify everyday movements that are both locomotor and non-locomotor.

Create simple dance sequences using everyday movement.

Create symbols to represent locomotor movement.

Apply self-created symbols to notate a dance.

Decode these symbols to perform or recreate a dance.

Create, exchange, and decode student-produced dance maps using these symbols in order to teach each other simple dances.

Read LabaNotation LOD symbols to decode movement.

Use LOD symbols to notate a simple dance sequence.

Create, view, and compare video as a means of documenting dance.

Reproduce a dance from a videotape.

Compare and contrast experiences of reproducing dance from videotape versus maps or LOD.

Materials/Resources

Stage, gym, or large open space within a classroom.

Butcher paper, markers, and masking tape.

An easel if no wall space is available for hanging experience chart.

Sidewalk chalk and/or tape.

A Spanish translation of Robert Graves' "Frank Was a Monster Who Wanted To Dance."

Blank paper and pens, pencils, crayons, markers, or other writing implements.

Sentence strips.

A video camera and videotape.

A VCR and television.

Any necessary cables or transfer devices for viewing videotapes on a VCR and a television monitor.

A sample rehearsal video of a choreography in progress.

A sample professional video of a finished choreographic work, such as those produced by Paul

Taylor, the American Ballet Theater, and Hubbard Street Dance, for comparison with the rehearsal video.

A sample dance map of the choreography in progress in the rehearsal video.

Copies of rubrics for assessments.

Copies of checklist for student homework assignment.

Assessment

Informal assessment through observation, noting whether students are understanding the concepts as well as whether they are correctly using new vocabulary words.

Presentations/performances by children, which are assessed via a rubric.

Examination of children's maps, which are assessed via a rubric.

Notation quiz in which children must apply symbols to describe a sample dance sequence performed by the teacher.

Lesson Plan

Lesson Topic: Using symbols to notate locomotor movement in a defined space.

Standards to be Addressed

New York State Learning Standards for the Arts

Standard I: Creating, Performing, and Participating in the Arts. Students will know and demonstrate a range of movement elements and skills (including such locomotor movements as walking, running, hopping, turning, etc).

Standard 2: Knowing and Using Arts Materials and Resources. Students will demonstrate knowledge of how to access and use dance resources (such as choreography charts and maps).

New York State Learning Standards for Social Studies

Standard 3: Geography. Students will draw maps and diagrams that serve as representations of places, physical features, and objects.

ACTFL Standards for Foreign Language Instruction

Standard 1.2: Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics.

Standard 1.3: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

Standard 3.1: Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language.

Guiding Questions

What are some of the ways that we can remember the dances we make up?

How could we use maps to remember the elements of a dance and how a dance uses space?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Demonstrating where a movement begins and ends in space.

Demonstrating changes of direction in space.

Demonstrating a sequence of movement patterns in space.

Using consistent symbols and a key within a map to create a comprehensible "story".

Reading a map in order to decipher and perform a dance.

Language Skills

Ordinal numbers: primero, segundo, tercero, etc.

Phrases: Hay que phrase followed by an infinitive (e.g., Hay que caminar), Este símbolo significa que... (e.g., Este símbolo significa que hay que brincar.)

Prepositions that relate to spacial use: *hacia, desde, hasta, al lado de, a la izquierda de, a la derecha de, etc.*

Vocabulary: correr, caminar, dar vueltas, menear, brincar, clave, mapa, al comienzo, al final, empieza, termina, aquí, allá.

Thinking/Study Skills

Making and recording observations.

Creating two-dimensional representations of temporal, three-dimensional events.

Using symbolic representations to convey information.

Materials

Stage, gym, or large open space within a classroom.

Butcher paper, markers, and masking tape for filling in and hanging class experience chart.

An easel if no wall space is available for hanging experience chart.

Sidewalk chalk and/or tape for marking floor patterns on rug or floor.

A Spanish translation of Robert Graves' "Frank Was a Monster Who Wanted To Dance."

Blank sentence strips. Large scale map of a dance.

Copies of checklist for student homework assignment.

Motivation

The teacher asks students to talk about what a map is and to share what they know about maps, eliciting information that they have learned in their social studies classes, such as the use of symbolic notation, the use of keys to convey the meanings of these symbols, directionality, etc.). The teacher then introduces the idea of a dance map through the read-aloud.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Read "Frank the Monster..." and show students the dance map on the inside cover of the book. Ask, "Could we create our own dance map? What would we need to know about the symbols on the map to use it?"

Using sentence strips to record the actions and their corresponding symbolic notations, create a key with the students for the following types of movement: *caminar* (walk), *corren* (run), *dar vueltas* (turn), *menear* (wiggly pathway), and *brincar* (hop).

Using chalk (on a rug) or masking tape (on a floor), create a large-scale dance map using the symbols you have just agreed upon. Invite children to follow the map by dancing through it. As a class, transfer the floor map to chart paper.

Divide the children into groups of four (with varying levels of language proficiency in each group) and give each group a piece of chart paper and a marker. Ask each group to create a dance map that incorporates three movements and uses the agreed-upon symbolic notations for those movements.

When the groups have completed their maps, have each of the members in each group present their map to the class. One group member (the reporter) will explain the map using key vocabulary and the *hay que* constructions while the other members perform the dance.

Review key vocabulary and symbols for use in homework.

Assessment

Assessment is through informal observation and through the use of a rubric designed to measure the following abilities:

- Ability to understand the correspondence between a specific movement and its symbol;

- Ability to communicate a sequence of movement patterns in space using symbolic notation;

- Ability to interpret symbolic notation on a dance map and perform the corresponding dance correctly; and

- Achievement of the language objectives in correct use of key vocabulary and the *hay que* constructions.

Extension

For homework: With his or her permission, follow a family member at home for five minutes and use symbolic notation to record the movements on a map. In many cases, it will be necessary to create new symbols to express these movements. Be sure to include a key that provides the meanings of your new symbols. As an example, you could map how someone in your family moves around when they are cleaning up or making a meal. After you have done mapping, use your map to answer the following questions:

What kinds of locomotor movements were used? What symbolic notations did you create to express these movements and why?

Was there a lot of movement in those five minutes or not very much?

Was the movement repetitive or varied?

Did all of the locomotor movement stay in one small area or did it move to different parts of your home?

Extra Credit Question: Did the movement pattern imply anything about how the person felt in those five minutes?

Teaching the Lesson

The Cypress Hills Community School supports dance instruction in all grades of the dual language program, not only to encourage cultural literacy in the arts, but also because dance offers the opportunity to experience vocabulary through Total Physical Response (TPR). This unit, like many of the other units I have prepared for the school's dual language program, was designed to support second language comprehension and production in Spanish, while simultaneously teaching higher level concepts in dance notation and analysis. This unit scaffolds learning across content areas. It is tied specifically to the third grade social studies curriculum.

During the part of the lesson in which the children and the teacher together create the symbols and the key for their dance maps, each action verb is heard, spoken, performed, and represented graphically. Students might first hear, "¿Cómo podemos mostrar en nuestros mapas que hay que caminar?" (How can we show in our maps that it is necessary to walk?). Then, they see a child or the teacher create a symbol (for example, ----->) that conveys the sense of the word, accompanied by the written word in Spanish. The symbol is then copied not only onto a large map of the classroom, but also onto the floor of the classroom, where children can experience that symbol directly by walking on it. Children then transfer that knowledge back to maps and apply it to their own choreography. The sequence of activities moves back and forth between the physical experience of dancing, and hearing and using the words and symbols representing an action.

Because this lesson is multimodal, it allows for a broad range of student abilities to be addressed. For emergent speakers or students still in the silent phase of second language acquisition, TPR makes the concepts comprehensible. Students are also supported through the read-aloud of an illustrated book. More advanced Spanish speakers are engaging with content-area concepts relating to dance, social studies (mapping), and math (sequencing and symbols). In addition, open-ended questions are posed throughout the lesson to encourage the development of expressive verbal skills for more advanced learners or native speakers of Spanish.

This unit scaffolds learning by connecting to what students already know and what they are learning in the content areas. This is particularly important to do when working with second language

learners. For this reason, instruction can never be delivered in isolation. Rather, it is supported by third-grade thematic units and by a continuous dance program beginning in kindergarten that prepares children for the spatial and language elements presented here. Over the prior three years, students have built up vocabulary about basic body parts, emotions, and movement elements. They have learned to link words in Spanish with their corresponding actions through a series of games and songs that are repeated during the early childhood grades. They have learned the concept of sequencing, and by the end of the second grade, they have created visual representations for nonlocomotor dance sequences.

Meanwhile, the mapping concepts in this lesson support and are supported by an in-depth study of mapping in Grades 2-5. In second grade, simple maps are introduced. In third grade, students' social studies curriculum involves extensive map-making of local environments such as the classroom, home, and school. In fourth grade, students begin to study political maps; and in fifth grade, they do in-depth project work with topographical maps. The dance maps reinforce the idea that a map represents a physical space and (in some cases) the uses of a physical space. It also reinforces the concept that there are many different kinds of maps and that each type supports a different purpose or need.

It should also be noted that this lesson was implemented in the context of a school that suffers from the limitations of being temporarily housed within an overcrowded host school. As such, we are not always able to provide dance classes in the gym, auditorium, or cafeteria. This lesson can be, and has been, implemented in a small classroom without compromising the material too badly. Of course it would be more pleasant for the children to perform bigger movement, but by the same token, this is one dance lesson that teachers should not shy away from delivering for lack of space. However, if the lesson is taught in a small space, special attention should be given to streamlining the map and the number of children dancing at one time in order to avoid collisions.

Finally, it should also be noted that this lesson, as is the case with all of my most successful dance lessons, was created in collaboration with a classroom teacher (in this instance, Amy Cohen, the third grade classroom teacher at the time). In order for an out-of-classroom teacher to work effectively in second-language instruction, collaboration with classroom teachers is essential.

Because she spent all day with the children, and understood intimately their cognitive, emotional, and linguistic development, Amy was able to help me reshape my original lesson plan to better support the students with the least fluency in Spanish. She was the one who developed the idea of superimposing the dance map onto the rug with chalk and also supported me throughout the year to keep explicitly linking oral language *production* (as opposed to only receptive language) to dance activities.

These efforts paid off. By the end of the year, Amy credited my dance class with her second language learners' success in learning action words and adverbs that describe movement. We also recognized that, with its emphasis on TPR, the dance class was a space in which students had opportunities to practice hearing and using concrete language, which is especially important for students who still have difficulties in Spanish in third grade, when academic language generally becomes more abstract. Connections between the tangible and the abstract were also made possible as students talked about the emotions being conveyed through movement.



TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Library Curriculum: What Would a Wonderful Library Be Like?

Berky Lugo-Salcedo

The Cypress Hills Community School, Brooklyn, NY

Dual Language Program Background

Program Model: 50/50

Languages: English and Spanish

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction: All students are taught in Spanish and English simultaneously.

Student Background Within the Dual Language Program

Linguistic Profile: Of 246 students enrolled in 2004, roughly one third spoke predominantly English at home, one third spoke predominantly Spanish, and one third spoke both languages.

Ethnic Profile: Most students (71%) are Latino, with families from the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, Mexico, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, and other Latin American and Caribbean countries. African American students, many with family ties to the English-speaking Caribbean, account for 27% of the student body. Asian and White students make up the remaining 2%.

Percent of Students in the Program Qualifying for Free/Reduced Price Lunch: 85.4%

Unit Plan

Grade: 2

Time Frame of Unit: One month

Language(s) of Lessons: English and Spanish (5-day cycle)

Unit Theme: Libraries as a Resource for Communities

Standards to be Addressed

New York City Performance Standards for Applied Learning

Ala: Design a product, service, or system; identify needs that could be met by new products, services, or systems, and create solutions for meeting them.

A5a: Work with others to complete a task.

A5b: Show or explain something clearly enough for someone else to be able to do it.

A5c: Respond to a request from a client.

New York City Performance Standards for English Language Arts

Elb: Read and comprehend at least four books on the same subject, or by the same author, or in the same genre.

E3b: Participate in group meetings.

E4a: Demonstrate a basic understanding of the rules of the English language in written and oral work.

New York State Standards for Native Language Arts

Standard I: Students will listen, speak, read, and write in their native languages for information and understanding.

Standard 4: Students will listen, speak, read, and write in their native languages for social interactions.

New York State Standards for Foreign Language Learning

Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own.

Guiding Questions

What are the characteristics of a library? What can we discover in a library? How do we decide the kinds of book we want to borrow? What will we find out when we visit our local library? How do we behave in a library? What kinds of jobs are necessary to make a library run well? How does the lending system work?

Big Ideas

Libraries are important parts of a learning community.

Libraries have many resources (e.g., Internet access, read alouds for children, and summer reading clubs).

Libraries have rules for behavior.

Libraries have systems in place to help us find books.

Librarians have to be familiar with the books in the library in order to help others find the books they may need.

Libraries have categories and subcategories for books (e.g., fiction subcategories include fairy tales, historical fiction, realistic fiction, and fantasy).

Libraries and their resources are shaped by the interest of those in the community.

Libraries must have a variety of books in order to address the various needs of the people in the community.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Knowledge of what is a *just right book*| and how students can select their own just right books. Knowledge of genres.

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Using the library to discover new information, to find enjoyable books, and to find out more information about a topic.

Identifying the different parts of a book (the cover, the back cover, the spine, and the title page).

Finding similarities and differences in books written by the same author.

Sorting books in their groups and genres, and providing a rationale for this grouping.

Deciding on the criteria for giving the Second Grade Librarian Award to a book.

Language Skills

Providing constructive criticism and comments in group discussions. Listening respectfully and taking turns speaking. Recounting events orally using sequence words. Formulating interview questions (e.g., Where is...? What is...?) Vocabulary: parts of a book, *fiction, nonfiction, reference, encyclopedia, sections, subcategories, subheadings, juvenile, librarian.* Understanding cognates (true and false). Using cognates to develop comprehension in English. Using persuasive language to justify the choice for the Second Grade Librarian Award.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Using a KWL chart (i.e., what do you know about this topic; what do you want to know; (later) what did you learn) to assess students' prior knowledge about libraries and to find out their reading interests.

Creating a book using the writing patterns or styles of a particular author (featured in the classroom library display).

Designing a diagram showing the different parts of a book.

Designing a poster showing how to take care of books.

Visiting the public library for a tour and interviewing a librarian.

Discussing the names of parts of a book and parts of a library, noting that many of these terms are English/Spanish cognates.

Reading award-winning books and determining why these books received awards.

Deciding criteria for awarding the Second Grade Librarian Award to books in the classroom library.

Using the computer to design a lending library card for the class library.

Organizing the classroom library using a system similar to the Dewey Decimal Classification System.

Acting as librarians in the classroom when other students from the school come to the classroom lending library during library hours (last half hour of lunch).

Writing about experiences during the library visit and about how students felt as librarians after the grand opening of their classroom library.

Materials/Resources

Student-to-student reading interest surveys.Books from a variety of genres in both languages.Baskets.Large labels.Markers.Pencils.Golden award seals.Several sets of books by the same author (Anthony Browne and other student-selected favorites).Treasure Hunt worksheet.Library card (for checking out books).Large construction paper.

Assessment

Formal assessment takes place through grading of the various products that students create during the unit (scavenger hunt worksheet, design of a book, poster for how to take care of books, and essay on their experiences in the public library). These products should be assessed for students' understanding of the concepts as well as their proper use of vocabulary and incorporation of other language objectives.

Students are also informally assessed through teacher evaluation of content and language skills. Questions to be asked:

How are the children treating library books after this unit?

What is their attitude towards reading?

Do children show increasing interest in books? Did the students collaborate in partnerships?

Are the students using environmental print and words from the text in written work and conversations?

Are the students using appropriate vocabulary?

Lesson Plan

Lesson Topic: Finding books in the library according to genre (English Day).

Standards to be Addressed

New York State Native Language Arts Standards

Standard I: Students will listen, speak, read, and write in their native languages for information and understanding.

New York State Standards for Foreign Language Learning

Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own.

New York City Performance Standards for English Language Arts:

E3b: Participate in group meetings.

Guiding Questions

How do we use Spanish cognates to help develop English vocabulary specific to literary genres?

How can we locate various types of resources in a library?

What are the characteristics of a library?

What can we discover in the library?

How do we behave in a library?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Understanding that systems are used in libraries to help us find books.

Understanding the different ways a library is organized (e.g., Juvenile, Adult, and Reference sections).

Understanding that nonfiction books are classified by numbers printed on their spine while fiction books are classified by letters.

Language Skills

Asking WH-questions about the library (e.g., Where is...? What is ...? What other?

Using content vocabulary: reference, encyclopedia, sections, subcategories, subheadings, juvenile, librarian.

Using cognates as a tool for understanding English terms: reference/referencia, encyclopedia/ enciclopedia, sections/secciones, subcategories/subcategoría, fiction/ficción, juvenile/juvenil, author/autor, illustration/ilustración.

Thinking/Study Skills

Understanding headings and subheadings. Understanding principles of sorting and classifying. Understanding how to collect and record data. Understanding how cognates can build a bridge to the English language.

Materials

Student-generated list of books read in this and other classes (includes fiction and nonfiction books). Library Treasure Hunt Sheet. Clip boards. Pencils.

Motivation (Group Activity, Approximately 5 Minutes)

The teacher leads a discussion with the students about their last visit to the library, reviewing the questions the students asked the librarian and what she told them about her job and the different sections of the library. Then the teacher introduces the Treasure Hunt Sheet activity:

"Now that we know the different parts of a library, we will discover the kinds of books that are found in the different parts of the library. We will be library detectives looking for clues, but in our case we are looking for titles of books. Every one of you will have a partner, and together you and your partner will read the instruction on this Treasure Hunt Sheet and go out and LOOK for a title that is found in that section of the library. We will then come back and share what we found out in our investigation. Are we ready? Let's put on our detective coats and take our notebooks and clip boards."

Teaching/Learning Activities (Partner Activity, Approximately 1 Hour)

I. The teacher and the students walk to the community library.

2. After greeting the librarian, the students go with her to the Juvenile section.

3. The librarian discusses with the students appropriate behavior in the library.

4. The students go off with their partners to find the things listed on the Treasure Hunt Sheet.

5. After students have had time to complete their Treasure Hunt Sheets, the teacher leads them back to the classroom, modeling low voice and quiet walking while in the library.

6. Back in the classroom, students work in pairs with their partners, taking turns talking about what they found in the library. The teacher encourages students to use the appropriate vocabulary when referring to the types of books they found (novel, poetry, encyclopedia, etc.).

7. The teacher calls on a few students to share with the class what they told their partners that they learned at the library.

Assessment

Formal: The teacher checks the Treasure Hunt Sheet for appropriate responses.

Informal: During the library visit, the teacher listens in on the students' conversations and watches for interactive skills. Are students taking turns to speak? Are they listening to each other? Are they referring back to their Treasure Hunt Sheet to share what they learned? During the student discussion of the library visit, the teacher notes students' understanding of how nonfiction and fiction books are classified and their use of the lesson vocabulary.

Extension

Students use their knowledge about the community library to design a classroom library, complete with classification and lending systems. Students continue to maintain the classroom library throughout the year.

For upcoming units of study, students will be exploring the solar system and developing questions they want to research. Students are encouraged to bring in books from home or the local library on these topics to help the class find the answers to our inquiry questions.

Teaching the Lesson

Many struggling readers are uninterested in reading. Since one of the goals of two-way immersion classrooms is to develop literacy skills in two languages, struggling readers in these programs face special challenges. Therefore, two-way immersion teachers must find creative ways to motivate students to read.

This unit seeks to improve the reading lives of students in two ways. First, it provides them with plenty of opportunities, in the classroom and in the library, to experience the joy of reading. Many students in my classroom come from low-income homes where both parents work long hours and do not have the time to read to their children. In *Schools that Work*, Richard Allington and Patricia Cunningham (2002) note that "children who arrive at school with few book, story, and

print experiences are the very children who need rich literature environments and activities in their school day" (p. 54). This unit provides students with those environments and activities.

Second, this unit builds on students' knowledge of Spanish vocabulary to help them understand English terms related to literary genres. Through the use of cognates, students make cross-linguistic connections and deepen their understanding of both languages.

Unit and Lesson Activities

At the beginning of this unit, students explore different authors and their writing styles. The class reads books by Anthony Browne (author of the *Willy* series) in Spanish, and by Mem Fox in English. Students expand their experiences with literature through read alouds and classroom discussions of the similarities and differences, in content and style, found in the books.

In this lesson, students discover the wealth of resources available at the local library. Students learn how a library operates, how it is organized, and how to access its resources. Then, by completing the Treasure Hunt Sheet activity, students put their new knowledge to practical use by working in pairs to locate familiar books. Finally, back in the classroom, students have the chance to discuss their findings, using the words they have learned to refer to the books they found. Thus, the students have an opportunity to use language within the context of an authentic experience.

This unit and lesson also underscore the importance of using cognates to build English comprehension. I teach students to find the roots of words, pointing out to both English and Spanish language learners that many words in English derive from Latin or Spanish. I point out, for instance, that the English words *fiction* and *nonfiction* look similar to the Spanish words *ficción* and *no-ficción*. In fact, almost all of the genres that students identify at the library have similarities in their Spanish and English spellings.

Student Grouping

Grouping techniques are an essential component of the dual language classroom, where peer interaction is as crucial as student-teacher interaction. As Pauline Gibbons (2002) notes, "We [teachers] should not forget that group work may have positive affective consequences: Learners

who are not confident in English or [Spanish] often feel more comfortable working with peers than being expected to perform in a whole-class situation'' (p. 18).

In general, I like to combine students with different proficiency levels in the two languages. I often create groups of three or four that have at least one bilingual student. The rest of the students at the table can be a combination of English dominant and Spanish dominant.

I also like to combine children with different reading levels. I find great value in seating a low-level reader next to a high-level reader. The arrangement is mutually beneficial: The high-level reader serves as a model for the low-level reader, and in the process of helping someone else, the more proficient reader develops a deeper knowledge of the reading process.

Another factor to take into consideration when grouping students is personality. In my experience, two introverted students are not helpful to each other in terms of acquiring language skills. However, with the help of guidelines that spell out the different roles that students are expected to take in the group activity, an extroverted student may be a good partner for an introverted student.

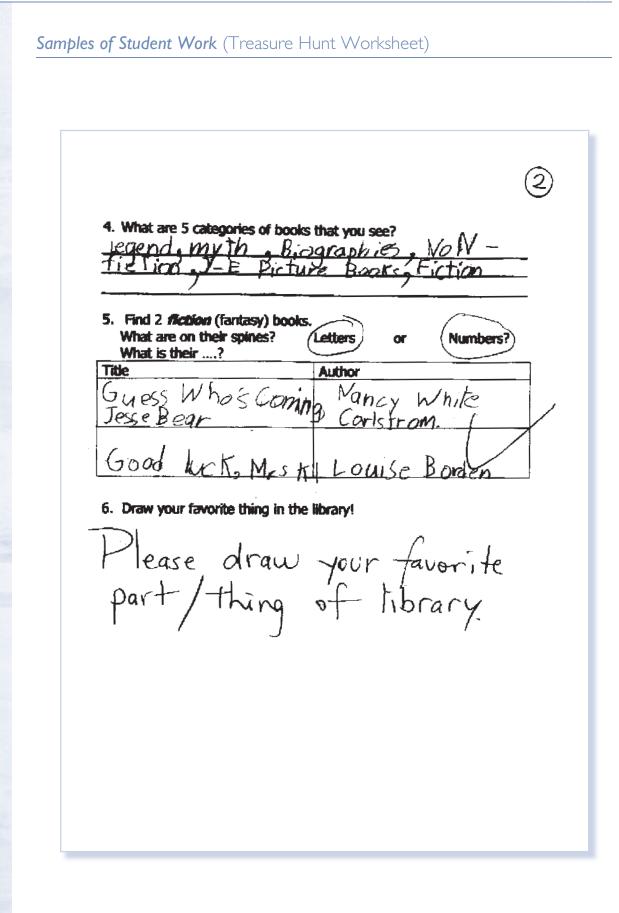
All of these grouping strategies proved helpful in this unit with its many opportunities for reading, discussion, and writing. For example, a student with basic English skills was paired with a bilingual student who could read English and was therefore able to help the less proficient student. And when low-level readers saw their more proficient partners reading a variety of books, they were often motivated to read as well.

References

- Allington, R. L., & Cunningham, P. M. (2002). Schools that work: Where all children read and write. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

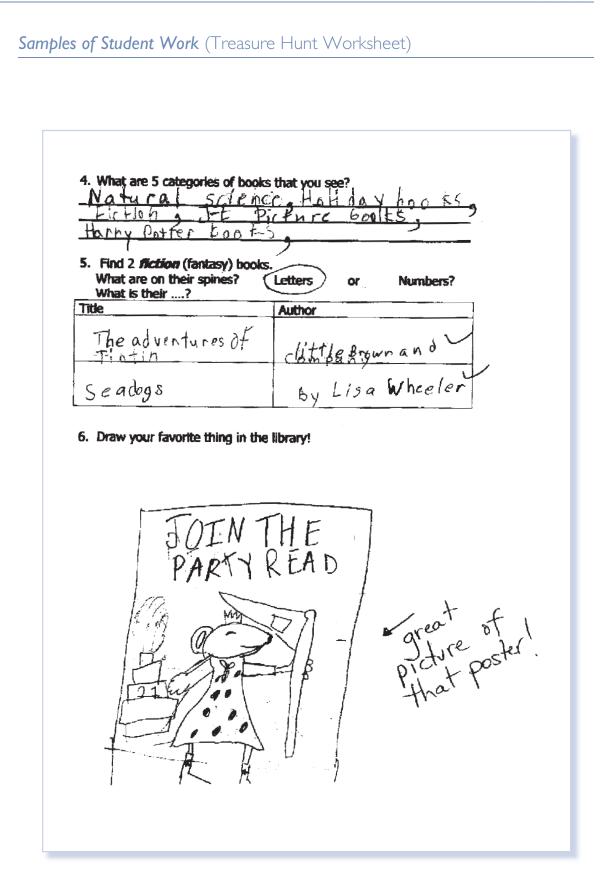
Samples of Student Work (Treasure Hunt Worksheet)

	Date <u>013009</u>
Li	BRARY TREASURE HUNT
<u>Ground Rules</u> 1. Use a quiet voice Al 2. Always walk. 3. Put books back in th	
The Hunt	
1. Find 2 <i>non-fiction</i> What are on their s What is their?	(about real things!) books. pines? Letters or Numbers?
Title	Author
Esqueletos	Steve Parker,
Nolves	Barbara K. Parker
2. Write the titles of tw	ro magazines:
Girls life Me	agozines
Amazing w	Iorld Cultures
3. What is the name of	the section where the dictionaries are?
reference	
	of the World



Samples of Student Work (Treasure Hunt Worksheet)

Name	Date Oct. 30, 2004
Lispa	RY TREASURE HUNT
Ground Rules 1. Use a quiet voice ALL th 2. Always walk. 3. Put books back in their	
The Hunt	
1. Find 2 <i>non-fiction</i> (abo What are on their spines	
What is their? Title	Author
Im' Growf no	g by Aliki u
I know why I Brush teeth	my by Kate Rowan
2. Write the titles of two m	nagazines:
The title of	the first magazine
	the next is hilights
	e section where the dictionaries are?
dictions plas is	called <u>Refret</u> reference. <u>and more books</u> tarea tion information dow things.



TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Readers' Theater

Katrin Beinroth & Kim Leimer International Charter School, Pawtucket, RI

Dual Language Program Background

Program model: 50/50

Language of initial literacy instruction: All students are taught in the partner language (Spanish) and English simultaneously.

Student Backgrounds Within the Dual Language Program

Linguistic profile: Within the Spanish/English dual language program at ICS, roughly three-quarters of the students are native Spanish speakers.

Ethnic profile: Families' countries of origin include Cape Verde, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nigeria, Puerto Rico, and the United States.

Percent of students in the program qualifying for free/reduced price lunch: Approximately 80%

Unit Plan

Grade: 4

Time Frame of Unit: 10 days

Language(s) of Lessons: English for 5 days, Spanish for 5 days

Unit Theme: Understanding Characters

Standards to be Addressed

New England Common Assessment Program Reading Grade Level Expectations (June 2004 draft)

R-4-4.1: Identify or describe character(s), setting, problem/ solution, major events, or plot, as appropriate to text; identify any significant changes in character(s) over time.

R-4-5.2: Describe main characters' physical characteristics or personality traits; provide examples of thoughts, words, or actions that reveal characters' personality traits.

R-4-5.6: Identify causes or effects, including possible motives of characters.

R-4-6.1: Demonstrate knowledge of the use of literary elements and devices (e.g., imagery and exaggeration) to interpret intended meanings.

International Charter School Grade Level Expectations-Speaking and Listening

Recite brief poems (two or three stanzas), soliloquies, or dramatic dialogues, using clear diction, tempo, volume, and phrasing.

Summarize major ideas and supporting evidence for them presented in spoken messages and formal presentations.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century

Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied.

Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

Guiding Questions

How do writers, readers, and actors bring characters to life?

How can readers use textual clues to create mental images and interpret characters' moods and actions?

How do readers use schemas to understand characters?

How are traditions similar/different between cultures?

How do cultural traditions shape our perspectives/upbringing?

Big Ideas

Readers create mental images of characters' personae and actions, based on aspects of text.

Readers can better understand a text by thinking about and discussing characters' motivations and relationships to other characters.

Readers can use prior knowledge to understand characters.

Different cultures have their own portrayals of the same character or legend, but some elements are universal.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Experience with the performance of stories, such as books read aloud and theater productions. Familiarity with various types of characters from fairy tales, legends, and popular children's fiction. Knowledge of cultural elements (in particular, specific characters) associated with traditional holidays.

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Making and confirming predictions about text using prior knowledge and textual clues, such as titles, topic sentences, key words, and foreshadowing.

Visualizing—creating images of setting, characters, and events—based on aspects of text.

Drawing inferences about cause and effect.

Identifying thoughts, words, or actions that reveal characters' personality traits.

Language Skills

Reading aloud with appropriate expression and fluency.

Understanding vocabulary: *mental image*, schema, foreshadowing, visualize, mood, character, traits. Understanding idioms and exaggerated descriptions of characters in the text.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Day 1: Students browse through a selection of scripts for Readers' Theater. The teacher guides a class discussion to identify the elements of Readers' Theater and to help students understand how to use the scripts. Students form groups of six with at least one English dominant speaker in each group. Each member of the group receives a copy of the script for the play *A Baker's Dozen: A Saint Nicholas Tale* by Aaron Shepard. The play has two speaking roles and four narrators. In their groups, students read through their scripts, choose parts, and mark their lines to practice as homework.

Day 2: The students gain an understanding of the characters by identifying words and phrases that suggest character traits, sketching their mental image of the characters, discussing their sketches, and rereading their scripts aloud with appropriate expression. They compare the character of St. Nicholas and the Dutch St. Nicholas celebration in the play to other cultures' traditions.

Day 3: Students form new groups, and each group chooses a Readers' Theatre script. The size of each group matches the number of characters in the script. In their groups, students read through their scripts, choose parts, and mark their lines to practice as homework.

Day 4: In their groups, students read through their scripts aloud, and discuss the plot, focusing on characters' motivations and interactions. Students practice reading their scripts with expression.

They also complete a written response to the script focusing on their mental image of the characters. The teacher circulates among the groups to provide language support.

Day 5: Whole-class performance; students offer feedback on performances.

Days 6-10: The process is repeated in the other language (Spanish) with different texts. The cultural focus throughout the Spanish cycle is on values and beliefs. As much as possible, the teacher focuses attention on beliefs and values that help to explain the behavior of the characters, and encourages the class to consider the extent to which these beliefs and values are the same or different across cultures.

Follow-up: The class performs several plays for other classes.

Throughout the cycle, the teacher provides mini-lessons as needed on the following areas:

-Working as a group without the teacher (e.g., how to provide feedback to group members);

-Portraying characters using schemas based on the text;

-Reading aloud with appropriate expression and fluency; and

-Performing in front of an audience.

Materials/Resources

Several copies of a variety of Readers' Theater scripts. Transparency of *The Baker's Dozen*.

Copies of The Baker's Dozen for the students (www.aaronshep.com/rt/RTE09.html).

Blank transparencies.

Paper, highlighters, colored pencils.

Pair/group work checklist.

Online Resources:

http://www.aaronshep.com/rt/index.html

Readers' Theater scripts and resources, primarily in English, but some in Spanish.

http://cpanel.servdns.net/~readingl/Readers_Theater/Scripts/scripts.html

A wide variety of English scripts, many based on fractured fairy tales and other familiar picture books.

http://home.sprintmail.com/~sydneyg/leslie/infantos_home.html

A collection of short scripts in Spanish, focusing on morals and values.

http://www.teacherideaspress.com

More than 23 volumes of Readers' Theater scripts for a variety of grade levels and content areas, most in English, but some (such as *Don Quixote in America* by Resurreccíon Espinosa) in English and Spanish.

Assessment

Both self-assessment and teacher assessment rubrics are used to assess students understanding of the content and language objectives. Written responses from days two and four should be assessed with regard to students' use of information given in the text to infer their characterizations. Self-assessment rubrics for the performance evaluate the student's success in reading aloud with appropriate expression and fluency.

Teacher checklist for group work, noting how well students are able to work cooperatively with their peers and to provide constructive feedback to each other.

Lesson Plan (Day 2 of the Unit)

Lesson Topic:

Making mental images to support reading comprehension. Making comparisons between different cultural traditions.

Standards to be Addressed

New England Common Assessment Program Reading Grade Level Expectations (June 2004 draft)

R-4-5.2: Describe main characters' physical characteristics or personality traits; or provide examples of thoughts, words, or actions that reveal characters' personality traits.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century

Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied.

Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

Guiding Questions

How can readers use textual clues to create mental images and interpret characters' moods and actions?

How are cultural practices alike/different between two or more cultures?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Visualizing setting, characters, and events.

Identifying words and phrases in text that highlight characters' moods and actions.

Synthesizing character traits to form a mental image of the character.

Understanding that characters' actions can be explained in part by their personalities.

Comparing differences and similarities between two or more cultures/cultural practices.

Language Skills

Justifying a position. Understanding vocabulary: *visualize, mood, character, and traits*. Reading with expression and fluency.

Thinking/Study Skills

Providing evidence for interpretations from text.

Materials

Copies of the Script The Baker's Dozen: A Saint Nicholas Tale for each student.

Script on transparency.

Blank transparency of Venn diagram.

Blank paper for drawing.

Highlighters.

Pencils, crayons, colored pencils.

Motivation

The teacher asks why it is important for readers to focus on personality traits. As the students respond, the teacher supplies evidence from a text the group has read previously, showing that personality traits contribute to the plot. She notes examples from this text giving clues about the character's personality (titles, topic sentences, words, foreshadowing clues, etc.)

Teaching/Learning Activities

1. Focus lesson (15-20 minutes, whole group): The teacher reads aloud from the *Baker's Dozen* script, which is on the overhead. She asks students to note words and phrases that provide evidence for the characters' moods and motivations. After reading two to three pages, the teacher asks the students to summarize what they have learned so far about the characters' mood and actions in the script.

2. Guided practice (45 minutes): Students reread their scripts silently and continue to identify words and phrases that highlight the characters' personality traits and mood. Then each student sketches his/her mental image of one of the characters in the script.

In small groups, students present their sketches, describing the character's personality and mood and giving examples from the text to support their interpretations. The teacher circulates among the students to provide language support.

Three or four students present their sketches to the class, sharing insights into the character's actions using textual evidence of character traits. The teacher leads a whole class discussion about how the baker changed during the play and what he learned. The teacher represents insights from this discussion on a Venn diagram.

Students discuss the portrayal of St. Nicholas and the celebration of St. Nicholas Day in the play, and compare that to other cultural traditions that they know.

5. Review: Now that students have developed a deeper understanding of the text, they reread their scripts aloud in their groups, this time with appropriate expression.

Assessment

Assessment of sketches: Are they reasonable representations of the characters?

Informal observation of students during group work: Do the students appear to understand the characters' actions, traits, and motivations? Do they read with appropriate expression?

Extension

Homework: Students interview relatives or a neighbor from a country that is not the United States, or from a minority culture within the United States, about traditional celebrations and characters associated with the celebrations. Students prepare to report their findings to the class.

Teaching the Lesson

This Reader's Theater unit addresses two main goals of dual language programs: developing literacy skills in both languages and promoting cultural competence. Reader's Theater is an efficient and effective strategy for addressing the first goal because it engages students actively in reading with understanding. The second goal is addressed by selecting Reader's Theater scripts that lend themselves to making cross-cultural connections. To address both goals, it is crucial to give students access to different genres (humor/drama, realistic/fantastic, historical/modern, folktales, fairy tales, etc.) during the two cycles of the unit (5 days in English and 5 days in Spanish).

This Readers' Theater unit supports and extends students' ability to read in two languages by teaching strategies for understanding characters and by emphasizing the importance of reading with appropriate expression and fluency. The unit looks at how text clues, such as exaggeration and idioms, create a mental image of the characters that helps to explain their actions. Students spend time thinking and talking about what is stated and what can be inferred about characters in the Readers' Theater scripts. In order to explore characterization and performance strategies in both program languages, as well as to ensure that students have the opportunity to practice reading fluently in both languages, the 5-day cycle is conducted first in English or in Spanish and then repeated in the other language, but with different texts.

Because much of the work in this unit is done independently or in small groups, the teacher should circulate among groups to provide language support, prompt learners to extend their thinking, and facilitate cooperative group work. The teacher can also use those opportunities for noting what elements of the lesson are giving students trouble and addressing those points in future mini-lessons.

The teacher ensures that the goal of developing cultural competence is addressed by prompting whole-class discussions of different cultural aspects addressed in the scripts read in class. By encouraging students to describe their own cultural practices and learn about others', the teacher creates a climate in which students learn about cultural differences and respect their integrity.

The lesson developed for this toolkit takes place during the first week of the cycle, which is conducted in English. One of the language objectives for the lesson is reading with expression and fluency. Reading with expression requires comprehension of the text, including understanding of the characters. Students show that they have understood textual clues to the characters' personae as they read aloud (e.g., indicating emotion in the sound of their voice).

The culture goal is addressed in discussion when students are encouraged to make cross-cultural connections between one of the characters in the play *The Baker's Dozen: A Saint Nicholas Tale*, and a literary or mythical character associated with one of their traditional celebrations. Students can discuss the characteristics of the Dutch Saint Nicholas in the play and compare it to a similar character from their culture. The teacher can help to expand the students' vocabulary and knowledge of dialectal and lexical variations from different Spanish-speaking countries. For instance, in countries like Puerto Rico and Venezuela, *el Día de los Reyes* is a very important celebration that takes place in January, whereas that day does not have the same importance in Colombia or Chile. Moreover, different countries have different names for the same character. For example, Saint Nicholas is called *Papá Noel* in Colombia, *El Viejito Pascuero* in Chile, and *Santa Claus* (pronounced */klos/)* in Puerto Rico. All of these differences and commonalities can be used to enrich students' cultural understanding in a dual-language classroom. Later in the cycle, when students are working with the scripts they have chosen, the teacher can pay particular attention to underlying cultural values and beliefs that are embedded in stories.



TWI Toolkit Lesson Plan

Proverbs

Cristina Sandza-Donovan Barbieri School, Framingham, MA Marleny Perdomo Key Elementary School, Arlington, VA

Dual Language Program Features (Barbieri School)

Program Model: Differentiated. In Grades K-3, students are separated by language for part of the day and receive instruction in their native language. After Grade 3, students are integrated all day and follow a 50/50 model.

Languages: Spanish and English

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction: All students are taught in their native language.

Student Background Within the Dual Language Program (Barbieri School)

Linguistic Profile: 64% of students are native Spanish speakers, and 36% are native English speakers.

Ethnic Profile: Most students (about 71%) are of Hispanic origin. Fourteen percent are white, and about 14% are from other backgrounds.

Percent of students in the program qualifying for free/reduced price lunch: 50%

Unit Plan

Grade: Fifth Subject: Spanish Language Arts Time Frame of Unit: Three one-hour lessons Language of Lessons: Spanish

Unit Theme: Literal language versus figurative language

Standards to be Addressed:

Framingham Public School (FPS) Language Arts Curriculum:

Learning Standard #3: Students will make oral presentations that demonstrate appropriate consideration of audience, purpose, and the information to be conveyed.

Learning Standard #4: Students will identify the meaning of common idioms and figurative phrases.

Learning Standard #8: Students will analyze sensory details and figurative language.

Learning Standard #15: Students will analyze and explain the use of figurative language as it appeals to the senses, creates imagery, suggests mood, and sets tone.

Guiding Questions

What is a proverb?

What information is needed to understand a proverb?

What is the difference between literal meaning and figurative meaning?

Big Ideas

A proverb uses figurative language to express a feeling or idea.

Figurative language occurs in poetry and other types of creative writing.

Understanding figurative language and being familiar with proverbs can promote communication. Proverbs convey cultural beliefs.

Background/Prior Knowledge to be Activated in the Unit

Students' personal experiences using proverbs outside of school.

Students' experience with figurative language in studying metaphors and similes in poetry.

Note: At the same time as this unit is taught, a parallel unit will be taught during English language arts instruction to allow for cross-linguistic comparisons and connections.

Objectives

Content Area Skills and Concepts

Using context to infer the meaning of figurative language.

Understanding figurative language.

Understanding common proverbs.

Language Skills

Using figurative language appropriately.

Making an oral presentation.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Day I: The teacher introduces the concept of a proverb by reading a fable that ends with a proverb and having the children infer the meaning of the proverb from the text. Students then work in small groups to read additional fables and to extract the meaning of the proverb that ends each fable.

Day 2: Students work in small groups. The teacher provides each group with a proverb they don't know and asks each group to predict the figurative meaning of that proverb. The teacher then provides a short story with the proverb embedded in it and asks the students to read the story and

revise their prediction as needed. Teachers then provide the figurative meaning of the proverb so that students can confirm their prediction. Students work in their groups to create posters that convey pictures with the literal meaning of their proverb and to restate the figurative meaning in their own words. Finally, each group shares their poster and presents the literal and figurative meaning of it.

Day 3: Students continue to work with their selected proverb in their small groups. Each group writes a skit that shows the appropriate usage of the proverb and acts out the skit for the class. As a culminating activity, students work on a matching activity developed by the teacher in which they are required to match each proverb that was presented by the groups to a situation where the use of that proverb would be appropriate.

Materials/Resources

Books on fables, such as those by Aesop and Samaniego.

Books on proverbs: My First Book of Proverbs/Mi primer libro de dichos by Ralfka Gonzalez and Ana Ruiz, and 125 refranes infantiles by J. Ignacio Herrera and Ma Luisa Torcida.

Websites on proverbs in English and Spanish:

http://spanish.about.com/library/weekly/aa031901b.htm http://cogweb.ucla.edu/Discourse/Proverbs/Spanish-English.html http://spanish.about.com/library/weekly/aa031901b.htm

Chart paper Markers Crayons

Assessment

Day 1: Read response journals in which students reflect on the meaning of the proverb as inferred from the fable.

Day 2: Assess students' presentations in terms of how well they convey both the figurative and literal meanings of their proverbs.

Day 3: Observe students perform matching task, which provides an overall assessment of comprehension of all proverbs studied and presented by all groups.

Lesson Plan (Day Two of the Unit)

Lesson Topic: Figurative and literal meaning of proverbs.

Standards to be Addressed

Framingham Public School (FPS) Language Arts Curriculum:

Learning standard #3: Students will make oral presentations that demonstrate appropriate consideration of audience, purpose, and the information to be conveyed.

Learning standard #4: Students will identify the meaning of common idioms and figurative phrases.

Learning standard #8: Students will analyze sensory details and figurative language.

Learning standard #15: Students will analyze and explain the use of figurative language as it appeals to the senses, creates imagery, suggests mood, and sets tone.

Guiding Questions

What is the difference between literal meaning and figurative meaning?

What information is needed to infer the meaning of proverbs?

Objectives

Content Skills and Concepts

Understanding the intended meaning of proverbs and the difference between figurative and literal language.

Language Skills

Vocabulary: proverbio (proverb), moraleja (moral), dicho (saying), sentido figurative (figurative meaning), sentido literal (literal meaning), contexto (context).

Giving an oral presentation.

Thinking/Study Skills

Representing ideas in speech, writing, and illustration.

Materials

Chart paper Markers and crayons

Motivation (Approximately 10 minutes)

The teacher asks the students to recall the definition of a proverb and some examples discussed the previous day while reading the fables. The teacher also references the fact that they are learning about proverbs in English as well, and asks them to keep in mind any similarities between proverbs that they learn today in Spanish and proverbs that they either already know or are learning about in English.

Teaching/Learning Activities (Approximately 50 minutes)

The teacher divides the class into cooperative groups and provides each group with a sentence strip that has an unknown proverb written on it. The teacher asks each group to predict the figurative meaning of that proverb and to write the predictions on a piece of paper.

The teacher provides each group with a short story that has the target proverb embedded in it, and asks the students to read the story and revise the prediction as needed.

The teacher gives each group the figurative meaning of their proverb so that students can confirm their predictions. Students then work in their groups to create posters that state the proverb, depict

pictures with the literal meaning of their proverb, and include the figurative meaning of the proverb (as restated in the students' own words).

Each group presents its proverb to the rest of the class by sharing its poster and discussing the literal and figurative meaning of the proverb.

Assessment

The teacher assesses the presentations with a rubric that focuses on two areas: the students' ability to convey both figurative and literal meanings of their proverb and the quality of the posters and presentation. Part of the assessment rubric should address the students' use of correct vocabulary and their ability to orally present information that they have gathered (using correct grammar, appropriate speech style, etc.).

Extension

For homework, students compare a list of Spanish proverbs discussed during Spanish language arts and English proverbs discussed during English language arts. They determine which have direct translations, which have similar equivalents in meaning but are stated differently in each language, and which are unique to each language.

Teaching the Lesson

This lesson requires high-level cognitive and linguistic skills and is therefore appropriate for dual language students in the upper elementary grades. A unique and important feature of this unit is that it is taught in a parallel way in both languages, thus promoting not only a deep understanding of figurative and literal meanings in each language, but also the development of cross-linguistic connections. The concurrent English lessons should not be direct translations of the lessons in Spanish; however, similar themes of figurative and literal language should be explored using English vocabulary, and connections should be drawn between language and culture, just as with the Spanish proverbs.

Because this unit demands high-level skills in both cognitive and linguistic domains, it is important that the cooperative groups be heterogeneous with respect to language proficiency and academic ability. This will help ensure that all groups will be able to complete the task successfully, and that all individuals within each group will participate and understand what they have done.

In addition, because of the high-level demands of this task, it is essential that the teacher provide a number of supports for student work. For example, beginning the unit by reading fables and deriving the meaning of proverbs from those fables helps students develop an awareness that the meaning of proverbs cannot be inferred from the words in the proverb alone, but rather must be derived from context. This understanding then translates to the activities in the lesson described here, as each group is given a short story that provides the context for each proverb. Similarly, because each group is required to create a poster that includes both an illustration and an explanation of its proverb and then to present this poster to the class, students in the class are able to base their understanding of each proverb on a combination of pictorial, text, and oral information.

Finally, as a way to promote cross-linguistic connections and to allow children to use their first language to solidify learning in the second language, students are provided with a homework activity that requires them to integrate the knowledge acquired in each language by matching across languages in order to determine which are stated similarly, which are stated differently, and which only exist in one language or the other. Students then classify the proverbs into these three categories and write some ideas about why certain proverbs might be more universal and be stated similarly in both languages, while others might be language or culture specific, and either be stated differently in each language or only exist in one language or the other. Opportunities such as these for students to make explicit cross-linguistic connections are essential in TWI programs.

Proverbs Lesson Plan Supplemental Materials

This must be posted in a visible place in the classroom

Preguntas para guiar la discusión

¿Cuál es la diferencia entre el sentido literal y el sentido figurativo de un proverbio, una moraleja o un refrán?

¿Qué tipo de información se necesita para inferir el significado de los proverbios, dichos, refranes, adagios o moralejas?

Nuestros objetivos de aprendizaje

Al concluir nuestra serie de lecciones:

Nosotros sabremos cuál es el significado de algunos refranes y los aplicaremos a situaciones diarias.

Podremos explicar en nuestras propias palabras cuál es la diferencia entre el <u>sentido literal</u> y el <u>sentido figurativo</u> de un refrán.

Books used for the Proverbs Lesson

Part I of the lesson:

The teacher reads this short story to the class. Then, the teacher reads the Spanish proverb and has the class reflect on literal vs. figurative meaning of the proverb.

 Valeri, M. Eugenia, <u>El Pez de Oro</u> The story about a poor fisherman who encounters a magic fish. The magic goldfish grants him many wishes, but all is undone by his wife's greed.

Proverb: "La ambición rompe el saco"

After the class discusses the proverb, the teacher provides several examples where proverbs are used. Each pair of students receives a copy of a fable taken from the following book. Students task is to infer the figurative meaning of the proverb story based on the fable they read.

2. Lobel, Arnold. <u>Fábulas</u> Ediciones Alfaguara, 1987. This a collection of 20 original fables.

Other useful titles:

Alvarenga, Ciriaco. Refranes, Bombas, Dichos. Impresos Alvarenga, San Salvador, 1996

Bravo-Villasante, Carmen. Fábulas Españolas. Montena, Madrid, 1989

Gonzalez, Ralfka. Mi Primer Libro de Dichos. Children's Book Press. San Francisco, 1995

Spanish Proverbs

No montes el caballo antes de ensillarlo Mas vale pájaro en mano que cien volando Agua que no has de beber, déjala correr Cuando el río suena, piedras lleva A caballo regalado no se le mira el diente Camarón que se duerme, se lo lleva la corriente Soldado advertido no muere en guerra Guerra avisada no mata gente No mates la gallina de los huevos de oro En boca cerrada, no entran moscas

Note to teacher: The content vocabulary for this lesson must be placed in a word wall. The teacher should reference these words during the lesson, and encourage the students to use them.

Moraleja Proverbio Dicho Sentido figurativo Sentido literal contexto

¿Por qué no me dan algo nuevo?

Durante todo el mes de diciembre Carl les decía a sus papás que quería una bicicleta para Navidad, mientras que su hermano Thomas les decía que él estaría contento con lo que le quisieran regalar. Los padres de los dos niños le decían que no les alcanzaría el dinero para comprar regalos nuevos y que tenían que conformarse.

Cuando llegó el día de Navidad, Carl encontró una bicicleta para él junto al árbol de Navidad, pero..., la bicicleta no era nueva, así que Carl se puso a refunfuñar: "Cómo era posible que él tenía una bici usada?" y la tiró al piso. Mientras tanto, su hermano Thomás estaba feliz con una bolsa llena de libros usados. Cuando los padres de Carl vieron la reacción de Carl, le preguntaron a Thomas si a él le gustaría tener la bicicleta. El inmediatamente respondió "por supuesto" y se montó en ella.

En ese momento Carl decidió que sí quería la bici después de todo, pero ya era muy tarde. Sus padres habían decidido que la bici sería para Thomas.

¿Qué aprendió Carl ese día de Navidad?

A caballo regalado no se le mira el diente

Fortuna Inalcanzable

Escrito por Marleny Perdomo

Mi tío Pepe estuvo en el programa de Don Francisco este verano. Estando allí tuvo la oportunidad de participar en el concurso: "Cuanto atrapas, tanto ganas". Este es un concurso que consiste en que una persona se mete dentro de una máquina llena de muchos dólares. La máquina empieza a soplar billetes de diferentes denominaciones y la persona tiene un minuto para atrapar todo el dinero que pueda y llevárselo a su casa. Pero cuando la máquina para de soplar, la persona no puede recoger más dinero.

Me cuenta mi tío que cuando encendieron la máquina y el dinero empezó a volar alrededor suyo, él se afanó por atrapar todos los billetes que pudo y llegó a atrapar muchos, especialmente los de \$1 dólar. De repente, a mi tío le pareció ver muchos billetes de \$100 y soltó los que tenía ya en su mano para atrapar esos, pero en ese momento sonó un timbre indicando que se había terminado su tiempo. Cuando la máquina paró de funcionar, mi tío se miró las manos y quedó perplejo al darse cuenta que se había quedado sin nada.

¿A qué conclusión habrá llegado mi tío Pepe ese día?

Más vale pájaro en mano que cien volando

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION: Study Guide

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers may want to use the *Two-Way Immersion Toolkit* in teacher study groups to explore ways in which they can improve their dual language program. This guide is intended to support study group members as they critique their practices and inquire together in order to deepen their understanding of two-way immersion education and to improve their teaching practice. Section II describes how facilitators can use the guide to plan and lead study groups. At the core of the guide are Section III, discussion questions addressing major issues in two-way immersion education, as raised in the two question-and-answer documents and six model lesson plans; and Section IV, a sample outline for a 2-hour study group session on language and literacy development. Section V provides supplementary materials, including guidelines for discussing professional literature and guidelines for forming and facilitating a study group.

II. HOW TO USE THIS STUDY GUIDE

This guide is designed for use in school-based teacher study groups that meet regularly to discuss issues and share experiences in two-way immersion education.

Study groups function democratically. Sessions can be led by group members, each one taking a turn, or by a member who is a skilled facilitator. Facilitators will find ideas for planning sessions in the suggested discussion questions (Section III) and the sample outline for a session (Section IV). For further information on forming and facilitating a study group, see "Guidelines for Starting a Study Group" in Section V.

III. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

The following questions are designed to stimulate discussion in study groups exploring two-way immersion education through the use of three Toolkit resources: "Classroom Instruction: Questions and Answers," "Parents' Questions about Two-Way Programs," and "Model Lesson Plans." Facilitators should select those questions are most interesting to the group.

Classroom Instruction: Questions and Answers

Language and Literacy Development

Pre-Reading Discussion

I. What questions about language and literacy development do you believe are likely to be asked by practitioners in new two-way immersion programs? What are your experiences with the issues raised by those questions?

2. What are the most important issues in language and literacy development in your program?

Post-Reading Discussion

I. Is there a place in the two-way immersion classroom for translating information into the students' first language? Do all group members agree?

2. If teachers don't translate, what else can they do to ensure student comprehension?

3. What are some of the things teachers can do to get students to use their second language right away? In your classroom, how do you encourage students to use the language of instruction and take risks with it?

4. Teachers used to believe that an error in language production should be corrected right away. What is the current thinking? Is there any place in the classroom for error correction? When do you correct a student's errors in your classroom?

5. Consider this statement, which appears in the reading: "A general principle of language teaching today is to provide students with language they can understand and opportunities to use and practice that language." According to the reading, what specific strategies put this principle into practice? What strategies have you found effective? What have you tried that didn't work, and what did you do about that?

6. What are the different ways for combining students for small group work in a two-way immersion classroom? In your classroom, how do you decide which groupings to use?

7. Two-way immersion teachers work with students who are at very different levels of language proficiency. How can a teacher challenge native speakers while keeping the language level

manageable for second language learners? What can you add from your experience about ways to support language and content area learning for students at all proficiency levels?

8. According to this reading, students at lower levels of proficiency can learn challenging new academic content. What has been your experience teaching academic content to students with less language proficiency? Are group members currently experimenting with new techniques for sheltering instruction?

9. Explain this statement: "In two-way immersion programs, it is essential that instruction be designed to encourage the transfer of skills, strategies, and knowledge across languages." What does your program do to encourage transfer, and how do individual members of the group address this?

10. For a native Spanish speaker who can read and write in Spanish, what skills and concepts would she bring from her first language to her study of English? What skills and concepts would she have to learn for the first time? What about a student whose first language is Chinese? If group members have faced these questions in their classrooms, talk about what they have learned from working with specific students.

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about teachers' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from those you expected? How?

3. Are there issues in your school that weren't raised in the questions? What are they? How will you find expert help to address them?

4. As a result of reading the material, what new questions do you have about language and literacy development in two-way immersion programs?

5. What next steps do you want to take to improve language and literacy instruction in your program? What additional information do you need, and how can you get it? How can you plan for improvement and implement the plan?

Cross-Cultural Competence

Pre-Reading Discussion

1. What questions about developing cross-cultural competence do you believe are likely to be asked by practitioners in new two-way immersion programs? What are your experiences with the issues raised by those questions?

2. In teaching cross-cultural competence in your school, what are the most important issues?3. Sometimes teaching about cultures often focuses on heroes and holidays. But clearly there is more to teaching about culture than that. How do you teach about culture in your classroom?

Post-Reading Discussion

1. One goal of two-way immersion programs is to help learners become culturally flexible and savvy. How can teachers achieve this goal, according to the reading material? In your own teaching, are there strategies other than those mentioned in the reading that you have found useful?

2. According to the reading material, "Teachers should concentrate as much, if not more, on values, norms, and perspectives of the partner language culture(s) (as well as those of other cultures, particularly if they are represented in the classroom) as they do on visible cultural practices, such as holidays, foods, music, and dance." Why is the focus on values, norms, and perspectives important? What strategies have you used effectively to explore values?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about teachers' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from what you expected? How?

3. Which of the issues raised in this section are most important to you and your school? Are there issues in your school that weren't raised in the questions? How could you address them, if you decide to do so?

4. As a result of reading the material, what new questions do you have about teaching cultural competence in two-way immersion programs?

5. What next steps do you want to take to improve the teaching of cultural competence in your program? What additional information do you need, and how can you get it? How can you plan for improvement and implement the plan?

Assessment

Pre-Reading Discussion

I. What questions about assessment do you believe are likely to be asked by practitioners in new two-way immersion programs? What are your experiences with the issues raised by those questions?

2. What are the most important assessment issues in your program?

Post-Reading Discussion

1. According to the reading, "In two-way classrooms, as in all second language learning environments, it is very hard to distinguish between language proficiency and content knowledge, as language is always involved in conveying information." In your experience, how can teachers tease apart language and academic content performance?

2. In your experience, what are some specific assessment techniques that work well in two-way programs? In what ways are they particular to two-way instruction?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about teachers' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from what you expected? How?

3. As a result of reading the material, what new questions do you have about assessment in twoway immersion programs?

4. What next steps do you need to take to improve assessment in your two-way immersion program?

Supporting Special Student Populations

Pre-Reading

I. What questions about supporting special student populations do you believe are likely to be asked by practitioners in new two-way immersion programs? What are your experiences with the issues raised by those questions?

2. In meeting the needs of special student populations, what are the most important issues in your program?

3. There are those who claim that two-way immersion programs are not appropriate for students with special needs. Do you think this section will support that view?

Post-Reading Discussion

I. How can teachers tell whether a student is having problems because of a learning disability or a temporary second language learning difficulty?

2. According to the reading, "Two-way programs can be seen as ideal placements for special needs students." What is the basis for this statement? Do you agree with it?

3. What are some of the strategies two-way programs can use to support special needs students, according to the reading? How does your school attempt to meet the needs of this population? Is there a need to refine this approach?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about teachers' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from what you expected? How?

3. Which of the issues raised in this section are most important to you and your school? Are there issues in your school that weren't raised in the questions? What are they?

4. As a result of reading the material, what new questions do you have about special needs students in two-way immersion programs?

5. What next steps do you need to take to improve instruction for special needs students in your two-way immersion program?

Teacher Supports

Pre-Reading Discussion

I. What questions about teacher supports do you believe are likely to be asked by practitioners in new two-way immersion programs? What are your experiences with the issues raised by those questions?

2. How do you expect the questions will be answered?

3. What are the most important teacher support issues in your program?

4. Why is teacher support an especially important issue in two-way immersion programs?

Post-Reading Discussion

I. What skills and attitudes do two-way immersion teachers need, according to the reading and your own experience?

2. How should teachers be prepared for teaching in two-way immersion programs?

3. How can a program provide support to a new teacher? Is there a need to modify the means that your school uses to support new teachers? What role do you play now in supporting new teachers, and is that effective? How might it be made better?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about teachers' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from what you expected? How?

3. Which of the issues raised in this section are most important to you and your school? Are there issues in your school that weren't raised? What are they?

4. As a result of reading the material, what new questions do you have about teacher supports in two-way immersion programs?

5. What next steps do you need to take to improve assessment in your two-way immersion program?

Parents' Questions About Two-Way Programs

Pre-Reading Discussion

1. What major questions and concerns have parents presented to you? Talk about how you respond to parents. Does everyone agree?

2. What are the critical parent involvement issues that your program faces?

Post-Reading Discussion

1. According to the reading, what are the advantages of two-way immersion programs for English language learners? For native English speakers? Does this match the experience in your school and community? What do you tell parents about the advantages of two-way immersion programs?

2. How do students in two-way immersion programs compare academically with students in other programs, according to the reading? How do they compare in your school or district? If this is an issue in your school or district, how are you handling it? Do you need to make changes?

3. How can parents support two-way immersion programs, according to the reading? What has your program done to encourage parent and community support? If you are not satisfied with the relationship between your program and the parents, how might you use ideas from the reading to make changes?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. Go back to your predictions about parents' questions. Did they ask the questions you predicted?

2. Were the answers to the questions different from what you expected? How?

3. Which of the issues raised in this section are most important to you and your school? Are there issues in your school that weren't raised in the reading? What are they and how can they be addressed?

4. What next steps do you need to take to improve your program's connection to parents and community?

Unit and Lesson Plans

Pre-Reading Discussion

I. What are your experiences designing, implementing, and assessing two-way immersion units and lessons to make sure that they are appropriate for your program? What successes and challenges have you faced? How have you dealt with any barriers to success?

2. Which one or two unit and lesson plans would be most valuable for the group to read and discuss together?

Post-Reading Discussion

I. Discuss the basic structure of the unit and lesson plans. What reasons can you suggest for including each of the components?

2. In what specific ways does the unit/lesson plan you chose to discuss take into account the needs of both first and second language learners?

3. How does the unit/lesson plan structure and support the use of academic language in the classroom?

4. How does the unit/lesson plan integrate culture into the unit/lesson?

5. Why are the students grouped as they are for various activities? Is that the only possibility for grouping? What would be the effect of a different arrangement?

Post-Reading Wrap-Up

I. What new questions or observations do you have about designing and implementing units and lessons for the two-way immersion classroom?

2. How might you apply what you learned during discussion to improve how lessons and units are designed and implemented in your program?

IV. SAMPLE OUTLINE FOR STUDY GROUP SESSIONS

The preceding section listed some questions that a study group might pursue. This section presents a sample outline for a 2-hour study group session exploring the language development and literacy instruction sections of "Classroom Instruction: Questions and Answers." The outline is offered only as a suggestion for the facilitator, rather than a protocol to be followed.

Topic: Language and Literacy Development

Duration: 2 hours

Objectives:

1. Compare views and experiences about language and literacy teaching in two-way immersion programs.

2. Raise questions for further exploration about language and literacy teaching in two-way programs immersion.

3. Plan follow-up.

Pre-Reading (30 minutes)

I. Begin the session by telling group members that they will be reading a series of questions and answers about teaching language and literacy in two-way immersion programs.

2. Give the group any background information they may need about the reading material and the Toolkit.

3. Ask the members what questions they expect to be posed in the readings.

4. Ask members about their experiences with these issues.

Reading (20 minutes)

 Have group members read the language development and literacy instruction sections of the Q&A document for classroom instruction.

Post-Reading Discussion (60 minutes)

Ask the group which of the issues addressed in these sections pertain to them and their program.
 List the topics on chart paper.

2. Have the group choose the four most important topics.

3. Divide the group into four groups by topic. Ask each group to discuss its topic in terms of four questions:

- What does the reading have to say on the topic?
- Do you agree with the reading? What is your evidence in support of your opinion?
- How have you dealt with this issue in your program?
- Are there any additional issues related to this topic that the whole group should explore?

Have each group choose a note-taker who will report back to the whole group.

4. In the large group, have each note-taker report on the small-group discussion in terms of the four questions. As facilitator, record the results on chart paper. In particular, note additional questions to be explored.

5. Ask the large group for questions and reactions. Facilitate any discussion that follows.

Follow-Up Activity: Suggestions for the Next Study Group Meeting (10 minutes)

As a group, decide the activities for the next study group meeting. Ask the group whether they need to plan follow-up to this discussion. Do they want to get more information? If so, who will find it and where will it be found? How will the information be used by the group?

If members want to further explore additional questions and issues, the group can select texts for group discussion. texts from either the additional resources sections in the Toolkit or from other sources. For guidelines for reading and discussing professional literature in study groups, see "Guidelines for Discussing Professional Literature" in Section V.

If appropriate, ask for a volunteer facilitator for the next meeting.

V. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Guidelines for Starting a Study Group

- Groups include 6 to 12 members.
- They are school-based, or they bring together teachers from partner schools.
- Groups meet frequently (e.g., twice a month for two hours).
- Groups are open to all teachers in the program and others who want to support it.
- Membership in the group is voluntary, but strong incentives are offered.
- To help members make the transition from traditional professional development experiences, initial study group meetings focus on developing group norms and discussing expectations.
- Leadership and accountability are shared, and sessions are interactive. All members are responsible for preparing for meetings, attending each one, contributing to activities, and taking turns facilitating the work if the group decides to organize themselves in that way.
- Group process is democratic. Group members are responsible for voicing concerns and proposing solutions.
- Group members build knowledge about two-way immersion using professional literature and evidence from their own practice. Group members define areas for which they may need to contract outside professional development providers.
- The group uses sustainable learning strategies that are tied to essential dimensions of appropriate instruction for diverse students. Productive strategies include, but are not limited to, examining student work, carefully observing classroom practice, and reading and discussing professional literature.

Guidelines for Discussing Professional Literature

Getting Started:

- Select a book, article, or other resource that has broad appeal to the group. Candidates can be found in association newsletters, professional journals, *Education Week* book reviews, or the Internet. Any group member may suggest or select a book.
- If possible, bring potential books or articles to the study group so that group members can skim the text.
- Once the reading is chosen, establish a timeline indicating when it will be discussed in the study group. For example, if a study group meets twice a month for a total of 4 hours, the group could dedicate 1 hour per meeting to discussion of professional literature.
- Create a facilitation schedule. Have study group members volunteer to facilitate a discussion. All group members are responsible for doing the reading, but facilitators must read the selection with great care in order to facilitate the discussion.

Facilitating the Discussion:

- Facilitators can begin the discussion by posing an open-ended question to the group, such as
 - What was striking about this reading?
 - What new ideas did you learn from reading it?
- Facilitators should make sure that all group members participate in the discussion, encouraging quieter ones to speak and discouraging any group member from dominating the conversation.
- Facilitators may close the discussion by asking the group what new questions they have as a result of talking about the reading.
- Before ending the discussion, the facilitator may ask for a volunteer to facilitate the next discussion.

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION: Additional Resources

Books

The following four books contain descriptions of successful research-based instructional practices in dual language classrooms.

Calderón, M. E., & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and implementing two-way bilingual programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Part II of this book provides very detailed examples of successful instructional techniques for twoway classrooms, including the various components of sheltered instruction. It describes techniques, resources, and activities for vocabulary building along with various types of reading activities that students can do independently or with others. Part II also includes tips on differentiating instruction for students at different stages of language acquisition and offers descriptions of cooperative learning activities. "Structuring Components for Integrating Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing" in chapter 6 describes the process of literacy development in two languages that is facilitated by drawing on students' background knowledge; building their vocabulary; and engaging in listening comprehension activities, different types of shared interactive reading, and independent reading. The section on writing instruction emphasizes the process writing approach, connecting students' writing to larger contexts, and including interactive discussions about writing in the classroom.

Cloud, N., Genesee, F., & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction: A handbook for enriched education*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

This book approaches instruction through the domains of oral language development, literacy development, and content teaching. In regard to oral language development, the authors discuss individual student and classroom characteristics that contribute to second language learning; expectations for first and second language development; the development of lessons that include appropriate objectives, materials, and activities; and language use in the classroom. Topics on literacy development include choosing teaching materials, building on oral language skills and cross-language transfer, making instruction appropriate for students at different developmental stages or at different

stages of literacy acquisition, and working with special student populations. For content teaching, the authors outline how to set content, language, and general learning objectives and how to select materials and plan for evaluation. Table 6.5 includes activities for the three phases of instruction (preview, focused learning, and extension); Table 6.6 lists the task demands appropriate to each stage of proficiency. The book also includes a template for a unit and lesson plan (Table 6.10) and two model lessons.

Freeman, Y. S., Freeman, D. E., & Mercuri, S. P. (2005). Dual language essentials for teachers and administrators. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

The curriculum essentials discussed in this book involve integrating language and content, using thematic instruction, and connecting curriculum to students' lives as well as to content and language standards. The authors recommend establishing predictable routines, separating languages for instruction without translating, and scaffolding instruction. Figure 4-7 illustrates the opportunities and constraints of grouping students heterogeneously or homogenously by native language for instruction. The authors also discuss the interrelation of speaking, reading, and writing; the importance of teacher expectations; and cross-language transfer.

Soltero, S. (2004). Dual language: Teaching and learning in two languages. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chapter 5 covers the following teaching components: home-school connections, cooperative learning activities, a thematic approach using children's literature across languages and content areas, integrating language and content, sheltered instruction, and authentic assessment. Chapter 6 offers specific explanations and vignettes of instructional practices for cooperative grouping (numbered heads together, jigsaw, literature circle, partner reading, think-pair-share, cross-age buddies), teaching strategies (activating prior knowledge, the Language Experience Approach, using pattern language or predictable books, preview-review, and Total Physical Response), and graphic organizers.

Program Profiles

The following selections demonstrate instructional strategies in particular two-way programs.

Calderón, M., & Slavin, R. (2001). Success for All in a two-way immersion school. In D. Christian & F. Genesee (Eds.), *Bilingual education* (pp. 27-40). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.

In this profile of a two-way program in Texas that uses the English and Spanish Success for All program, the authors outline components of the Early Learning (Grades pre-K–K), Reading Roots (Grade 1), and Reading Wings (Grades 2-5) programs. This reading program involves 90 minutes a day of instruction on literacy concepts, fluency, and oral and written comprehension, conducted alternately in English and Spanish.

Peregoy, S. F., & Boyle, O. F. (1999). Multiple embedded scaffolds: Support for English speakers in a two-way Spanish immersion kindergarten. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 23(2-3), 135-146.

Teachers in two bilingual Spanish-immersion kindergarten classrooms used multiple environmental scaffolds in order to ensure listening comprehension and build vocabulary, particularly for the students learning Spanish as a second language. The scaffolds included routines (phrases, songs, poems, and activities through which students could hear new vocabulary in a variety of contexts repeatedly), sheltered instruction strategies such as the use of gestures and realia, and modeling of verbal responses by native-Spanish-speaking students.

Pérez, B. (2004). Becoming biliterate: A study of two-way bilingual immersion education. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Based on a study of two-way immersion schools in San Antonio, Texas, this book describes a range of oral language strategies used by students to communicate in both English and Spanish. It outlines the components of the balanced literacy model used in the Spanish curriculum as well as aspects of literacy transfer. The author complements the observations of instructional strategies with examples of students' oral and written products and discussions of the teachers' perspectives on their literacy practices.

Rubinstein-Avila, E. (2003). Negotiating power and redefining literacy expertise: Buddy reading in a dual-immersion programme. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 26(1), 83-97.

This case study of paired reading in a two-way Portuguese-English second grade class shows the variety of strategies that the students in the focal dyad used to make sense of the text. The study demonstrates the benefits of interactive reading in the dual language context.

Videos

Silver, J. (1996). Profile of Effective Two-Way Immersion Teaching: Sixth Grade. Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Part of the "Meeting the Challenge of Teaching Linguistically Diverse Students," this video features bilingual teacher M. Dorrego explaining her pedagogical style and beliefs as classroom scenes illustrate how she crafts meaningful learning around instructional strategies aimed at helping sixth graders in a two-way bilingual immersion class reach higher levels of linguistic and academic sophistication. (VS5) (28 minutes)

Silver, J. (1996). Learning Together: Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Programs. Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Part of the series "Meeting the Challenge of Teaching Linguistically Diverse Students," this video presents for parents, educators, and administrators, a clear and concise overview of the rationale for two-way bilingual immersion, common features of two-way programs, and discussion of criteria for successful implementation. Classroom scenes from two schools illustrate the discussion. (VS6) (26 minutes)

Digests and Briefs on Instruction for Second Language Learners

These briefs concern instruction in non-TWI learning contexts but are applicable to any classroom with second language learners.

Contextual Factors in Second Language Acquisition (2000) by Aída Walqui http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0005contextual.html

Developing Language Proficiency and Connecting School to Students' Lives: Two Standards for Effective Teaching (1998) by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/daltoneric.html

Dialogue Journals: Interactive Writing to Develop Language and Literacy (1993) by Joy Kreeft Peyton http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/peyton01.html

Educating Hispanic Students: Effective Instructional Practices (2002) by Yolanda N. Padrón, Hersh C. Waxman, & Héctor H. Rivera http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/PracBrief5.htm

English Language Learners with Special Needs: Effective Instructional Strategies (2001) by Alba Ortiz http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0108ortiz.html

Integrating Language and Content: Lessons from Immersion (1995) by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/ncrcds05.html

In Their Own Words: Two-Way Immersion Teachers Talk About Their Professional Experiences (1998) by Elizabeth R. Howard & Michael I. Loeb http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/intheirownwords.html

Promoting Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement Through Cooperation (1999) by Margarita Espino Calderón http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/cooperation.html Reading with a Purpose: Communicative Reading Tasks for the Foreign Language Classroom (1998) by Elizabeth K. Knutson

http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/reading_digest.html

Selecting Materials to Teach Spanish to Spanish Speakers (2002) by Paula Winke & Cathy Stafford http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0203winke.html

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol: A Tool for Teacher-Researcher Collaboration and Professional Development (1999) by Deborah J. Short & Jana Echevarria http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/sheltered.html

Spanish for Spanish Speakers: Developing Dual Language Proficiency (2001) by Joy Kreeft Peyton, Vickie W. Lewelling, & Paula Winke http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/spanish_native.html

Strategy Training for Second Language Learners (2003) by Andrew Cohen http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0302cohen.html

Thematic, Communicative Language Teaching in the K-8 Classroom (2000) by Mari Haas http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0004thematic.html

Think Aloud Protocols: Teaching Reading Processes to Young Bilingual Students (2003) by Magaly Lavadenz

http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0314lavadenz.html

Other Online Resources

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion education: A review of the research* (Rep. No. 63). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/Report63.pdf

Comprehensive bibliography of two-way immersion literature http://www.cal.org/twi/bib.htm

The IRC E-Kit

An electronic toolkit of resources for ESL and bilingual K-12 classrooms, teachers and administrators.

http://www.thecenterlibrary.org/cwis/index.php

Dual U

An eight module curriculum designed to assist elementary and secondary teachers and administrators in developing, implementing, and assessing dual language programs http://www.dualu.org

Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education See especially the sections on Curriculum and Instruction http://www.cal.org/twi/guidingprinciples.htm

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

TVVI Education: The Basics

Dual language programs use two languages for literacy and content instruction for all students. In the United States, programs use English and a partner language, often Spanish. The programs provide the same academic content and address the same standards as other educational programs. And they provide instruction in the two languages over an extended period of time, from kindergarten through at least fifth grade. Instruction is in the partner language at least 50% of the time.

Two-way immersion, a kind of dual language education that combines students from two language groups for instruction in both of their languages, has been in existence for nearly 40 years, and its popularity has grown. During the first 20 years, the number of new programs remained relatively low. Only 30 programs were known to exist in the mid-1980s (Lindholm, 1987). Over the past 15 years, however, the number of programs has risen rapidly. Recently, 315 programs were documented (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2005). The majority of them are Spanish/English programs in public elementary schools.

Features of Two-Way Immersion Programs

High quality two-way immersion programs share certain features.

- The programs include fairly equal numbers of two groups of students: native English speakers and English language learners (native speakers of another language, such as Spanish, Korean, or Chinese). Two-way immersion is a unique kind of language education because it involves two languages in two ways: Two languages are used for instruction, and two groups of students are involved—students who are native English speakers and students from another language background, usually Spanish.
- The programs are integrated. The native English speakers and English language learners are grouped together for core academic instruction (i.e., math, social studies, and science), not just physical education and music, for all or most of the day.

• The programs provide both groups of students with core academic instruction in both languages. There are two main program models in two-way immersion education that are generally referred to as "90/10" and "50/50." In a 90/10 model, 90% of instruction in the first year or two is in the partner language and 10% in English. Over the course of the primary grades, the percentage of instruction in the minority language decreases, while the percentage of instruction in English gradually increases. By about fourth or fifth grade, instructional time in each language reaches a 50/50 ratio. In the 50/50 model, instruction in the minority and the minority language is divided evenly at all grades.

Goals of Two-Way Immersion Programs

Programs typically aim for these general goals:

- Students will develop high levels of proficiency in their first language. This goal means that native English speakers will develop high levels of listening, speaking, reading, and writing ability in English, and English language learners will develop these same abilities in their native language (e.g., Spanish). Neither group of students will have to forego development in the native language as second language proficiency improves.
- All students will develop high levels of proficiency in a second language. Native English speakers will have the opportunity to develop high levels of oral and written proficiency in a second language. English language learners will have the opportunity to develop high levels of oral and written proficiency in English. The English language development of English language learners will not be diminished because they are also receiving instruction in their native language. Two-way immersion programs are called *additive* bilingual programs for both groups of students: they give all students the opportunity to maintain and develop oral and written skills in their first language while they simultaneously acquire oral and written skills in a second language.
- Academic performance for both groups of students will be at or above grade level. Dual language programs maintain the same academic standards and curricula that are in place for other students in a school district. Academic requirements are not diluted for dual language students, and the same levels of academic performance are expected for them as for other students in the district. Evidence that this goal is attainable has been

documented in empirical studies (Cazabon, Nicoladis, & Lambert, 1998; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

All students will demonstrate positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors. Because
TWI classrooms bring together students from different language, racial, ethnic, and
socioeconomic backgrounds, they allow students to learn first hand about cultures that are
different from their own. Research has shown evidence of positive cross-cultural attitudes
being developed through TWI programs (Cazabon, Lambert, & Hall, 1993; Freeman, 1998).
Other studies point to the dominance of the English language and the native English
speakers (Amrein & Peña, 2000; Carrigo, 2000; McCollum, 1999) in the TWI classroom,
suggesting that particular attention may need to be paid to this goal.

Well-implemented two-way immersion programs are among the most impressive forms of education available in the United States. Students who participate in these programs gain gradelevel academic ability, well-developed language and literacy skills in two languages, and cross-cultural competence.

Note: This document is based on TWI Immersion 101: Designing and Implementing a TWI Immersion Education Program at the Elementary School Level, an Educational Practice Report published by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). For the full text of this document, visit http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm.

References

- Amrein, A., & Peña, R. A. (2000). Asymmetry in dual language practice: Assessing imbalance in a program promoting equality. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 8. Retrieved from http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v8n8.html
- Carrigo, D. L. (2000). Just how much English are they using? Teacher and student language distribution patterns, between Spanish and English, in upper-grade, dual language immersion Spanish classes. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University.

- Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. E., & Hall, G. (1993). *Dual language bilingual education:* A progress report on the Amigos program. Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. Retrieved from http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/miscpubs/ncrcdsll/rr7/index.htm
- Cazabon, M. T., Nicoladis, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1998). Becoming bilingual in the Amigos dual language immersion program (Research Report No. 3). Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/research/rr3.htm
- Center for Applied Linguistics. (2005). Directory of TWI bilingual immersion programs in the United States. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/dual language/directory/.

Freeman, R. D. (1998). Bilingual education and social change. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.

Lindholm, K.J. (1987). Directory of Bilingual Immersion Programs. Educational Report No. 8. Los Angeles: Center for Language Education and Research, UCLA.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual language education. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

- McCollum, P. (1999). Learning to value English: Cultural capital in a dual language bilingual program. Bilingual Research Journal, 23, 133-34.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement: Final report, executive summary. Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from www.crede.ucsc.edu/research/llaa/1.1es.html

CONCEPTOS BÁSICOS SOBRE LA EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE DE INMERSIÓN RECÍPROCA (TWO-WAY IMMERSION EDUCATION)

Hay programas bilingües que enseñan todas las materias escolares, tanto áreas de contenido como lecto-escritura, en los dos idiomas. En Estados Unidos, estos programas utilizan el inglés y un idioma minoritario, generalmente el español para enseñar a sus alumnos. Estos programas proporcionan el mismo contenido académico y están bajo las mismas normas que cualquier otro programa educativo. Además, la enseñanza en los dos idiomas se realiza durante un período de tiempo considerable, desde jardín de infancia hasta quinto grado por lo menos. Finalmente, los alumnos pasan por lo menos la mitad de la jornada escolar inmersos en la lengua minoritaria (por ejemplo, el español).

Los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca, un tipo de programa bilingüe que agrupa alumnos angloparlantes con alumnos de otro idioma en la misma clase y para todas las materias escolares, tienen aproximadamente 40 años, y su popularidad ha crecido mucho en los últimos años. Durante los primeros 20 años, el número de programas permaneció relativamente bajo. Por ejemplo, sólo se conoce la existencia de 30 programas en los años 80 (Lindholm, 1987). En los últimos 15 años, sin embargo, el número de programas ha crecido precipitadamente. En una encuesta reciente (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2005) se documentaron 315 programas. La mayor parte de estos son programas en español e inglés en escuelas primarias públicas.

Características de los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca

Hay tres criterios que definen los programas de inmersión recíproca:

• Deben incluir un número similar de alumnos hablantes nativos de inglés, y hablantes nativos de otros idiomas (por ejemplo, el español, el coreano o el chino). La educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca es distinta a otras formas de educación bilingüe porque es recíproca por dos razones: por una parte, se usan dos idiomas y por otra, hay dos grupos de alumnos que participan en estos programas, los que hablan inglés como lengua materna y los que hablan otro idioma como lengua materna, por lo general el español.

- Son integrados. Es decir las materias académicas (como las matemáticas, las ciencias, la historia y la geografía), y no solamente las clases de educación física y música, se enseñan conjuntamente a hablantes nativos de inglés y hablantes nativos de otros idiomas.
- Tanto los hablantes nativos de inglés y hablantes nativos de otro idiomas reciben las materias académicas básicas en ambos idiomas. Hay dos modelos principales de inmersión recíproca, a los que generalmente se refiere con el nombre de 90/10 y 50/50. En el modelo 90/10, el 90% de la enseñanza se realiza en la lengua minoritaria y el 10% en inglés hasta primer grado generalmente. A medida que van pasando los años, la enseñanza en inglés va aumentando y la enseñanza en la lengua minoritaria va disminuyendo, hasta que en cuarto o quinto grado se enseña el 50% del tiempo en un idioma y el 50% en el otro. En el modelo 50/50, el tiempo dedicado a la enseñanza en ambos idiomas es el mismo desde el principio.

Objetivos de los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca

Los programas de inmersión recíproca, tienen los siguientes objetivos generales:

- Los alumnos desarrollarán niveles altos de dominio en su primer idioma. Es decir, los angloparlantes alcanzarán niveles altos en inglés tanto en lo que se refiere al lenguaje oral (expresión y comprensión de lo que se escucha) como al escrito (lectura y escritura). Asimismo, los alumnos cuya lengua materna no es el inglés alcanzarán niveles altos tanto en lo que se refiere al lenguaje oral como al escrito en su lengua materna (por ejemplo, español). Por lo tanto, no será necesario que ninguno de los dos grupos de alumnos tenga que renunciar a su lengua materna a medida que vaya desarrollando su segunda lengua.
- Todos los alumnos desarrollarán niveles altos de dominio en un segundo idioma. Los angloparlantes tendrán la oportunidad de alcanzar niveles altos de dominio oral y escrito en un segundo idioma. Asimismo, los hablantes nativos de otras lenguas tendrán la oportunidad de alcanzar niveles altos de dominio oral y escrito en inglés, y su desarrollo en inglés no se verá afectado por estar estudiando también en su lengua materna. Los programas de inmersión recíproca son programas bilingües "aditivos" tanto para los alumnos de lengua mayoritaria como para los de lengua minoritaria. Es decir, les proporcionan a los dos grupos de alumnos la oportunidad de mantener y desarrollar el lenguaje hablado y escrito en su lengua materna y a su vez desarrollar el lenguaje oral y escrito en una segunda lengua.

- El rendimiento académico de los dos grupos estará al nivel o por encima del nivel de grado. Los programas de inmersión recíproca mantienen las mismas normas académicas y el mismo plan de estudios que tienen los demás programas del distrito escolar. Los requisitos académicos son los mismos para los alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca que para los alumnos de otros programas, y se espera que éstos tengan los mismos niveles de rendimiento académico que los alumnos inscritos en otros programas del distrito. Hay estudios empíricos (Cazabon, Nicoladis y Lambert, 1998; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas y Collier, 2002) que demuestran que este objetivo se puede lograr.
- Todos los alumnos demostrarán actitudes y conductas culturales positivas hacia ambas culturas. La integración lingüística, racial, étnica y socioeconómica que suponen los programas de inmersión recíproca permite que los alumnos aprendan de una manera muy directa sobre culturas que son distintas a la suya. Hay estudios que demuestran que en los programas de inmersión recíproca se adquieren actitudes positivas hacia otras culturas (Cazabon, Lambert y Hall, 1993; Freeman, 1998). Sin embargo, también hay estudios que señalan la dominación persistente del inglés y de los angloparlantes en estos programas (Amrein y Peña, 2000; Carrigo, 2000; McCollum, 1999), por lo que es posible que sea necesario prestar especial atención a este objetivo.

Los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca, si están bien implementados, son unos de los programas educativos más impresionantes que existen en Estados Unidos. Los alumnos que participan en estos programas adquieren el nivel académico correspondiente a su grado, habilidades lingüísticas bien desarrolladas en dos idiomas y amplios conocimientos de dos culturas.

Nota: Este documento está basado en el informe Two-Way Immersion 101: Designing and Implementing a Two-Way Immersion Education Program at the Elementary School Level publicado por el Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). El informe completo está disponible en http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm

Bibliografía

- Amrein, A., & Peña, R. A. (2000). Asymmetry in dual language practice: Assessing imbalance in a program promoting equality. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 8. Disponible en: http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v8n8.html
- Carrigo, D. L. (2000). Just how much English are they using? Teacher and student language distribution patterns, between Spanish and English, in upper-grade, dual language immersion Spanish classes. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University.
- Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. E., & Hall, G. (1993). *Dual language bilingual education: A progress* report on the Amigos program. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. Disponible en: http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/miscpubs/ncrcdsll/rr7/index.htm
- Cazabon, M. T., Nicoladis, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1998). Becoming bilingual in the Amigos dual language immersion program (Research Report No. 3). Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Available: http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/research/rr3.htm
- Center for Applied Linguistics. (2005). Directory of two-way bilingual immersion programs in the United States. Se encuentra en: http://www.cal.org/twi/directory/
- Freeman, R. D. (1998). Bilingual education and social change. *Bilingual education and bilingualism:* 14. Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Lindholm, K. (1987). Directory of two-way bilingual programs: Two-way bilingual education for language minority and majority students. Los Angeles: University of California, Center for Language Education and Research. [ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 291 241].

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual language education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- McCollum, P. (1999). Learning to value English: Cultural capital in a dual language bilingual program. Bilingual Research Journal, 23, 133-34.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement: Final report, executive summary. Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Available: www.crede.ucsc.edu/research/llaa/1.1es.html

Parents' Questions about Two-Way Immersion (TWI)

1. What advantages are there for my child in a TWI program? Are the advantages the same for language minority and language majority students?

There are three major advantages for students of both language backgrounds, all tied to the goals of two-way immersion education (e.g., Howard & Christian, 2002). The first advantage is that students develop full oral and reading and writing proficiency in two languages. This allows them to see their first language in a comparative perspective, which in turn helps them analyze and refine their language use (Cazabon, Lambert, & Heise-Baigorria, 2002).

A second advantage is that students not only achieve at levels that are similar to or higher than those of their peers enrolled in other programs on standardized tests of reading and math in English, but in addition they are able to read and write at grade level in another language. This in turn positively affects general academic performance. Research (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002) shows that there are fewer high school drop-outs from dual language programs than from other programs. Lindholm-Leary (2003) also found that most dual language students expect to attend college. Thus, not only do dual language programs appear to improve academic performance but they may also enhance job opportunities in the future.

The third advantage is attitudinal: Students in TWI programs develop very positive attitudes about students of other language and cultural backgrounds, and positive attitudes toward themselves as learners. For example, Cazabon, Lambert, & Heise-Baigorria (2002) found that TWI students showed a great deal of diversity in the friendship choices that they made, and that the dual language educational experience produced students who became comfortable with speaking the second language and interacting with members of other ethnocultural groups. In a very real sense, students in TWI programs become more self-confident because they are better prepared to engage in a global society that values multiculturalism and bilingualism. One parent noted these benefits when she stated, "My child has the opportunity to be bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. There are social and cognitive benefits to bilingualism. He gains a second language, a broader vocabulary, and multiple views of the world."

Overall, the advantages are the same for both native English speakers and English language learners, but the benefits may be stronger for English language learners, given that two-way immersion education has been found to be the most successful model for helping these students succeed academically in school (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Specific benefits for English language learners include an increased sense of pride and self- esteem. At school, they become the models of proficiency for students who learning their language. At home, they are able to communicate with family members, including grandparents and other members of the extended family.

2. How do students in TWI programs compare academically to students in other types of educational programs?

Several investigators have examined the reading and math achievement of students in dual language programs at late elementary or secondary levels to determine the long-term impact of TWI programs (e.g., Cazabon, Nicoladis, & Lambert, 1998; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Howard, Sugarman & Christian, 2003; Kirk-Senesac, 2002; Lindholm-Leary, 2001, 2005).

These studies showed that overall both English language learners and native English speakers made significant progress in both languages; both groups scored at or well above grade level in both languages by middle school; and both groups performed at comparable or superior levels compared to same-language peers in other educational settings. On norm-referenced standardized tests of reading and math achievement in English, native English speakers outscored their English-only peers in English-only classrooms. English language learners who had learned English in a TV/I program scored significantly higher than their English language learning peers who had studies in other kinds of programs in the state and also performed on a par with native English speaking students in English-only classrooms (Lindholm-Leary, 2004; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, in press).

3. When do students perform at grade level on standardized achievement tests in their first and second languages? Is the time frame different for 90/10 vs. 50/50 models?

Native English speakers tend to perform at grade level in their first language once they have received formal reading instruction through that language, and their achievement is at grade level

in the second language typically by third grade, if not sooner. For English language learners, scores are usually in the average range in their first language by second grade, but as a group they do not achieve at grade level in English until middle school.

Comparing the achievement of students in 90/10 and 50/50 models, Lindholm-Leary (2001) found that by Grades 7-8, English language learners and native-English-speaking students scored similarly to their peers of the same language and economic backgrounds on achievement tests in English. When achievement was measured in Spanish, students in 90/10 programs scored higher than students in 50/50 programs. Thus, more instructional time spent in Spanish positively affected achievement in Spanish and had no negative effect on achievement measured in English.

4. Within TWI programs, how does the academic performance of native English speakers compare to that of English language learners?

Native English speakers typically achieve at higher levels in English than do English language learners (Howard, Sugarman & Christian, 2003). By middle school, native English speakers on average score above grade level in standardized achievement tests of reading and math, while English language learners on average approach grade level. However, students who begin elementary school as English language learners and develop full oral and reading and writing proficiencies in English often have a mean performance that is as high as or higher than that of native English speakers.

5. What are the characteristics of students who are successful in TWI programs?

From their personal and professional experiences, parents and educators note some common characteristics of successful TWI students. First, successful students tend to enjoy learning new things, and also like meeting and interacting with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Second, successful students tend to have parents who strongly support the program: Parents who truly understand and embrace TWI and its goals will transmit their positive attitudes to their children. Finally, successful students understand and embrace the philosophy of dual language education. They realize that learning in two languages can be challenging at times, especially for students from a monolingual background. The successful student perseveres and learns to take risks in speaking and writing the second language.

Research has shown that students from a variety of different backgrounds can be successful in TWI programs (Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003). Students from different ethnic, social class, and language backgrounds, and with varying academic strengths and needs, have all benefited from dual language education. There is no particular type of student that fails to flourish in TWI programs.

6. How can TWI program parents help families who don't have children in the program understand its benefits?

There are many things that program parents can do to help other parents learn about dual language education. For example, they can form a PTA subgroup that responds to queries from interested parents. They can organize a Parent-to-Parent Information Day and be accessible to prospective parents for questions about the program. On these occasions, they can talk about how their children are doing at school and show examples of written work in both languages. A personal testimony describing how the program has helped a particular child is often the best evidence of program success.

At Amigos (http://www.cps.ci.cambridge.ma.us/element/amigos/), a 50/50 program in Cambridge, MA, program parents invite their friends outside of the program to celebrations and activities in the evenings and on weekends. Seeing families speaking and having a good time in two languages encourages others to join in the fun and experience for themselves the rich rewards of two-way immersion education.

Guided tours conducted by program parents for other parents during the school day are also a good way to help people understand TWI. During these tours, parents should be invited to visit classes, including a lower grade—perhaps a kindergarten class and an upper grade, so they can see firsthand the progress that children make when they remain in the program. The Amigos program suggests that touring parents take time to speak with the students, who can articulate what it means to be schooled in two languages, and to examine students' written work and projects. Program parents can encourage the school to keep on hand a few portfolios of former students who have gone through the program so that parents can see how students progress over time.

7. How can TWI parents work with the school board and district administrators to help them understand the importance of supporting TWI programs?

There are many things that parents can do to help the school board and administrators understand the benefits of two-way immersion education.

First, parents should do everything they can to make the program a success, and then they should publicly report the program's successes. Administrators and school board members are most likely to support an effective program that has accumulated solid evidence of promoting academic achievement among the student population. Thus, important first steps in generating support for TWI programs include working with the program to help build its quality so that it produces good results for students; monitoring students' language, literacy, and academic progress; making improvements to the program as needed; and publicly reporting successes.

Parents can help the board and administrators better understand TWI by speaking up for the program as they participate in school and school district activities. For example, they can join the advisory committees that school boards and districts set up for parent and community input, such as those dealing with curriculum and instruction, foreign language, and ESL. When budget issues arise, parents can offer testimonials about the value of the dual language program and have their children do so, too, at public board meetings. In addition, small coalitions of parents that include native speakers of both program languages can make appointments to talk with district administrators about what the program has meant to them as parents. Writing letters to the editor of a local paper is a way to provide information about the program to the community at large.

Administrators and school board members can be invited to visit the program, and parents can accompany them to guide the visit and highlight noteworthy features. Seeing is believing: Many people do not become convinced of the benefits of dual language programs until they can actually see the program at work. PTAs should be sure to invite board members to program events, such as plays, concerts, and other activities that showcase both languages. Finally, parents can support the work of administrators and school board members who already appreciate the value of the program and help them influence their less enthusiastic peers. Input from peers is often the most compelling input of all. Friends of two-way immersion should be informed regularly about program activities and student achievement.

8. What should a TWI program do to promote home-school connections? What can I do as a parent to get involved?

As in other education programs, strong home-school connections are essential to the success of TWI programs. There are many things that programs and parents can do to help foster these connections.

First of all, programs can promote positive home-school connections by ensuring that all communications with parents, oral and in writing, are in both languages of instruction. This accomplishes the dual goals of ensuring clear communications with parents and promoting the goals of the program.

Programs can also sponsor periodic meetings to educate parents on TWI related topics such as program design, language acquisition, helping with homework, biliteracy development, and assessment practices. In addition, programs may offer ESL classes for parents of English language learners and classes in the partner language (e.g., Spanish) for parents of native English speakers. Ideally, these language classes should be structured to bring the two groups together on a regular basis in order to allow parents to practice the second language with native speakers.

Finally, programs can foster good home-school connections by recognizing the skills and strengths that families bring to the school and by seeing them as valuable resources that provide critical information about their children. TWI teachers and administrators can visit students' homes and communities, in order to develop firsthand knowledge of students' *funds of knowledge* (Moll, 1992a, 1992b).

There are many things that parents can do to strengthen the home-school connection. Calderón and Minaya-Rowe (2003) provide a detailed list:

- Volunteer in the classroom.
- Share with students aspects of the home language and culture such as music, dance, literature, and foods.
- Attend parent education workshops on dual language programs.
- Participate in TWI family social gatherings.
- At dual language conferences and meetings, co-present with teachers, administrators, and students.
- Assist with ongoing recruitment for the program by sharing experiences with prospective parents and students.
- Contribute to the section of the school newsletter that deals with dual language issues.
- Serve as chaperons for program class trips, both domestic and international.
- Keep in touch with other dual language parents about program developments. For example, two volunteer parents (one representing each language background) can help get the word out to other parents about potential budget cuts or an important upcoming event. In some programs, parents have formed an electronic email list along with staff, and they use that forum to discuss all sorts of issues. Parents without home computers are able to use the school's computer lab to join in on the discussions that take place bilingually. Parents help each other with the translations.
- Support their children's language and literacy development in two languages, as well as their emerging cross-cultural appreciation. They can do this by exposing their children to books and movies in both languages; attending cultural festivals; and providing opportunities for authentic language exchanges.

9. How can I help support my child in doing homework in the second language, particularly if I don't know that language? What kind of homework support can the program provide?

Parents can support students at home by making sure that they have the right environment and tools to get homework done (e.g., a quiet space and enough time, paper, dictionaries in both languages, writing utensils, and art supplies such as construction paper, paste, tape, and colored makers). Parents can also ask questions about the homework in the language spoken at home, thus giving the students opportunities to explain the assignment in their first language.

The program can also provide homework support. One of the best supports is ongoing communication between the teacher and the parents through a weekly newsletter in both languages. In the newsletter, the teacher can describe the topics that are being taught and provide an overview of homework assignments for the week, along with written guidance for complicated assignments (and perhaps some models of completed assignments). Teachers can also set up a class buddy system, matching an English-speaking student with a student speaking the other program language to help one another with homework. Yet another way that the program can provide homework support is by running an after-school homework club where students can receive support on long-term projects or on a daily basis.

Finally, the program can organize a homework hotline or a group of parent volunteers to provide homework support in one language or another, by telephone or email. Alternately, the teacher or parent volunteers could audiorecord the homework each day along with helpful suggestions for completing it.

10. What resources exist for parents of TWI students? Are there conferences that I might enjoy attending?

There are many resources for parents on two-way immersion education. There are also conferences that provide opportunities for parents to network with TWI educators and other TWI parents.

Resources include books (see the annotated bibliography) and videos from organizations and from other TWI programs. Dual language videos are available through the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (www.cal.org/crede/pubs).

There are also online directories of dual language programs. CAL has an online directory of TWI programs in the United States (www.cal.org/twi/directory); the California Department of Education has a directory of all the two-way bilingual immersion programs in California (www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/im); and the Texas Two-Way/Dual Language Consortium has an online directory of programs in that state (www.texastwoway.org).

Following is a partial list of organizations with a special interest in dual language education: The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (www.cal.org/twi); the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) (www.nabe.org); The California Association for Bilingual Education (CABE) (www.bilingualeducation.org/2waycabe); Dual Language Education of New Mexico (www.duallanguagenm.org); and the Illinois Resource Center (http://www.thecenterweb.org/irc/), particularly its Dual U Program (www.dualu.org).

Some of these organizations host conferences that look at dual language programs, and this information is provided on their websites. The *OELA Newsline* of the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition also has a section for parents of bilingual children (to subscribe, go to http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/enews/subscribe.htm).

References

- Calderón, M., & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and Implementing Two-Way Bilingual Programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. E., & Heise-Baigorria, C. (2002). Field initiated bilingual education research project. (Award Number R306F960155-98). U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Cazabon, M., Nicoladis, E. & Lambert, W. E. (1998). Becoming bilingual in the Amigos two-way immersion program. Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/research/rr3.htm.
- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language education for all. NABE Journal of Research and Practice, 2 (1), pp.1-20.
- Howard, E. R. & Christian, D. (2002). Two-way immersion 101: Designing and implementing a twoway immersion education program at the elementary school level (Educational Practice Report No. 9). Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.
 Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm
- Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion education: A review* of the research (Report No. 63). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk. Retrieved from http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/ Report63.pdf.
- Kirk-Senesac, B.V. (2002). Two-way bilingual immersion: A portrait of quality schooling. Bilingual Research Journal, 26.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual language education. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2003). Dual language achievement, proficiency, and attitudes among current high school graduates of two-way bilingual programs. *NABE News*, 26 (6), 20-25.
- Lindholm-Leary, K.J. (2004). Review of Research and Best Practices on Effective Features of Dual Language Education Programs. San José: San José State University.

- Lindholm-Leary, K.J., & Borsato, G. (in press). Academic achievement. In F. Genesee, K. Lindholm-Leary,W. Saunders, & D. Christian (Eds). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence*. New York: Cambridge.
- Moll, L. C. (1992a). Bilingual classroom studies and community analysis: Some recent trends. Educational Researcher, 21(2), 20-24.
- Moll, L. C. (1992b). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2), 132-141.
- Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement. Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://www.crede.ucsc.edu/research/llaa/1.1_final.html.

Preguntas de los padres sobre los Programas Bilingües de Inmersión Recíproca (Two-Way Immersion Programs)

¿Qué ventajas hay para mi hijo en un programa bilingüe de inmersión recíproca?
 ¿Hay las mismas ventajas para alumnos de lenguas minoritarias como para alumnos de lenguas mayoritarias?

Hay tres ventajas fundamentales tanto para los alumnos de lenguas mayoritarias como para alumnos de lengua minoritarias, que están estrechamente ligadas a los objetivos de la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca (Howard & Christian, 2002). La primera ventaja es que los alumnos que permanecen en un programa de inmersión recíproca por lo menos hasta el último año de primaria llegan a conseguir un dominio total de expresión oral y escrita en dos idiomas. Esto les permite ver su lengua materna desde la perspectiva de su segunda lengua, lo que a su vez les ayuda a analizar y perfeccionar su uso de la lengua (Cazabon, Lambert, & Heise-Baigorria, 2002).

Una segunda ventaja es que cuando comparamos los alumnos de estos programas con alumnos en otros tipos de programas no sólo alcanzan niveles similares, o mayores, en tests estandarizados de lectura y matemáticas en inglés, sino que además leen y escriben a nivel de grado en otro idioma también. Las investigaciones realizadas en los últimos años (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002) demuestran que el número de alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca que abandona la escuela es menor al de otros programas. Además, según Lindholm-Leary (2003), la mayoría de los alumnos de los programas de inmersión recíproca tiene intención de asistir a la universidad. Por lo tanto, los programas de inmersión recíproca no solo parecen producir un rendimiento académico superior sino que pueden contribuir a una mejora en las posibilidades de empleo en el futuro.

La tercera ventaja tiene que ver con la actitud. Los alumnos en programas de inmersión recíproca adquieren actitudes muy positivas hacia alumnos que hablan otro idioma y pertenecen a otra cultura, y también actitudes positivas hacia sí mismos y su cultura. Por ejemplo, según Cazabon et al. (2002), los alumnos de estos programas tienen amigos con experiencias culturales muy diversas, y la experiencia educativa que estos programas les proporcionan hace que se sientan cómodos hablando una segunda lengua y relacionándose con miembros de otras culturas y procedencias étnicas. De alguna manera, todos los alumnos se sienten más cómodos consigo mismos y más seguros de sí mismos porque están mejor preparados para desenvolverse en una sociedad global que valora el multiculturalismo y el bilingüismo. Como dijo una madre, "Mi hijo tiene la oportunidad de ser bilingüe y bicultural. El bilingüismo proporciona beneficios sociales y cognitivos. Mi hijo adquiere un segundo idioma, un vocabulario más amplio, y múltiples perspectivas del mundo."

En general, las ventajas son las mismas para los dos grupos de alumnos, pero es posible que los beneficios sean incluso mayores para los hablantes de una lengua minoritaria (es decir, en Estados Unidos, una lengua que no sea el inglés). Por una parte, hay investigaciones que demuestran que la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca es el modelo educativo que ha conseguido producir el mayor rendimiento académico entre los alumnos de lengua minoritaria (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Por otra parte, al no perder su lengua materna a medida que aprenden inglés, estos alumnos adquieren un mayor sentimiento de orgullo y autoestima. Durante la jornada escolar, los hablantes de lenguas minoritarias (por ejemplo, aquellos que hablan español) se convierten en modelo para los hablantes de inglés, y en el hogar pueden usar la lengua materna para comunicarse con sus familiares.

2. Comparados con alumnos de otros tipos de programas, ¿dónde situaría el nivel académico de los alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca?

El rendimiento académico en matemáticas y lectura de los alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca ha sido examinado por varios investigadores para determinar el impacto a largo plazo de este tipo de programas (por ejemplo, Cazabon, Nicoladis, & Lambert, 1998; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003; Kirk-Senesac, 2002; Lindholm-Leary, 2001, 2005).

Estos estudios indican que en general tanto los alumnos que hablan una lengua minoritaria como los que hablan inglés como lengua materna demuestran un progreso significativo en ambos idiomas; ambos grupos obtienen por lo menos una puntuación correspondiente, si no superior, a su grado escolar en ambos idiomas cuando llegan a la escuela media (*middle school*); y su rendimiento académico es igual o superior al de alumnos de otros programas que hablan la misma lengua materna que ellos. Es decir, en tests estandarizados de lectura y matemáticas en inglés, los hablantes de inglés de programas de inmersión recíproca generalmente obtienen una puntuación más alta que los hablantes de inglés de programas educativos donde sólo se enseña en inglés. Por otra parte, los alumnos de lenguas minoritarias en programas de inmersión recíproca generalmente obtienen una puntuación significativamente más alta que los alumnos de lenguas minoritarias que estudian en otros programas en el mismo estado, y su puntuación es similar a la de los hablantes de inglés que estudian en programas monolingües donde sólo se enseña en inglés (Lindholm-Leary, 2004; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, en prensa).

¿Cuándo alcanzan estos alumnos el nivel correspondiente a su grado escolar en los tests de rendimiento estandarizados en ambos idiomas? ¿Hay diferencias entre los modelos 90/10 y 50/50?

Los angloparlantes tienden a adquirir el nivel correspondiente a su grado en inglés tan pronto como aprenden a leer y escribir en inglés, y en el segundo idioma generalmente para tercer grado, si no antes. Los alumnos que no hablan inglés como lengua materna, adquieren el nivel correspondiente a su grado en su lengua materna para segundo grado, pero, como grupo, no alcanzan el nivel correspondiente a su grado en inglés hasta que están en la escuela media.

Lindholm-Leary (2001) comparó el rendimiento de los alumnos de los modelos 90/10 y 50/10 en inglés, y descubrió que para séptimo u octavo grado, el rendimiento académico de los hablantes de una lengua minoritaria en ambos modelos era similar y lo mismo se puede decir de los hablantes de inglés. Por otra parte, el rendimiento académico en español de los alumnos de los programas 90/10 resultó ser superior al de los alumnos de los programas 50/50. Por lo tanto, se podría decir que el dedicar más tiempo a la enseñanza en español tiene un impacto positivo en el rendimiento académico en español, y no afecta de manera negativa al rendimiento académico en inglés.

4. En los programas de inmersión recíproca, ¿hay diferencias entre el rendimiento académico de los hablantes de inglés y los hablantes de lenguas minoritarias?

Los alumnos cuya lengua materna es el inglés generalmente alcanzan niveles más altos de inglés que los no nativos (Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003). Para cuando llegan a la escuela media, los hablantes de inglés generalmente alcanzan niveles por encima de su grado correspondiente en tests estandarizados de matemáticas y lectura, mientras que en general los hablantes de una lengua minoritaria se aproximan al nivel correspondiente a su grado. Sin embargo, en este último grupo aquellos que consiguen altos niveles de expresión y alfabetización en inglés frecuentemente demuestran un rendimiento medio tan alto, sino más alto, que los hablantes de inglés.

5. ¿Cuáles son las características de los alumnos que tienen éxito en los programas de inmersión recíproca?

Según algunos padres y educadores, hay una serie de características que hacen que algunos alumnos triunfen en estos programas. En primer lugar, los alumnos que triunfan en estos programas tienden a disfrutar del aprendizaje de cosas nuevas, y además les gusta relacionarse con gente de distintas culturas. En segundo lugar, estos alumnos tienden a tener padres que apoyan plenamente el programa. Si los padres entienden y apoyan la misión del programa y sus objetivos, esta actitud positiva se transmite a los hijos. Por último, para triunfar en estos programas es necesario que los mismos alumnos entiendan y apoyen la filosofía de la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca. Deben tener en cuenta, sobre todo los alumnos monolingües, que este tipo de educación en ocasiones puede suponer un reto, y que para triunfar en el programa hay que ser perseverante y no tener miedo a hablar y escribir en el segundo idioma.

Hay investigaciones que demuestran que alumnos de distintas clases sociales y culturas, así como alumnos que tienen necesidades académicas específicas, pueden triunfar en los programas de inmersión recíproca (Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003). Por lo tanto, no se puede decir que haya un tipo concreto de alumno que triunfe o fracase en estos programas.

6. ¿Cómo pueden los padres que tienen hijos en programas de inmersión recíproca informar a otras familias sobre los beneficios que estos programas les pueden brindar?

Hay muchas cosas que los padres de los alumnos de estos programas pueden hacer para informar a otros padres sobre los beneficios de la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca. Por ejemplo, dentro de la Asociación de Padres y Profesores se puede formar un grupo de padres que se dedique a responder las preguntas de padres interesados en el programa. Además, pueden organizar un evento anual dedicado a la transmisión de información, en el que los padres que ya conocen el programa estén disponibles para responder las preguntas de aquellos padres interesados en matricular a sus hijos en el programa en un futuro. Los testimonios personales sobre los beneficios que el programa ha aportado a un alumno en concreto son a menudo las mejores pruebas del éxito del programa.

En Amigos (http://www.cps.ci.cambridge.ma.us/element/amigos/), un programa 50/50 en Cambridge, MA, se anima a los padres a que inviten a sus amigos que no tienen hijos en el programa a las fiestas y demás actividades que tienen lugar por las tardes o durante el fin de semana. Ver cómo familias enteras disfrutan de las actividades extra-curriculares, y escuchar a la gente hablar en dos idiomas es muy contagioso, y sirve de oportunidad para observar algunas de las ventajas que ofrecen estos programas.

Otra manera en la que los padres interesados en el programa pueden aprender sobre la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca es visitando la escuela. Durante estas visitas, se podría invitar a los padres a que visiten algunas clases, incluyendo clases de Jardín de infancia y también de cuarto o quinto grado, para que puedan ver el progreso de los alumnos a través de los años. El programa Amigos recomienda que durante estas visitas los padres aprovechen la oportunidad para hablar con los alumnos del programa, ya que ellos pueden contarles lo que significa para ellos ser parte de un programa de educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca, y también examinar sus trabajos y proyectos. Los padres que ya tienen hijos en el programa pueden sugerir que la escuela guarde trabajos en ambos idiomas de algunos antiguos alumnos para que los padres interesados en matricular a sus hijos en el programa puedan ver el progreso de los alumnos en ambos idiomas a través del tiempo.

7. ¿Cómo podrían los padres de alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca trabajar con el consejo escolar y la administración del distrito para hacerles entender lo importante que es apoyar estos programas?

Hay muchas cosas que pueden hacer los padres que tienen hijos en estos programas para que el consejo escolar y la administración del distrito tengan presentes las ventajas de la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca.

En primer lugar, los padres deberían hacer todo lo posible para que el programa sea un éxito, y después informar al público a cerca del éxito del programa. Los administradores y los miembros del consejo escolar generalmente están dispuestos a apoyar un programa que destaca por el alto rendimiento académico de sus alumnos. Por lo tanto, es importante seguir muy de cerca el progreso académico y lingüístico de los alumnos, introducir cambios en el programa para mejorarlo cuando sea necesario, e informar públicamente sobre el progreso realizado.

Los padres pueden hablar a favor de los programas de inmersión recíproca cuando participan en actividades de la escuela y del distrito escolar. Por ejemplo, pueden participar en los comités que los consejos escolares y los distritos organizan para conseguir la opinión de los padres y la comunidad en lo que se refiere, por ejemplo, al plan de estudios, al programa de inglés como segunda lengua o ESL (*English as a Second Language*), o al programa de lenguas extranjeras. Cuando surgen cuestiones de presupuesto, los padres pueden ofrecer testimonio sobre el valor del programa de educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca en reuniones públicas del consejo escolar, y hacer que sus hijos hagan lo mismo. Además, pequeños grupos de padres compuestos tanto de hablantes de la lengua minoritaria como hablantes de inglés pueden concertar citas para hablar con administradores del distrito sobre lo que el programa significa para ellos como padres. Por último, se pueden escribir cartas al editor de un periódico local para proporcionar información sobre el programa a toda la comunidad.

Se puede invitar a miembros del consejo escolar y de la administración a que visiten el programa, y los padres pueden acompañarlos, si es posible, para resaltar ciertas características del programa. "Ver para creer": mucha gente tiene que ver con sus propios ojos el programa en funcionamiento para poder convencerse de los beneficios que éste aporta. La organización de padres y profesores debe asegurarse de que los miembros del consejo escolar sean invitados a participar en eventos organizados por el programa, como por ejemplo, obras de teatro, conciertos, y otras actividades en las que las dos lenguas estén presentes.

Por último, los padres pueden apoyar el trabajo de los administradores y miembros del consejo escolar que aprecian los programas de educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca, y ayudar a que éstos puedan influir en los administradores que estén menos convencidos de los beneficios de estos programas. La opinión de personas que piensan como uno mismo suele ser la más influyente. Los administradores que más aprecian la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca deben ser informados con frecuencia sobre las actividades del programa y el rendimiento académico de los alumnos.

8. ¿Qué debería hacer un programa de inmersión recíproca para fomentar las relaciones entre el hogar y la escuela? ¿Qué podría hacer yo como padre o madre para ayudar?

Como en otros contextos educativos, para que los programas de inmersión recíproca triunfen es muy importante que haya una estrecha relación entre el hogar y la escuela. Hay muchas cosas que los programas y los padres pueden hacer para promover esta relación.

En primer lugar, los programas pueden fomentar las relaciones entre el hogar y la escuela asegurándose de que toda comunicación con los padres, tanto oral como escrita, se realice en los dos idiomas. Así se logra el doble objetivo de garantizar que haya comunicación directa con los padres y potenciar los objetivos del programa.

Los programas también pueden patrocinar reuniones periódicas para educar a los padres sobre diversos temas relacionados con la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca, como por ejemplo, el diseño del programa, la adquisición de lenguas, el desarrollo de la alfabetización en dos idiomas, el sistema de evaluación, la tarea, etc. Además, los programas pueden ofrecer clases de inglés como segundo idioma (ESL) para padres que no hablan inglés o que lo están aprendiendo, y clases del idioma minoritario para padres que no lo hablan o lo están aprendiendo (por ejemplo, clases de español como segundo idioma). Lo ideal sería que estos dos grupos pudieran reunirse periódicamente para practicar el idioma que están aprendiendo con personas del otro grupo que hablan el idioma como lengua materna.

Por último, los programas pueden fomentar las relaciones entre el hogar y la escuela reconociendo y celebrando las experiencias y destrezas que poseen las familias de sus alumnos, y considerándolas un recurso muy valioso a través del cual se puede adquirir información esencial sobre los propios alumnos. Para conseguir información de primera mano sobre los alumnos, lo que Moll (1992a,

1992b) llama *funds of knowledge* ("fondos de conocimiento"), los profesores y administradores pueden visitar sus hogares y comunidades.

Hay muchas cosas que los padres pueden hacer para consolidar las relaciones entre el hogar y la escuela. Calderón y Minaya-Rowe (2003) proporcionan una lista detallada al respecto:

- Hacer de voluntario en la clase.
- Compartir talentos lingüísticos o culturales con los alumnos (por ejemplo, música, baile, literatura, comida, etc.).
- Asistir a talleres para padres sobre la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca.
- Participar en eventos sociales organizados por el programa.
- Hacer presentaciones en congresos de educación bilingüe y en otras escuelas con profesores, administradores, o alumnos.
- Ayudar a reclutar nuevas familias compartiendo experiencias personales con padres y alumnos interesados en el programa.
- Encargarse de la sección del boletín informativo escolar que tiene que ver con temas relacionados con la inmersión recíproca.
- Participar en las excursiones que hacen los alumnos, tanto dentro del país como en el extranjero.
- Mantenerse en contacto con otros padres de familia que tienen hijos en programas de inmersión recíproca. Por ejemplo, dos padres encargados de la clase (uno, que hable inglés y el otro el idioma minoritario) podrían encargarse de informar a otros padres de manera rápida sobre posibles recortes en el presupuesto escolar o sobre algún evento que se va a celebrar próximamente. En algunos programas, los padres han creado listas de correo electrónico que incluyen también al personal escolar, y las utilizan para hablar de todo tipo de asuntos. Los padres que no tienen computadoras en casa pueden usar las computadoras de la escuela para poder participar en estas conversaciones electrónicas que tienen lugar en los dos idiomas. Los padres se ayudan mutuamente con las traducciones del contenido de dichas conversaciones.

 Apoyar el desarrollo bilingüe de sus hijos, así como su emergente apreciación intercultural.
 Esto se puede conseguir exponiéndoles a los dos idiomas por medio de libros o películas; asistiendo con ellos a eventos culturales que incluyan música, baile, o comida de países en los que se habla el idioma minoritario; y ofreciéndoles oportunidades para que puedan practicar el idioma minoritario.

9. ¿Cómo puedo ayudar a mi hijo/a con su tarea en un idioma que no conozco? ¿Qué tipo de apoyo puede darme el programa?

Los padres pueden ayudar a sus hijos en casa con la tarea asegurándose de que tienen: un espacio cómodo y tranquilo para trabajar; el tiempo suficiente para terminar la tarea; y todo el material necesario para hacerla (por ejemplo, papel, diccionarios en ambos idiomas, utensilios para escribir y material para hacer proyectos de arte, como cartulina, pegamento, cinta, y marcadores de colores). Los padres también pueden hacerles preguntas a sus hijos en su lengua materna, dándoles así la oportunidad de explicarles la tarea en dicha lengua.

La escuela también puede proporcionar ayuda con la tarea. Una de las mejores maneras de hacerlo es mediante un boletín semanal en ambos idiomas, que sirva de vía de comunicación entre los profesores y los padres. En este boletín, el profesor puede describir los temas que están estudiando y proporcionar un resumen de las tareas de la semana, así como incluir explicaciones detalladas de las tareas más complicadas (quizás incluso algunos ejemplos que muestren cómo hacer la tarea). Los profesores también pueden emparejar a hablantes de inglés con hablantes del segundo idioma para que se ayuden con la tarea. Además, la escuela puede organizar un club en torno a la tarea que se reúna después de las clases, al que puedan acudir diariamente los alumnos en busca de ayuda con proyectos a largo plazo.

Por último, el programa puede organizar un teléfono público o un grupo de padres voluntarios que incluya hablantes de ambos idiomas dispuestos a ayudar con la tarea por teléfono o a través de correo electrónico. Otra alternativa es que el profesor o los padres voluntarios hagan una grabación de la tarea todos los días en la que expliquen detalladamente lo que hay que hacer.

10. ¿Qué recursos hay para los padres de alumnos de programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca? ¿Hay congresos a los que podrían asistir?

Hay muchos recursos para padres que estén interesados en la educación bilingüe de inmersión recíproca. También hay congresos que permiten que los padres puedan intercambiar ideas con educadores y otros padres.

En lo que se refiere a recursos hay libros (véase la bibliografía anotada) y videos de organizaciones como el Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (www.cal.org/crede/pubs), y otros programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca.

También hay directorios electrónicos de programas de inmersión recíproca. CAL tiene una base de datos electrónica de los programas de inmersión recíproca en los Estados Unidos a la que se puede acceder por internet (www.cal.org/twi/directory); el Ministerio de Educación de California tiene una base de datos de los programas de inmersión recíproca en California (www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/im); y el Texas Two-Way/Dual Language Consortium tiene una base de datos de los programas de inmersión recíproca en ese estado (www.texastwoway.org).

A continuación les proporcionamos una lista breve de organizaciones que tienen un interés particular en los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca: Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (www.cal.org/twi); National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) (www.nabe.org); California Association for Bilingual Education (CABE) (www.bilingualeducation.org/2waycabe); Dual Language Education of New Mexico (www.duallanguagenm.org); e Illinois Resource Center (www.thecenterweb.org/irc), especialmente su programa Dual U (www.dualu.org).

Algunas de estas organizaciones celebran congresos sobre programas de inmersión recíproca, cuya información se puede encontrar en sus páginas de internet. OELA Newsline del National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition también tiene una sección para padres de niños bilingües (para suscribirse, vaya a www.ncela.gwu.edu/enews/subscribe.htm).

Bibliografía

- Calderón, M., & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and Implementing Two-Way Bilingual Programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. E., & Heise-Baigorria, C. (2002). Field initiated bilingual education research project. (Award Number R306F960155-98). U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Cazabon, M., Nicoladis, E. & Lambert, W. E. (1998). Becoming bilingual in the Amigos two-way immersion program. Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/research/rr3.htm.
- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language education for all. NABE Journal of Research and Practice, 2 (1), pp.1-20.
- Howard, E. R. & Christian, D. (2002). Two-way immersion 101: Designing and implementing a twoway immersion education program at the elementary school level (Educational Practice Report No. 9). Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/edpractice/EPR9.htm
- Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion education: A review* of the research (Report No. 63). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk. Retrieved from http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/ Report63.pdf.
- Kirk-Senesac, B.V. (2002). Two-way bilingual immersion: A portrait of quality schooling. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual language education. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2003). Dual language achievement, proficiency, and attitudes among current high school graduates of two-way bilingual programs. *NABE News*, 26 (6), 20-25.
- Lindholm-Leary, K.J. (2004). Review of Research and Best Practices on Effective Features of Dual Language Education Programs. San José: San José State University.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. J. (2005). The rich promise of two-way immersion. *Educational Leadership* 62, 56-59.

- Lindholm-Leary, K.J., & Borsato, G. (en prensa). Academic achievement. In F. Genesee, K. Lindholm-Leary, W. Saunders, & D. Christian (Eds.). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of empirical evidence*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Moll, L. C. (1992a). Bilingual classroom studies and community analysis: Some recent trends. Educational Researcher, 21(2), 20-24.
- Moll, L. C. (1992b). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2), 132-141.
- Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement. Santa Cruz, CA, and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://www.crede.ucsc.edu/research/llaa/1.1_final.html.

Home – School Communication Template

At the beginning of the school year, teachers may want to send home a letter explaining features of the dual language program or post information on a secure web site for parents and teachers to access. This template is a resource for preparing a program description for parents and guardians.

Teacher's name: (if there are team teachers, their names should be listed here)

Classroom and school information

In our classroom, we have students:			
native speakers of English			
native speakers of			
native speakers of			
The teacher(s) in our grade speak(s) to the stude	native speakers of acher(s) in our grade speak(s) to the students in		
If parents have questions about our homework, th	hey can call		
for help in English or	for help in		

Our [district][school] offers translation for parents who need to get in touch with school staff

Our school has a [parent liaison/committee/office], who can be called at

_)_____ or visited in room _____.

You can call our teacher(s) at ______[time] at (_____)_____

or contact by e-mail at _____

	assigned by subject, and on	e teacher teaches in both languages:
We learn in two langu	uages. We speak English whe	n we're learning these subjects:
		ning these subjects:
Where languages are	assigned by subject, and on	e teacher speaks one language:
We learn in two langu	lages. We speak English with	
name of teacher] and	I when we're learning these s	subjects:
And we speak	with	[name of teacher] and when we're
earning these subjects	S	
Where languages are	assigned by day or week:	
	bjects in two languages. We the next [day	speak English one [day][week] and we speak y][week].
	aily or weekly schedule of class	ses, be sure to include the language of instruction.
f you are providing a d	, , , ,	
, , , ,	, ,	nout the year in each subject, including the langua

Other Ideas for Sharing Information with Parents

The Q&A document for parents is another resource for the beginning-of-year letter to parents and guardians. Some additional suggestions follow:

- Explain that students will be taking standardized tests during the year, and list them. These
 might include language proficiency tests, reading tests, and tests in the content areas (math,
 science, social studies). If students will be tested in English after they have received
 instruction in the other program language, explain how they will be prepared to take the
 test in English. Be sure to explain that once students understand a concept in one language,
 they do not need to re-learn the concept in the other language. Also refer parents to the
 district's testing calendar, if it is available.
- Suggest how parents can help students read or do homework in their second language.
 (See Question #9 in the section on parents' questions about TWI programs.) This is especially helpful for families in which no one is proficient in that language.
- Suggest reading lists and reference materials (e.g., monolingual or bilingual dictionaries) for students to have at home.
- List cultural activities and resources in your area at which students and families can use the partner language.

Plantilla para la comunicación entre la casa y la escuela

Al inicio del año escolar los maestros podrían enviar una carta a los padres de familia destacando las características del programa de educación de inmersión recíproca o hacer disponible esta información en una página web segura a la que puedan acceder tanto los padres como los maestros. Esta plantilla sirve para preparar una descripción del programa para los padres de familia o tutores.

Nombre del maestro/a: (si trabajan en equipo, por favor incluyan los nombres de todos los maestros).

Datos escolares y del salón

En nuestro salón de clase, hay _____ estudiantes:

_____ angloparlantes

_____ hablantes de _____

_____ hablantes de _____

Los maestros en nuestro grado hablan con los estudiantes en_____

[Nuestro distrito escolar]/ [nuestra escuela] ofrece servicios de traducción para los padres de familia que necesiten comunicarse con el personal escolar que hable otro idioma. Para mayor información sobre traductores, llame al: (____)____.

Nuestra escuela cuenta con un [padre/comité/oficina] con quién se puede comunicar llamando al: (_____)_____ o visitándolo/a en el salón _____.

Puede llamar a nuestros maestros a las _____[hora] al (_____)____

Puede ponerse en contacto con ellos a través del correo electrónico _____

En casos en los que los idiomas sean asignados por materia, y un maestro/a, hable un idioma:

En caso que los idiomas sean asignados por materia, y un/a maestro/a enseñe en ambos idiomas:

Y hablamos ______ en clase de: ______

Aprendemos en dos idiomas. Hablamos inglés en clase de: _____

Aprendemos en dos idiomas. Hablamos inglés con ______ [Nombre del maestro/a] en clase de: _____

Y hablamos ______ con _____ [Nombre del maestro/a]en clase de:

En casos en los que los idiomas sean asignadas por día o semana:

Aprendemos todas las materias en dos idiomas. Hablamos en inglés un [día][semana] y hablamos en ______ el [día][semana] siguiente.

Si se va a proveer un horario de clases diario o semanal, asegúrese de incluir el idioma en el que se va a enseñar ese día/semana.

Incluya una lista de temas que se van a cubrir en cada materia durante el año escolar, y el idioma en el que se enseñará cada tema, si la materia se enseña en ambos idiomas.

Información sobre los idiomas y el plan de estudios

Otras ideas para compartir información con los padres de familia

El documento de preguntas y respuestas dirigido a los padres de familia también se puede utilizar como parte de la carta para los padres o tutores al inicio del año escolar. Algunas sugerencias adicionales son:

- Explique que los alumnos tomarán exámenes estandarizados durante el año escolar y
 proporcione una lista de los mismos. Entre ellos, puede haber exámenes de lengua,
 exámenes de lectura, y exámenes de cada una de las áreas de contenido (matemáticas,
 ciencias, estudios sociales). Si los alumnos tienen que tomar exámenes en inglés de
 materias que han estudiado en otro idioma, explique cómo se les preparará para tomar los
 exámenes en inglés. Asegúrese de explicar que una vez que los alumnos entienden un
 concepto en un idioma, no necesitan volver a aprender el mismo concepto en el otro
 idioma. También pida a los padres de familia que consulten con el calendario de evaluación
 del distrito, si está disponible.
- Sugiera maneras en las que los padres puedan ayudar a sus hijos a leer o hacer la tarea en su segundo idioma. Esto es útil sobre todo para familias en las que nadie domina dicho idioma.
- Proporcione una lista de materiales de lectura, así como libros de referencia (por ejemplo, diccionarios monolingües o bilingües) que los estudiantes puedan tener en casa y usar como referencia.
- Proporcione información sobre recursos y actividades culturales en la comunidad en las que los estudiantes y sus familiares tengan la oportunidad de emplear el idioma minoritario.

RESOURCES FOR PROMOTING PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT (Two-Way Immersion Programs)

Annotated Bibliography

Calderón, M. E. & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and implementing two-way bilingual programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Chapter 10, "Reaching Out to Parents," discusses parent involvement at home and at school in the realms of academics, school governance, and advocacy. The authors stress the need for two-way communication between the school and parents as well as the necessity to reach out to parents equitably in both language groups and to ensure that all parents have equal access to information and an equal voice in decision-making. There is also a description of models for family literacy workshops.

Craig, B. A. (1995). Two-way foreign language immersion programs: A handbook for parents and teachers. Available from http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED3 84239

In Chapter 4, "Parental Involvement in the Program," Craig discusses parents' concerns and responsibilities in a two-way program as well as what their expectations should be. She also discusses the benefits of participating in a parental advisory committee and a parent social network. Home-school cooperation involves parents' providing a supportive learning environment at home and volunteering in the classroom and in the school community.

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). Trends in two-way immersion education: A review of the research (Report No. 63). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk. Available from http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/Report63.pdf.

This report summarizes studies on parent attitudes toward bilingualism and two-way immersion as well as additional literature on parental involvement.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual Language Education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

In chapter 7, "Parent Involvement, Attitudes, and Satisfaction in Dual Language Education Programs," Lindholm-Leary outlines research on the connection between school effectiveness and parent involvement, as well as factors such as parent background and native language that affect involvement. Findings from her study of parents in two 90/10 two-way immersion schools demonstrated a connection between lower socioeconomic status/lower parent education levels and low perceptions of district support. Most parents considered parent involvement to be important and that it was valued at their school, and the majority reported helping in or out of the classroom and attending school functions. The author also discusses attitudes towards bilingualism and the reasons that parents enrolled their students in the program, and reports that, generally, parent satisfaction levels with the program were high.

Peña, R. A. (1998). A case study of parental involvement in a conversion from transitional to dual language instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 22(2-4), 237-259.

This case study reports the difficult working relationship between parents and school officials implementing a dual language program in the Southwest. Parents felt that the teachers and administrators were distant and concerned only with academic achievement and upward mobility and that their own values relating to learning, nurturing, and overcoming obstacles were devalued in the planning process. The consequence was frustration and animosity between the two groups.

Pérez, B. (2004). Becoming biliterate: A study of two-way bilingual immersion education. Mahwah, NJ: Erblaum.

In Chapter 3 of this case study, Pérez focuses on the role of parents in leadership. She describes the questions and concerns that parents voiced during the planning process in regard to the program model, homework, the use of the two languages in the program, the authority of school personnel, and the value of bilingualism. The author also describes efforts to sustain parent support and the organizational structure of parent involvement in the programs, and how that involvement influenced decision-making over time.

Ratliff, J. L., & Montague, N. S. (2002). Book choices for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) parents: Strategies for sharing books in bilingual homes. Available from http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED468863)

This study of at-home book choices for families of dual language pupils showed that even for Spanish-dominant or bilingual parents, a large percentage of books they selected to read to their children were in English because of the role they perceived of the dominant language in American society.

Rubio, O. G. (1995). 'Yo soy voluntaria': Volunteering in a dual-language school. *Urban Education*, 29(4), 396-409.

A survey of parent volunteers in a dual language school in Philadelphia demonstrated a range of motivations for volunteering in the school: to help the teachers and the school, to ensure that students were behaving appropriately, to gain skills and self-confidence, and to experience the personal satisfaction associated with this service. Parents played an active role in developing and defining parent-school relationships.

Zelazo, J. (1995, April). *Parent involvement in a two-way bilingual school*. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA. Available from http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED383219)

A study of 14 Spanish-speaking and 13 English-speaking families of students in a dual language program found that essential components that predicted parent involvement were parents' comfort with the staff, the language in which activities were conducted, and parent education and socioeconomic status (the higher the education and social status the parents had, the more involved they were at school). In some cases, inflexible jobs, lack of transportation, and baby-sitting problems prevented parents from spending time at the school. These are all issues that programs should address in encouraging parent participation.

Online Materials

Building Partnerships with Latino Immigrant Parents (2003) by Shannon Fitzsimmons Available: http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/PracBrief6.htm

Scaffold for School-Home Collaboration: Enhancing Reading and Language Development (2001) by Ji-Mei Chang Available: http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/ResBrief9.htm

What Parents Want to Know About Foreign Language Immersion Programs (2003) by Tara W. Fortune & Diane J. Tedick Available:

http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0304fortune.html

Learning in Two Languages (1999) by Jon Silver. Available at http://migrantmedia.com/learning.html

Biliteracy for a Global Society: An Idea Book on Dual Language Education (2000) by Kathryn Lindholm-Leary. Available at

http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/ideabook/dual/

Why, How and When Should My Child Learn A Second Language? (2004) by Kathleen Marcos. Available at

http://calstore.cal.org/store/detail.aspx?ID=281

Why Start & Maintain a Spanish for Native Speakers Program (2003) by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese and the Center for Applied Linguistics. Available at http://calstore.cal.org/store/detail.aspx?ID=287

See also the online bibliography at http://www.cal.org/twi/bib.htm, particularly the section entitled "Parent Attitudes and Involvement."

Parent Resources in Spanish

Si su niño aprende en dos idiomas (August, 2000) by Thomas Mansella & Roario Gingras. Spanish version of *If Your Child Learns in Two Languages* by Nancy Zelasko & Beth Antunez. Available also in Chinese, Vietnamese and Haitian Creole at http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/parent/spanish.pdf

Resources in Spanish available at NCELA's website http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/resfor/parents/espanol.htm

Education Resources for Spanish Speakers available at the Department of Education's website http://www.ed.gov/espanol/bienvenidos/es/index.html

RECURSOS PARA FOMENTAR LA PARTICIPACIÓN DE LOS PADRES EN LOS PROGRAMAS BILINGÜES DE INMERSIÓN RECÍPROCA (Two-Way Immersion Program)

Bibliografía anotada

Calderón, M. E. & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). Designing and implementing two-way bilingual programs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

El capítulo 10 titulado "Reaching Out to Parents" habla sobre la participación de los padres en cuestiones académicas y de gobierno escolar tanto en la casa como en la escuela. Las autoras hacen hincapié en lo importante que es la comunicación entre el personal escolar y los padres, y por lo tanto la necesidad de asegurarse de que todos los padres tengan acceso a la información en su idioma materno y puedan expresar su opinión a la hora de tomar decisiones. También incluye una descripción de distintos tipos de talleres de lecto-escritura en los que pueda participar toda la familia.

Craig, B. A. (1995). Two-way foreign language immersion programs: A handbook for parents and teachers. Disponible en http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?a ccno=ED384239

En el capítulo 4 titulado "Parental Involvement in the Program", Craig habla de cuáles son las inquietudes y las responsabilidades de los padres que tienen hijos en los programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca así como de cuáles deben ser sus expectativas. También habla de lo beneficioso que puede ser participar en un comité escolar y entablar relaciones sociales con otros padres. La cooperación entre la escuela y la casa consiste en lograr un ambiente propicio al aprendizaje en casa y participar como voluntario en la clase y la comunidad escolar.

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion education:* A review of the research (Report No. 63). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk. Disponible en http://www.csos.jhu.edu/crespar/techReports/ Report63.pdf.

Este informe describe brevemente estudios que se han realizado sobre las actitudes de los padres hacia el bilingüismo y los programas de inmersión recíproca, y también estudios acerca de la participación de los padres en estos programas.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). Dual Language Education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

En el capítulo 7 titulado "Parent Involvement, Attitudes, and Satisfaction in Dual Language Education Programs", Lindholm-Leary habla sobre la conexión entre la eficacia de la escuela y la participación de los padres, así como de factores que afectan dicha participación como son el nivel cultural de los padres y su lengua materna. En el estudio realizado por Lindholm-Leary en escuelas con programas de inmersión recíproca 90/10 se demuestra que existe una conexión entre el bajo nivel cultural y socioeconómico de los padres y la percepción de que existe poco apoyo del distrito escolar. La mayoría de los padres consideran que la participación de los padres es muy importante y que es algo que se valora en las escuelas. Además, la mayoría de los padres dijeron que participaban en las actividades escolares que se realizaban dentro y fuera de la clase. La autora también habla de las actitudes hacia el bilingüismo y las razones por las que los padres matriculan a sus hijos en este tipo de programas, y dice que en general los padres están muy satisfechos con el mismo.

Peña, R. A. (1998). A case study of parental involvement in a conversion from transitional to dual language instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 22(2-4), 237-259.

Este artículo habla sobre las dificultades por las que atravesaron los padres y el personal escolar de una escuela en el suroeste de los Estados Unidos a la hora de crear un programa bilingüe de inmersión recíproca. Los padres sentían que a los profesores y a los administradores solos les importaban los asuntos académicos y que sus valores con respecto a la educación y a la crianza de sus hijos no se tuvieron en cuenta a la hora de planificar la creación del programa. Todo ello creó mucha frustración y hostilidad entre los dos grupos.

Pérez, B. (2004). Becoming biliterate: A study of two-way bilingual immersion education. Mahwah, NJ: Erblaum.

En el capítulo 3 de este libro, Pérez habla sobre el papel de los padres en el liderazgo de la escuela. Habla de las inquietudes de los padres sobre el programa, la tarea, el uso de dos idiomas en la clase, la autoridad del personal escolar, y el valor del bilingüismo. La autora también habla sobre el esfuerzo dedicado a mantener el apoyo de los padres y la participación de los padres en el programa, y cómo dicha participación influyó en decisiones que se tomaran a largo plazo.

Ratliff, J. L., & Montague, N. S. (2002). Book choices for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) parents: Strategies for sharing books in bilingual homes. Disponible en http://www.eric.ed.gov/ contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED468863)

Este estudio sobre los libros que las familias de los alumnos de programas de inmersión recíproca leen a sus hijos en casa muestra que incluso entre las familias hispano-hablantes o bilingües, una gran mayoría elige libros en inglés porque sienten la presión de la lengua dominante en los Estados Unidos.

Rubio, O. G. (1995). 'Yo soy voluntaria': Volunteering in a dual-language school. Urban Education, 29(4), 396-409.

Según una encuesta realizada entre padres voluntarios de una escuela de Filadelfia con un programa bilingüe de inmersión recíproca hay muchas razones por las que los padres participan de voluntarios en la escuela: para ayudar a los profesores y a la escuela en general, para asegurarse de que los alumnos se portan bien, para aprender cosas nuevas, y para sentir la satisfacción personal de haber ayudado en la escuela de sus hijos. Además, se demostró que los padres jugaban un papel importante a la hora de definir y desarrollar las relaciones entre los padres y la escuela.

Zelazo, J. (1995, April). Parent involvement in a two-way bilingual school. Trabajo presentado en el congreso de la American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA. Disponible en http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED383219

Según un estudio de 14 familias hispano-hablantes y 13 anglo-parlantes con hijos en programas bilingües de inmersión recíproca la participación de los padres viene determinada sobre todo por lo a gusto que se sienten con el personal escolar, el idioma en el que se realizan las actividades, y el nivel educativo y el estatus socioeconómico de los padres (cuanto mayor el estatus socioeconómico, mayor la participación). En algunos casos, factores como la inflexibilidad en el horario laboral, la falta de medio de transporte, y la dificultad de conseguir cuidado para los niños dificultaron la participación de los padres en actividades escolares. Estos son asuntos que se deben tener en cuenta a la hora de animar a los padres a que participen en la escuela.

Materiales disponibles en Internet

Building Partnerships with Latino Immigrant Parents (2003) por Shannon Fitzsimmons. Disponible en http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/PracBrief6.htm

Scaffold for School-Home Collaboration: Enhancing Reading and Language Development (2001) por Ji-Mei Chang. Disponible en http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/ResBrief9.htm

What Parents Want to Know About Foreign Language Immersion Programs (2003) por Tara W. Fortune & Diane J. Tedick. Disponible en http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0304fortune.html

Learning in Two Languages (1999) por Jon Silver. Disponible en http://migrantmedia.com/learning.html

Biliteracy for a Global Society: An Idea Book on Dual Language Education (2000) por Kathryn Lindholm-Leary. Disponible en http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/ideabook/dual/ Why, How and When Should My Child Learn A Second Language? (2004) por Kathleen Marcos. Disponible en

http://calstore.cal.org/store/detail.aspx?ID=281

Why Start & Maintain a Spanish for Native Speakers Program (2003) por el American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese y el Center for Applied Linguistics. Disponible en http://calstore.cal.org/store/detail.aspx?ID=287

Véase también la bibliografía disponible en http://www.cal.org/twi/bib.htm, sobre todo la sección titulada "Parents Attitudes and Involvement."

Recursos en español

Si su niño aprende en dos idiomas (Agosto, 2000) por Thomas Mansella & Roario Gingras. Versión en español de *If Your Child Learns in Two Languages* por Nancy Zelasko & Beth Antunez. También disponible en chino, vietnamita, y criollo haitiano en http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/parent/spanish.pdf

Recursos en español "para familias, cuidadores y miembros de la comunidad" en la página web de NCELA

http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/resfor/parents/espanol.htm

Recursos educativos para hablantes de español en la página web del Departamento de Educación de los Estados Unidos http://www.ed.gov/espanol/bienvenidos/es/index.html

GLOSSARY

Academic language: Language used in academic settings to learn academic content.

Comprehensible input: Language that is easy enough for learners to comprehend but is just beyond their level of competence.

Graphic organizer: Visual representations of information. Graphic organizers can be used to brainstorm, summarize, sequence, or outline information.

English language learners: Students in the United States whose first language is a language other than English.

Fossilized errors or fossilization: persistent language errors that are resistant to instructional interventions.

Natural language approach: using principles of first language acquisition to promote second language acquisition (e.g. learning language in context, providing visual cues and manipulatives, interacting with native speakers, etc.)

Partner language: This is a new term that we have developed to refer to the language other than English that is used for instruction in TWI programs.

Scaffolding or sheltering instruction: Providing relevant support to students in order to help them bridge the gap between what they already know and what they are learning.

Stages of language acquisition or levels of language proficiency: Broadly speaking there are five stages of second language acquisition: pre-production (understands some language but not yet able to produce utterances), early production (able to produce one or two words), speech emergence (telegraphic speech – able to produce phrases and short sentences), intermediate fluency (able to produce extended language), and native-like proficiency (able to produce extended formal and informal language about a variety of topics).

Standards: Broad goals defining what students should know and be able to do.

Study groups: Small groups that provide sustained opportunities for teachers to explore professional issues and challenges and to gain knowledge.

Total physical response (TPR): A language teaching technique in which learners respond to language input (often commands) with body motions.

APPENDIX: Red Folder Process

STUDENT STUDY TEAM

RED FOLDER PROCESS

Early Intervention for Struggling Students and Identification Process for Students with Learning Differences

Includes:

- ♦ SST Chair Suggested Timeline
- ♦ PowerPoint Presentation to Inservice Staff
- ♦ Red Folder Tracking Sheet to Monitor Students and Interventions
- ♦ SST Forms for Documentation
 - SST Teacher Checklist
 - Student Profile Form
 - Behavior Observation Form
 - Classroom Modification Form
 - Parent Interview Questionnaire (English & Spanish)
 - Student Interview Questionnaire (English & Spanish)
 - Parent Conference Form
 - Teacher Conference I and II Form
 - Progress Update Form
 - Red Folder Review Form
 - Expanded SST Meeting Invitation (English & Spanish)
 - Expanded SST Meeting I
 - Expanded SST Meeting I
- ♦ Sample 504 Template

STUDENT STUDY TEAM CHAIR

SUGGESTED TIMELINE

(Designed for September through June school year)

♦ September/Beginning of Year:

- Give teachers RF Tracking Sheet so they are aware of who to monitor.
- Have them bring the RF Tracking Sheet and Red Folders (from CUMs) to staff meeting
- Use PowerPoint Presentation to inservice staff on RF Process.
- Assign each grade level a "coach" (your specialist staff and/or lead teachers can help) to mentor and guide through the process and provide suggestions and support
- Any Expanded SST Meetings I or II held in September or October should have current and previous year's teacher

♦ October/November:

• Grade levels meet during staff meeting with their RF Coaches to hold Teacher Conference I (SST Form part 1). They should identify some interventions to try out

♦ December:

• 6th grade teachers RF deadline for students who have been through RF process and have made minimal/no growth (anyone who may need to be evaluated)

♦ February:

• Grade levels meet during staff meeting with their RF Coaches to hold Teacher Conference II Follow-up (SST Form part 2). They should review interventions identified 4-6 weeks prior. Identify next steps (further interventions or Expanded SST I)

♦ March:

• Deadline for turning in RFs if teacher has completed process and ready for Expanded SST I or II for current school year

♦ May:

- Meet individually with each teacher (RF Coaches can help facilitate this) to collect all updated Red Folders
- Start a list of students who need Expanded SST I or II for beginning of next school year

I		Date:					
	Phase III	Expanded SST Follow-up Meeting Form 5 0b					
	Р	TSS bəbnsqx Bating Form 5.0a Form 5.0a					
	Turn-in RF	Feedback from SST Charis Form 2.4					
	Turn	Form 2.3 Turn in RF for Review by SST Chair					
		Teacher Conference Intervention					
	Phase II	Screening Requests					
		Parent Conference Form 2.2					
		Classroom Modification Form 1.3					
	e 1	Behavior Observation Form 1.2					
	Phase 1	Student Profile Form 1.0					
		сит Сhесk					
		Red Folder Start Date					
	Comments	& Interventions (BRIDGES, After School Tutoring, etc.)					
		STUDENT NAME					

RED FOLDER TRACKING SHEET

The Two-Way Immersion Toolkit

Student Study Team (SST) Red Folder (RF) Process Checklist

Student Name______ Initiating Teacher______ ____ Date Initiated: ____ __ Added to Red Folder Tracking Sheet

PHASE I: INVESTIGATION Student Profile (SST Form 1.0) Complete with all information on the form. Review the student's record (CUM). Is there a history of difficulty or prior services? Parent Contact (SST Form 3.0) Get information from the child's parents about her/his strengths/weaknesses. Student Interview (SST Form 3.1) Interview the student and find out more about her/him. Behavior Observation (SST Form 1.2) Document the behaviors (strengths/weaknesses) you observe.

- □ Classroom Modification (SST 1.3) Document your interventions and what has worked and what has not.
- □ Work Samples that are current and reflect the area of concern. Include anecdotal notes that delineate how the work was completed (independently, guided, after modeling, etc.).

PHASE II: COLLABORATION

- □ **Parent Conference** (SST Form 2.2) Work with the child's parents and select interventions together.
- **Request Screenings** (if needed): Health, Speech/Language, Behavior, etc.
- □ **Teacher Conference I** (SST Form 2.3 part 1) Meet with your colleagues to select interventions to implement for 4-6 weeks.
- □ **Teacher Conference II** (SST Form 2.3 part 2) Meet again with your colleagues to document how the above interventions worked or did not work.
- **Red Folder Tracking Sheet Update** Make sure it is current.

Next Steps...

If your interventions are working:

Keep them up!

- □ Place RF in CUM
- □ **Progress Update** (SST Form 6.0)

If you are not seeing gains or progress: PHASE III: EXPANDED SST

- **Turn in RF** to SST Chair for review
- □ **Red Folder Review** (SST Form 2.4)
- **Expanded SST Invitation** (SST Form 4.0)
- **Expanded SST Meeting I** (SST Form 5.0a)
- **Expanded SST Meeting II** (SST Form 5.0b)
- □ Red Folder Tracking Sheet Update

7/05 Hardman/NE

SOUTH BAY UNION SCHOOL DISTRICT SST FORM 1.0 STUDENT PROFILE **RECORDS REVIEW** Today's Date: ___/___/ Teacher Completing: _ Date of Birth: / / Student Name: Current School: Grade: Track: Ethnicity: Home Language: _ Language of Instruction:_ Pre-LAS/LAS Date: __/__/_ Score/Level (1-5): CELDT Date: ___/ / _ Score/Level (1-5): _____ ELL FEP EO CST Score/Level Assessment History SABE 4^{th} 5^{th} $\mathbf{4}^{\mathrm{th}}$ 2nd 3rd 5^{th} 2nd 3rd Reading Language Math Computation Math Reasoning Other: Sp/Eng Sp/Eng Sp/Eng SpEng Current Performance Grades and / or Comments RESULTS Comments Date: __/_ Date: __/_ Date: ___/_ Date: Reading / STAR /AR BPST Math Spelling Inv. **Oral Text** Writing / Spelling **SD Quick** Language Other: Behavior **Previous Documentation** Yes Date No **Outcome / Comments** Prior At Risk / SST Referral? Speech/Lang. Screening or Testing? ÷ Special Education Testing / Services Retention? Counseling / Social Work? Interventions / Services? i.e. Tutorin Health (Meds / Allergies / Vision / Hearing Attendance Issues (Abs./ Tardy/Suspen.) SARB? # schools attended: Documented Concerns (from report cards, progress reports, etc) Previous Teacher(s) Κ 1 2 3 4 5

Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV 12/02 Muñoz/NE 7/05 Hardman/NE

SST FC	DRM 1.2
BEHAVIOR O	DBSERVATION
oday's Date:// Teacher Complet	ing:
udent Name:	Current Grade:
Student's Strengths: (i.e: Cooperative; Leadership Skills; Artistic)	
Primary [Specific] Concerns: (Beyond "low reading")	
1. 2	
3.	
Check / Circle all behaviors which are observed	ved more frequently than considered "typical."
Academic Has difficulty with Decoding / Sight Words Reading comprehension Math facts / Computation Math Concepts / Word Problems Writing mechanics / Spelling Written expression Other:	Behavior (escape or attention-seeking)
Learning / Processing Poor Memory / Recall of information Incomplete / Does not turn in assignments / Hmwk Fails Tests / Assignments Demands excessive teacher time Does not participate / Cannot follow along / Off task Cannot organize tasks / time Other:	Social (relations to others)
 Speech / Language Difficult to understand / Articulation issues Limited vocabulary / Incomplete sentences Needs excessive prompting to share / participate Difficulty with multi-step directions Difficulty with abstract or directionality concepts Needs repeated or simplified instructions Other: 	Emotional Sudden change in attitude / performance / appearanc Appears frustrated / impatient / angry Complains excessively / Negative Unmotivated / Apathetic Moody / Cries / Outbursts Overly compliant / Needy or 'clingy' Other:
Motor Skills Poor Coordination / Balance / Posture Awkward movements (walking or running) Messy / Disorganized Poor handwriting / Spacing / Copying / Reversals Awkward cutting / pencil grasp Easily frustrated when doing motor skills Other:	Physical Affiliation w/ inappropriate substances or activities Poor hygiene Sleepy / Listless / Slurred Speech Weight / Diet concerns Frequents bathroom / accidents Noticeable eye / nasal / hearing problems Other:

SOUTH BAY UNION SCHOOL DISTRICT SST FORM 1.3

CLASSROOM MODIFICATIONS

Teacher(s) Completing: _

Student Name:

Current Grade: ____

(✓) Check modifications implemented. **These are only examples...please consider & add other appropriate modifications.
 □ Date / Document when & how the modification was implemented. Attach extra copies of this form as needed.

Date / Document when & now the modification was implemented. Attach extra copies of this form
 Comment on the successfulness of the modification, after 4-6 school weeks of implementation.

Examples:	Date	Specify / Document	Suc Y	ccess N			mment
✓ Seat Change	9/01	Moved desk to front	,	~		listract	
 ✓ Learning Tools ✓ Alternate Assignment 	10/01	Hi-liter for key vocab Mult.facts for hmwk	> >		1		requires teacher's time.
Ű				- 4	-	ccess	computation/accuracy
Environment	Date	Specify / Docu	ime	nt	Y		Comment
Seat Change: quiet spot; carrel; near teacher; optional seat; stand							
Peer Assistance: role model; study buddy; tutor; note-taker (carbon paper)							
Predictable: explicit expectations/rules; schedule; assignments; timeline							
References: charts; tables; visual aides; mnemonics; mult. facts table							
Organization System: calendar; checklist; folder; prerecorded assign.							
Other:							
Materials							
Learning Tools: hi-liter; timer; graph paper; place marker; tape recorde							
Study Guides: Xeroxed texts; hand-outs; xtra copies; lessons on tape							
Self-Monitor System: checklists; grades; self-evaluation; self-rating							
Home-School Contract: daily/wkly reports; xtra materials at home							
Multi-sensory: manipulatives; audio-visual; real-life activities/reference							
Other:							
Teaching / Instruction							
Effective Skills: model; repeat; high-response rate; immediate feedback							
Grouping: small/remedial group; 1:1; before/after school; homogeneous							
Positive Reinforcement: point system; proximity; cues; specific praise							
Review/Organize: graphic organizers; review cards; semantic maps							
Individual Conferencing: review checklists; homework; study skills							
Other:							
Assignments / Curriculum							
"Clean" Handouts: simplified; explicit; uncluttered; short; objective							
Modified: xtra time; smaller parts; reduced number; adjusted output							
Supplemental: lower level; lower grade; Touchmath; Reading Recovery							
Alternate: drill-n-practice; independent study; revised homework							
Technology: AR; AM; Essential Skills; CD-Roms; Webquests; WebTV							
Other:							

Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV

PARENT	CONFERENCE
Today's Date:// Teacher Com	pleting:
Student Name:	Current Grade:
Conference held with:	
Conference requested by: □ Teacher □ Parent □ Administrator □ Other	Conference Type: School Meeting Define Conference Home Visit Unscheduled
Purpose of Conference: Primary Concern(s): [Teacher to provide examples of concern]	
1	
2	
3	
Conference Notes:	
Decisions / Outcomes / Action Plan:	
1	
2	

Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV

	been set of the set of	

SOUTH BAY UNION SCHOOL DISTRICT SST FORM 2.3

TEA	TEACHER CONFERENCE I: INTERVENTION PLAN	I: INTE	RVENTION PLAN
Today's Date: //// Teacher:	Stu	Student:	Current Grade:
Team Members / Role: (*Include previous year's teacher when possible) $\hfill = 1$	en possible)		
Specific concern(s) to address: [Utilize error-analysis]	Baseline: [What the student <i>can</i> do]	PRIM # (optional)	Intervention Plan: [Brainstorm modifications & services to implement]
1.			
2.			
3.			
** Set Follow Up Date:/ (A mi	(A minimum of 4-6 school weeks from Today's Date)	day's Date)	Collect work samples related to Intervention Plan

Today's Date //// Team Members/Role:	TEACHER CONFERENCE II: FOLLOW-UP	
 (1) Review Intervention Plan (from above): Review work samples / other documentation related to Intervention Plan * ★ " Successful Interventions * X " Unsuccessful Interventions 	Document student progress:	 (3) Choose Next Action: (3) Document Success / File Red Folder in CUM Continue current Intervention Plan (from above) Set New Follow-up Date:

Pod Folder Deview Form 2.4	
Red Folder Review Form 2.4 Review Date:	
Reviewed By: 1 2	
3 4	
PHASE I: INVESTIGATION Student Profile (SST Form 1.0) Complete with all information on the form. Review the student's record (CUM). here a history of difficulty or prior services?	Is
Parent Contact (SST Form 3.0) Did you get information from parents?	_
Student Interview (SST Form 3.1) Did you interview the student?	
Behavior Observation (SST Form 1.2) What strengths and weakness does the student have?	
Classroom Modification (SST 1.3) What have you done so far? Has it been successful?	_
Work Samples are current and reflect the area of concern. Include anecdotal notes that delineate how the work was completed (independently, guided, after modeling, etc.)	as
 	_
PHASE II: COLLABORATION Parent Conference (SST Form 2.2) Are you working with the parents? On which standards are you collaborating?	
Request Screenings (if needed): Health, Speech/Language, Behavior, etc.	_
Teacher Conference I (SST Form 2.3 part 1) Have you met with your colleagues to identify new interventions?	_
Teacher Conference II (SST Form 2.3 part 2) Did you give the interventions time (4-6 weeks) to work? What were the results?	-
Red Folder Tracking Sheet Update	_

Review above comments and re-submit to SST Chair by:

File in CUM Give to Next Year's Teacher Set SST I Set SST II

NCR: (1) White Red Folder $\,$ (2) Yellow Teacher $\,$ (3) Goldenrod SST Chair File $\,$ (4) Pink Teacher 7/05 Hardman/NE $\,$

APPENDIX

CONTAC	SST Form 3.0 TO CON LOS PADRES (entrevista)
Fecha de hoy://	
Nombre del estudiante:	
Nombre del padre: **Explíquele al padre que cualquier información es completa. se usará para ayudar a identificar servicios o intervenciones p	Tipo de contacto: Teléfono Teléfono Carta (de la escuela o casa) Teléfono Carta (de la escuela o casa) Teléfono Carta (de la escuela o casa) Teléfono Carta (de la escuela o casa)
Destrezas/Intereses del niño/a:	
Historial académico/Servicios previos:	
Historial del desarrollo de salud/Informac	ción médica/Historial familiar:
Refuerzos/Estrategias/Disciplina usada er	1 0000.
Kenuerzos/Estrategias/Disciplina usada er	i casa.
Metas para el futuro/Expectativas para el	niño/a:
Preocupaciones de los padres:	
Otra información pertinente:	
Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV 12/02 Mu	iñoz/NE

's Name:	r Completing Form: Grade: ype of Contact: Telephone School Meeting Home Visit
e's Name: T to parent that any information is completely voluntary and will only be or identify services or interventions for the student. Strengths/Interests:	Grade: ype of Contact: Telephone Note (home or school) School Meeting Home Visit
s Name: T to parent that any information is completely voluntary and will only be o identify services or interventions for the student. Strengths/Interests:	ype of Contact: Telephone School Meeting Home Visit
s Name: T to parent that any information is completely voluntary and will only be o identify services or interventions for the student. Strengths/Interests:	ype of Contact: Telephone School Meeting Home Visit
to parent that any information is completely voluntary and will only be <u>o identify services or interventions for the student.</u> Strengths/Interests: fonal History/Previous Services:	School Meeting Home Visit
o identify services or interventions for the student. Strengths/Interests: Sonal History/Previous Services:	
Strengths/Interests:	ly History:
onal History/Previous Services: pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
pmental Health History/Medical Information/Fami	ly History:
	iy history.
cers/Strategies/Discipline used at home:	
rcers/Strategies/Discipline used at home:	
cers/Strategies/Discipline used at home:	
Goals/Expectations for Child:	
27	
ns of Parents:	
Pertinent Information:	

Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV 12/02 Muñoz/NE

	ante
Fecha de hoy:/ Maestro con	mpletando forma:
Nombre del estudiante:	Grado escolar:
¿Qué te gusta/disgusta acerca de la escuela? ¿Cuál es tu n	nateria favorita?
¿Cuál es la materia más difícil para ti?	
¿Cuáles cosas haces muy bien?	
¿Qué te gustaría poder hacer?	
¿Qué te gustaría leer o aprender?	
¿Qué te ayudaría a aprender mejor?	
Otra información:	

Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV 12/02 Muñoz/NE

	Student Interview
Today's Date://	Teacher Completing Form:
Student's Name:	Grade:
What do you like/dislike about scho	pol? What is your favorite subject?
Which subject is difficult for you?	
,	
What are some things you do very v	well?
What is something you would like to	o be able to do?
What would you like to be able to re	ead or learn?
What would help you learn better?	
what would help you learn better:	
Other information:	

APPENDIX

	Expanded SST Invitation
Date://	
To the Parent(s) / Guardian of:	
	ata.m./p.m. in room
	ovide assistance to students who are having difficulty in school. The SST and parents to join together in helping students better succeed.
process encourages staff members We value your participation as a te might help the team design a progr	and parents to join together in helping students better succeed. am member. At the meeting, you will be invited to share information which am to meet your child's needs. The team may consist of teachers or
process encourages staff members We value your participation as a te might help the team design a progr specialists with knowledge of your	and parents to join together in helping students better succeed. am member. At the meeting, you will be invited to share information which am to meet your child's needs. The team may consist of teachers or child. Those invited include:
process encourages staff members We value your participation as a te might help the team design a progr specialists with knowledge of your SST Facilitator:	and parents to join together in helping students better succeed. am member. At the meeting, you will be invited to share information which am to meet your child's needs. The team may consist of teachers or child. Those invited include: [Gromer) Teacher(s):
process encourages staff members We value your participation as a te might help the team design a progr specialists with knowledge of your SST Facilitator: HOSTS: Nurse:	and parents to join together in helping students better succeed. am member. At the meeting, you will be invited to share information which am to meet your child's needs. The team may consist of teachers or child. Those invited include: [Gromer) Teacher(s):

If you are unable to keep this appointment, please notify us at least twenty-four (24) hours in advance. Please suggest an alternate date and time for the team conference.

Thank you for making education a top priority in your home.

Sincerely,

Name SST Chair School

SST FORM 4.0a/b Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV CC / NCR: (1) Parent (2) Red Folder (3) SST Members Fecha:

Para los padres de:

El Equipo de Estudio Estudiantil los invita a una junta para su hijo/a ______, el día ______,

El propósito del Equipo de Estudio Estudiantil es darles asistencia a los estudiantes que tienen dificultad en la escuela. El Equipo de Estudio Estudiantil reune al personal de la escuela y a los padres para juntos poder ayudar a los alumnos.

Valoramos su partcipación como miembro del equipo. En la junta, los invitaremos a compartir información que podría ayudar al equipo diseñar un programa que esté más adecuado para las necesidades de su hijo/a (por favor llenen la hoja adjunta y traíganla a la junta). El equipo puede consistir en el maestro, la directora, psicóloga, maestra de recursos, maestra de lectura, y un/a terapista de lenguage con conocimiento de su hijo/a.

Si no pueden asistir a esta cita, favor de avisarle al maestro de su hijo/a, o a la Sra. ______ por medio de la oficina al número ______. Por favor sugieran otra fecha y hora alternativa dentro de las horas de clases para que el equipo se junte.

Gracias por hacer la educaión de su hijo/a una prioridad en su hogar.

Atentamente,

El Equipo de Estudio Estudiantil Escuela _____

SST FORM 4.0a/b Revised 2/02 DiPalma/WV 6/05 G. Muñoz/NE CC / NCR: (1) Parent (2) Red Folder (3) SST Members

Current Grade:		ue) Who? When?							
		ACTIONS (New or Continue) Modifications:	Materials:	☐ Home-School Contracts:	Services: In-School:	Outside Agencies:	Requests:	Checklists:	□ Observations:
	Parent:	GOALS							
		Area(s) of Difficulty:							I
Student:		Prior Interventions:							ay's Date)
e://	rs' Signatures: acher: ipants:	Known Information:						ate: /	(4-6 Weeks from Today's Date)
Today's Date:	Team Members' Signatures: Referring Teacher: Other Participants:	Strengths:						Follow-up Date:	Invite:

APPENDIX

Today's Date: / / Student:	EXPANDED SST II: Follow-Up	-Up Current Grade:
Team Members' Signatures: Referring Teacher: Other Participants:	Parent:	
(1) REVIEW PROGRESS	(2) CURRENT PERFORMANCE	(3) CHOOSE NEXT ACTION
Timeline of SST Process: Initiated:/ Teacher Conference:/	New Information:	Document Success: [File Red Folder in CUM]
Expanded SST: //////////////////////////////////	Work Samples / Assessments:	Continue <u><i>Current</i></u> <i>Action Plan</i> (SST 5.0a) Set New Follow-up Date:
Previous Interventions / Outcomes:		Develop <u>New</u> Action Plan / Follow-up Date:
	Growth / Successes:	Services
		Requests
	Primary Concern(s):	
		 **Refer For Special Education Testing Finalize Red Folder Submit Red Folder to IEP Chairperson
		**California Ed Code 56031: "Special Education means specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parent, to meet the unique needs of individuals with exceptional needs, <i>whose educational</i> <i>needs cannot be met with modifications of the regular instructional program</i> "

PROGRESS UPDATE SST Form 6.0
Feacher Completing Form:
Student's Name: Grade:
Current Academic Levels: AR in EnglishAR in Spanish STAR LevelAccelerated Math Writing Grade Level in EnglishWriting Grade Level in Spanish Other:
Progress Made This Year:
Successful Interventions to Continue:
successful interventions to Continue.
Other Considerations/Pertinent Information:
7/05 Hardman/NE

Identification of students with special needs within the Language Academy (90/10 program, Nestor Elementary South Bay Union School District, San Diego, CA)

Spanish Dominant Students

Take into consideration that kinder and 1^{st} grades are still very developmental. If, however, by 2^{nd} grade the Spanish-speaking student is not reading in Spanish, there is a problem because ample native language support has been provided. Red Folder Process is initiated once difficulties are noted.

Kinder

- Close monitoring of student progress (including RESULTS data, Estrellitas, Writing Folder, Report Card, anecdotal notes, FLOSEM)
- Myriad of 'safety nets' i.e. before/after school tutoring, full day kinder, work with TWI Resource Teacher, parents to provide support at home (using *Benchmarks Letter* as a guide), phone calls, double-dose instruction (2nd rotation with teacher instead of independent center), in smallest group for rotations, tutors (upper grade, parents, etc.)
- After each trimester, conference is called with parents to get a feel for support at home and divide interventions between home and school TWI Resource Teacher attends meeting
- Documentation of above interventions & support in Red Folder after each trimester include dated sample work with teacher's anecdotal notes detailing activitiy, how work was completed (independently, with teacher support, etc.) on samples

First Grade

- Teacher goes through cum folder and conferences with previous year's teacher
- Continued close monitoring of student progress (including RESULTS data, Estrellitas, Writing Folder, Report Card, anecdotal notes, FLOSEM)
- Continued implementation of 'safety nets' i.e. before/after school tutoring, work with TWI Resource Teacher, parents to provide support at home (using *Benchmarks Letter* as a guide), phone calls, double-dose instruction (2nd rotation with teacher instead of independent center), in smallest group for rotations, tutors (upper grade, parents, etc.)
- Continued dialogue with parents and documentation of such meetings
- After each trimester, conference is called with parents to get a feel for support at home and divide interventions between home and school TWI Resource Teacher attends meeting
- Update and include documentation of above interventions & support in Red Folder after each trimester – include dated sample work with teacher's anecdotal notes detailing activitiy, how work was completed (independently, with teacher support, etc.) on samples

Second Grade

THE EDUCATION ALLIANCE at Brown University

Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory (LAB)

LAB Directors and Board

Adeline Becker Executive Director, The Education Alliance

Mary-Beth Fafard Executive Director, The LAB at Brown University

Peter McWalters Chair, LAB Board of Governors

Aminda Gentile Vice Chair, LAB Board of Governors

Board Members

Rafael Aragunde Torres Alice Carlan Richard H. Cate Charles F. Desmond Edward J. Doherty David Driscoll Michele Forman Susan A. Gendron Noreen Michael **Richard P. Mills** Flizabeth Neale Peter J. Negroni Basan N. Nembirkow C. Patrick Proctor, Sr. Robin D. Rapaport Betty J. Sternberg Lyonel B. Tracy





Center for Applied Linguistics 4646 40th Street, NW Washington, DC 20016-1859 Phone: 202.362.0700 Fax: 202.362.3740 Web: www.cal.org Email: info@cal.org



222 Richmond Street, Suite 300 Providence, RI 02903-4226 Phone: 800.521.9550 Fax: 401.421.7650 Web: www.alliance.brown.edu Email: info@alliance.brown.edu

