



Teaching Reading and Writing in Spanish and English in Bilingual and Dual Language Classrooms

Second Edition

Yvonne S. Freeman
David E. Freeman

HEINEMANN
PORTSMOUTH, NH

Heinemann

A division of Reed Elsevier Inc.
361 Hanover Street
Portsmouth, NH 03801-3912
www.heinemann.com

Offices and agents throughout the world

© 2006 by Yvonne S. Freeman and David E. Freeman

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form or by any electronic or mechanical means, including information storage and retrieval systems, without permission in writing from the publisher, except by a reviewer, who may quote brief passages in a review.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Freeman, Yvonne S.

Teaching reading and writing in Spanish and English in bilingual and dual language classrooms / Yvonne S. Freeman, David E. Freeman.—2nd ed.

p. cm.

Edition for 1997 has title: Teaching reading and writing in Spanish in the bilingual classroom.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-325-00801-9 (alk. paper)

1. Spanish language—Study and teaching—United States. 2. Language arts—United States. 3. Education, Bilingual—United States. 4. Literacy—United States. I. Freeman, David E. II. Title.

LB1577.S7F74 2006

372.6'044—dc22

2006002859

Editor: *Lois Bridges*

Production: *Vicki Kasabian*

Cover design: *Jenny Jensen Greenleaf*

Cover photographer: *Julie Farias*

Typesetter: *Publishers' Design and Production Services, Inc.*

Manufacturing: *Louise Richardson*

Printed in the United States of America on acid-free paper

10 09 08 07 06 RRD 1 2 3 4 5



We dedicate this book to teachers and administrators in schools that are implementing high-quality literacy instruction in two languages. We also extend this dedication to our daughter Mary, who is using two languages to help older newcomer students learn to read and write in a new language; to our son-in-law, Francisco, who is providing high-quality literacy instruction in Spanish to his bilingual students; and to our daughter Ann, who is conducting research and educating new teachers on the best ways to teach reading and writing to all students.



Contents

Acknowledgments	<i>ix</i>
Introduction	<i>xi</i>
1 The Context for Developing Literacy for Bilingual Students	<i>1</i>
2 A Word Recognition View of Reading	<i>26</i>
3 A Sociopsycholinguistic View of Reading	<i>46</i>
4 The History of Literacy Instruction in Spanish and in English	<i>79</i>
5 Methods of Teaching Reading in Spanish	<i>96</i>
6 A Principled Approach to Teaching Reading	<i>123</i>
7 Effective Writing Instruction	<i>151</i>
8 Stages and Levels of Writing Development	<i>180</i>
9 Thematic Teaching to Develop Biliteracy	<i>209</i>
References	
Literature Cited	<i>235</i>
Professional Works Cited	<i>243</i>
Index	<i>251</i>



Acknowledgments

This second edition builds on the first. We want to thank again the teachers and teacher educators who helped shape our first edition with their insightful comments and classroom examples. It is those teacher stories and their students' writing that bring the research and theory in this book to life.

This second edition includes many new stories and new examples. We especially want to thank the teachers who provided detailed accounts of their classrooms and examples of their students' writing. These teachers include Francisco Soto, Delia Iris Ojeda, Rosa Chapa, Paula Garcia, Elda Valdez, Nancy Cavazos, Irma Magaly Carballo, Anna Barbosa, Patricia Cardoza, and Yudith González. We also wish to thank the children whose writing and photos are included within the pages of this book and provide us with a close look at what children know and can do. In particular, we would like to thank Juliana Arisleidy Chapa, Nallely Peña Cavazos, Flavio César Cardoza, Leslie Pesina, Alexis González, Alexis Chapa, and Citlaly Villareal.

In addition, we wish to thank the administrators and district and regional specialists who facilitated our visits to schools to observe classes in which wonderful teachers were providing high-quality education for their bilingual students. These administrators include Joe González, Ofelia Gaona, Emmy De la Garza, David Villarreal, Debbie González, Noemi Green, Gregorio Arrellano, all of Donna ISD, and Perla Roerig from Region One. We also need to thank the teachers in the Runn Elementary, Garza Elementary, and W. A. Todd schools who graciously allowed us to photograph their students and classrooms.

We also want to thank the people who actually turn manuscript pages into a finished product. Abby Heim and Vicki Kasabian, our production editors, have applied their considerable professional skills to create this book. In addition to the usual work they do, they traveled from New Hampshire to South Texas and spent two days with us visiting classrooms and advising Julie Farias, an energetic photographer, as she snapped picture after picture of bilingual teachers and students. As a result of their dedication, this book includes pictures of the students and teachers in the classrooms we write about. Among the pictures taken are those on the cover: one that shows Francisco Soto with his student, Daniel Volaños; and another of Mary Soto and two of her students, Yulissa Morales and Griselda Olivo.

Finally, we want to thank our editor, Lois Bridges. Lois is a remarkable editor who provides the feedback we need to revise and refine our writing. Her knowledge of literacy and best practices enables her to give us the advice we need. And she always does so with incredible speed. We respect Lois' professionalism and value her friendship. We look forward to writing more books working with the great team from Heinemann.



Introduction

Over the past seventeen years, we have been working with preservice and inservice teachers who want to help all their students succeed in school. These teachers know that reading and writing are key to school success. However, teaching students to read and write is a challenge, especially in bilingual and dual language classrooms.

Yvonne teaches a graduate course in biliteracy development. In their responses to the assigned readings, Yvonne's students have written about the complexities of teaching reading and writing in two languages. They have reflected on their own experiences of learning to read in a second language, on trying to implement new methods in schools in which administrators and other teachers are concerned only with test score results, and on the difficulty of putting into practice the approach and strategies they have been studying in Yvonne's class. The following quotes reflect the challenges that these teachers face.

When I attended the elementary schools as a student who was Spanish dominant, I remember my teachers always teaching the lessons through direct instruction in English. It was difficult for me to understand some of the concepts that the teacher would explain because it was done in my second language. The teacher would do all the talking. I would just be listening and trying to comprehend as much as I could. On some occasions when we were reading aloud, the teacher would constantly be correcting all the errors I would make when reading in English. I felt really sad because I was not able to pronounce the words as I should.

Elda Valdez, bilingual second-grade teacher, two years' experience, teaching in an early transition bilingual program

Como maestra, puedo ver día tras día las caras de desesperación de mis colegas por tener que enseñar un programa en el que no creen. Un programa hecho por manos inexpertas, por mentes que no tienen ni idea de lo que deben hacer para ayudar a un estudiante a aprender a leer y a sobresalir en la escuela. Los maestros de mi escuela están totalmente cansados de tener que administrar exámenes, ensayos tras ensayos y todo para estar siguiendo las leyes del gobierno federal. Lo más triste, es que los mismos estudiantes reflejan en sus rostros cansancio y fastidio por unos exámenes que para ellos no tienen ningún sentido.

Translation

As a teacher, day after day, I can see the desperate faces of my colleagues because they have to teach a curriculum they don't believe in, a curriculum created by hands of those without expertise, by those who have no idea of what to do to help a student learn how to read and to succeed in school. The teachers at my school are totally fed up with the tests they have to administer, practice test after practice test, and all to follow federal mandates. The saddest part is that the students' faces reflect their deep tiredness and boredom with tests that have no meaning for them.

Nancy Cavazos, bilingual pre-K–K teacher, seven years' experience, teaching in a dual language program

Durante los últimos meses, en los cuales he estado leyendo los artículos, así como los capítulos de los diferentes libros de texto de mi clase, al tiempo que realizaba entrevistas y prácticas de lectura con mi hija y las observaciones a mis alumnos, he podido comprobar que la lectura es una área fascinante, sobre todo para el docente que realmente esté comprometido con su labor . . . Ha sido para mí muy gratificante poder aprender y conocer cuáles son las mejores opciones en el proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje de la lectura y reconocer que el niño no sólo lee letras aisladas en los textos, sino que utiliza múltiples recursos para interpretar y comprender su lectura.

Translation

In the last few months during which time I have been reading the articles as well as chapters from the textbooks for this class, doing interviews and trying out different reading activities with my daughter, and observing my students, I have realized that reading is a fascinating subject, especially for the teacher who is really dedicated to his or her profession . . . It has been very gratifying to be able to learn about and recognize which are the best options in the teaching/learning of the reading process and to realize that the child doesn't just read isolated letters but uses many resources to interpret and understand his or her reading.

Irma Carballo, kindergarten and first-grade bilingual teacher, twenty years' experience, seventeen in Mexico, three in the United States, teaching in a dual language program

The readings for this graduate course were eye-opening. I didn't go through the traditional route to become a teacher. I went through the alternative certification program. Common sense told me there were different approaches to teaching reading, but I had no idea the differences and their impact were so great. For many years I thought reading was reading and that if you were a good reader, the meaning would automatically come to you. Boy, I was way off. I will definitely consider the approaches I use and how they impact our students . . . Yes, there are many factors to consider like socioeconomic status, book availability, but it all leads to the fact that we must allow them free time to read and let them read what they want to read. I have spent so much of my own money to build up my classroom library and make sure it has culturally relevant books. I want to make sure my students read in both languages and that they have a good selection of books to choose from.

*Anna Barbosa, third-grade bilingual teacher, six years' experience,
teaching in a transitional bilingual education program*

"How do I teach reading and writing in Spanish and in English?" This question is one that both beginning and experienced bilingual teachers often ask themselves. As the previous quotes show, many factors influence the kinds of reading and writing programs teachers develop. These factors might include the teachers' own experiences in being taught to read and write, the teaching preparation they received in college, and their previous teaching experience. In addition, teachers must consider their students' access to books at home, their literacy backgrounds, and the materials available in the school and classroom libraries. In this era of accountability, teachers must also comply with federal, state, and district testing requirements. Because literacy is so critical for students' academic success, it is important for educators to take these factors into account so they can make informed decisions about their literacy programs.

The quotes from teachers help set the stage for the complexity of teaching students to read and write in two languages. Teachers in bilingual and dual language classrooms face an even more complex task than other teachers. They are trying to respond not only to reading mandates and the pressures of raising test scores but also to opposition from the public and even other educators because they are teaching in two languages. There is a great deal of misunderstanding about bilingual education, and bilingual teachers are caught in the middle.



Goals of the Second Edition

In this era of accountability, in which every student is expected to achieve grade-level literacy standards, teaching students to read and write in two languages is

especially difficult. However, when teachers adopt effective practices, their students become good readers and writers. One goal for this book is to provide the information bilingual and dual language teachers need to implement effective reading and writing instruction in their classes. We offer teachers, program directors, administrators, and parents concrete ideas that can help students in bilingual and dual language classes reach high levels of biliteracy in both Spanish and English.

However, it is not enough for teachers to implement practices that lead their students to biliteracy. They should also develop an understanding of why certain practices lead to success. Then, when a new program or set of practices is implemented at their school, they can evaluate that program in light of their own understanding of how reading and writing best develop in bilingual settings. For that reason, a second goal for this book is to provide teachers with the theory that supports the practices we advocate.

In addition to employing sound practice supported by theory, we want teachers to understand some of the history of literacy instruction. This history provides the context for current practices. A review of how reading has been taught in the past helps teachers understand current methods. A third goal of this book, then, is to give teachers a summary of methods that have been used to teach reading and writing in Spanish and in English. Armed with a knowledge of history, theory, and effective practice, bilingual teachers can succeed in helping all their students become biliterate and achieve high levels of academic success.



Reasons for a Second Edition

There are several specific reasons that we have written this second edition of *Teaching Reading and Writing in Spanish in the Bilingual Classroom*. Since the first edition, published in 1996, the contexts for both literacy and bilingual education have changed dramatically, as we will show. Because of the opposition to bilingual education, the increased use of scripted reading programs that emphasize basic skills, and the move toward accountability with constant testing, it is more important than ever for bilingual and dual language teachers to develop the skills needed to promote biliteracy for all their students and the knowledge to defend the practices they choose to use.

There are other reasons we wanted to publish a second edition. We have now had many more experiences with talented teachers in bilingual and dual language schools. In addition, graduate students who are bilingual teachers have done research with both young bilingual emergent readers and writers and more ad-

vanced students. Our experiences in schools and the findings of the teachers' research support our beliefs about the teaching of literacy and need to be shared.

Finally, in this second edition we update both professional and literature references. We include new bibliographies of books in Spanish and in English, many of which are part of the descriptions of extended scenarios from classrooms in which teachers develop thematic units of study.



Organization of This Book

In Chapter 1 we open with the story of one bilingual teacher and his journey since the publication of the first edition of this book. We use this story to show how conditions for teaching literacy in bilingual settings have changed in recent years. Next, we present the research and theory that support bilingual education. We explain a model that shows how English language learners who are instructed in two languages do better than those in English-only programs. In addition, we briefly review the history of bilingual education in the United States. To show the effects of current policy in both bilingual education and literacy, we present a scenario of reading lessons in a weather unit that follow a mandated reading curriculum in an English-only class. In this chapter, as in all chapters, we conclude with applications to help readers apply the ideas presented.

In Chapter 2 we look at the first of two views of reading. We begin with a scenario of reading lessons based on a weather unit in a bilingual classroom. The teacher teaches reading from a word recognition perspective. Next we explain the word recognition view. We show how this scenario and the scenario from Chapter 1 exemplify this perspective and present our concerns about using this approach.

In Chapter 3 we present a second view of reading. We describe reading lessons from a weather unit taught by a bilingual teacher who follows a sociopsycholinguistic approach to reading. We present evidence that supports this view, and we analyze the lesson to show how the methods and strategies this teacher uses reflect this second view of reading. We end this chapter with a checklist of effective reading practices that is consistent with a sociopsycholinguistic view, followed by descriptions of two additional units that show the checklist in action.

In Chapter 4 we give a historical overview of the methods that have been used to teach reading in Spanish and in English. This chapter provides the background for a description of each method. In Chapter 5 we describe the traditional methods that have been used to teach reading in Spanish. We include scenarios to bring each method to life. We also consider parallel methods that have been developed in English. In Chapter 6 we conclude our discussion of reading by

presenting a principled approach. Principled teachers adopt methods and strategies consistent with their view of reading. We explain the methods and techniques that fit with a sociopsycholinguistic view.

We turn to writing in Chapter 7. We first show examples of writing from dual language classrooms, discussing what the goals for students should be. Just as we explained two views of reading, we present here two views of writing and the implications of each view for classroom practice. We contrast traditional approaches to teaching writing with a process approach. We introduce a checklist for effective writing instruction. Then we begin a description of how writing develops in both Spanish and English. We also look at the influence of English on Spanish writing and the influence of Spanish on English writing. We end the chapter with an example of a unit from a teacher who follows the checklist.

We begin Chapter 8 with three examples of writing that represent different stages in a developmental continuum. Then we continue our description of writing development. We show examples of more advanced stages as writers in both Spanish and English move toward conventional writing. We end this chapter with a unit from a fourth-grade teacher who is helping her students develop their writing skills.

Although we provide examples of classroom practice throughout the book, Chapter 9 brings the theory and methodologies discussed in the previous chapters together by describing how teachers using a principled approach plan and teach interesting thematic units. The examples we provide in this final chapter also include ideas for helping students move back and forth naturally between reading and writing in Spanish and in English as they become both bilingual and biliterate.



Teaching Reading and Writing in Spanish and English in Bilingual and Dual Language Classrooms



The Context for Developing Literacy for Bilingual Students

Ser bilingüe es como vivir en dos mundos. Uno puede hablar con personas en español y entrar en su mundo. Lo mismo pasa cuando hablas, escribes y lees en inglés. Ahora que empecé el programa de educación bilingüe, puedo ver que tan valioso es ser bilingüe porque hay tantos niños que puedo ayudar en su primer idioma.

Translation

To be bilingual is like living in two worlds. One can speak to people in Spanish and enter into their world. The same thing happens when you speak, you write, and you read in English. Now that I have begun the bilingual education program, I can see how valuable it is to be bilingual because there are so many children that I can help in their first language.



Francisco's Teaching Journey

We open this book with a quote from Francisco, who wrote this a decade ago during his time in the teacher education preparation program at his university. Readers of our first edition of this book, *Teaching Reading and Writing in Spanish in the Bilingual Classroom*, might remember Francisco, a college student who was just entering the program to become a bilingual teacher. Yvonne was his university adviser and instructor. Much has changed in both bilingual and literacy education since Francisco wrote this quote. We include an extended description of what Francisco has experienced because we think it represents the reality of many bilingual teachers.

Francisco came to the United States from El Salvador when he was fourteen. His mother, a migrant worker, had lived and worked for several years in the United States before she could bring Francisco and her other children to join her. She wanted a better life for them than was possible in their native country. By the time Francisco arrived in Fresno, California, he was high school age. Like most students who come at the secondary level, Francisco received no first language support. He was submersed in classes given only in English. His English as a second language (ESL) classes focused on conversational language and did not prepare him for the academic demands of college.

Fortunately, Francisco was an outstanding soccer player. He attended a local Christian university on a soccer scholarship. He nearly dropped out of college because earning good grades was difficult. Nevertheless, he persisted with encouragement from his mother and his coach. Because he struggled with English, he remained quiet in his college classes. When, as a senior, he did some observations in a first-grade bilingual classroom, Francisco saw for the first time how English language learners in a bilingual setting were able to participate fully in classroom activities. He noted that the children felt good about themselves as learners because they could draw on their first language strengths as they studied school subjects. Francisco was inspired to use his bilingualism to help others so that they would not have to struggle as much as he had.

Because he had arrived in the United States at age fourteen with a high level of Spanish literacy that he further developed by taking college literature and Bible classes in Spanish, Francisco had a high level of academic Spanish. He was able to get an internship position in a rural school not far from Fresno because there was a need for teachers who could teach academic content in Spanish and in English. His first year he taught third grade. Then the district transferred him to another school.

Francisco's new school was growing so large that an additional class had to be formed. To accomplish this, the principal asked teachers to identify students who were significantly below grade level. The teachers identified twenty-six students, most of whom were boys, to form a second- and third-grade multiage bilingual classroom. This was the class Francisco faced at his new school.

Not surprisingly, Francisco found his second year of teaching with the struggling students challenging, but it was also rewarding. He organized his year around themes connected to the third-grade content standards, including the solar system, the tropical rain forest, the ocean, and the environment. He decided that since students could not really read or write very well in either language, he would first support them in developing literacy in Spanish.

During rug time, Francisco read and discussed a variety of books related to the themes his class was studying. He worked intensively with small groups doing guided reading and writing. While he instructed one group, the other students worked at centers. His centers included journal writing, math activity centers at which students wrote math problems related to the theme, silent reading, a listening center where students could listen to tapes of books, a center for individual story writing connected to the theme, and another center where pairs or small groups wrote plays and poems that they later presented to the whole class. Francisco always made a point of listening to his students and responding to individual writing. When his students shared their writing with him and others during an author share time, they got excited about writing and began to read and write more on their own.

Perhaps one of Francisco's greatest challenges was a student named Salvador, a third grader reading and writing at about a first-grade level. It was difficult for Francisco to convince Salvador to do any independent reading or writing. To avoid the embarrassment of trying to read and write, Salvador often engaged in disruptive behavior.

Francisco included Salvador and some other struggling third graders in one of the shared writing groups. Together with Francisco, the students created language experience stories. Francisco asked students what they wanted to write about and then helped them get their words down on paper, often going sound by sound. He also read many predictable, patterned books with the students, and they began to incorporate these patterns into their shared and guided writing.

Salvador particularly liked one story, *Los animales de Don Vicencio (The Animal Concert)* (Cowley 1987, 1983), which followed a predictable pattern and included the sounds of the farm animals who kept Don Vicencio awake at night. Salvador read the story over many times. One day, Salvador asked if he could take paper home to write a story. Francisco knew he had made great progress, because two

days later Salvador brought his story back to read proudly to his teacher. The story closely followed the pattern of the story Salvador had read so many times in class, but Salvador had changed the characters to create his own version. He loved writing in the animal sounds. Under Francisco's guidance, Salvador continued to develop his reading and writing ability. At the end of the year, he was not at grade level, but he had improved greatly, and, more importantly, he had developed a love of reading and writing.

Francisco began by teaching the students to read and write in their first language, Spanish. The students in his class also improved in English as the year progressed. During English time each day, Francisco read them poems, and they sang or chanted together while he or one of the students tracked the words. Since the poems and charts were related to the theme they were studying, students were able to understand the English and build their English vocabulary. By midyear, groups of students were taking recess time to write and then read and edit their peers' writing pieces. The principal noticed the students' progress because students were constantly going to her with their writing in English as well as in Spanish and asking her if they could read it to her.

The following summer Francisco married a woman who had been teaching at the district's high school. They decided they wanted to relocate from the central valley of California to the coast. There they both found teaching jobs because they both had bilingual certification. Francisco was hired as a third-grade bilingual teacher. This time, however, Francisco found himself in a district that supported bilingual education only nominally. Several of the designated bilingual teachers had been hired because they promised to become proficient in Spanish within five years. However, since they were only at beginning levels, they were not able to teach in Spanish. The district offered bilingual classes only because the state required it. Francisco taught part of the day in English and part in Spanish.

That same year, Proposition 227, English for the Children, passed in California. This proposition made the teaching of children in a language other than English illegal unless the parents signed a waiver. The administration in Francisco's district quickly eliminated bilingual education. Administrators even warned teachers not to tell parents about the waiver option. By the second semester, all classes were taught in English. In his new school, Francisco used both Spanish and English the first four months, but after that, all his teaching had to be done in English. He commented, "I was hired as a bilingual teacher, but I only taught in English."

For the next four years, most of Francisco's teaching was done in English. Sometimes he was able to briefly preview or review a lesson in Spanish, but he was warned not to teach in Spanish or he would be in trouble with the district.

Francisco continued to emphasize the importance of reading and writing. He regularly read books connected to his themes to and with his students. By his fourth year of teaching in the district, Francisco began to notice that his English language learners, who had received all their instruction in English since kindergarten or first grade, were significantly behind the students he had taught the first year he came to the district. Before, the students had developed literacy in Spanish and then added English. Now, the students were being taught to read and write in English from the beginning. Even though all their instruction had been in English, they could not read third-grade material in English.

Another factor made the teaching of Francisco's English language learners more difficult. New reading mandates adopted at his school called for direct instruction in phonics and phonemic awareness. The required time for language arts was extended, but instead of being involved in meaningful reading and writing, Francisco's students were required to focus on basic skills. In addition, administrators carefully scrutinized scores on standardized tests. To prepare for these tests, teachers were required to give practice tests and benchmarks. Francisco's students did well enough on their tests, but he was finding it increasingly difficult to engage his students in interesting reading and writing and to organize around themes because there were more and more required tests and activities being assigned. Francisco could see that his students were losing interest in school. Toward the middle of the year, Francisco and his wife, Mary, decided to take a sabbatical. They applied to teach abroad for the experience and, perhaps, to avoid the test mania that seemed to be sweeping the country.

Francisco and Mary were hired in an American school in Guadalajara, Mexico. Francisco was hired as a third-grade teacher again. However, his students were the equivalent of fourth graders in the United States, as the Mexican school system provided students with two years of first grade so they could acquire enough English to study content area subjects in English.

This year of teaching proved to be educational for Francisco and Mary as well as for their students. The students in the Guadalajara American school were very different from the Mexican-origin students the couple had taught in California. In California their students were the children of immigrants who had come to the United States to seek a better life. In Guadalajara, the students were the children of wealthy Mexican and American businessmen. These students were assured of a comfortable life no matter the level of their academic achievement. While they were respectful and did their work dutifully, they were also used to a life that did not require too much of them. Francisco and Mary missed the sense of mission they had in teaching their students in the United States. The students in Guadalajara would succeed without their teachers' help.

The following year, the couple returned to their school districts in California. Francisco was moved to a new school where he did not know the administration or the other teachers. He was again assigned to the third grade. However, things had changed drastically from when he had left a year before. Now, a new reading program was being implemented, and facilitators at mandated training workshops emphasized how teachers would have to follow the script exactly for more than two hours a day. Teachers were told they would be evaluated on the test results their students achieved, and the trainers emphasized that if teachers followed the program exactly, all students would succeed, even English language learners. No special support was offered for the English learners, though the program trainers promised some materials were on the way.

For Francisco these workshops proved to be especially frustrating, since the trainers promoted what they called “scientific research,” research he knew was flawed and not relevant to English language learners. Once school began, he quickly saw that he could not teach around themes, organize around centers, or engage his students in meaningful activities as he had done in the past.

To make matters worse, the economic crunch in California led to larger classes, so Francisco suddenly was teaching a class of thirty-five students. In the class, there were five students who were newcomers and spoke no English at all. Almost all his students were struggling with reading and could not read independently. Little time was allotted to writing other than filling out worksheets. One story was the basis of more than a week’s lessons that emphasized the teaching of skills. On top of all this, Francisco and the students found the stories did not make much sense. He commented, “I hated what I was doing. I was not teaching. Someone taken off the street could follow the manual. I was not helping the kids at all.”

Recently, Francisco, his wife, and their baby moved to Texas, a state known for teaching to the test. However, in Texas they both got jobs in a district committed to bilingual education and to helping the English language learners studying there. More than 50 percent of the students in the district are classified as limited English proficient (LEP). The superintendent has asked the bilingual director to implement dual language education in all elementary schools. Dual language, or two-way bilingual education, is a model that has proven to lead to academic success for bilingual students (Collier and Thomas 2004; Lindholm-Leary 2001). The move was a drastic step for the couple, but they both hope that despite the emphasis on testing in Texas, they can be given a chance to help the bilingual students in their classrooms.

Francisco’s story may sound familiar to bilingual teachers in California and other states that have reduced the number of bilingual programs for English language learners. Despite a strong theoretical and research base that supports

teaching students in their primary language while they are acquiring English, there has always been opposition to bilingual education. In the following sections, we first look at the research and theory that support bilingual education and then give a brief overview of the historical opposition to programs that include native language instruction.



Research That Supports Bilingual Education

Research studies that provide support for bilingual education generally compare the academic achievement in English, as measured by standardized test scores, of similar students in different types of programs. The assumption is that if the students entered school with similar backgrounds, then differences in test scores could be attributed to the model of instruction they received. Since it takes from four to nine years to develop academic competence in a second language (Collier 1989; Cummins 1994; Skutnabb-Kangas 1979), test scores for English language learners must be measured over time. For that reason, studies should be longitudinal.

An important long-term study was conducted by Ramírez (1991), who compared groups of students in three kinds of programs: structured English immersion, early exit bilingual, and late exit bilingual. The structured English immersion programs provided ESL support for English language learners but generally no primary language support. The early exit programs included teaching in the primary language until about second grade. Then instruction shifted entirely into English. Students in the late exit programs continued to receive primary language instruction through at least fourth grade. Ramírez concluded that students in the late exit programs had higher academic achievement than students in either of the other two programs. In addition, he found little difference between students in structured English immersion and early exit programs.

Among his conclusions, Ramírez noted that teaching students in their native language did not interfere with their acquisition of English. Spanish-speaking students in late exit programs caught up with native English-speaking peers on standardized tests in English in about six years. On the other hand, native Spanish speakers in the structured English immersion programs did not catch up. Short-term studies do not reveal these positive effects of native language instruction.

A series of studies by Collier and Thomas have provided additional support for bilingual programs (Collier and Thomas 2004; Collier 1995; Thomas and Collier 1997, 2002). In these longitudinal studies of thousands of students, Collier and Thomas compared the academic achievement of English language learners in

different kinds of programs, including traditional ESL programs, content-based ESL, early exit, late exit, and dual language. Like Ramírez, they have consistently found that English language learners in programs that teach academic content in the first language at least through sixth grade achieve at higher levels academically than students in other types of programs. In addition, both native English speakers and English language learners in dual language or two-way programs score above the national norms on tests of reading given in English.

Additional research support for bilingual education comes from the meta-analyses conducted by Willig (1985) and Greene (1998). In a meta-analysis, the researcher summarizes the results of a number of studies to draw general conclusions across the research. For example, Greene examined seventy-five studies of bilingual programs. He chose eleven studies that met the minimal standards for the quality of their research design. He combined the statistical results of these studies, which included test score results of 2,719 students. Of these, 1,562 were enrolled in bilingual programs in thirteen different states.

Based on the results, Greene concluded that limited English proficient students who are taught using at least some of their native language perform significantly better on standardized tests in English than similar children taught only in English. Thus, these meta-analyses led researchers to the same conclusions as the large-scale long-term studies conducted by Ramírez and Collier and Thomas, that instruction in the primary language improves the school achievement of English language learners.

Reviews of the research on bilingual education consistently show bilingual education is the best model for educating English language learners. A recent meta-analysis (Rolstad, Mahoney, et al. 2005) incorporated many studies not covered in the Willig or Greene reports and included more current research reports. Once again, the results favored bilingual education. The authors state:

In the current study, we present a meta-analysis of studies comparing effects of instructional programs for ELL students in an effort to clarify “the big picture” in this debate. Our approach differs from previously conducted literature reviews in that it includes many studies not reviewed previously, and we did not exclude studies a priori based on design quality. Although our corpus and methodological approach differ from those of previous researchers, our conclusions are consistent with most of the major reviews conducted to date. We find an advantage for approaches that provide instruction in the students’ first language and conclude that state and federal policies restricting or discouraging the use of the native language in programs for EL students cannot be justified by a reasonable consideration of the evidence. (574)

The researchers found that bilingual education was more beneficial for ELL students than all-English approaches. They also found that students in enrichment bilingual programs, such as dual language programs, outperformed those in transitional programs. In general, the longer students received primary language instruction, the better they did on academic measures of English.

The studies discussed here involved large numbers of students over long periods of time. The researchers concluded that the use of the native language for instruction resulted in increased academic achievement for English language learners. However, many factors influence test score results. Some students may be in programs that are labeled *bilingual*, but as was the case in Francisco's school in California, the teachers may not be bilingual or may be limited in their knowledge of academic Spanish. In addition, the teaching methods affect student learning. The teacher may be experienced and have a high level of proficiency in the second language but, like Francisco, be required to teach literacy using ineffective methods. Finally, especially at the upper grades, teachers may have difficulty finding adequate materials to teach in the second language. The best schooling for English language learners must include good teachers, good methods, and good materials as well as extended instruction in the primary language.



Theory That Supports Bilingual Education

What theory can explain the consistently positive results from research studies of bilingual education? The key concept is Cummins' (2000) interdependence principle:

To the extent that instruction in L_x is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x transfer of this proficiency to L_y will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or the environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y . (29)

In other words, when students are taught in and develop proficiency in their first language, L_x , that proficiency will transfer to the second language, L_y , assuming they are given enough exposure to the second language and are motivated to learn it. Cummins cites extensive research showing that there is a common proficiency that underlies languages. His CUP (common underlying proficiency) model holds that what we know in one language is accessible in a second language once we acquire a sufficient level of the second language.

To take a simple example, David learned about linguistics by studying in English. He knows about phonemes and syntax. David has also acquired a strong

intermediate level of Spanish. Even though he didn't study linguistics in Spanish, he can draw on his underlying knowledge of linguistics when speaking about it in Spanish. What he needs is knowledge of linguistics in English and enough of the grammar and vocabulary of Spanish to discuss linguistics in Spanish.

The concept of a common underlying proficiency helps explain why English language learners do better in school when some of their instruction is in their native language. If students enter school speaking a language other than English and if all their instruction is in English, they won't understand the teacher and will fall behind. In contrast, as Krashen (1996) notes, students in bilingual programs can learn academic content and develop the skills needed for problem solving and higher-order thinking in their first language while they become proficient in English.

Early exit bilingual programs are based on this idea. These programs include primary language teaching through about second grade. By that time, students can speak and understand enough English so that they can benefit from instruction in English. The first language is viewed as a bridge to English-only instruction.

However, the research cited earlier shows that for programs to be effective, students need at least six years of instruction that includes their primary language. Late exit or dual language programs provide this extra time of first language development. When students receive instruction in their first language for an extended period of time, they more fully develop that language.

Consider native English speakers who are taught all in English. They receive English language arts instruction throughout their schooling because two or three years would not be enough time for them to develop academic proficiency in English. Or think of a foreign language class you took in high school or college. Did the two or three years of French or German classes result in a high level of foreign language proficiency? Most people who study a foreign language for a short time do not develop high levels of the language, and they usually lose the language if they do not use it on a regular basis. Many who studied French or German in college certainly would struggle to carry on a conversation in that language with a native speaker.

Another reason that early exit programs are not successful is that although students can learn what Cummins' (1981) termed basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) in one or two years, they don't develop cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Research has shown that the development of academic language takes from four to nine years. As a result, students who are exited to an all-English program after two or three years have not yet developed the academic proficiency in their first language needed for school success in English. In contrast, students who receive primary language instruction for at least six years develop academic proficiency in two languages.



Thomas and Collier's Model of Language Acquisition for School

Thomas and Collier's prism models (1997) expand on and also help clarify the idea that the development of the first language promotes the development of academic achievement in a second language.

The prism model represents the four major components of language acquisition: language development, cognitive development, academic development, and social and cultural processes (42) (see Figure 1–1).

In schools, all students should continue their language development. For many students, this involves learning to read and write as well as increasing their vocabulary and refining their syntax. In addition, students continue their cognitive development. They become better problem solvers and learn to deal with more complex concepts. By studying the different content areas, students also develop academically. That is the goal of schooling. The foundation for successful language, cognitive, and academic development is a familiar social and cultural context.

As the prism model illustrates, in effective bilingual and dual language settings, students develop two languages as they increase their cognitive abilities and academic knowledge. By including first language instruction, schools recognize all students' social and cultural backgrounds. Instruction builds on what students bring to school and adds a second language.

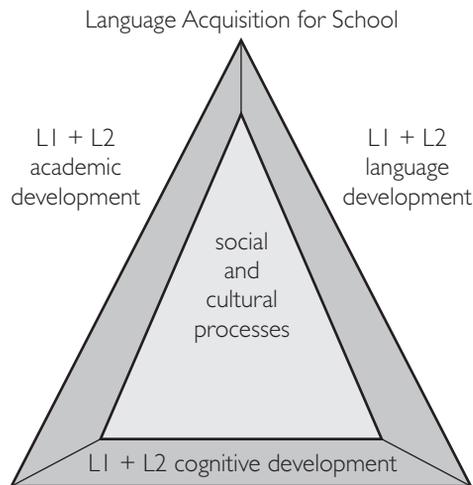


FIGURE 1–1. Thomas and Collier's Prism Model for Bilingual Education

The sociocultural component includes individual variables such as anxiety and self-esteem as well as larger social factors, like discrimination, overt or covert. For that reason, even if the school provides opportunities for positive language, cognitive, and academic development, social and cultural influences must also be examined because they have such strong positive or negative influences on students' language acquisition, cognitive development, and academic performance.

When all instruction is in English, English language learners are delayed in their language, cognitive, and academic development until they understand enough of the English instruction to receive any benefits. By that time, they are behind their native English-speaking peers, and, once behind, it is difficult for students to catch up. Further, when their native language is not used, the school fails to build on the social and cultural strengths English language learners bring to school. The only development that is promoted is the students' linguistic development in English. Figure 1–2 (Thomas and Collier 1997, 44) represents the prism model in an English-only setting.

A closer look at Francisco's educational experiences helps illustrate the effects of English-only programs as reflected in this second prism model. When Francisco came to the United States as a freshman in high school, he was suddenly thrust into a completely new sociocultural setting. He was not prepared for the large urban high school he attended, where neither teachers nor most other students had any understanding of his background. There were some students from El Salvador, but most Latinos in the high school were from Mexico, and many of his

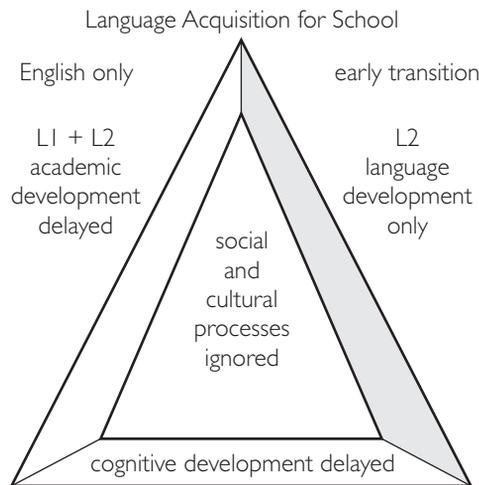


FIGURE 1–2. Thomas and Collier's Prism Model for English Only

teachers assumed he was Mexican. Thus, his schooling did not build on Francisco's social and cultural backgrounds.

Although he came to school reading and writing at grade level in Spanish, no advanced Spanish classes were offered at the high school. It wasn't until he took Spanish literature and Bible classes in college that Francisco was able to continue his first language development. The high school did offer ESL classes, so he began to develop English proficiency. However, these classes focused on conversational English rather than the academic English he needed to succeed in school.

Francisco's academic development was also delayed. Since no academic content subjects were offered in Spanish, he could not continue his study of math or science while learning English. Instead, he was placed in ESL classes and other classes, such as P.E. and shop. Although Francisco was old enough to have completed much of his cognitive development when he started school in English, his classes generally required lower-order thinking skills. Most class periods were spent filling in worksheets.

Even though his high school experiences did not build on Francisco's social and cultural processes, delayed his academic and cognitive development, and failed to provide academic language development in English and Spanish, Francisco succeeded in college because of his early interest in schooling and reading, his own perseverance, and the strong support of his mother, his soccer coach, and his girlfriend, whom he later married. However, many English language learners who are placed in the school context represented by the second prism do not succeed academically.

Francisco now has developed high levels of bilingualism and biliteracy. And because he married his Anglo girlfriend and has spent time with her family, he has become bicultural too. Francisco hopes to enable his students to become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural, but with less of a struggle than he endured. Francisco has moved to a school district that promotes dual language education. Dual language programs promote academic, linguistic, and cognitive development in two languages. The goal of dual language is to help students become not only bilingual but also biliterate and bicultural.



Biliteracy

Francisco succeeded in school because he developed high levels of biliteracy. One of the goals of this book is to help teachers in bilingual classes understand how to promote biliteracy. Hornberger (2003) defines biliteracy as “any and all instances in which communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing”

(xiii). We have observed that many bilingual students can carry on basic oral communication in two languages, but they cannot read and write at grade-appropriate levels in both languages. They are bilingual but not biliterate.

Hornberger examines the complexities of biliteracy. Different forms and levels of biliteracy develop in different social contexts. Even in the same contexts, individual differences result in varying levels of reading and writing proficiency in two or more languages. There may also be differences in an individual's ability to read a language and her ability to write it. Hornberger also takes into account other factors, such as whether an individual develops the two languages simultaneously or successively and the relatedness of the two languages in both their oral and their written forms. Her framework can help educators become aware of the many levels of biliteracy and the many factors that influence biliteracy development.

Language of Initial Literacy Instruction

Although not all programs have the goal of biliteracy for students, our view is that bilingual programs should strive to help students read, write, and learn with equal proficiency in two languages. A key question, then, that administrators and teachers must ask themselves is, "Should formal literacy instruction be introduced in the first language, in the second language, or in both languages simultaneously?" One approach is to have students learn to read first in their native language. A second approach is to have students learn to read in both languages simultaneously. In some 90/10 dual language programs, a third approach to initial literacy is to teach all students to read first in the minority language and then add reading in English later. In these later programs, all students, including English speakers, would first learn to read in Spanish and add English reading in second or third grade.

Students have succeeded in becoming biliterate in schools that introduce reading in two languages from the beginning as well as in schools that teach reading first in the native language. In addition, in dual language programs English speakers who are taught to read first in Spanish do well in reading in both languages by fifth grade (Lindholm-Leary 2001).

From our understanding of reading, there is no strong preference for teaching reading in one language or two from the beginning. If, in fact, written language can be acquired in the same way as oral language, then students could be expected to learn to read in two languages simultaneously in the same way that children brought up in bilingual households develop the ability to speak and understand two or more languages at the same time. As long as teachers make the

written input comprehensible, students should be able to acquire the ability to read and write two or more languages at once. However, children could also acquire literacy in one language and then add a second language later.

Native English speakers who receive initial literacy instruction in Spanish in school often have been read to at home. Many of them come to school already at early stages of reading and writing development in English. As they learn to read in Spanish, they continue to receive support for English reading and writing at home. This pattern applies to many native English speakers and helps explain their success.

However, for Spanish speakers, in general, the same level of preschool support is not evident, and fewer of these students receive support for Spanish literacy at home. If these students are given initial literacy instruction in English, they may not learn to read in Spanish. An important study shows the value of having Spanish speakers begin to read and write in Spanish.

Edelsky (1986, 1989) conducted an extensive study of children's writing in Spanish. She analyzed the writing of twenty-six first-, second-, and third-grade bilingual children in a settled, semirural, migrant school. She described the purpose of the study:

The study was an effort of qualitative research in which a team of researchers analyzed more than 500 written pieces from three different classrooms for code switching, invented spelling, nonspelling conventions (punctuation, segmentation), stylistic devices, structural features (e.g., beginnings, ending, links between clauses), and quality of content, in order to note changes over time as well as to make cross-sectional comparisons. (1989, 166)

Edelsky's research has helped dispel myths about biliteracy and bilingual education. Perhaps the most important myth that the study dispelled was the myth that "to begin literacy acquisition in Spanish and then to add English leads to interference with English literacy" (1986, 73). Instead, Edelsky concluded, first language literacy supported the acquisition of literacy in English. When the students Edelsky studied wrote in English, they used what they knew about literacy in their first language, and Spanish did not interfere with their acquisition of English. In fact, students who can read and write in their first language transfer those skills to second language literacy (Cummins 2000).

Edelsky's study also showed that students need extensive exposure to a wide variety of literature and other texts in Spanish. Students produced their best writing when they wrote for authentic reasons to respond to real audiences. Edelsky's

study confirms many of the practices of effective bilingual teachers, and it provides important research support for teachers who are helping their bilingual students read and write in their first language.

In considering the language of initial instruction, it is important to consider the power of English. When schools introduce reading in both languages, English often gets more time and more emphasis. English language learners may conclude that their language, especially the written form, doesn't really count for much. On the other hand, the message a Spanish speaker gets when instruction is in Spanish is that Spanish is also an important language. English speakers do not ever get the message that their language is not valued. In the present political climate, it may be difficult for bilingual teachers to convince students that both Spanish and English are of equal value. Dual language programs try to develop true bilingualism and biliteracy. However, there is much resistance to any type of bilingual program in most of the country. A look at the politics of bilingual education provides important background to understand this resistance.



Political Influences on Bilingual Education

When the United States was being colonized and established in the 1600s and 1700s, bilingualism was accepted as natural. For example, Crawford (2004) explains that in 1664 at least eighteen tongues, not including Indian languages, were spoken on the island of Manhattan in the settlement in New York, and German-English schooling was common. In the first half of the eighteenth century, bilingualism was still in favor despite some efforts by President Thomas Jefferson and Congress to impose English-only policies on new colonies. Ohio established a law authorizing instruction in English, German, or both in 1839, and Louisiana followed suit with a law authorizing instruction in English, French, or both in 1847. In 1848 the Territory of New Mexico authorized Spanish-English bilingual education. In other parts of the country, local school boards allowed instruction in Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Italian, Polish, Dutch, and Czech.

By the late nineteenth century, opposition to the use of languages other than English for instruction in public schools surfaced. The rise of nativist groups such as the secret society, the American Protective Association (APA), “marked the beginning of a gradual decline for bilingual education” (Crawford 2004, 86). Xenophobia was clearly evident as “Italians, Jews and Slavs began to outnumber Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians in the immigrant stream” and the “appearance, manners, living habits, and speech of these groups attracted more public notice and comment—usually negative” (87).

When the United States entered World War I in 1917, anti-German sentiment led to language restrictionism, and laws were passed banning the use of German in schools, churches, public meetings, and even on the telephone. German teachers were reassigned to instructing children in Americanization and citizenship, and German textbooks were burned or sold as scrap paper. This fervor spilled over to other languages, and soon fifteen states legislated English as the basic language of instruction (Crawford 2004). By the mid-1930s bilingual instruction was “virtually eradicated throughout the United States” (90).

In recent history several legislative acts have shaped policy for the education of English language learners. The National Defense Education Act of 1958, which strengthened mathematics, science, and foreign language education, was a response to the Soviet Union’s launching of *Sputnik* and concern that the Soviets would win the space race. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) addressed the needs of poor children and thus affected the education of many bilingual students. In the late 1960s several politicians from Arizona and Texas were brought together by the National Education Association (NEA) to make the plight of Spanish-speaking children in schools known. This meeting gave birth to the bilingual movement. The 1968 Bilingual Education Act, also known as Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, eventually funded bilingual projects in schools and led to the mandating of bilingual education in some states, including Massachusetts, Texas, and California.

However, the civil rights and equal opportunity movements of the 1960s and the early 1970s came to an end as immigration waves and the growth of the Hispanic population led to an anti-immigrant sentiment. Bilingual education was criticized as causing divisiveness. Opponents of bilingual education claimed that teaching students in their native language was detrimental to their learning English and succeeding in school.

In 1983 immigration restriction activist John Tanton and retired politician S. I. Hayakawa founded U.S. English, an organization to promote English-only legislation in the country. Celebrities including Walter Cronkite and Arnold Schwarzenegger endorsed the concept. William J. Bennett, the U.S. secretary of education, called bilingual education a failure. In 1998 Proposition 227, English for the Children, which called for English immersion programs for Limited English Proficient (LEP) students, was adopted by California voters, and stricter versions, Proposition 203 and Question 2, were approved in Arizona and Massachusetts in 2000 and 2002, respectively. When the No Child Left Behind Act was passed in 2002, Title VII came to an end. The needs of English language learners were now put under Title III. OBEMLA, the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, in Washington, D.C., was eliminated and a new office, the Office

of English Language Acquisition (OELA), was established to reflect the position of the government toward the education of English learners.

This brief overview of policy shifts in the United States reveals that much of the opposition to bilingual education comes from an attitude of isolationism and a fear of immigrants. Even though decisions about instructing students in their native languages should be determined by looking carefully at educational research, most of the decisions have had little to do with the realities of school. Ron Unz, the author and promoter of the English-only propositions, for example, has refused to visit bilingual classes. He has no background in teaching and learning. And yet he has managed to establish policies that affect thousands of English language learners.



An Extended Example of English-Only Mandated Reading Instruction

Policy related to both bilingual education and reading has affected all students and especially English language learners. To demonstrate the effects of English-only instruction coupled with reading mandates, we offer a scenario from a California classroom. The teacher is bilingual, and many of the students speak Spanish, but this teacher teaches language arts in English, carefully following the mandates set out at federal, state, and school levels.

Guillermo's Teaching Background

Guillermo is a first-year teacher in a first-grade classroom in a large elementary school in Los Angeles. Of his thirty students, twenty-one are classified as LEP. Some of these English language learners are at the beginning stages of English language development, while others are at the intermediate or the advanced level. Guillermo's students come from a lower-middle-class neighborhood. The class includes students with various cultural backgrounds—Hispanics, African Americans, Korean Americans, and Anglos. In addition to being at different levels of English proficiency, Guillermo's students are also at different levels of reading proficiency, ranging from students who are not yet reading to a few students who can read first-grade materials comfortably.

Guillermo completed his teacher preparation at a state university. State universities received instructions from the state board of education to follow the guidelines laid out by the government-promoted document *Put Reading First: The Research Building Blocks for Teaching Children to Read* (Armbruster and Osborn

2001). During his reading and language arts methods class, his professors explained the five components of a research-based reading program: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Guillermo drew on the knowledge he gained in this class to pass the state-mandated test on how to teach reading. During his student teaching in a first-grade class, Guillermo's master teacher showed him how she taught reading. For the most part, she followed the lesson plans in the state-adopted textbook carefully. Each of her lessons included the five components Guillermo had studied. The master teacher made sure to give her English language learners extra work in the areas of phonemic awareness and phonics, fluency, and vocabulary, explaining that they were not yet ready to focus on comprehension.

Guillermo was hired to begin teaching the following year. In August, before classes started, Guillermo and the other teachers at his school were given a week-long inservice designed to help them implement the state-adopted textbook correctly. The facilitators assured the teachers that if they followed the scripted lessons carefully during the two and a half hours allocated for reading each day, all the students would learn to read. Guillermo felt confident as he began to teach. He had learned good classroom management skills during his student teaching. He had his plans for teaching reading laid out in the teacher's guide. All he needed to do was follow the plan and keep all the students actively engaged.

Guillermo's Weather Unit

Guillermo's reading textbook includes units that correlate with both the science and the social studies standards for grade one. A grade one standard for earth science is weather. Students are expected to know how to use tools such as a thermometer to measure weather conditions and record changes. The standards also call for students to understand that although the weather changes frequently, it is predictable during a season. In addition, students are expected to learn that the sun warms the land, the air, and water. These earth science standards include new academic vocabulary that Guillermo's students, especially his English language learners, need to learn.

Since much of the day is devoted to reading instruction, there is little time for either science or social studies. For that reason, Guillermo and the other teachers at his school try to cover science and social studies standards as they teach reading. The teachers are expected to concentrate on reading as the foundation of the content area studies. In addition, reading is what is directly tested.

The weather unit in the reading textbook includes several of the earth science standards related to weather. At the same time, this unit covers several of the

English language arts (ELA) standards (California Department of Education 1999) for grade one. The first reading standard states that by the end of first grade,

Students understand the basic features of reading. They select letter patterns and know how to translate them into spoken language by using phonics, syllabication, and word parts. They apply this knowledge to achieve fluent oral and silent reading. (6)

This standard outlines specific skills and knowledge in the areas of concepts about print, phonemic awareness, decoding and word recognition, and vocabulary and concept development.

The English language learners in Guillermo's class are also expected to meet the state English Language Development (ELD) standards (*English-Language Development Standards for California Public Schools Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* 1999), which specify the skills and knowledge students at different levels of English language proficiency are expected to meet. Each unit in the state-adopted textbook that Guillermo's school has chosen includes a section designed for English language learners. For the most part, these sections provide extra practice in phonemic awareness, phonics, decoding, and vocabulary. Although Guillermo feels somewhat overwhelmed by all the standards his students are expected to master, he is confident that the textbook includes stories and activities that will help him provide the instruction that all his students need.

Guillermo's Reading Lessons

Let's look closely at a lesson from the weather unit that Guillermo teaches in mid-September. We will point out both the ELA and the ELD standards that the different activities correspond to. Guillermo is bilingual, but his school does not provide bilingual education, so his reading instruction is given in English only.

On Monday, Guillermo introduces the big book that will serve as the basic text for the lessons during the unit. This is a fairly short decodable text of about twelve pages with a limited amount of text on each page. Decodable books include only words with phonics patterns or sight words that have been taught previously.

Guillermo asks the students to come and sit on the rug in front of an easel on which he has propped the big book. Following the teacher's guide, Guillermo reads the title of the book. He also reads the names of the author and the illustrator. He asks individual students to point to the title, the author, and the illustrator to be sure they understand these concepts. Knowing the title and the author is part of the concepts about print required for first graders. He points to the cover

illustration, showing a boy walking his dog in a park, and asks students, “What do you see here?”

“A boy,” calls out Ricardo.

“He’s outdoors and he’s walking his dog,” Ana adds.

“Very good,” Guillermo says. “This is a story about all the things this boy and his dog do together. Do any of you have a dog?”

“I do,” chorus several students.

Guillermo continues by asking individual students about their pets and what they like to do with them. In this way, he is able to connect the story to his students’ lives and build background knowledge for reading the story. He makes sure to introduce key words that might be difficult for students, such as *bark* and *jog*.

Next, he leafs through the book, asking students what they think is happening on each page. As he does this, he asks the questions from the teacher’s guide for each page. In doing so, he introduces additional vocabulary from the story, including the weather words, *cloudy*, *rainy*, *windy*, and *sunny*.

The students return to their seats after this picture walk through the story. At their desks they complete two worksheets designed to reinforce the vocabulary that Guillermo has introduced. The first worksheet highlights four weather words from the story in a box. Students draw a line from each word to a corresponding picture. For example, for *rainy*, students draw a line to a picture of the boy and his dog in the rain. The second worksheet has five words like *boy*, *dog*, and *park*. Students use these words to complete five sentences, writing one word in each blank. Since this is a more difficult task, Guillermo pairs his English language learners with native English speakers, as the guide suggests.

When the students have finished their worksheets, Guillermo goes over the answers with the students, writing the correct answers on transparencies that all the students can see. He asks students to correct any mistakes on their papers. Then he has the students turn in their work. He is pleased that most of his students were able to complete the worksheets either individually or with the help of their partner.

Guillermo then calls the students back to the rug. Once they are settled, he reads the big book to them. It tells about a boy and his dog. It shows the different activities they like to do. They like to walk in the park when it is cloudy. They like to play inside when it is rainy. They like to fly a kite when it is windy. And they like to go to the beach when it is sunny. The pages follow a pattern. For example, if the first line reads, “Ted and his dog like to walk in the park,” the second line continues, “They like to walk when it is cloudy.” On the facing page, the text reads, “They like to walk, but not when it’s snowy.” For each page with “not when it’s snowy,” there is a picture of Ted and his dog sitting inside, looking out the

window. The last page shows Ted and his dog, dressed in warm clothes, sliding down a snow-covered hill, with the line “Ted and his dog like to slide when it’s snowy. They like it a lot.”

The predictable pattern and the close text-to-picture match help all of Guillermo’s students follow the story. As he reads, Guillermo tracks the words with a pointer. In this way, he helps students develop the skill to meet the standard that calls for them to match oral words to printed words. He reads the story through twice as the students follow along. Then he asks them to return to their seats for individual work. First they complete a comprehension worksheet. It shows five pictures from the story. Students are asked to color the pictures, cut them out, and assemble them in order. Guillermo circulates around the class to help any students who are having trouble deciding on the order of events in the story. Sequence is one of the comprehension skills first graders are required to master. When all the students are finished, Guillermo collects their papers.

He then calls them back to the rug for a final reading of the story for the day. This time, he encourages students to chime in on words or lines as he reads them. He is pleased that several of the students are able to do this. When he reaches the last page, he asks them to predict what will happen next. Some students say that Ted and his dog will catch a cold. Others say they will come inside and drink something hot. Guillermo praises them for their good predictions. Predicting is an important skill for first graders. For the last activity during the reading time, Guillermo writes the word *weather* on the board. Then he turns the pages in the book and asks students to pick out words related to weather. Students are able to identify words like *sunny* and *windy*. This activity meets the vocabulary and concept development standard for classifying categories of words. It also meets the concepts about print standard for identifying words.

Over the next week, Guillermo continues with the weather unit. Each day he rereads the story. Then he has students complete additional activities. For example, one of the comprehension worksheets shows two pictures from the story. Students are asked to put an X through things in picture 2 that are different from picture 1. Some of Guillermo’s students are not familiar with this type of worksheet, so he has them work in pairs to complete it. A vocabulary worksheet has a sentence with a blank to fill in with the word *dog*. Students write *dog* and then look at a series of pictures on the worksheet. They are to circle the picture that does not have a dog. Then they color the dogs in the other pictures.

Although the students complete some vocabulary and comprehension activities, most of the worksheets and class exercises focus on phonemic awareness, phonics, and decoding. For example, Guillermo asks students to listen to the first

sound in *dog* and tell him the sound they hear. This meets the English language development standard for beginners that requires that they recognize English phonemes that correspond to phonemes they already hear in their primary language. Guillermo knows that *d* is a phoneme in Spanish, although he isn't sure whether his Korean students would know that sound. He also checks to see if his intermediate ELD students can meet the standard to distinguish initial, medial, and final sounds in single-syllable words. Several of his students can do this with *dog* and *Ted*, but other students seem confused, and Guillermo decides to give them additional practice with identifying phonemes in words.

The advanced ELD students are expected to meet the standard to use morphemes to derive meaning by dividing words into syllables. They have some trouble with the weather words. Some students think that *rainy* should be divided into *rai* and *ny* while others believe it should be *rain* and *y*. Is *windy win* and *dy* or *wind* and *y*? Guillermo, following the teacher's guide, helps them see that each of these words has a base and a suffix, so students can understand a word like *rainy* or *windy* by finding the base word. Still some students find this difficult because they pronounce the words as *rai ny* and *win dy*. Guillermo has some advanced students find the words in their picture dictionary, so they can confirm the right answer.

All through the week Guillermo works on having his students match the sounds they hear in words like *dog* with the corresponding alphabet letters. His reading textbook presents all the English phonemes in a sequence, and each lesson emphasizes certain phonemes. Guillermo wants to be sure that all his students master the phonemes for the lesson. In addition to the big book, which he reads again each day, Guillermo reads both stories and content books related to weather.

Guillermo also provides his students with leveled books related to the theme that they can read independently or with a partner. To determine their reading level he had given his students an assessment at the beginning of the year. He makes sure to match his students with appropriate books. The books are leveled following strict guidelines. The first level, for example, contains only about twenty-five words with sentences of three to six words. The sentences at this level follow a pattern, and one word changes for each sentence. The first-level books also have a precise picture-to-text match with realistic pictures. For each level, the number of words, words per sentence, and variety of sentences increase while the picture support decreases.

Students practice reading their leveled readers each day. While most of the students read independently or in pairs, Guillermo works with small groups to provide additional instruction and to conduct further assessments. He also checks

students' fluency. Each day, he asks five of his students to come to his desk one at a time. Each student reads a leveled book out loud. Guillermo times the reading and counts any errors the student makes. He charts their progress. Many of the students are proud of the progress shown on their fluency charts.

Guillermo and the students are very busy during reading time each day. They read together and separately and fill out worksheets. The students become accustomed to the routine and to the kinds of exercises the book requires. Although they are improving in their ability to complete the assignments, the students seem restless at times. Guillermo worries that they might not be enjoying their reading. They always like it when he introduces a new book, but by the end of the week, they seem somewhat bored when he reads it again and gives them another exercise to work on. He is a little concerned that the students who are less fluent in English seem completely lost when he gives them worksheets or tries to engage them in oral activities. Still, Guillermo is convinced that if he follows the teacher's guide carefully and steers all his students through each lesson, all of them will succeed.



Conclusion

Both Guillermo and Francisco were required to teach reading in English, following the state guidelines. However, these two teachers are very different. Based on his teacher preparation and his previous experience, Francisco knew that he was not providing the best instruction for his English language learners. As a result, he chose not to continue working in his district. Guillermo, in contrast, had never taught in a bilingual class. In addition, the method he was asked to use to teach reading matched what he had learned at the university. As a result, he interpreted the students' response to instruction as normal. He had no experience to show that things could be different. Consequently, he did not offer his students the best possible instruction. His students were learning to decode, but they were not focused on comprehension. They were able to function in English, but they were not developing their first language.

It is important for teachers to have the knowledge that allows them to evaluate methods they are asked to use to teach reading. In the following chapters we examine two different views of reading. We offer scenarios from bilingual and dual language classes to show how these views are realized in classroom practice. We believe that once teachers understand the difference between these two approaches to reading instruction, they can make informed choices about methods and provide the best possible instruction for all their students.



Applications

1. This chapter began with an extended example of Francisco's teaching journey. Look over his story again. What events or experiences that he had over the years were positive? Which were negative? Make two lists. Which of these specifically influenced Francisco's teaching of reading and/or writing?
2. Consider the experiences of teaching reading and writing that you have had over the past eight to ten years, or interview an experienced teacher to find out what his or her experiences have been. How has reading instruction changed? If your experience in teaching literacy has only been within the last four or five years, how do you see reading as being taught?
3. What are the key findings of Ramírez (1991), Thomas and Collier (1997), and Greene (1998) in relation to bilingual education? List and be prepared to discuss.
4. Thomas and Collier (1997) present two different prisms. One shows what students get in bilingual programs and the other, what students get in English-only programs. We used Francisco as an example of the English-only prism. Find an example of someone whose schooling fits into one of the prisms. Be prepared to describe how.
5. This chapter includes a discussion about the language of initial literacy instruction. What is your view? Explain.
6. Proposition 207 in California, Proposition 203 in Arizona, and Question 2 in Massachusetts are antibilingual legislative mandates. If you live in one of these states, list some of the results of the legislation that you have seen. If you do not live in one of those states, what do you think the chances are of such a measure passing in your state? Interview at least five people to get their view of bilingual education.
7. We ended the chapter with an extended example of Guillermo's teaching. What is your opinion of his lessons? What are some strengths? What would you do differently?



DEDICATED TO TEACHERS

Thank you for sampling this
resource.

For more information or to
purchase, please visit
Heinemann by clicking the link
below:

<http://www.heinemann.com/products/E00801.aspx>

Use of this material is solely for
individual, noncommercial use and is
for informational purposes only.