THE PROCESS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A DUAL LANGUAGE PROGRAM IN AN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN SOUTHWEST KANSAS

by

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Abstract

The primary aim of this thesis is to examine the appropriate procedures needed to implement a Two Way Bilingual Immersion (TWBI) Program designed for an elementary school from grades K-4 and to make recommendations related to that process.

Section I begins with an introduction to bilingual education and the different types of BE programs in the United States. It also examines the growth of these programs throughout the United States in recent years.

Section II presents a general introduction to the characteristics and advantages of a TWBI program over other types of BE. The advantages and strategies presented here are intended to help teachers better understand the importance of using daily repetition of routine phrases, songs, and poems in their instruction, and the benefits to students in their overall academic progress as well. It also discusses the importance of language variation.

Section III explores the implementation of a TWBI program in public schools. It highlights the importance of the selection of students, parental and community involvement, staff development and curriculum development. All of these factors are essential to having an effective program.
Section IV presents a description of a specific TWBI program implemented in an elementary school in southwest Kansas. This section highlights many of the same components mentioned in Sections I-III as they apply to those being implemented in this specific school. This process can serve as a model for other schools interested in the implementation of a TWBI Program.

Section V presents an explanation of second language acquisition and some of the advantages of learning a second language in a communicative classroom.

Section VI presents my evaluation of five math and five reading activities used in a kindergarten class based on second-language acquisition theory. I also make some recommendations for pre and post activities, which can be used to activate the students’ schemata and check for comprehension.
# Table of Contents

List of Figures .................................................................................................................. v  
List of Tables..................................................................................................................... vi  
SECTION I: INTRODUCTION ....................................................................................... 1  
  Bilingual Education........................................................................................................ 2  
  Bilingual Education Models.......................................................................................... 5  
SECTION II: SUCCESS OF TWB PROGRAMS ............................................................. 9  
SECTION III: PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTATION ....................................................... 16  
  Parental and Community Involvement.......................................................................... 17  
  Staff Development ....................................................................................................... 20  
  Curriculum Development............................................................................................... 21  
SECTION IV: BUFFALO JONES ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ........................................ 23  
  Process of Implementation of Dual Language .............................................................. 23  
  Parent and Community Involvement ........................................................................... 26  
  Teacher Preparation ...................................................................................................... 27  
  Curriculum Development............................................................................................... 28  
  Success of Program ...................................................................................................... 31  
SECTION V: SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION ................................................. 32  
SECTION VI: EVALUATION AND RECOMMENDATION ...................................... 42  
Conclusion......................................................................................................................... 63  
Works Cited ....................................................................................................................... 66  
Appendix A: Initial Letter to Parents ............................................................................ 69  
Appendix B: Parent Contract ......................................................................................... 71  
Appendix C: Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Program (TWBI) ..................................... 72  
Appendix D: Language groups ....................................................................................... 73
List of Figures

Figure 1. English Language Achievement across Program Models ............................................. 15
Figure 2. Activity 1 from Harcourt Matemáticas ......................................................................... 44
Figure 3. Activity 2 from Harcourt Matemáticas ......................................................................... 47
Figure 4. Activity 3 from Harcourt Matemáticas ......................................................................... 50
Figure 5. Activity 4 from Harcourt Matemáticas ......................................................................... 53
Figure 6. Activity 5 from Harcourt Matemáticas ......................................................................... 56
Figure 7. Activity 6 from Houghton Mifflin ............................................................................... 58
Figure 8. Activity 7 from Houghton Mifflin ............................................................................... 61
List of Tables

Table 1. Stages of language development................................................................. 38
Table 2. Language groups with organization of instruction by language .................. 73
SECTION I: INTRODUCTION

In order to understand the complexity of the implementation of a two-way immersion (TWI) program, one must first consider data on the types of programs, which have been studied. According to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) there are 266 Dual Language programs in the U.S., with numerous decisions to be made before a school chooses a program model. Furthermore, the impetus for developing a two-way immersion program can come from a variety of sources: parents, teachers, administrators, or research partners. Schools that are interested in implementing a two-way immersion model usually begin by collecting information about the model through research centers such as the Center for Applied Linguistics, as well as through schools that currently have such programs in operation (2002).

There are several different versions of the dual-language model. To date, research on which dual-language model provides the greatest academic gains is inconclusive. One model within dual-language instruction, second-language immersion, may begin as early as kindergarten or as late as high school. These second-language immersion programs attempt to instruct non-native children in the L2 in at least 50% of the curriculum (Cloud, Genesse, & Hamayan, 2000).

In the United States, two-way immersion (TWBI) is an educational approach that integrates native English speakers and native speakers of another language (usually Spanish) for content and literacy instruction in both languages. Two-way immersion education has been in existence in the United States for nearly forty years, with
documented early programs such as Ecole Bilingue, a French/English Program in Massachusetts, and Coral Way, a Spanish/English program in Florida. The growth in popularity of the two-way model, however, is a more recent phenomenon. During the first twenty years, the number of new programs remained relatively low, with only thirty known programs in the mid-1980s (Howard, Christian & Sugarman, 2003). Over the past fifteen years, however, the number of programs has risen much more rapidly.

**Bilingual Education**

Bilingual education has been around for centuries. To get beyond the myths about BE, researchers have explored the facts to convert these myths into realities. The following information includes some historical facts, advantages and definitions of bilingual education to clarify some of the misconceptions and misunderstandings of the past.

According to Brisk, bilingual education dates from 3000 B.C., when scribes in Mesopotamia were taught in both Sumerian and Akkadian. The specific languages used in bilingual programs have changed over time in different countries, but the rationale for bilingual education has not changed much. BE is employed either for educational enrichment or to address the needs of a nation’s multilingual student body or population. Educational systems and families often create BE programs to promote fluency in a second language that enjoys prestige or economic value. Multilingual nations, mass migrations, colonization, the official status of languages, and concerns for language minorities also call for BE. The paradox of BE is that when it is employed for the enrichment of majority students, it is accepted as educationally valid. However,
when public schools in the United States implemented BE for language minority students over the past fifty years, BE became highly controversial (2006).

In the United States, The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 marked a new outlook toward Americans whose mother tongue is not English. Previously in our history, minority languages had been accommodated at certain times, repressed at others. Most often, they had been ignored. The assumption was, and is, that non-English speakers would naturally come to see the advantages of adopting the majority language as their own (Crawford, 1999).

To better demonstrate the importance of BE, US Secretary of Education Richard Riley stated: “This is why I am delighted to see and highlight the growth and promise of so many dual-language bilingual programs across the country. They are challenging young people with high standards, high expectations, and curriculum in two languages. They are the wave of the future ... our nation needs to encourage more of these kinds of learning opportunities, in many different languages. That is why I am challenging our nation to increase the number of dual-language schools to at least 1,000 over the next five years, and with strong federal, state and local support we can have many more” (cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

Furthermore, the Bush administration has affirmed the value of foreign language fluency; it has finally recognized the vital role of international education in the security of the nation, something the higher education community has known for years. It is no secret that it was a blunder to neglect the necessity of linguistic and cultural understanding before sending troops into Afghanistan and Iraq. Our forces found
themselves unable to communicate with the civilian populations and were unfamiliar with their cultural values and expectations, leading to misunderstanding and animosity (Jenkings 2006).

According to Antunez and Zelasko, the following are some advantages of being bilingual:

• Throughout the world, knowing more than one language is the norm, not the exception. It is estimated that between half and two-thirds of the world’s population is bilingual; the majority of people live in situations where they regularly use two or more languages.

• Knowing more than one language, therefore, is a skill to be valued and encouraged. Research shows that continuing to develop a child’s native language does not interfere with the acquisition of English – it facilitates the process!

The child who knows more than one language has personal, social, cognitive, and economic advantages which will continue throughout his/her life.

• **Intellectual:** Students need uninterrupted intellectual development. When students who are not yet fluent in English switch to using only English, they are forced to function at an intellectual level below their age. The best way to ensure academic success and intellectual development is for parents and children to use the language they know best with each other.

Additionally, research shows that knowing more than one language increases a person’s thinking abilities. Bilingual children have greater mental
flexibility and use those skills to their advantage in figuring out math concepts as solving word problems, critical thinking skills and higher-level cognitive skills.

- **Educational:** Students who learn English and continue to develop their native language do better in school and learn English better, than do students who learn English at the expense of their first language.

- **Personal:** A child’s first language is critical to his or her identity. Continuing to develop this language helps the child value his or her culture and heritage, contributing to a positive self-concept. This in turn helps students learn about other cultures.

- **Social:** When the native language is maintained, important links to family and other community members are preserved and enhanced. By encouraging native language use, our society can prepare the child to interact with his/her extended family and the native language community, both in the U.S. and throughout the world.

- **Economic:** The demand for bilingual employees throughout the world is increasing. The ability to speak, read, and write two or more languages is a great advantage in the job market (2000).

**Bilingual Education Models**

The most common types of BE instruction approaches are known as Two-way Bilingual programs, Maintenance Bilingual programs, and Transitional Bilingual programs. Two-way (Development) Bilingual programs consist of native English speaking, Limited English Proficient (LEP) and Fluent (but non-native) English Speakers
(FES) students who are all taught together in the same bilingual class, though instruction delivery varies. LEP and FES students tend to experience the most success in Two-Way Bilingual programs. Maintenance (Late Exit) Bilingual programs consist of teaching a half day in each language, typically in Grades K-6. Transitional (Early Exit) Bilingual programs consist of teaching half the day in each language with the gradual transition into the all English classroom (mainstreamed in two to three years). Transitional Bilingual programs are typically used in schools where there are a large number of students who speak the same language: Spanish, Korean, Vietnamese (Thomas & Collier, 1995).

Espino Calderón and Minaya-Rowe describe a TWBI program as a BE program that integrates second-language learners (SLLs)—that is, English learners and English-speaking students—for instruction in and through two languages. For native English learners, the first language (L1) is their native language (e.g., Spanish, Chinese, French, Korean, Navajo), and the second language (L2) is English. For English speakers, their L1 is English and their L2 may be Spanish, French, Russian and so forth. This program provides language, literacy, and content area instruction to all its students in both languages. TWBI programs are also known as two-way immersion, bilingual immersion, dual-language immersion, developmental bilingual education, dual-language education programs, and two-way programs (2003).

The Center for Applied Linguistics has documented the growth of TWBI programs in the United States. As of 2001, there were 260 programs in 23 states, and the majority
of these programs—more than two-thirds—use English and Spanish (cited in, Espino Calderon and Minaya-Rowe, 2002).

Academic, linguistic, and affective goals are at the core of TWB programs. Another goal of these programs is to eliminate the isolation of English learners from native English speakers by providing them with a rich English-language environment and by supporting their academic learning without risking their native-language development, language maintenance, or academic achievement. On the other hand, English speakers are given the opportunity to learn a second language with native-speaking peer models (Espino Calderón and Minaya-Rowe, 2003)

BE programs may be designed to serve national origin minority students or language majority students, or they may be combined to serve the first- and second-language development needs of both sets of students simultaneously. “The major building blocks of programs for both sets of students include instruction designed to teach the target language, instruction in various subjects that uses the target or the home language or both languages as the medium of instruction; and opportunities for the continued development of home-language skills” (Feinberg Castro, 2003).

For these reasons two-way programs are also called two-way maintenance bilingual education, two-way immersion, and dual language programs. These programs serve language minority and majority children simultaneously in order to develop fluency in the heritage language of the minority students and the societal language. They encourage socialization between the two groups of students and respect for the other’s cultural backgrounds. Programs vary in the amount each language is used, the
subjects taught in each language, and the respective emphases of each language and pedagogical approach. Programs differ with respect to initial use of the heritage language and English. Some begin with 90% use of the minority language; others with 80%, and still yet others divide both languages throughout the students’ schooling equally. In the first two models, instruction in English increases with each grade until half of the education is done in each language. Though the majority of two-way programs in the United States are in Spanish and English, programs also exist in Cantonese, Korean, Navajo, Japanese, Russian, Portuguese, and French (Brisk, 2006).
SECTION II: SUCCESS OF TWB PROGRAMS

Two-way bilingual immersion education in the United States has been developed on the theoretical models of the Canadian immersion programs implemented there in the 1960s and 1970s. Studies of immersion programs demonstrated majority language groups performed at high levels of second language proficiency while maintaining their home language. Additionally, their academic achievement was at grade level or better when compared to their peers. The success of these programs made the models attractive as alternatives to transitional bilingual education programs in the United States. Furthermore, studies of two-way bilingual immersion education found that students’ academic achievement, including English language development, was equal to or exceeded that of their peers in transitional bilingual or mainstream classrooms. Though these achievement results varied according to the program type, school environment characteristics, and student background factors, taken together, they indicate a positive trend in student academic achievement and attainment of bilingualism (Pérez, 2004).

To ensure the academic and social success of native English-speaking students, their teachers used multiple “environmental scaffolds” in both teacher-directed instruction and child-initiated play and interactions. Environmental scaffolds at the classroom level included: adherence to daily routines and schedules; the daily repetition of routine phrases, songs, and poems; daily activities such as changing the date on the calendar and relevant information (i.e., repetition of vocabulary); the teacher’s use of
gestures, pictures, and toys to reinforce new vocabulary; and modeling of verbal responses by native Spanish-speaking students (Espino Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003).

Additionally, connecting language to a life context is a key factor in successful language education. In the United States, programs that immerse both groups of students in one language for a period of time and then accompany the switch to a second language with clear differences in context--such as the day of the week or the academic content being studied--have been the most successful in terms of long-term language proficiency gains (Hadi-Tabassum, 2006).

Positive results have been reported in evaluations of dual language immersion programs. Actually, dual language immersion is proving to be the most inclusive approach in terms of students, languages, culture and literacy. These programs have tremendous potential for increasing the academic achievement and second language acquisition of mainstream and language minority students alike. These programs have many variations. Some offer mornings in English and afternoons in Spanish, others alternate days in one language and then the other, some even alternate semesters. Administrators work to ensure that approximately half of the students enrolled in these programs are native English speakers and the other half native speakers of a non-English language--in this case, Spanish (Jiménez, 2002).

Additionally, according to Pérez, “studies of two-way bilingual immersion education found that students’ academic achievement, including English language development, was equal to or exceeded that of their peers in transitional bilingual or mainstream classrooms. Though these achievement results varied according to the
program type, school characteristics, and student background factors, taken together, they indicate a positive trend in student academic achievement and attainment of bilingualism” (2004).

Dual language programs that continue into the middle and high school years avoid the problems of many transitional bilingual education programs--i.e., the tragic loss of communicative and literate abilities in the student's native language--and foster more complex literacy including bi-literacy (Jiménez, 2002).

According to Lightbown and Spada, many children, perhaps the majority of children in the world are exposed to more than one language in early childhood. Children who hear more than one language virtually from birth are sometimes referred to as ‘simultaneous bilinguals’, whereas those who begin to learn a second language later are referred to as ‘sequential bilinguals’. There is a considerable body of research on the ability of young children to learn more than one language in their earliest years. The evidence suggests that, when simultaneous bilinguals are in contact with both languages in a variety of settings, there is every reason to expect that they will progress in their development of both languages at a rate and in a manner which are not different from those of monolingual children. Naturally, when children go on to have schooling in only one of those languages, there may be considerable differences in the amount of metalinguistic knowledge they develop and in the type and extent of the vocabulary they eventually acquire in the two languages. Nevertheless, there seems to be little support for the myth that learning more than one language in early childhood slows down the child’s linguistic or cognitive development (1999).
Furthermore, there may be reason to be concerned about situations where children are virtually cut off from their family language when they are immersed in a second language for long periods in early schooling or day care. In such cases, children may begin to lose the family language before they have developed an age-appropriate mastery of the new language. This is referred to as *subtractive bilingualism*, and it can have serious negative consequences for children from minority groups. In some cases, children seem to continue to be caught between two languages: not having mastered the second language, they have not continued to develop the first. Unfortunately, the ‘solution’ which educators often propose to parents is that they should stop speaking the family language at home and concentrate instead on speaking the majority language with their children. The evidence seems to suggest that the opposite would be more effective. That is, parents who themselves are learners of the majority language should continue to use the language which is more comfortable for them. The children may eventually prefer to answer in the majority language, but at least they will maintain their comprehension of their family language. This also permits the parents to express their knowledge and ideas in ways that are likely to be richer and more elaborate than they can manage in their second language (Lightbown and Spada 1999).

On the other hand, according to Hadi-Tabassum, successful bilingual education models separate the two languages involved into distinct systems rather than use the languages intermittently throughout daily classroom instruction. The dual language immersion model has students process and acquire skills equally in both languages and generally uses both languages in all curriculum areas, but not at the same time.
Research shows that both majority and minority language students in such programs score at high levels on standardized language tests in both languages and outperform their monolingual peers academically by the time they reach 5th grade. Comparing monolingual students and students in dual language programs, Collier concluded that learning a second language does not interfere with acquiring subject-area knowledge or with maintaining one's first language, but rather enhances them (2005).

According to White Soltero, studies of the effectiveness of dual language education have been well documented outside the United States, especially in Canada. In the United States, there has been a recent increase in empirical research conducted on the effectiveness of dual language education. The following section presents the most current and compelling empirical research on the effectiveness of dual language education on academic and language achievement for language minority and majority students (2004).

In their most recent study on program models for linguistically and culturally diverse students in the United States, Thomas and Collier (2002) analyzed English language learners’ academic achievement in grades K-12 from 1996-2001, using national standardized tests in English to measure academic achievement in five urban and rural districts. They focused on academic outcomes in six program models in which minority language students participate: 90-10 total immersion dual language; 50-50 partial immersion dual language; 90-10 developmental bilingual education; 50-50 transitional bilingual education; content-based ESL; and immersion. They analyzed 210,054 student
records representing eighty primary languages, although in three of the five districts the focus was on the largest linguistic group—Spanish speakers (2004).

Furthermore, Thomas and Collier found that English language learners who participated in dual language education outperformed comparable monolingually schooled students in academic achievement after four to seven years in the program, even monolingual native speakers of English. Students who received dual language instruction for at least five years reached the 50th percentile on the reading standardized tests by fifth or sixth grade and maintained this level of performance in subsequent grades. The authors propose that, in order for students to achieve grade level competencies, they must receive at least four years of schooling in the native language and at least four years of schooling in the second language. The study also examined native English speakers’ achievement in dual language programs. The results indicate that majority language students in dual language programs maintained their English, acquired a second language, and achieved well above the 50th percentile in all subject areas on norm-referenced tests in English (cited in White Soltero, 2004).

White Soltero explains that in their previous cross-sectional and longitudinal study conducted from 1982 to 1996, Thomas and Collier (1997) had examined more than 700,000 student records in five large U.S. school systems to analyze the effect of school programs and instructional variables on the long-term academic achievement of English language learners. They evaluated five program models for language minority children: dual language; late-exit with content-based ESL; early-exit with traditional ESL; pull-out content-based ESL; and pull-out traditional ESL. In ESL pull-out programs the
students are pulled from the mainstream classroom and an ESL teacher works with them individually or in groups. They found that by the sixth grade, students in dual language and late-exit programs were ahead in English achievement compared to students in early-exit, ESL pull-out programs or traditional ESL. Furthermore, achievement in English language standardized tests for students in dual language and late-exit programs was close to those of native English speakers (around the 50th percentile). Students in early exit and ESL pull-out programs scored around the 30th percentile on the same tests. By 11th grade, students in dual language programs scored above the average level for native English speakers on standardized tests in English compared to English language learners in the other programs (2004).

**Figure 1. English Language Achievement across Program Models**

**FIGURE 1.3 English Language Achievement across Program Models**

- Dual Language
- Late-Exit
- Early-Exit
- ESL

ELL student achievement in English language standardized tests in grade 11 according to program model (Thomas & Collier, 1997).
SECTION III: PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTATION

A number of sources have highlighted the key issues involved in effective implementation of elementary TWI programs, including student population, program design, school environment, staffing, and instructional strategies. The student population of TWI programs must include both native English speakers and native speakers of a single minority language. The two groups of students should be fairly well balanced, with each making up approximately half of the student population at each grade, and with neither group falling below one-third of the total class number at any grade level. The school environment should maintain high academic expectations for all students, encourage parental involvement, and demonstrate clear support for bilingualism and multiculturalism. Staffing in TWBI programs is crucial, in particular the need to have certified teachers who have additional certifications in bilingual and/or ESL instruction who are familiar with issues of second language learning and bilingualism. Finally, instructional strategies that promote language development, interaction, and mastery of academic concepts should be employed, such as cooperative learning, hands-on activities, thematic units, separation of languages, and sheltered English instruction, which is an approach intended to make instruction in English comprehensible for English Language Learners. Students learn English in an environment “sheltered” from native English speakers. Some of the methods employed by the teacher include: use of visuals, gestures, repetition, and frequent comprehension checks (Christian, Howard, & Sugarman, 2003).
Parental and Community Involvement

For dual language programs to work at their highest potential, parent involvement must be viewed by both families and schools as one of the most fundamental components of implementation. Beyond having a good conception of the program’s basic goals, organizational structures, and pedagogical practices, parents must have a clear understanding about their own critical roles in supporting their children’s linguistic, academic, and sociocultural developments. However, educators must be cautious about traditional definitions of parent involvement and the assumptions that are implicit for students and families from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. Mainstream views of parent involvement commonly include such practices as attending school functions, volunteering, supporting children’s linguistic and academic development by assisting with homework and by reading and providing other enriching opportunities for learning. Parents from diverse backgrounds are sometimes either not familiar or not comfortable with these conventional forms of parental involvement. Thus, schools must take into account the varied ways in which parents can contribute to their children’s education (White Soltero, 2004).

The following considerations from research and recommendations have proven to be successful and apply to parental involvement in all programs, but they also have implications for TWBI programs.

- Promote and maintain parent involvement across grade levels, from pre-K through high school.
All TWBI program teachers at each grade level need to make continuous use of parent involvement activities at home. This is important because studies indicate that teachers of first-grade students make more frequent use of parent involvement in activities at home than do teachers of third- and fifth-grade students.

TWBI parents need to be provided with detailed strategies of parent involvement activities at home at all grade levels, in both language and content areas. This is an important consideration because studies indicate that parents receive fewer ideas from teachers in the upper elementary grades and feel less capable of helping their older children in reading and math activities at home. The trend worsens at the middle and high school levels where parents might feel more reluctant to be involved.

- Involve and work with all types of families, regardless of the parent/family composition.

Families have changed; more children come to school from single-parent homes than even before. However, the idea is to include both single and married parents, as they can be equally interested in helping their children with learning activities at home.

TWB programs can obtain good results with all parents—not just those who are traditionally thought to be helpful to teachers and
children. Programs need to work with parents from less or more educated backgrounds, who may be employed or unemployed, who are teenage or young parents, and who are from diverse language and cultural backgrounds.

Regardless of their family arrangements or characteristics, almost all parents care about their children’s progress in school and want to know how they can assist their children.

Consequently, all TWB program families can be informed and productively be involved in their children’s education, regardless of family structure (Espino Calderon and Minaya-Rowe 2003).

White Soltero adds that schools should be responsible for providing information and resources that can facilitate parents’ support of their children’s educational progress in dual language programs. Often, parents who are monolingual or dominant in one language become concerned that they are incapable of helping their children in the second language. Educators must stress to parents the importance of continuing support for their children in the language of the home, and provide assistance for supporting the second language through such activities as second language parent classes, after-school homework sessions, reading clubs in the second language, and computer language programs (2004).

Furthermore, TWBI program parents have a key role in their children’s achievement and can also participate as a group to have a voice in the program’s and the school’s decision making process. This would particularly apply to parents of English
learners who may not be familiar with the school’s expectations of parent involvement outside of their homes. See Appendices A-C for examples of letters sent out to parents (Espino Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003).

**Staff Development**

Many K-4 TEACHERS feel at a loss when it comes to teaching their English language learners (ELLs). In spite of the growing linguistic diversity in U.S. classrooms, teachers in general are not being adequately prepared to work with students from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Reagan (1997) and Zeichner (2002), among others, discuss the urgency of providing some training in applied linguistics in teacher education programs. Several scholars have responded to this need, sharing their knowledge and offering advice regarding working with ELLs. For example, Fillmore and Snow (2000) and Reagan (1997) outline the background knowledge teachers need in areas such as language and linguistics, language development, second language acquisition, cultural diversity, and sociolinguistics (Curran, 2004).

Furthermore, teachers and administrators who wish to be effective with Latino students should also obtain relevant professional development. This development typically involves completion of coursework, as well as relevant professional experience in second language acquisition, English as a second language, multicultural education, and bilingual education (Curran, 2004).

Educators who are effective with Latino students recognize the long-term nature of second language acquisition, particularly literacy and identity development.
Monolingual individuals typically underestimate the amount of time necessary to become fluent in a second language and culture, particularly with respect to literacy. Research (Collier, 1987; Thomas & Collier, 1996) suggests that students may attain full grade level proficiency within as few as two years but also might require as many as eight years, depending on factors such as age upon arrival to the United States and previous academic achievement in their country of origin. Overall, however, the attainment of age-appropriate, grade level achievement in a second language is typically a 4- to 5-year process (Jiménez, 2002).

Ongoing professional development opportunities are needed for all staff members who work with Latino students as well. High quality professionally derived information concerning the academic achievement of Latino student has to be made available to teachers and other professionals working with these students. These opportunities can be created through cooperative agreements with local universities (Jiménez 2002).

Opportunities to observe effective sheltered English teachers (teachers with Non English Speaking Students only), content-based ESL teachers, bilingual teachers, and general education teachers can make good practice models available to novice teachers and others who wish to improve their practice (Jiménez, 2002).

**Curriculum Development**

According to Fife, educators should pay attention to the content of instruction. The instruction given in the early grades requires critical choices about which early literacy skills to teach. The NRC and National Reading panel indicate several core skills
to incorporate into program design and execution: identifying initial sounds in words, rhyming, developing print awareness, recognizing and producing the letters of the alphabet in isolation, associating sounds with letters, sharing guided reading opportunities, and incorporating blending skills into early word recognition and phonics. Proficiency in letter knowledge and phonological awareness are particularly useful for educators, as these skills have been shown to serve as predictors of reading success in the later years (2006).

Further, research indicates that another essential factor for educators to consider when designing and implementing an instructional model for literacy is the transfer of core skills from one language to another. Even early readers use knowledge of their native language as they read in a second language. In Two Way Bilingual Programs, many of the literacy skills taught in the language of origin transfer to the second language. Students with little or no familiarity with a second language can transfer such skills from their native language such as isolating initial sounds, phonological awareness, spelling, word recognition, oral discourse, and writing (Fife, 2006).
SECTION IV: BUFFALO JONES ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Buffalo Jones Elementary was built in 1917 on the corner of Taylor and Elm streets in Garden City, Kansas. At that time, it was named West Ward. The school was located on the homestead of Charles Jesse "Buffalo" Jones, one of Garden City’s founding fathers. In 1934, wings were added onto the main building to expand the school. Army barracks were moved to the school in 1952 to house the increasing population. The new school was completed in 1958 and was named Jones School. Mrs. Jennie Wilson took over the reins as principal. In 1972, the school was renamed Buffalo Jones Elementary School. This school was renovated in 1994 to improve the building and to add classrooms. This eliminated the need for the barracks and trailers.

There are 349 students in the school (Pre-K-4th grade). 95% of the students are classified as minority and 63% are English Language Learners (ELLs) with 80% of these students qualifying for free and reduced lunch. To formally address these challenges, the faculty, staff, and parents have agreed that Dual Language will enhance the educational experience for native English speakers and ELLs alike.

Process of Implementation of Dual Language

According to Mrs. Rafaela Solis, the Principal of Buffalo Jones Elementary School, “the school started the initiative to implement the Dual Language Program in the 2004-2005 school year by doing book studies, attending in-services, visiting Dual Language schools and, most importantly, doing research on Dual Language (DL). The idea for the program emerged from staff members at Buffalo Jones who thought it would help all
students perform better on state assessments while also helping them to be “bilingual, biliterate and biculturally aware.” With help from the Assistant Superintendent, a committee of two administrators and eight teachers researched the concept and applied for a federal grant.

This school received a CLASS ACT (Compact Bi-Literacy Acquisition through Scientifically-based Systemic ACTions) federal grant in October of 2006, which allows the school to provide instruction in both English and Spanish for all students. This grant helped to create a Bilingual Education (BE) program, which replaced the Sustained Native Program that was in place for Spanish Native Speakers only. Native English speaking students were placed in the “English track” and received no foreign language instruction. Spanish-speaking students were mostly segregated from native English speakers.

The BE program is for all students to become proficient in English and in Spanish and to become academically competent students in both languages by providing literacy instruction in their native language and other content subjects in Spanish and English at the beginning of kindergarten with the 50/50 model in all content areas. The $438,141, three-year Foreign Language Assistance Program grant from the U.S. Department of Education is helping to cover class materials and to provide staff training, such as a Spanish-language institute for teachers that took place in the summer of 2007, Rosetta Stone software to further individualize mediated Spanish training, and school visits to, school districts in Wichita and New Mexico, that have Dual Language programs.
The main goal of the CLASS ACT grant is for all students to develop high level of proficiency in their first and second language. By the end of 1st grade, students who have participated 80% of the time in the program since kindergarten and who have completed both pre and post-testing cycles, will perform at or above grade level in English and Spanish. Students will also demonstrate positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors and high levels of self-esteem as evidenced by teacher anecdotal records, fewer discipline referrals, and increased numbers of cross-cultural friendships.

Buffalo Jones staff implemented the program for the 2007-2008-kindergarten class and will expand it by one grade level every year until it is in place for the whole school. Students in the program will receive half of their instruction in English and the other half in Spanish; they are using the 50/50 model.

According to Ms. Ibarra, one of the kindergarten teachers, their days alternate, so if they receive science instruction in English on Monday, they learn the next science lesson in Spanish on Tuesday. But lessons are not repeated, only reviewed as part of the next lesson to prevent translations. When translation occurs, students seem to disregard the instruction in the second language and wait for the instruction to be repeated in their first language.

The federal No Child Left Behind Act requires that students take state assessments, which are written in English, after they have been in the country for more than a year. With Buffalo Jones’ current program, in which Spanish speakers receive much of their instruction in their native language at the start, succeeding on a test written
in English has been difficult at the early grade levels. The DL Program will better prepare students for these types of tests.

**Parent and Community Involvement**

Mainstream views of parent involvement commonly include such practices as attending school functions, volunteering, supporting children’s linguistic and academic development by assisting with homework, and by reading and providing other enriching opportunities for learning. During the spring of 2007 teachers and administrators from BJ Elementary School conducted several meetings with parents, the Board of Education, the Chamber of Commerce, and the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC). These meetings helped to answer many questions and concerns. For example, the biggest parents’ concern was the fear that children would be confused by using two languages and that they would not adequately develop their English language proficiency. Teachers provided research-based information to parents and also, on a regular basis, communicated with them about what was taking place in the classroom (Appendix A).

To make these parent meetings more convenient, the school provided day care each time they met. The parents were skeptical at first, but after having their questions answered they seem to agree that this type of program would be beneficial for them and their children. Parents were also informed about the DL program through monthly newsletters, radio announcements and a website that was created by the school.

According to White Soltero, beyond having a good conception of the program’s basic goals, organizational structures, and pedagogical practices, parents must have a
clear understanding about their own critical roles in supporting their children’s linguistic, academic, and socio-cultural developments. However, educators must be cautious about traditional definitions of parental involvement and the assumptions that are implicit for students and families from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds (2004).

According to Solis, the parents of BJ agreed to send their children to this school for the duration of the BE Program. They were asked to sign a letter of commitment and consent agreeing not to take their children out of this school unless it did not meet AYP for two consecutive years, then the parents would be given the option. If the school did not have enough students enrolled from the students in the area, they were planning on bussing students who were interested in participating from around the district. This was not necessary; enough parents from the area agreed to send their children to this school because they felt they were well enough informed about the advantages this program had to offer for them and their children as indicated in the signed letter of commitment.

Based on my observation, BJ has done a tremendous job of communicating with parents. This school has a lot of material in both languages and parents are able to help with some homework activities because the activities are in the parents’ native language. I provide some examples of some activities in Spanish at the end of this thesis.

**Teacher Preparation**

Project staff, along with key staff, participated in a Summer Foreign Language Academy in 2007, which provided them with opportunities to experience second
language learning personally. The staff members also practiced second language instruction techniques with non-English speakers, while the Spanish speakers practiced instruction techniques on English speakers. This provided a linking opportunity for all adults, who continued interacting with each other throughout the school year through refresher academies and BJ classroom interactions. For those teachers who provide instruction in English who are not also bilingual, the Summer Spanish Academy will be followed up with the use of Rosetta Stone language software during the school year to increase their receptive Spanish, which is necessary in a successful dual language program.

According to White Soltero, the most important aspect of any program is teacher preparation related to pedagogical and theoretical constructs of bilingualism and second language acquisition. “Professional development for new dual language teachers should extend beyond programmatic organizational features to include first and second language acquisition theory and pedagogy, first and second language literacy development and instructional practices, multicultural curricular considerations, transactional whole-to-part teaching methods, and authentic assessment techniques” (2004). The next section describes how BJES is meeting these criteria.

Curriculum Development

The staff followed the guidelines provided by the Kansas State Board of Education closely. These standards and indicators are a step-by-step process that the teacher must follow in order to be effective and help his/her students and school meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP).
According to the State Board of Education, under the accountability provisions in the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act, all public schools campuses, school districts, and the state are required to meet AYP criteria on three measures: Reading/Language Arts, Mathematics, and either Graduation Rate (for high schools and districts) or Attendance Rate (for elementary and middle/junior high schools). If a campus, district, or state that is receiving Title I, Part A funds fails to meet AYP for two consecutive years, that campus, district, or state is subject to certain requirements such as offering supplemental education services, offering school choice, and/or taking corrective actions (2004).

The teachers will also be aligning their curriculum to the following indicators:

• District benchmarks and goals
• The Kansas State standards and indicators
• Reading First Requirements
• North Central Association (NCA) Interventions. A commission on Accreditation and School Improvement
• Project CLASS ACT
• Core Curriculum Requirements

The program utilizes a theme-based curriculum following the Houghton Mufflin Reading Series in English and Spanish that interrelates all content areas, incorporating cooperative learning, problem solving and bi-cultural perspectives. Instructional time is divided 50/50 between English and Spanish.
The teachers meet twice a week to plan their instruction together. This school has three classrooms per grade level, therefore two teachers team-teach and another teacher teaches in a self-contained classroom.

In the self contained classroom there is one teacher who is proficient in both languages with a mixed-language group of students. This classroom has instructional materials and vocabulary in both languages, which are color coded because most kindergarten students are not able to read. Since this is a 50-50 model, books, bulletin boards, posters and other classroom materials are equally represented in both languages.

This teacher has organized her students in a numbered grouping combination that include both heterogeneous and homogenous language groups. Appendix D shows organization of instruction by language.

The team-teaching arrangement consists of two separate classrooms. One of the teachers is bilingual and the other is monolingual, therefore the instructional materials, bulletin boards, word wall, and other displays are allocated according to the language of the teacher. This helps the students understand that once they are in that classroom they will be speaking English, or if they are in the other classroom they will be speaking Spanish. To assist and support student understanding, many scaffolding techniques were also used in these classrooms. For example, it is important to have daily routines and schedules. Other examples of scaffolding may be used in these classrooms: daily repetition of routine phrases, songs, and poems; daily activities such as changing the date on the calendar and relevant information (i.e., repetition of
vocabulary); the teacher’s use of gestures, pictures, and toys to reinforce new vocabulary; and modeling of verbal responses.

Success of Program

Together, at the elementary, middle and secondary levels, the teachers, instructional aides, tutors, the school principal and school district administrators must work cooperatively and must integrate their programs, to provide effective and efficient programs for all students that promote high academic achievement and prevent any substantive academic deficits, in order for all students to be provided equal educational opportunity for academic achievement in the regular school curriculum.

Since the 2007-2008 school year began in kindergarten, it is as yet impossible to provide any statistical results about the effectiveness of this program in this specific school, but according Pérez, as we have seen, this school possesses all the components and meets all the requirements needed to have a successful program (2004). At least 75 percent of the teachers, staff and administration are bilingual and the ones who are not have participated in a Summer Foreign Language Academy, which provided them opportunities to experience second language learning personally and learn from Rosetta Stone.

This school has taken the appropriate measures to place the students correctly according to their first language education background. The teachers have sent home surveys and administered tests to determine the language proficiency and content-area competencies of students. Additionally, this school has met Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) every year after the Dual Language program was implemented.
SECTION V: SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

In order to understand and appreciate the importance of Dual Language Education, it is important to compare its framework to theory and strategies of learning and acquiring a second language.

According to McLaughlin (1994), the notion that language acquisition is a gradual process is not universally accepted. Indeed, many authors are much more impressed by the speed with which a child acquires a language. This was one of Chomsky’s (1959) main arguments against the behaviorist position: the child simply acquires a language too quickly for this to be explained in terms of reinforcement and successive approximation. He cited the example of the immigrant child who has no difficulty acquiring the language of the new country, whereas the child’s parents—in spite of their strong desire and motivation to learn the language—struggle ineffectively with it and impose the phonology and syntax of their first language on the new one.

The child’s language acquisition feats so impressed Chomsky and the transformational grammar school that they maintained that the only explanation possible was that children are preprogrammed to acquire language at a definite point in their development. The view that the child possesses a capacity for language that the adult has lost is widely shared and has been formalized in what is known as the “critical period” hypothesis. The Critical period for language learning is usually defined as lasting from about age two to puberty. Before the child reaches age 2, higher level language acquisition is impossible because of maturational factors, and after puberty the natural acquisition of language is thought to be blocked by a loss of “cerebral plasticity”
resulting from the completion of the development of cerebral dominance through lateralization of the language function. In addition to this biological argument, the ability of young children to acquire a language quickly and efficiently and without an accent is regarded as support for the critical period notion (McLaughlin, 1984).

On the other hand, Ausubel (1964), argues that in the natural settings (e.g., home, neighborhood, school) where children are completely or partially immersed in a second language environment, it is true that they appear to learn the second language more readily than adults do under similar circumstances. Actually, however, the two situations are hardly comparable. In class, non-native learners receive much more practice in the new language since they are able to maintain contact with spoken and written sources of their native language. Their motivation is also usually higher because mastery of the second language is more essential for communication, peer relationships, school progress and play. Furthermore, they are typically less self-conscious than adults in attempting to speak the new language.

Objective research evidence regarding the relative learning ability of children and adults is sparse, but offers little comfort to those who maintain the child superiority thesis. Although children are probably superior to adults in acquiring an acceptable accent in a new language, E.L. Thorndike found many years ago that they make less rapid progress than adults in other aspects of foreign language learning when learning time is held constant for the two age groups (cited in Ausubel, 1964).

Krashen’s acquisition-learning hypothesis claims that we have two independent ways of developing language ability: acquisition and learning.
Language acquisition is a subconscious process; while it is happening, we are not aware that it is happening. Also, once we have acquired something, we are not usually aware that we possess any new knowledge; the knowledge is stored in our brains subconsciously. The research strongly supports the view that both children and adults can subconsciously acquire language. Also, both oral and written language can be acquired. In nontechnical language, acquisition is sometimes referred to as “picking up” a language. When someone says, “I was in France for a while and I picked up some French,” it means he or she acquired some French, not that he/she took formal lessons (Krashen, 1999).

On the other hand, language learning is what we did in school. It is a conscious process; when we are learning, we know we are learning. Also, learned knowledge is represented consciously in the brain. In nontechnical language, when we talk about “rules” and “grammar,” we are usually talking about learning (Krashen, 1999).

According to the Kansas State Department of Education (2009), one way to ensure that language learning occurs in a meaningful context and that language processing goes beyond the level of the isolated sentence is to develop instructional models where language and content are closely intertwined. In recent years, numerous scholars have discussed the merits of content-based instruction for the teaching of foreign languages in the United States. As previously mentioned, many of the principles of content-based instruction are derived from those used in the design of immersion programs, begun in Canada in 1965 and widely used in teaching of French to Anglophone children in Canadian schools. Adaptations of the immersion model for
schools in the United States have served various purposes: (1) as educational, cultural, and linguistic enrichment programs in the elementary grades; (2) as magnet schools to bring about an ethnic and/or racial balance within a school district; and (3) as a means of achieving a kind of two-way bilingualism in communities with large minority populations. Although the initial purposes for development of immersion and content-based instruction differed in Canada and the United States, a common goal of such programs is the development of significant levels of language proficiency through experiential learning in subject-matter areas.

Content-based and immersion programs in this country have been most prevalent in the early grades, at least in the teaching of foreign languages to English-speaking children. Programs at the secondary school level and at the university level have been developed for the most part to accommodate the needs of limited English proficiency (LEP) learners or to help non-native speakers of English integrate successfully into English-language instructional contexts (Kansas State Department of Education, 2009).

In 1998, the Executive Board of the Kansas Foreign Language Association initiated a project to write foreign language standards for the state of Kansas. In cooperation with the Kansas State Board of Education, the project, Kansas Initiative for State Standards - Foreign Language (KISS-FL) began. The intent of this document is to assist Kansas teachers in planning local curricula and assessments for foreign language. This document is meant to provide a curricular focus for all students in the State of
Kansas. Each educational entity is free to develop curricula based on approved standards to suit its own system.

The Kansas standards are aligned with the national document, _Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century_, published in 1999 by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. More than a decade of work was devoted to defining competency-based objectives and preparing students to use the language in real life situations. Furthermore, that work generated a compelling rationale for language education for all students.

1. Language study benefits all children.

2. Language study is best begun in kindergarten and continued without interruption through grade 12 and beyond.

3. Language study is needed to address the communication challenges within today’s global society. The benefits of foreign language study apply to all students, as demonstrated in many research studies across the nation. These benefits include the following:

   • Scores in math and science on the ACT and SAT tests are significantly higher for students who are studying foreign language, socioeconomic backgrounds notwithstanding.

   • Studying a foreign language provides connections throughout a student’s entire lifetime. Foreign language study is especially good for making connections with other disciplines because it includes music, art, social studies, mathematics,
science, history, and the student’s own language. These connections allow the learning differences and styles of every learner to be developed to the fullest.

• Studying a foreign language opens the world of literature to every age level. It not only encompasses the culture of the language being studied; it also creates an acute awareness of the cultural allusions contained in one’s own literature.

• Learning a foreign language provides a competitive edge in career choices in today’s and tomorrow’s world. The foreign language experience enhances cultural sensitivity and provides linguistic insights necessary for citizens in a worldwide community.

The Mission Statement of the Kansas State Department of Education (2009), is a perfect example of the importance of studying a second language. Studying another language and culture provides powerful keys for successful communication: knowing how, when and why, to say what to whom. The organizing principle for language study is communication, which highlights the social, linguistic and cultural aspects of language. The approach to second language instruction found in today’s schools is designed to facilitate meaningful interaction with others, whether they are on another continent, across town, within the neighborhood, or in the classroom.

Whereas foreign language study can begin at any grade level, the use of the terms beginning, developing, and expanding below underscores the Department of Education belief that acquisition of a second language is a long-term process and should not be segmented into specific grade levels. Foreign language study should be a part of a student’s educational experience from kindergarten through university. Just as a
student does not learn all there is to know about English, math, science, and social studies in two years, neither can a student achieve foreign language proficiency in two years. In the table below you can see some examples of the Stages of Language Development.

**Table 1. Stages of language development**

- **Beginning:** At this stage the student communicates with phrases and words to express basic needs. "I need a hat."

- **Developing:** At this stage the student expresses and elaborates on basic needs. "I need a wool hat because my ears are cold."

- **Expanding:** At this stage the student communicates in 'paragraphs' to respond to and resolve problems. "If hats are on sale when I get my next paycheck, I might go get one to keep my ears warm."

(Kansas State Department of Education, 2009).

Furthermore, there has been much controversy over which method is the most appropriate method of teaching a second language. According to Omaggio Hadley, principles and priorities in language teaching have shifted and changed over the years, often in response to paradigm shifts in linguistic and learning theory (2001).

According to Omaggio Hadley, the following three methods constituted the most common ways of approaching foreign language teaching before the 1970s, when rapid development in second-language acquisition research ushered in a profusion of new approaches.
1. The Grammar-Translation Method approach to language teaching was congruent with the view of faculty psychologists that mental discipline was essential for strengthening the powers of the mind. Originally used to teach Latin and Greek, this method was applied to the teaching of modern languages in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Its primary purpose was to enable students to access and appreciate great literature, while helping them understand their native language better through extensive analysis of the grammar of the target language and translation. The most obvious drawback of this method was the lack of orientation toward proficiency goals and limited student creativity in the second language.

2. The Direct Method movement, as advocated by educators such as Berlitz, originated in the nineteenth century. Advocates of this “active” method believed that students learn to understand a language by listening to it in large quantities. They learn to speak by speaking, especially if the speech is associated simultaneously with appropriate action. The methodology was based essentially on the way children learn their native language: language is learned through the direct association of words and phrases with pictures, objects and actions, without the use of the native language. One of the mayor drawbacks of this method is the lack of correction, which characterized the earliest versions of the Direct Method.
3. The Audiolingual Method was rooted in two parallel schools of thought in psychology and linguistics. In psychology, the behaviorist and neobehaviorist schools were extremely influential in the 1940s and 1950s. At the same time the structural, or descriptive, school of linguistics dominated thinking in that field (2001).

On the other hand, according to Omaggio Hadley, the Natural Approach has evolved to some extent from the Direct Method. The primary emphasis of this approach is teaching and practicing vocabulary with “little emphasis on structural accuracy” (2001). In recent years there has been some controversy over this approach, “with some scholars claiming that explicit instruction in grammar is not helpful in the classroom and that errors should never be corrected during oral activities”, but it is suggested errors be corrected in written work (Omaggio Hadley, 2001).

According to Lee and Vanpatten, “There are three essential phases to the instructional framework: Preparation (pre reading), Guided Interaction (during reading), and Assimilation (post reading)” (1995). During the preparation phase of this framework the teacher is activating the students appropriate Schemata the students are relating what they know from their personal lives to what they are learning in the classroom.

During the guided interaction phase, according to Lee and Vanpatten, comprehension Checks during this phase of the lesson allow readers to monitor their comprehension in an ongoing way rather than read from start to finish only to find they did not understand (1995).
After the activation of the schemata and the comprehension checks comes the assimilation phase. Lee and Vanpatten compare this phase to “the architect blueprint.” During this phase teachers should not only check for comprehension, but they should also “encourage second language learners to learn from what they have read” (Lee and Vanpatten, 1995).
SECTION VI: EVALUATION AND RECOMMENDATION

In the following section you will find five Spanish math activities and three reading English activities that were used with the kindergarten students from BJES. Along with the activities, I have included an explanation of what the teacher did before, during and after these activities. Finally, I have made some recommendations according to the suggestions made by the experts in second language acquisition and bilingual education.
Actividades:

Las siguientes son algunas actividades de matemáticas que se ejecutaron en el programa bilingüe de la escuela primaria Buffalo Jones. Estas actividades son para el nivel de kinder, porque el primer año del programa bilingüe comenzó en el Kinder. Las siguientes actividades son tomadas del libro Harcourt Matemáticas por Maletsky, son algunas de las actividades que se llevaron a cabo en español. Después de hacer algunas actividades en español los estudiantes hacían actividades diferentes para aprender otro contenido paralelo en Inglés.

Después de cada actividad he proveído alguna explicación de cómo estas actividades fueron ejecutadas en el salón de clase y también doy algunas sugerencias de otras actividades que utilizaron para activar el conocimiento previo de los estudiantes. Finalmente, doy algunas sugerencias sobre cómo los maestros pueden incorporar la circunlocución y algunas otras actividades para reforzar el aprendizaje de los estudiantes.
Estimados familiares:

Hoy empezamos un nuevo capítulo: Los números del 0 al 5. Aprenderemos a emparejar grupos de objetos. También aprenderemos a contar objetos y nos aseguraremos de haber contado cada uno de ellos. Estudiaremos los números 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 y 5.

Afectuosamente.

**Vocabulario**

- **más**
  Hay más flores que mariposas.

- **menos**
  Hay menos mariposas que flores.

**igual que**

El número de ranas es igual que el número de lirios de agua.
¿Cuántas ranas veo? Veo tres.

**¿Cuántos hay?**

Para leer libros sobre cómo contar con su niño, busque estos libros en su biblioteca local.

**Libros para compartir**


invite a su niño a contar con usted.

Mientras usted pone la mesa, pida a su niño que empareje grupos de objetos como, por ejemplo, tenedores y cucharas, para ver qué grupos tienen más, menos o una cantidad igual que los otros.
En esta actividad se introducen los números 0-5. También podemos ver el tipo de vocabulario que se va a usar en la unidad/el capítulo. Algo muy importante que se menciona en esta página y que se ve a través de este libro es el uso y explicación de algunas actividades que se pueden usar en casa para reforzar el material aprendido en clase. Estas actividades e instrucciones están escritas en el idioma de los padres de familia, así que no se les dificultará para ayudarles a sus hijos.

Para introducir los números 0-5 la maestra comienza con una actividad en que los estudiantes aprenden a compartir objetos por igual. Por ejemplo, la maestra pone a los estudiantes en parejas y a unos de ellos les da varios objetos y les pide que compartan los objetos con sus compañeros para que los dos tengan el mismo número de objetos. Después la maestra les pide a los estudiantes que expliquen cómo ellos compartieron y cómo supieron que cada uno de ellos tenía la misma cantidad de objetos. Para hacer esto tienen que sacar sus esquemata.

Una recomendación que yo haría a esta maestra es que ayude a los estudiantes a activar su conocimiento previo y al mismo tiempo incluir cosas/objetos, y colores que se aprendieron antes de aprender los números del 0-5. Por ejemplo podemos preguntar a los estudiantes sobre su edad. Luego podemos preguntarles si tienen hermanos o hermanas y si son mayores o menores que ellos. De esta manera se puede utilizar el vocabulario de comparación. Si algún estudiante tiene cinco años y el/ella tiene un hermano que tiene tres años podemos decir que su hermano tiene dos años más que ellos o viceversa. Después de repasar varias veces con los estudiantes sobre las edades podemos comenzar con los números del 0-5 y también a utilizar el vocabulario
apropiado. Después de activar los conocimientos previos de los estudiantes y de ponerlos en pares para practicar los números del 0-5, debemos revisar si los estudiantes aprendieron los números. Podríamos hacer esto utilizando visuales, carteles u otros objetos que puedan tocar para darles la oportunidad de moverse y tocar los objetos. Otra técnica que los maestros pueden usar para asegurarse si los estudiantes aprendieron los números correctamente es trabajar en una actividad con todos los estudiantes usando la circunlocución. El/la maestro puede utilizar el vocabulario de animales de granja porque durante la unidad es el vocabulario que se usa para aprender los números. El maestro puede dar un ejemplo al describir algún animal u objeto que se vaya a usar durante la unidad y luego los estudiantes tendrían que pensar en el nombre del animal y al mismo tiempo dar un numero apropiado. Por ejemplo, el maestro puede decir “en casa yo tengo tres animales que cuidan la casa y ladran cuando ven a un desconocido” y los estudiantes podrían saber que “son perros”, luego les preguntaría de nuevo cuántos perros tiene el maestro. Finalmente, la comunicación con los padres de familia es muy importante para que ellos les puedan ayudar a sus hijos a repasar el contenido en casa. La próxima actividad se manda a casa con los estudiantes para que los padres practiquen los números con sus hijos. En casa también se pueden usar otros objetos que los estudiantes puedan ver y tocar: poner objetos sobre la mesa para que los niños repasen la información.
Figure 3. Activity 2 from Harcourt Matemáticas

**MATERIALES:** bolsita con 5 objetos pequeños (fríjoles, botones), un juego de fichas de juegos (monedas de 1¢, clips) para cada compañero

**INSTRUCCIONES:** Juega con un compañero y decidan quién comienza. Empezando en cero, elige un camino. Cada jugador se turna para sacar un puñado de objetos de la bolsita. El jugador cuenta los objetos, busca ese número en su camino y coloca una ficha en el número. El primer jugador que tenga una ficha en todos sus lirios de agua, gana.
Antes de comenzar el juego de matemáticas la maestra hace un repaso. Ella les da a los estudiantes una actividad que tiene algunos objetos y les pide que dibujen la misma cantidad de objetos que ellos ven. Por ejemplo, en uno de los ejercicios hay cuatro guantes de béisbol y se les pide a los estudiantes que dibujen una pelota para cada guante. Después de hacer tres o cuatro dibujos la maestra comienza a dar las instrucciones de cómo jugar el juego de matemáticas.

Este juego de la pagina anterior la maestra lo introduce después de que los estudiantes se hayan aprendido los números 0-5. También es una excelente actividad de repaso. Los estudiantes lo disfrutaron, no querían dejar de jugar.

Es muy importante que los números sean incorporados y aprendidos en contexto y no solamente memorizados. En esta actividad los estudiantes están viendo los números y al poner la ficha en el numero apropiado ellos incluyen el movimiento. Se están divirtiendo y ayudándose a aprender a reconocer los números. En esta actividad los estudiantes trabajaron en pares y al escuchar a su compañero contar, el otro estudiante estaba recibiendo mucho “input” y el estudiante que cuenta los objetos estará practicando el “output.”

Esta es una buena actividad que también se puede jugar en casa y se puede continuar usando con los números después del cinco. Una recomendación que yo doy es que se incorporen otros juegos similares a este para continuar practicando los números. A este nivel los niños aprenden jugando y me di cuenta que muchos de los estudiantes querían continuar jugando. Otro juego que se podría incorporar con este es
bingo o lotería de números. De esta manera los estudiantes continuarían practicando el input y output. Este juego se puede jugar en grupos pequeños o con toda la clase. Por ejemplo, se les da a los estudiantes una hoja con números y con dibujos de objetos que representan los números de 0-5. Los números y objetos de cada hoja deben estar localizados en diferentes lugares y no en orden, similar a una tabla de bingo. La maestra tendría las tarjetas con los números y objetos. Después ella podría comenzar a leer los números y objetos. Por ejemplo, la maestra diría gato 3, y los estudiantes que tengan el dibujo de un gato en el número tres pondrían una ficha en ese lugar no todos tendrán el dibujo de un gato en el número 3. Después de que la maestra demuestre cómo hacer el juego, ella le pediría a uno de los estudiantes que diera las cartas. Ahora el/la estudiante que tome el lugar de la maestra estará practicando el output.
Figure 4. Activity 3 from Harcourt Matemáticas

Nombre ______________________________ Álgebra: Menos

Dibuja líneas para emparejar los animales de los dos grupos. Compara los grupos. Encierra en un círculo el grupo que tiene menos.
En la actividad anterior los estudiantes usan los números y una palabra del vocabulario del capítulo. En esta actividad los estudiantes usan la palabra “menos.” Los estudiantes tienen que contar por lo menos hasta el numero cinco y luego tienen que decidir qué fila tiene más objetos. Luego tienen que emparejar los objetos y deben de poner un círculo a la fila que tenga menos objetos.

Antes de pasarle esta actividad a los estudiantes la maestra comienza leyendo una historia con dibujos y nombres de animales. Esta historia incluye todos los animales que se usan en la actividad previa. También se usa la palabra “menos”; por ejemplo, se supone que el granjero de la historia tiene menos gallinas que borregas.

No tengo recomendaciones para esta actividad porque la maestra hace un excelente trabajo al leer la historia. Ella activa los esquemata de los estudiantes y al mismo tiempo usa la circunlocución. En vez de decir el nombre de los animales ella hace el ruido que estos animales hacen y los estudiantes dicen qué animal es. Por ejemplo, lee la historia y dice “el granjero Juan tiene 5 animales que hacen el ruido bah, bah.” Luego les pregunta a los estudiantes qué tipo de animal hace ese ruido y los estudiantes responden “una borrega.” Después les pregunta cuántas borregas tiene el granjero Juan y ellos contestan “cinco.”

Esta actividad también se puede practicar en casa utilizando objetos en el hogar. Se pueden usar naranjas y manzanas, pero igual que en la escuela se tendrían que poner una fila delante de la otra para no confundir a los estudiantes. Por ejemplo, ponen una fila de tres naranjas y delante de las naranjas ponen otra de cinco manzanas, luego los estudiantes contarían las frutas y decidirían si hay menos manzanas o naranjas. Esta es
una excelente oportunidad para utilizar la circunlocución en casa porque tal vez los estudiantes no de los objetos que se están utilizando.
Figure 5. Activity 4 from Harcourt Matemáticas

**ACTIVIDAD PARA LA CASA** • Pida a su niño que empareje los objetos de dos grupos para determinar que grupo tiene menos.

**Dibuja líneas para emparejar los objetos de los dos grupos. Compare los grupos.**

Encierre en un círculo el grupo que tiene menos.
La actividad anterior es muy interesante porque es similar a la de la página previa pero en uno de los rectángulos aparecen más objetos que cinco. El objetivo en este caso no es saber contar más de cinco sino que los estudiantes deben de emparejar los objetos y decidir cuál tiene menos. Como podemos ver, este tipo de actividad también se puede mandar como tarea porque tiene instrucciones específicas en el idioma de los padres de familia.

Como los estudiantes ya habían hecho una actividad similar a esta la maestra no tomó mucho tiempo para explicarla. Solo les leyó las instrucciones y los estudiantes comenzaron con los ejercicios.

Mi recomendación para la maestra es que, al comenzar una actividad nueva sin importar que sea similar a la previa, siempre dé un ejemplo en la pizarra o en algún lugar donde todos los estudiantes puedan ver. Algunos estudiantes estaban un poco confusos cuando llegaron al rectángulo que tenía mas de cinco objetos en cada lado. Ellos entendían que un lado tenía menos que el otro pero querían saber qué numero seguía del cinco y la maestra pasó varios minutos explicándoles individualmente que no se preocuparan si eran mas de cinco. Esto se habría podido evitar si se les hubiera explicado desde el principio.

Otra actividad que la maestra puede hacer con los estudiantes es poner una grafica con cuadros en un lado que representan el numero de niñas en el salón de clase y en otro lado el numero de niños y colorear un cuadro por cada niño/a, de esta manera ellos saben si hay “menos” niñas o niños en el salón de clase.

Esta actividad también se puede mandar como tarea para que los padres de
familia puedan dar más ejemplos para que los hijos practiquen más. Por ejemplo, ellos podrían contar y escribir los nombres de los primos y los nombres de primas y luego los hijos/estudiantes pueden decir si ellos tienen más primos o primas. Esta actividad sería similar a la que hicieron en clase cuando compararon el número de alumnas y alumnos.
¿Qué grupo tiene menos?

Pon un puñado de fichas en el lirio de agua. ¿Hay menos fichas rojas o fichas amarillas? Mueve las fichas a la gráfica. Encierra en un círculo el grupo con menos fichas.

ACTIVIDAD PARA LA CASA • Muestra a tu niño una pila de dos clases de juguetes como, por ejemplo, bloques y pelotas. Diga que haga una gráfica alineando primero los bloques y luego alineando las pelotas al lado de los bloques. Pregúnte a su niño qué grupo tiene más.
En la actividad anterior se usa una gráfica para contar y para decidir si hay más fichas rojas o amarillas. Es una buena idea usar este tipo de gráfica porque se ponen las fichas al lado y de esa manera los estudiantes puede emparejar las fichas y decidir cuál tiene más o cuál tiene menos.

Cuando la maestra presentó esta actividad ya había experimentado con la idea de que los estudiantes no tienen que saber contar más de cinco para poder demostrar qué grupo tiene más objetos o menos. Desde un principio les explicó que todo lo que tenían que hacer es alinear los objetos y decir dónde hay más o menos.

La única recomendación que tengo para esta actividad y actividades similares a esta es que se también se mande a casa como tarea. Esta actividad también se puede hacer en casa utilizando dos clases de juguetes; por ejemplo, bloques o pelotas, pero si no tienen suficientes bloques o pelotas también se pueden utilizar monedas como nícles y pesetas. La maestra debe estar disponible para contestar preguntas que tengan los padres de familia porque algunos padres no serán bilingües.
Figure 7. Activity 6 from Houghton Mifflin

Reading the Big Book

Building Background
As children to remember a walk you’ve taken together as a class or one they’ve taken to or from school. Have them tell all the things they saw on the walk. Then introduce the book I Went Walking by Sue Williams. Tell children that this book is about a walk, too.

COMPREHENSION STRATEGY
Predict/Infer

Teacher Modeling Model how to predict what the book will be about by previewing the title and the pictures.

Think Aloud Before I read, I can use clues from the title of the story and the pictures to predict what a book is about.

* The title says I Went Walking and shows a picture of a boy. When I look at the first few pages, I see that the boy is walking. I also see that a cat has joined him.
* Maybe the boy sees other animals on his walk. Let’s read the book and see what happens.

COMPREHENSION SKILL
Sequence of Events

Teacher Modeling Remind children that good readers think about the order in which things happen in a story.

Think Aloud As I read, I’ll think about what happens first, next, and last. This will help me remember the story.
For reading, writing and science this elementary school uses the Houghton Mifflin curriculum. The school has materials in English and Spanish, therefore the teacher can teach one day in English and continue with the lesson the following day in Spanish. Lessons are not repeated.

On the previous page, I have included three reading activities the teacher used during her English day to teach the word “I.” First the teacher built background knowledge by asking the students to think of a day they went for a walk. She began by telling them about the class field trip they took to the zoo. She mentioned all the things she saw and described them in great detail, she especially described the animals at the zoo. By the look on the students’ faces, I could see them visualizing these animals.

Next, she introduced the book “I Went Walking” by Sue Williams. Before reading, the teacher checked for comprehension by asking the students to make predictions of what the book was about. The students began telling their predictions and the teacher gave them more hints. She told the class that in order to make good predictions they must look at the pictures in the book and to pay attention to the title of the book. Finally, the teacher gave the students hints of how to check for comprehension. She told them to remember what happened in a sequence.

The teacher did a terrific job when she introduced the word “I.” She activated the students’ prior knowledge, by reminding them of the class field trip and after reading the book she had a series of questions to check for comprehension.

I would recommend for a similar activity to be done at home. The children and
parents can always talk about a walk they have taken in their lives, but the parents have
to be informed that the word “I” is being covered in class and to try not to use the word
“we” yet when referring to something they did together.
Figure 8. Activity 7 from Houghton Mifflin

INSTRUCTION

HIGH-FREQUENCY WORD

New Word: /l/

1 Teach

Introduce the word /l/. Tell children that today they will learn to read and write a word. Explain it’s a very important word to know because you use it to tell about yourself. Say /l/ and use it in context.

/ I drink milk. / I like cats. / I like to sing.

• Write /l/ on the board. Point out that it’s a letter as well as a word. Ask children to name the letter.
• Explain that the word /l/ always uses the capital form. Spell /l/ with me, capital /l/.
• Lead children in a chant, clapping on each beat, to help them remember that /l/ is spelled capital /l/: capital /l/ spells /l/, capital /l/ spells /l/.

Word Wall Introduce the Word Wall. Explain that this is where you will put words children will learn to read and write. Post /l/, and tell children to check the Word Wall if they need to remember how to write the word /l/.

2 Guided Practice

Build these sentences one at a time. In a pocket chart, build rebus sentences. Add the end punctuation and tell children that it marks the end of a sentence.
The previous two writing activities were introduced after the three reading activities. Now the students have prior knowledge of the word “I.” The teacher tells the students that they are going to learn how to write it.

The teacher has a word wall in her classroom and this is where all the new words are placed. All of the words introduced throughout the school year remain on this wall. She reminds the students to look at this wall if they forget how to write a specific word. As one can see in the activities above, the word “I” is used in context, the teacher says a few sentences using the word. Finally, the teacher uses pictures to express the action verb and a period at the end to inform students that a period marks the end of a sentence. For example, in the first sentence there is a picture of a girl running and the word “I” in front of that picture, therefore the sentence reads, “I run.” At the end of this activity the teacher read a short story to the students and the students had to point to all the periods in the story. This reminded the students that a period indicated a pause between sentences. I was very impressed the way the students were interacting and learning, especially the following day when they worked on a continuation of activities when the activities were in Spanish.
Conclusion

There are over 250 Bilingual Programs in the United States, but these programs can be different depending on the model being used. There are many factors to consider before the implementation of a Bilingual program. Some factors a school needs to consider are: their student population and languages spoken by the students and their staff. A school must also have the support of informed and supportive administrators and parents and access to instructional materials in both languages.

After selecting a program the teachers and staff must decide how the curriculum is going to be taught and how the languages are going to be divided. The teachers will decide if it is more convenient for them to divide the languages by half days, every other day, or every other week. Another factor to consider before the implementation is the type of model that will be used. There needs to be an agreement among teachers and administration if they will be using the 90-10 model or the 50-50 models. In the 90-10 model the first language (L1) is taught 90% of the time and the second language (L2) is taught 10% of the time, usually beginning in Kindergarten and reaching the 50-50 model by the time the students are in fourth grade. In the 50-50 model both languages are taught 50% of the time beginning in kindergarten.

The Dual Language Program at BJES, as previously stated, is a bilingual program that integrates students from a minority language with students from the English language to offer instruction in both languages. This way both groups are together during the language instruction. This program has been successful since the implementation, the school continues meeting Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)
following No Child Left Behind regulations. The program has been successful because it possesses all the appropriate requirements and it fosters a positive school environment with the support of principals, teachers, staff and parents. Furthermore, at least 75 percent of the teachers, staff and administration are bilingual and the ones who are not have participated in a Summer Foreign Language Academy, which provided them opportunities to experience second language learning personally.

In order to complete the activities presented above the teachers sometimes need to use additional strategies to facilitate the comprehension process: plenty of visuals, repetition and hands on activities. A bilingual classroom at BJES consists of half of the students being English speakers and the other half Spanish Speakers; therefore, I have concluded that Lee and VanPatten’s three-part framework for assisting Second Language L2 Learners, explained in Section V, is the most effective one if used appropriately. It allows for the most complete processing of both language skills and the classroom materials as well. The teachers need to provide the students with opportunities to activate their schemata and check for comprehension, and then activities in which they can tie their own experiences and those of their families to classroom tasks.

The teachers at BJES have done and continue doing a terrific job teaching the content in both languages. They are proud of receiving the opportunity to implement one of many bilingual programs in the United States, but one of very few Dual Language programs in Kansas. One of the goals of this program is to continue receiving funding to expand the implementation of this program throughout the school district and in higher
grades. There is sufficient research to support a program such as the one being implemented in this school. The district is willing to continue funding this type of program and hopes to continue receiving federal and state funds to help with the expansion of this program throughout the school district.
Works Cited


Trenton, N.J: Crane Publishing Co.


Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
Appendix A: Initial Letter to Parents

LANGUAGE OF INITIAL LITERACY

*Research Based*

Dear Parents;
We are off to another enthusiastic school year. This year will be our first year of implementing the Dual Language Program in all three kindergarten classes which I am very happy to be part of the beginning of this successful program. I know some of you may feel excitement about your child learning a second language and yet at the same time there may be fears and concerns. Some of your questions may be:

- Will it confuse my child learning a second language?
- Will he/she fall behind on his/her academics in their native language?
- Will my child really benefit from this program?
- How can I help my child at home?
- How can I help my child with their homework if I do not know the language?

And many other questions/concerns like.... the fear of parents of English-dominant children developing literacy in the minority language first. This is a big concern in regards to majority language children who are still developing essential literacy and language skills in their primary language, English.

To ease some of your fears I listed some research on Language of Initial Literacy:

*Research shows that studies of dual language education have revealed that majority language learners can successfully learn to read and write in the second language before they have developed literacy in their native language (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan, 2000).*

*Research studies have also shown that teaching literacy through the second language to majority language students does not interfere with their acquisition of literacy in their first language or their development of the two languages.*

*Developing literacy in a second language does not involve starting from ground zero. Rather, once a learner has developed an understanding of print concepts, the alphabetic principle, text structures, and how to use graphophonic syntactic, and semantic cues to derive or create meaning from text in the primary language, the learner transfers this knowledge to the process of reading in the second language (Brisk & Harrington, 2000; Cummins, 2001).*

We have also taken into consideration that there may be students coming in to Kindergarten with a weak language and literacy base and thus need more time to develop their native language, the recommendation is that they acquire initial literacy in their native language. For this reason we are implementing a period of 9-12 weeks of initial literacy in their native language with the other content areas will be in 50/50 model. By October we will start the literacy in their second language as well.
How can you help in your child’s literacy development?
All parents play an important role—that of audience for their child. You can do this by expressing enjoyment and praising their children when they attempt to read and write, and by conveying to your child the importance of becoming bi-literate. Please remember that parent involvement is very important in children education.

Thank you,

Kindergarten Teacher
Appendix B: Parent Contract

Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Program

2007-2008

1. I agree to place my child in the Two-Way Immersion Program.

2. I understand that this is a three-year commitment and I agree to partner as a parent with the school as written in the enrollment Policies and Guidelines.

3. I understand that regular attendance is crucial to the success of the Bilingual Program, and I will adhere to the attendance policies and school district.

4. I also understand that as parents, it is imperative for us to participate in the program as delineated in the Parent-Family section of the Bilingual Program Guidelines.

5. I understand that my child will endure a period of frustration as he/she learns a new language, but we will be persistent and encouraging until this expected phase of language acquisition is over.

Name of Child:_________________________________________________

Parent 1:_____________________________________________________

Parent 2:_____________________________________________________

Phone Numbers:________________________________________________

Date:_______________________________________________________

Buffalo Jones Elementary School
Appendix C: Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Program (TWBI)

Buffalo Jones Elementary

Dear Parents:

Next Year, 2007-2008, Buffalo Jones Elementary will be offering a Bilingual Program for students entering kindergarten. Students registered in this program will eventually be able to speak, read, and write in both English and Spanish. One of the goals of the program is for students to become bilingual, bi-literate, and bicultural. The program will begin with kindergarten students only.

What is a Two Way Bilingual Education Program?
A two-way bilingual immersion program is an educational approach that integrates native English speakers and native speakers of another language (usually Spanish) for content and literacy instruction in both languages. Students of two language groups are purposely mixed in the same educational environment to provide communicative and academic language development through an interactive and cross-cultural setting. Instruction is conducted in both languages.

How Can I Learn More?
Buffalo Jones will have parent informational meetings. If you are interested in Bilingual Education for your child, please complete the form and return it to your child’s teacher.

For parents with students who will enter kinder next year... please fill out the following short form.

Yes, I am interested in placing my child in the Two-Way Bilingual Immersion program for the 2007-2008 school year and I am planning to attend the meeting.

Parent’s Name: ____________________________________________

Student’s Name: __________________________________________

Phone Number: ___________________________________________

Language spoken at home: _________________________________
Appendix D: Language groups

Table 2. Language groups with organization of instruction by language

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