DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 291 243 FL 017 171

AUTHOR Snow, Marguerite Ann

TITLE Immersion Teacher Handbook. Educational Report Series.
INSTITUTION California Univ., Los Angeles. Center for Language Education and Research.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO ER10
PUB DATE 87
CONTRACT 400-85-1010
NOTE 59p.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Articulation (Education); *Classroom Techniques; Elementary Education; Enrollment; *Immersion Programs; Information Sources; Instructional Materials; *Language Teachers; Program Administration; *Program Design; Program Development; Second Language Instruction; Student Evaluation; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS Content Area Teaching

ABSTRACT

The handbook is designed primarily as a preservice training guide for prospective immersion program teachers and secondarily as a resource for immersion program administrators and parents of prospective enrollees. It includes: (1) an overview of the immersion model, describing its historical context and key features and briefly reviewing research findings on variations of the model; (2) a discussion of instructional methodology, including strategies used in other second language programs that are relevant to immersion teaching; (3) examination of other important concerns in immersion program implementation, such as enrollment policies and articulation across grades and levels; (4) a summary of materials and assessment instruments used in well-established programs; (5) discussion of areas for continued examination and development; and (6) recommendations for further reading. (MSE)

IMMERSION TEACHER HANDBOOK

Marguerite Ann Snow

University of California, Los Angeles

ER10

CLEAR

CENTER FOR LANGUAGE EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

University of California, Los Angeles

IMMERSION TEACHER HANDBOOK

Marguerite Ann Snow

University of California, Los Angeles

ER10

The project presented, or reported herein, was performed pursuant to a contract from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement/Department of Education (OERI/ED) for the Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR). However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the OERI/ED and no official endorsement by the OERI/ED should be inferred.

Center for Language Education and Research
University of California, Los Angeles
1987

Center for Language Education and Research

The Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) is funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) to carry out a set of research and professional development activities relevant to the education of limited English proficient students and foreign language students. Located at the University of California, Los Angeles, CLEAR also has branches at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C., Yale University, Harvard University, and the University of California, Santa Barbara.

CLEAR believes that working toward a language-competent society should be among our nation's highest educational priorities. Thus, CLEAR is committed to assisting both non-native and native speakers of English to develop a high degree of academic proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in English and a second or native language. To work toward this goal, CLEAR has united researchers from education, linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology with practitioners, parents, and community agencies.

A coordinated set of research, instructional improvement, community involvement, and dissemination activities are oriented around three major themes: (a) improving the English proficiency and academic content knowledge of language minority students; (b) strengthening second language capacities through improved teaching and learning of foreign languages; and (c) improving research and practice in educational programs that jointly meet the needs of language minority and majority students.

The CLEAR Educational Report Series is designed for practitioners and laypersons interested in issues in second language education and foreign language teaching and research.

OERI Contract #400-85-1010

For further information contact:

Amado M. Padilla, Director
Center for Language Education and Research
1100 Glendon Avenue, Suite #1740
Los Angeles, CA 90024

INTRODUCTION

This handbook has been written for those who are embarking on an exciting new professional adventure, immersion education. The handbook was written primarily for prospective immersion teachers as a pre-service training guide. It should also serve as a useful resource for immersion program administrators--principals and program coordinators--and for parents who are considering enrolling their child in an immersion program. In fact, it is hoped that anyone interested in second language education and bilingualism will find the handbook a helpful overview of a model which presently provides the most effective route to learning foreign languages in the elementary public schools in the United States.

Section I of the handbook contains an overview of the immersion model. It provides the historical context and a description of the key features underlying the model. It also includes a brief review of the available research findings on immersion education and descriptions of variations of the immersion model which have been implemented in different settings.

Section II discusses instructional methodology. It deals with the techniques and strategies immersion teachers incorporate into their instruction to make subject matter understandable in a second language. It also describes strategies used in other second language programs which are relevant for immersion teaching. Section III focuses on other important concerns in implementing an immersion program such as enrollment policies and articulation across grades and levels. Section IV provides a summary of materials and assessment instruments used in

well-established immersion programs in the United States. The final two sections, Section V and Section VI, discuss areas for continued examination and development of the immersion model and provide recommended readings for more in-depth study of immersion education.

Much of the background information provided in this handbook is available in much greater detail in a variety of other sources - books, journal articles, and newsletters of professional organizations. The purpose of this handbook was to synthesize from these multiple sources the information which I believe is critical to prepare prospective immersion teachers, administrators, and program coordinators to undertake the challenges ahead. The methodology section of the handbook is a new contribution to our understanding of how immersion teachers go about the business of helping second language learners learn content through the medium of the second language.

SECTION I - OVERVIEW OF THE IMMERSION MODEL

How the Model Evolved

Dissatisfaction with current practices of teaching French and a growing realization of the important role of French in Canadian life were rallying points for a group of concerned Canadian parents to consider alternative approaches to the teaching of French as a second language in 1963. These parents felt that their children, like themselves a generation before, had been inadequately prepared by the school system to use French for any authentic real-life purpose outside of the classroom. The efforts of the parent group and a team of psychologists from McGill University were finally rewarded in 1965 with the creation of a new alternative -- a French immersion program which provided a total French environment for the children when they entered kindergarten. Today, by comparison, the French immersion model with its humble beginnings in the Montreal suburb of St. Lambert, has spread throughout the ten Canadian provinces and at last count boasted an enrollment of approximately 200,000 English-speaking children (Tourigny, 1987).

During the late '60s, word spread south to the United States where a group of professors from UCLA succeeded in finding local support for the establishment of a Spanish Immersion Program in Culver City, California in 1971. Since the early '70s immersion programs have spread across the United States as well, albeit in a more limited way, so that presently there are at least 30 immersion programs representing a diversity of foreign languages - Spanish, German, French, Cantonese (and soon to be Japanese) (Rhodes, 1987).

Features of the Total Immersion Model

Before going further, it is necessary to define the immersion model. As discussed in the previous section, immersion education grew out of a grass-roots movement of English-speaking parents who sought a more effective approach to the teaching of French as a foreign language in the elementary schools in Canada. It is important to keep in mind, therefore, that this handbook is concerned with describing an educational approach to the teaching of foreign languages to language majority students. It is not the purpose of this handbook to treat the many varied and interesting approaches to bilingual education and ESL instruction in the United States which are designed for language minority (non-English-speaking) students.

Four Key Features. The immersion model rests on four key features which provide a strong theoretical and pedagogical foundation both for its application as a model of foreign language education specifically, and more generally and importantly, as an effective model of elementary education:

1. Perhaps the most distinguishing feature of immersion education is that the second language is used for the delivery of subject matter instruction. In other words, the second language is the medium of instruction for school subjects such as mathematics, science, and social studies. Immersion education is based on the belief that children are able to learn a second language in the same way as they learned their first language: (a) by being exposed to authentic input in the second language; and (b) by needing to use the second language for real, communicative purposes.

Viewed from this perspective, subject matter teaching is also second language teaching. The standard school curriculum becomes the basis for meaningful input, since the purpose of school is to teach subject matter. Immersion programs capitalize on this content learning for language acquisition purposes and provide an authentic need for students to communicate information about the subject matter. Viewed in this way, immersion education actually provides a two-for-one kind of opportunity: students learn the regular school subjects that all youngsters must study in elementary school while "incidentally"[1] learning a second language.

2. A second premise of immersion education is that second language learners benefit from being separated from native speakers of the second language. Since the learners are all in the same "linguistic boat" (Krashen, 1984), they receive instruction especially prepared and designed for their developing levels of proficiency in the second language.

3. A third premise of immersion reflects the broader perspective of the world outside of school, specifically in the United States. English-speaking children in immersion programs, although they receive the majority of their elementary school education in their second language, are in no danger of losing their first language. English is

---

[1] I use the term "incidentally" with some trepidation here. A key feature of immersion education is that language learning occurs through the vehicle of content instruction. There is little or no explicit, or formal teaching of the second language compared to other more traditional foreign language teaching methods. Thus, incidental learning is a feature of the model, but is not to be interpreted in a more general way as "casual" or "haphazard." On the contrary, in the actual delivery of instruction. language teaching aims can indeed be very purposeful. This point will be discussed further in Section II.

pervasive in their world--on TV and radio, in conversations with parents and friends, even in international travel to many foreign countries. In technical terms, immersion education promotes additive bilingualism (Lambert, 1980) since immersion students are adding to their linguistic repertoire and sense of identity through the experience of being schooled in the foreign language. The opposite situation is experienced by many language minority children, for example, native Spanish-speaking children, who are thrust into a subtractive environment. In a subtractive school environment, the new language (English) is learned at the expense of the native language. Powerful socio-cultural differences and academic achievement levels are believed to result from these contrasting types of school experiences.

4. The fourth key feature concerns the **sequence and intensity** of first and second language instruction. In the standard total immersion program, all initial instruction (starting in kindergarten) is provided in the second language. Instruction in the first language is added to the curriculum to some degree (e.g., English language arts and/or a selected content area such as social studies) in grade 3 and gradually over the course of elementary school more and more instruction is delivered in English. Of course, there are many variations of the total immersion model (some will be discussed later in this section), but the key features which distinguish a total immersion program from other types of foreign language instructional programs is the onset of second language instruction and the fact that the second language is used for subject matter teaching. These features are best displayed in visual form in Figure 1, which depicts

the percentage of instructional time devoted to instruction in the second language in the standard total immersion program (adapted from Dolson, 1985).

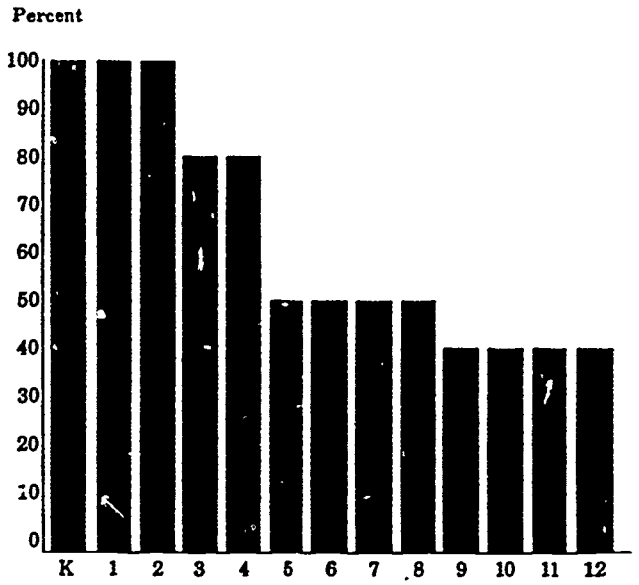

Figure 1
Percentage of Instructional Time in
Prototype Early Total Immersion Programs

Other Important Features of the Immersion Model.

1. **Program Duration of at Least 4-6 Years** - Second language learning is a gradual process. It takes many years to develop a strong academic and social foundation in the second language. Results of immersion programs must be evaluated over the entire period of elementary school. Parents must be informed of this fact so that reasonable expectations are set from the beginning of immersion education.

2. **Separation of the Two Languages for Instruction** - This principle is applied in two important ways in the immersion classroom. The same material is never repeated in the two languages. In other words, there is no translation of content instruction from the

immersion language to the first language nor repetition of delivery in one language and then the other. The second application of this principle is the strict language domains of the instructors. It is always preferable, especially in the earlier grades, to have both an English-speaking model and a second language model. This is usually accomplished by setting-up English-speaking exchange teachers to conduct the English language arts component in the lower grades. In addition to maintaining separate language models, specialization of instruction in this way provides an important role for monolingual English teachers.

3. **Home-School Collaboration** - Since the inception of immersion programs, parents have played a very important role in setting up new immersion programs and providing continuing support for established programs.

Goals of Immersion Education

The preceding discussion of the theoretical premises of immersion education provides the backdrop for the statement of specific goals of immersion programs.

1. Immersion students will make normal progress in achieving the objectives of the standard elementary school curriculum.
2. They will maintain normal progress in development of the first language (English).
3. They will develop native-like proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing the foreign language.
4. They will develop positive attitudes toward themselves as English speakers and toward representatives of the ethnic or

linguistic community of the foreign language they are learning.

A fifth goal may be desirable or mandatory in some American immersion settings:

5. They will have the opportunity to be schooled in an integrated setting with participants from a variety of ethnic groups.

How the Goals Measure Up. Unlike the parents of St. Lambert who were willing to risk enrolling their children in an experimental program in 1965 with only great enthusiasm and hope to sustain themselves, there is a great deal of evidence available to us in the '80s regarding the effectiveness of immersion education. The past twenty years have produced an accumulation of research studies initially aimed at allaying parental fears and, ultimately, designed to answer the broader questions of the effectiveness of the immersion model. The following are brief summaries of the research findings in the four principal areas laid out previously as the general goals of immersion education.

(1) Scholastic Achievement:

Immersion students have been tested using standardized tests in different subject-matter areas (e.g., English reading, mathematics, science). These tests were typically administered in English even though the subject matter may have been taught exclusively or mainly in the second language. The results from controlled comparison studies in both the Canadian and American contexts consistently indicate that immersion students do as well as or better than their monolingual peers

in the subject areas tested (Lapkin & Swain, 1984; Campbell, 1984).

(2) English Language Deve. pment:

The overall findings fro standardized testing of English language arts are that immersion students perform on par with their monolingual counterparts. In the first few years of an immersion program, there is generally an expected lag in performanc. since the students ha'' not yet been exposed to English language arts in the curriculum. The lag disappears once English language arts are introduced into the curriculum at grade 2, 3, or 4 (depending on the program). Indeed, it is interesting that the lag is so consistently slight. This finding provides evidence of the positive influence of the use of English outside of school and possibly of the degree to which skills (especially reading skills) are transferred from the second language to the native language.

(3) Second Language Development:

The research findings on second language development have been examined from two different perspectives. Comparison studies have been conducted comparing students from more traditional foreign language programs of the 20-30 minute per day variety (referred to as "core French" in Canada and FLES, Foreign Language in the Elementary School, in the United States) (See Campbell, Gray, Rhodes, & Snow, 1985). In these studies, immersion students score significantly higher across the board in all the skill areas tested. However, comparisons of this type become almost impossible in the upper grades. The differential in attained proficiency becomes so great that the same test cannot always be given; the tests become too difficult for the "core French" and FLES

students and, conversely, too easy for the immersion students.

Increasingly, it has become clear that a more appropriate comparison group is native speakers of the second language. This kind of comparison study has been possible in Canada where in certain provinces there exist native French speakers attending French-medium schools. The results are generally examined in two categories: receptive skills (listenin and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing). The Canadian findings consistently indicate that the receptive skills in French of immersion students are native-like by the end of elementary school. The same is not true of the productive skills, however. Findings from virtually all immersion programs, whether in Canada or the United States, indicate that the productive skills of immersion students are not native-like. Immersion students achieve a level of fluency rarely, if ever, attained in any other type of foreign language program; however, their speech and writing lacks the grammatical accuracy and lexical variety of native speakers.

(4) Attitudinal Development:

Studies have shown no evidence of any problems in emotional or social adjustment among students in any of the different types of immersion programs. Several studies have been conducted examining such social-psychological factors as attitudes toward representatives of the second language group and perceived psychological distance from the second language group. In general, immersion students in the early grades demonstrate very positive attitudes toward themselves and representatives of the second language group. While still being

positive, however, their attitudes become less positive as the students progress through the immersion program in the upper grades. These changes have been attributed to increased peer pressure toward conformity as children grow older, continued socialization of ethnic prejudice, or general developmental changes in attitudes. Further study needs to address these important social-psychological effects of immersion schooling.

Variations of the Immersion Model

The main focus of this handbook is the total immersion model which was first established in Canada and is now in place in many American schools. As discussed, the two key features of total immersion are the time of onset of second language instruction and the intensity of instruction throughout the elementary school program. In total immersion programs, 100% of instruction in kindergarten through grade 2 is provided in the second language. By the upper grades, at least 50% of instruction continues to be offered in the second language. Since 1965, several variants of the total immersion model have been implemented which may be more desirable or more feasible depending on local needs and resources. These variants are described below:

Early Partial Immersion. - A program in which less than 100% of curriculum instruction during the primary grades is presented in the second language. The amount of second language instruction varies from program to program, but 50% first language instruction and 50% second language instruction is the most common formula from kindergarten through grade 6. Reading is generally taught in both languages.

Delayed Immersion. - A variation of the immersion model in which

the second language is not used as a medium of instruction in elementary school until grade four or five. Accordingly, students in delayed immersion programs learn to read in their first language. Often students in delayed immersion programs receive some second language instruction earlier in elementary school when the second language is taught as a school subject (e.g., French as a second language).

Late Immersion. - A type of immersion in which intensive use of the second language does not occur until the end of elementary school (grade 6) or the beginning of secondary school. Late immersion students usually receive some second language instruction in the earlier grades, but the second language is not used as the medium of instruction for subjects in the regular school curriculum.

Double Immersion. - An immersion program which employs two non-native languages as the media of instruction during the elementary grades. The two languages are usually selected for their sociocultural significance, perhaps one for economic or social benefits and the other for its religious or cultural importance. Double immersion programs can be classified as early if they begin in the primary grades or delayed if instruction in the two languages is held off until the upper elementary grades.

More recently, the assumptions of the immersion model have been applied to instructional programs for teaching language minority students in the United States. They are described in this section because it is important to clarify the many meanings of the term "immersion" in order to avoid misunderstanding or confusion; however,

as stated, these programs are not the primary focus of this handbook.

Two-way Bilingual Immersion.- A bilingual program designed to serve both the language majority (English speaker) and language minority (non-English speaker) students concurrently. In this type of program, the two language groups are purposefully mixed in the same classroom. In the lower elementary grades, all content instruction takes place in the home language of the language minority student (e.g., Spanish) with a short period devoted to oral English. In the upper elementary grades, approximately half the curriculum is taught in the home language and half in English. In this type of bilingual program, then, English-only students learn Spanish, for example, as a foreign language while continuing to develop their native English language skills; likewise, Spanish-only students learn English as a second language while becoming literate in their native Spanish language. The two-way approach provides excellent opportunities for students of diverse language and ethnic groups to work together on problem-solving and interactional activities and for students to serve as peer models. The goals of a two-way language program are for both groups to become bilingual, succeed academically, and develop positive inter-group relations.

Structured or Modified Immersion. - A variation of the traditional immersion program which is designed for language minority students. In a structured immersion program, language minority students receive all subject-matter instruction in their second language (English). For example, Limited English Proficient (LEP) students from a Spanish-speaking home background receive all school instruction in English.

Structured immersion differs from submersion programs in that instruction is planned so that all communication is at a level the second language learner can understand. Students are allowed to use the home language in class; however, the teacher (who is typically bilingual) uses only English.

Summary of Essential Components. The following chart adapted from the framework for evaluating methodologies developed by Richards and Rogers (1985) summarizes the main components of the immersion model.

Essential Components of the Immersion Model

APPROACH

a. Theory of the nature of language

- Language is a vehicle for expressing meaning
- The basic unit of language is the message

b. Theory of the nature of language learning

- Language is learned by learning about things; L2 acquisition parallels L1 acquisition
- Linguistic form is learned "incidentally"
- Learners progress through stages of acquisition from pre-production to limited production to full production
- L1 is permitted in early stages; use of L2 encouraged thereafter
- Input must be made comprehensible
- Learners must have opportunities to produce, modify output
- Transfer of skills learned in L2 to L1
- Method capitalizes on motivation of learning subject matter

DESIGN

a. Objectives of the method

- Scholastic achievement
- L1 development
- L2 development
- Positive cross-cultural/ attitudinal development

b. A syllabus model

- Standard school curriculum

c. Types of learning and teaching activities

- Instructional activities relating to thematic units of the school curriculum

d. Learner roles

- Traditional role of acquirer of knowledge

e. Teacher roles

- Traditional role of dispenser of knowledge

f. Role of instructional materials

- Primary purpose of instructional material is to present and practice curricular content

PROCEDURES

a. Classroom techniques, practices, and behaviors

1. Single language model (i.e., no language mixing)
2. Teacher's use of sheltered language
3. Teacher's use of extra-linguistic aids
4. Teacher's choice of instructional techniques
5. Error correction techniques

SECTION II - INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGY IN IMMERSION EDUCATION

Historical Overview

With the overview of the immersion model behind us, we turn now to the topic of instructional methodology in immersion education. Again, an historical note may be helpful to provide the context for this discussion. In the early years of immersion education in both the American and Canadian settings, the prevailing attitude was that elementary teacher certification and native or near-native proficiency in the second language were the only criteria in recruiting immersion teachers. In fact, in the United States often teachers with no previous bilingual teaching experience were preferred since it was felt that the assumptions of the immersion model were very different from bilingual education methodologies; background in bilingual teaching was often considered more of a hindrance than a benefit. Immersion teachers were instructed to teach the standard elementary curriculum as they would normally do, albeit through the medium of a second language.

As discussed, research efforts in the '60s and '70s focused almost exclusively on student achievement in immersion programs. Parents wanted to know if their children were reading at grade level or if their kids were on par with their monolingual peers in mathematics concept development, for example. Principals and school officials turned to the results of longitudinal and comparative studies using standardized tests as empirical evidence that the immersion experiment was working. The accumulation of research evidence in the areas outlined previously is impressive; the burden of proof that children can excel linguistically and scholastically in immersion programs has

been lifted. Attention is now turning to other areas of interest in immersion. One of these areas, instructional methodology, is the focus of Section II of this handbook. One reason for the growing interest in defining immersion methodology more clearly is the rather immediate need to train immersion teachers to teach in the increasing number of immersion programs in the United States. The second reason is more long range, but critical for the continued evolution of the immersion model of foreign language education. Much is known after 25+ years about what immersion programs can accomplish. At the same time, we also know a lot about the current limitations of immersion programs in producing native-like speakers and writers of the second language. Reasonable questions to ask in the 1980s are: "How can the immersion model be made even more effective?" and "What can be done to upgrade certain components of the immersion model?" A closer examination of immersion methodology seems an excellent starting point for the new challenges of the '80s.

In contrast to the careful scrutiny that student achievement in immersion programs has received, very little has been written about immersion instructional methodology. Two resource handbooks produced by the Ministry of Education of the Province of British Columbia in 1981, Early French Immersion: Teacher's Resource Book and Early French Immersion: Administrator's Resource Book, provide the best examples of guides developed specifically for prospective immersion teachers and administrators in the Canadian context. Lapkin and Cummins (1984) cite a survey by Olson and Burns in 1981 which found that 68% of the immersion teachers in their Northern Ontario sample did not have any

specific training in French immersion methodology. Seventy-five percent of the teachers indicated that they did not have any pre-service training, and 88% indicated that they were not involved in an ongoing in-service training program. Furthermore, despite the plethora of research studies conducted in the French immersion context, many immersion teachers were unaware of all but the most general research findings. This concern was the impetus for a major Canadian study conducted in 1983 by the Canadian Association of Immersion Teachers, an organization seeking to establish immersion teacher training as a high priority (Wilton et al., 1984). The general goal of the study was to identify the needs of French immersion teachers in the areas of pre-service training and professional development. The results indicated that teachers who had undergone pre-service training rated methodology courses as the most useful and valid of all the courses taken, but felt the greatest needs in professional development still remained in the area of immersion methodology, specifically in the teaching of oral French, science, reading, and written French.

This handbook, then, was prepared to address these needs. It is designed to be used in either pre-service or professional development (in-service) teacher training workshops that focus on immersion methodology.

The purpose of Section II is two-fold: (1) to describe the strategies and techniques used by experienced immersion teachers; and (2) to draw from the insights of work in other second language education programs such as bilingual and ESL to suggest ideas that could be incorporated into immersion instruction. But first, a caveat

is necessary. It is difficult indeed to separate, both in theory and writing and in practice, immersion instructional methodology from the general techniques and skills which any effective teacher draws upon to facilitate learning, whether in a monolingual or bilingual setting. All effective teachers plan for instruction, deliver instruction, and evaluate concept mastery. Obviously, it is beyond the scope of this handbook to attempt to detail the constellation of factors which constitutes effective instruction. The handbook, therefore, assumes that a fully-certified teacher possesses the general instructional skills acquired in an accredited teacher training program. The purpose here is to describe the additional skills which are needed to make the regular classroom teacher an immersion specialist.

Strategies and Techniques in Immersion Instruction

In recent years, three terms have been used extensively in the second language acquisition literature. The terms sheltered instruction, comprehensible input, and negotiation of meaning each have powerful implications for understanding the principles underlying immersion methodology. Sheltered instruction refers to the grouping of second language learners for purposes of instruction. Krashen (1984) maintains that separating second language learners puts them in the same "linguistic boat" in terms of their social and academic needs and abilities. It also creates a learning environment where teachers can gear their instruction to the proficiency level of the learners, thereby providing comprehensible input in the second language. Input is also made comprehensible through the negotiation of meaning between teacher and student. Negotiation of meaning is an interactive,

reciprocal process in which immersion teachers and students employ a variety of techniques to make sure that they understand each other. The three terms provide an excellent conceptual starting point in our attempt to understand the pedagogical principles underlying immersion methodology.

Since the purpose of this handbook is to examine the "what" and the "how" of immersion teaching as well, it is necessary to consider the application of these principles to the classroom situation. Toward this end, a survey of experienced immersion teachers from well-established immersion programs in the U.S. was undertaken as part of the development of this handbook. Findings from the survey provided valuable information about how immersion teachers put these three important principles into actual classroom practice; their insights are reflected in the descriptions which follow.

The Core Instructional Strategies/Techniques Used by Immersion Teachers. Experienced immersion teachers use a variety of instructional strategies and techniques to help their students learn via a second language. Both researchers in the field and practicing immersion teachers agree that ten specific techniques stand out as the core instructional strategies leading to effective instruction

Strategy/Technique	Application
1. Extensive use of body language	Teachers link the abstract with the concrete by associating language with pantomime, gestures, and facial expressions, especially in the early grades.

2. Predictability in instructional routines (e.g., openings/closings; assignments/homework directions, etc.)	Immersion teachers must provide more direction and structure for learners so students can anticipate or guess meaning even when they don't understand the language.
3. Drawing on background knowledge to aid comprehension	Immersion teachers try to link the known with the unknown, the familiar with the unfamiliar to provide a schema or frame of reference for new material.
4. Extensive use of realia, visuals, manipulatives	Immersion teachers help associate language with its concrete referent through pictures, and real-life objects; hands-on activities promote multi-sensory experiences.
5. Review of previously covered material	Before introducing new material, immersion teachers must insure understanding by review and careful diagnosis of the levels of student comprehension.
6. Building redundancy into the lessons	Immersion teachers use repetition, paraphrase, restatement, and synonomy to give students many chances to understand the language.
7. Explicit teacher modeling	The immersion teacher is the primary and usually only language model for the learners; explicit enunciation and multiple repetitions provide students with critical language input.
8. Indirect error correction	Immersion teachers correct language errors by modeling the correct responses for the learners.
9. Variety of teaching methods and types of activities	Immersion teachers recognize diversity of general learning styles and also of language learning styles.
10. Use of clarification/ comprehension checks	Immersion teachers must use frequent and varied methods to check comprehension.

How Else is Immersion Teaching Different? In addition to employing a number of instructional strategies and techniques to make input comprehensible, immersion teachers must be prepared for additional responsibilities.

1) **Preparation:** Immersion teachers require more preparation time for curriculum development and translation of materials. They need more planning time than teachers in monolingual programs, as one teacher who participated in the survey explained, "...to find alternative ways of presenting material," and "to search for the perfect combination of visuals, books, vocabulary, and techniques to present material and allow children to see they understand, can relate past experiences to new material, and take risks without feeling foolish." In addition, immersion teachers must have an excellent understanding of the subject matter since they have to spend so much preparation time on lessons and materials which promote comprehension; subject matter knowledge has to be practically automatic.

2) **Vocabulary Development:** Because immersion students lack both basic and specialized vocabulary, teachers must concentrate on vocabulary development in a systematic manner. One teacher summarized this concern very aptly: "Immersion teachers must emphasize vocabulary building so that students are able to converse, discuss, express feelings and personal reactions so that they are able to make the connections between concepts and information, and themselves."

3) **Culture:** Immersion teachers must know the culture of the second language community and strive to integrate it into the curriculum, not only as a distinct subject matter, but wherever relevant.

4) **Personal Attributes:** Immersion teaching requires many personal attributes. Immersion teachers must be patient and flexible because lesson preparation and instruction take more time. They must be comfortable being good actors since there are great demands for using body language and pantomime. They must know the language well and feel completely at home using it for both academic instruction and interpersonal interaction. In one teacher's words, they must "constantly fight the urge to communicate with students in English," especially for discipline and classroom management. Finally, they must create an environment in which the students feel comfortable using their second language for all communicative purposes in the classroom.

What Have We Learned about Immersion Methodology?

Thus far this section has given us a good start in identifying the multiple skills that experienced immersion teachers employ in order to help immersion students learn. Similarly, the points raised by teachers about increased preparation time and lesson pacing and coverage are critical information for any immersion administrator to have. It is clear from talking to immersion teachers and considering our teacher survey that there is something different about immersion teaching; the closer we get to capturing the strategies and techniques, the better prepared we will be to train immersion teachers. We now know that immersion teachers need far more creative and varied instructional techniques than previously thought, when immersion teachers were instructed to "just" teach the standard school curriculum or even more recently when they have been told to "just" provide comprehensible input and negotiate meaning.

One way to describe what we have learned is that at minimum there are numerous language and instructional techniques/strategies that immersion teachers must possess in their pedagogical repertoires to teach the subject matter effectively in a second language. In other words, for immersion education to work, teachers must use body language, build redundancy and repetition into their lessons, and emphasize vocabulary development. But, if our goal is to think about how immersion can work better in the '80s, where else can we turn in this tinkering process to upgrade this instructional model? How can the immersion model be exploited or maximized further for its language teaching potential?

A recent article raises these questions very succintly. In "Immersion French in Secondary Schools: 'The Goods' and the 'The Bads'," Swain and Lapkin (1986) discuss findings of studies carried out in Toronto, Ottawa, Saskatchewan, and New Brunswick, Canada, with secondary school French immersion students. They found that there was continued overall development of French skills in the secondary school; however, the students continued to show the weakest development in speaking and writing, particularly with regard to grammatical acquisition. As is the case in virtually all immersion programs, the students had relatively little opportunity to use French outside of class. Importantly, however, it also appears that they had relatively little opportunity to use the language in class. To test these conclusions, the researchers left a tape recorder running for a day in each of 19 grade 3 and grade 6 immersion classes. Analysis of the

grade 6 recordings showed that 81% of all student utterances consisted of a single word, a phrase, or a clause.

These findings are hardly surprising. Clearly the dominant pedagogical orientation of North American schools, whether mainstream, immersion, bilingual, etc., is one that places the teacher in exclusive control of instruction. In this orientation, referred to as the transmission model (Cummins, 1986), or more commonly, lockstep teaching, teachers are viewed as the holders of all knowledge; their job is imparting knowledge to students in the form of instructional objectives. While it is beyond the scope of this handbook to debate the relative merits of this orientation, it is quite fair to say that this orientation is not optimally conducive to second language learning.

What Can We Learn From Other Work in Second Language Education?

Let's turn now to work by others in second language education for insights into how the immersion model can become an even more effective model of second language teaching. An article by Enright and McCloskey (1985) may provide the answer we are looking for in immersion. Their title hints at the direction being suggested: "Yes, Talking!: Organizing the Classroom to Promote Second Language Acquisition." They note four principles which are at the heart of communicative language teaching:

1. Children learn language through purposeful, real, here and now experiences with language;
2. Children learn language as a medium of communication rather than as a curricular subject; language is viewed as a verb (doing

language, or communicating) rather than as a noun (knowledge of a language);

3. Children learn language through creative construction; errors are part of the natural acquisition process; and
4. Children learn language through <u>interaction</u>; this involves <u>exposure</u> to language as communication as well as opportunities to <u>practice</u> language as communication in a <u>variety</u> of contexts. (p. 434-435).

Immersion education, it seems, in its present form is already an excellent example of communicative language teaching in terms of points 1-3. Point 4 however, is a different story. Enright and McCloskey maintain that teachers can organize their classrooms with "an eye toward exploiting their language-learning potential in addition to accomplishing their original purpose [to teach subject-matter]" (p. 439). To accomplish this, however, a fundamental change in the traditional, teacher-centered classroom must take place --"No Talking!" the edict of traditional classrooms must become "Yes Talking!" the password to communicative classrooms.

Enright and McCloskey go on to offer seven suggestions for organizing a communicative classroom:

1) **Organize for collaboration** - Collaboration involves "two-way" classroom experiences with teachers and students working together and students and students themselves working together;
2) **Organize for purpose** - Communicative activities have specific purposes which require authentic needs to communicate;

3) **Organize for student interest** - When students are truly interested, they have a reason to communicate;

4) **Organize for previous experience** - Communicative classrooms build on what the students already know;

5) **Organize for holism** - Communicative activities require an integration of all language and cognitive skills;

6) **Organize for support** - Second language learners need to know that their efforts to communicate are valued; and

7) **Organize for variety** - Communicative classrooms must include a variety of materials, purposes, topics, activities, and ways of interacting.

With the general principles of communicative language teaching in mind, let's consider two kinds of classroom activities which are strongly supported by research and could easily be adapted for use in immersion teaching.

Group Work

One excellent way to convert to a more communicatively-oriented classroom is through the use of group work. Long and Porter (1985) recommend group work as an "...attractive alternative to the teacher-led, 'lockstep' mode and a viable classroom substitute for individual conversations with native speakers." They offer five pedagogical arguments for the use of group work in second language learning.

First, group work increases language practice opportunities. We know that in teacher-centered classes students do not get much chance to talk. Studies have shown that in a typical class, teachers talk for at least half, and often for as much as two- thirds of any class

period. Long and Porter estimate that in an average language class of 30 students in a public secondary school, students have a chance to talk about 30 seconds per lesson - or just one hour per student per year. Of course, immersion classes are different since the second language is used as the medium of instruction for all or part of the day; consequently, immersion students have much more exposure to the second language. This increased exposure probably accounts for the fact that immersion students develop native-like receptive skills. The example noted previously of the tape-recorded classes in Canada, however, illustrates the point that indeed even with more instruction in the language in the immersion setting, students still have relatively limited opportunities to use the language for any extended period of time. Group work is one way to take language out of the mouths of teachers and give immersion students the chance to produce in the second language.

Secondly, group work improves the quantity and quality of student talk. Studies have shown that second language learners working in groups produce more talk with other learners than with native speakers. Non-natives were found to use a wider range of speech acts in order to negotiate their ideas with their non-native counterparts and also corrected each other more in small groups. Furthermore, in comparison studies, non-natives did not produce any more accurate or grammatical speech when talking with non-natives than in conversations with native speakers. These findings contradict the popular belief that non-natives are not good conversational partners. Quite the opposite appears to be true. Non-natives can offer each other genuine communi-

cative practice that is typically unavailable to them in the environment outside of the immersion classroom or in a tightly controlled teacher-centered classroom.

The third pedagogical argument is that group work helps individualize instruction. As we all know, a classroom full of students typically contains a great variety of personalities, attitudes, motivations, interests, cognitive and learning styles, and cultural backgrounds. Add to these general differences, differing levels of second language comprehension, fluency, grammar skills, etc., and there is an even greater myriad of differences. Careful selection of groups and assignments can lead to lessons which are better suited to individual needs. The fourth argument is, in a sense, related. Group work promotes a positive affective climate. For many students, being called upon in front of the whole class is very stressful, especially when they must "perform" in a second language. Small groups provide a much less threatening environment, often freeing students up to take more risks. The fifth argument states that group work motivates learners. This point assumes that an environment which is more tailored to individual differences, is non-threatening, and provides a change of pace from the typical teacher-controlled format, will increase learner motivation.

Cooperative Learning

Work in cooperative learning provides a second example of activities which incorporate a communicative approach to teaching. This approach grew out of concern that competitive classrooms do not promote access to learning for all students equally. To counteract the

traditional classroom organizational structure, Kagan (1986) reconfigures the classroom, dividing the class "into small teams whose members are all positively interdependent" (p. 241). In order to accomplish any assigned task, all members of the team have a designated role or responsibility. Groups are assigned a group grade, creating the interdependence on members which makes cooperative learning different from more general group work activities described in the preceding section. For a more detailed discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of cooperative learning and examples of classroom activities, see Kagan (1986).

Research on the value of cooperative learning shows positive results on academic achievement, race relations, and the development of mutual concerns among students in a wide variety of settings, subject areas, and grade levels (Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, & Hasselbring et al., 1984). Cooperative learning also appears to be particularly effective with low achieving students. However, Slavin (1983) notes that cooperative learning strategies only succeed to the extent that they are carefully and systematically implemented. He cites the following four necessary conditions for successful implementation:

1) A high degree of structure;
2) A regular schedule of learning activities and well-specified learning objectives;
3) Clear individual accountability among team members; and
4) A well-defined reward system, including rewards or recognition for successful groups.

Thus, it appears that cooperative learning offers an important set of techniques and activities for any American classroom. However, since our focus in this section of the handbook is on ways to create a more communicative immersion classroom, let's consider the additional benefits that cooperative learning provides for extended opportunities for second language development. In addition to the more general academic and prosocial advantages that cooperative learning promotes, the methodology also holds tremendous potential for language development. McGroarty (1987) notes several major benefits of cooperative learning for enhancing second language learning in linguistically heterogeneous bilingual classroom situations. Five of her arguments can be applied with equal force to the foreign language setting of the immersion classroom:

1. Cooperative learning as exemplified in small group work provides frequent opportunity for natural second language practice and negotiation of meaning through talk;
2. Cooperative learning provides an additional way to incorporate content area and language instruction;
3. Cooperative learning tasks require a variety of materials, with non-verbal, visual, and manipulative means as well as texts used to support instruction; this whole array creates a favorable context for instruction;
4. Cooperative learning models require redefinition of the role of the teacher in ways that allow language teachers to expand their professional skills and deal with meaning as well as form; and

5. Cooperative learning approaches encourage students to take an active role in acquisition of language skills and encourage each other as they work on problems of mutual interest.

In sum, cooperative learning techniques offer an exciting new challenge to immersion teachers for their well-documented contributions to learning in general, and for the great potential they offer for extended opportunities for second language practice.

Reflections on the Dual Role of the Immersion Teacher

Immersion teacher training in the United States can best be characterized as "under the wing," with new immersion teachers being adopted by experienced teachers, or "by the seat of the pants" as new teachers must find their own way through trial and error. An important contribution of this handbook as a pre-service document is to define the role of the immersion teacher. In a very general sense, the role of the immersion teacher is no different than that of every other elementary school teacher--to teach the curriculum at that grade level. This is the role with which most immersion teachers feel most comfortable. But, since such a large part of instruction is through the medium of the students' second language, immersion teachers really have a second charge--to be language teachers as well. Immersion teachers, therefore, really wear two hats at all times. This section is devoted to defining the role that immersion teachers must play as language teachers.

Consider two typical scenarios. Scenario #1: The foreign language teacher comes in for a 20-minute French lesson in grade 5 on colors, a lesson completely devoid of any connection with what the class is doing

at that time in its other subjects. Scenario #2: The high school chemistry teachers asks her students to write up the steps in a laboratory experiment just conducted without ever considering that limited-English proficient students may not know the vocabulary or rhetorical mode for describing a process. Figure 2 illustrates these scenarios. In this model, each teacher has his/her respective priority: the content teacher is responsible for subject matter mastery; the language teacher is responsible for the language arts curriculum. Unfortunately, their responsibilities usually end there. There is rarely an attempt made to integrate the teaching of language and content.

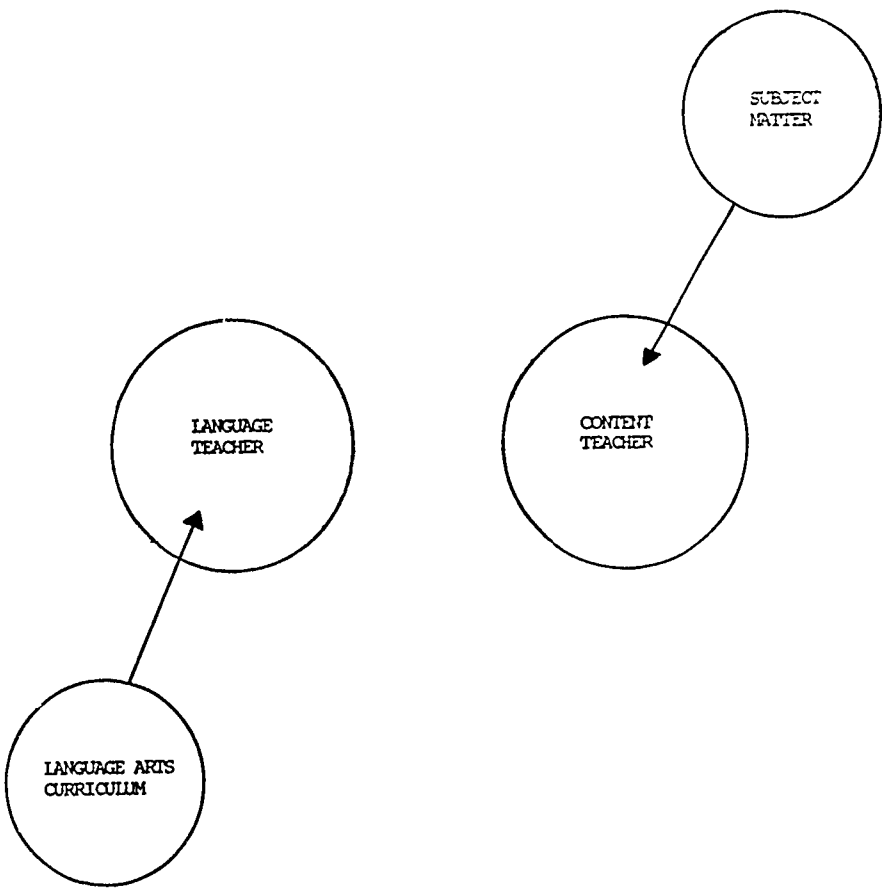

Figure 2 - Roles of language and content teachers in typical school setting

A Model for Integrating Language and Content Instruction

To counteract this situation, there is a growing movement in the United States to integrate language and content instruction more closely. The movement is particularly centered on ESL instruction where so-called content-based ESL classes are being designed at many levels of proficiency, from elementary to university courses. This integration is illustrated in Figure 3, in a model proposed by Snow, Genesee, and Met, (in progress). The terms will be defined in the next section.

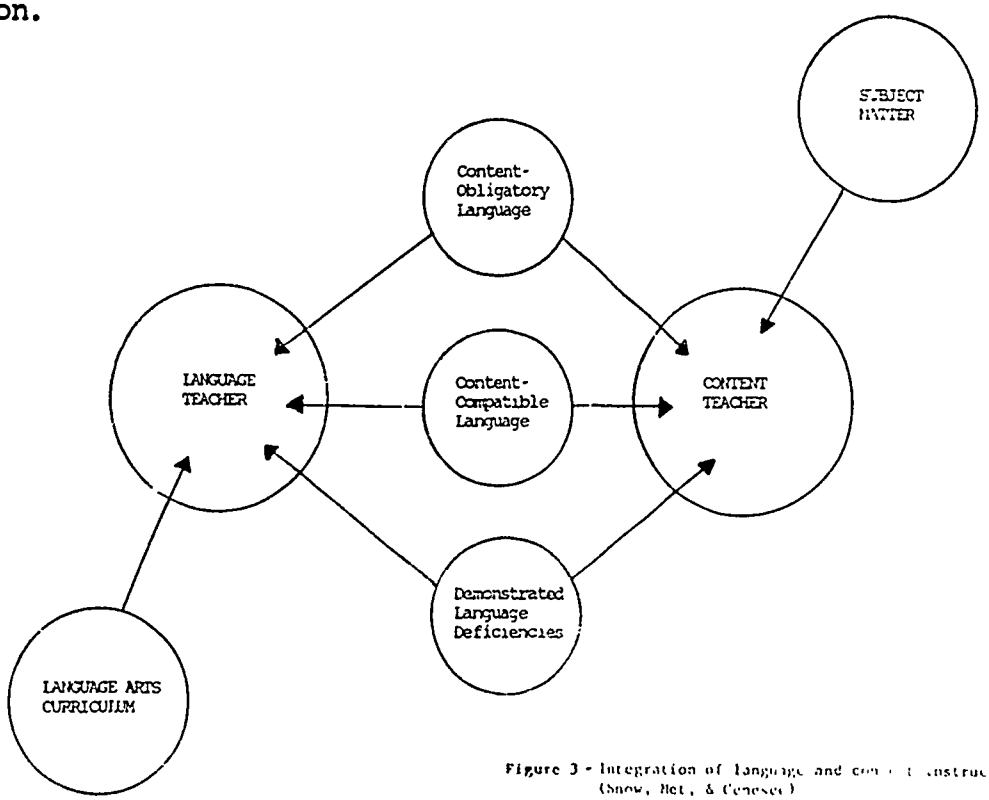

Figure 3 - Integration of language and content instruction (Snow, Met, & Genesee)

The Two Hats of the Immersion Teacher

How is this language-content integration model relevant to you, the prospective immersion teacher? It's very important in reconceptualizing the role of the immersion teacher as language teacher. Consider Figure 3 again. In the typical instructional setting, the

language teacher and the content teacher are different people. There is rarely an existing network set up in elementary or secondary schools for these people even to talk to each other. In immersion, however, There is a totally different configuration in that the content teacher and the language teacher are one and the same. Here's where the two hats come in. In a sense, immersion is unique; yet, probably few immersion teachers in the past have thought of their role in this way. The purpose of this section is to explore ways of redefining the role of immersion with an eye to enhancing second language development.

In Figure 4, Figure 3 has been revised to portray the redefined role of the immersion teacher. The immersion teacher is seen as being responsible for both the subject-matter curriculum and the language arts curriculum. The model defines these roles further. It states that the immersion teacher interested in both content mastery and second language development must think about three critical language domains.

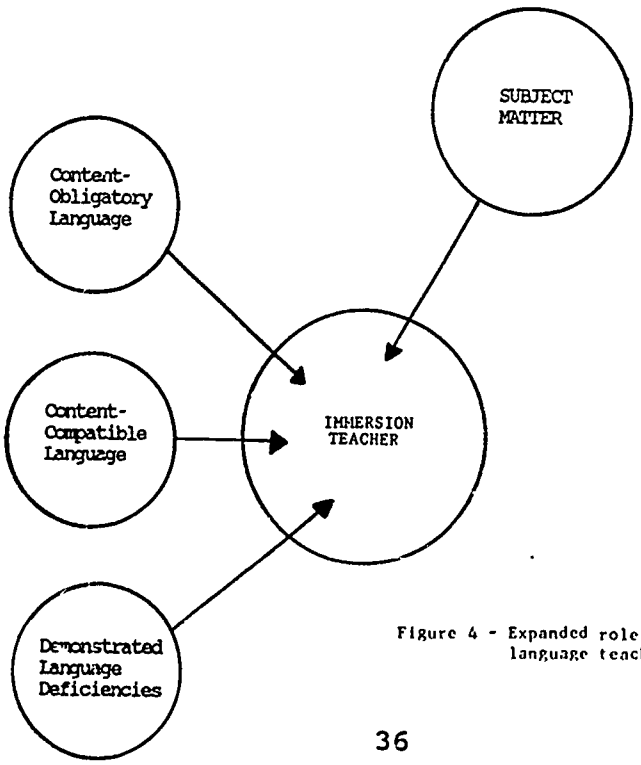

Figure 4 - Expanded role of immersion teacher as language teacher

The first domain is labeled Content-obligatory language. For every topic or concept, certain language is essential or obligatory for understanding the content material. For instance, a lesson on gravity in a fourth grade science class requires that students understand the vocabulary to rise, to pull, and force; similarly, a math lesson on measurement requires students to know the vocabulary for the particular system of measurement, whether inches, feet, and yards, or the alternative concepts for the metric system. But these are rather obvious. In fact, all effective immersion teachers already incorporate this content-obligatory language into their lessons; otherwise, immersion students would not possibly be able to understand subject matter presented in a second language. But there are two other critical steps that immersion teachers often do not take, and these are the second and third language domains.

The second critical language domain is Content-compatible language. Here the immersion teacher puts on the language teacher's hat and asks, "What other features of language are also compatible with the concept or information I am trying to impart?" Let's take a social studies lesson as an example. In describing the travels of a famous explorer, Cabrillo, for instance [illegible] can review or reinforcement of the past tense forms be incorporated into the lessons' activities? While the past tense is not essential for understanding the chronology of Cabrillo's travels, this presents an ideal opportunity for focus on this important grammatical structure.

The third domain requires the immersion teacher to assume the role of an error analyst in detecting demonstrated language deficiencies.

Thus, for example, the immersion teacher notes persistent errors in noun/adjective agreement and then designs a lesson to be either contextualized into a subject-matter lesson or taken up in the language arts period. In sum, this model requires the immersion teacher to take on a three-pronged role as language teacher. In this way, language skills and structures can be taught and reinforced within content teaching.

SECTION III - SOME IMPORTANT REMAINING ISSUES

There are a number of other issues which may be unique to immersion teaching that a prospective teacher should be aware of. Several of these are briefly discussed below.

1. **Student selection** - Although immersion teachers may not be responsible for making decisions about student selection, their feedback is critical in formulating and reformulating guidelines for the screening of students. There are generally few restrictions on admittance to immersion programs. Research has shown that special education students do as well in immersion as they would in monolingual programs (Bruck, 1978). Some immersion teachers have strong opinions about the kinds of children that should not participate in immersion programs; others feel equally strongly about open access for as many types of children as possible. It's important that experienced teachers have a say in the decision-making process so that the policy is based on actual classroom experiences and not on general notions of who belongs in immersion or who does not belong.

2. **Dealing with parents** - Immersion parents are often very active, involved advocates of the immersion program. Initially, they raise a lot of questions and concerns. The immersion teacher must be well-versed on the why's and how's of immersion in order to satisfy concerned parents. This handbook will hopefully provide a good start to becoming an informed immersion teacher and a few additional references are recommended as further reading in the last section of the handbook. Secondly, immersion teachers must become skillful in channeling parental interest to form a positive and constructive component of the

program. Thirdly, the immersion teacher must learn to deal with many practical issues, such as how parents can help their children at home when they do not understand the language of the homework or how to deal with parent classroom volunteers who do not speak the immersion language.

3. **Maintaining good relations with non-immersion teaching staff-** Since most immersion programs are programs within a total school, immersion teachers usually must work with non-immersion teachers at the same school site. Unfortunately, in the past there have been many instances of divisiveness among the two staffs who share the same school. It is important for immersion teachers and administrators to be aware of the potential for conflict and to develop strategies for creating positive faculty rapport.

4. **Articulating the elementary immersion program with the Junior and Senior High Schools** - Another important lesson we've learned from the past is that it is never too soon to plan for the continuation of the immersion program in the junior (or middle) and senior high schools. Long-range planning indicates a district commitment to parents and thereby aids in the elementary school recruitment process. It also creates the needed time for program planning, curriculum and materials development, and teacher selection. Well-articulated junior and senior high school programs can offer immersion students the extended opportunity to build on the foundation laid in elementary school and prepare them for future academic and professional pursuits. The elementary investment is too great to allow the progress made to slip in the upper grades. All immersion teachers must share the commitment to a well-

articulated program from elementary school through high school.

5. **Student assessment** - On what basis should promotion decisions be made in immersion? Should teachers base these decisions on students' standardized English test results or on their proficiency in the second language (which is rarely assessed formally due to lack of suitable instruments)? These are important questions that immersion teachers need to work out with school administrators to formulate a sound evaluation policy.

6. **Teacher evaluation** - How can an immersion administrator, who typically does not speak the immersion language, fairly or effectively evaluate teachers who, particularly at the lower elementary levels, conduct class exclusively in the second language? This is a very real concern since the majority of immersion school principals in the United States, and even many program coordinators, do not speak the second language. Again, guidelines must be set up which incorporate input from immersion teachers.

7. **Coordinating the goals of immersion with other educational programs** - In addition to the immersion program, many schools offer other educational programs such as Instrumental Music, Gifted and Talented Education (GATE), and Artists in Residence which, of course, are typically conducted in English. Students may participate in these programs several times a week, losing exposure to the second language and increasing their exposure to English. Many teachers are concerned about how these possibly conflicting objectives can be reconciled.

8. **The role of formal second language instruction** - Those interested in immersion education, from theorists to teachers, have debated the

question of the role of formal language instruction in immersion programs. The original thinking, in keeping with the belief that second language acquisition processes parallel first language learning, was that there was no need to teach the formal rules of the second language. Through the years, however, more and more immersion teachers, noting persistent grammatical errors, have begun on their own to incorporate formal grammar teaching into their language arts curricula. In fact, most of the immersion teachers surveyed reported that they teach formal rules of the immersion language as part of the curriculum. There is a range of opinion on when formal grammar teaching should commence, although the general consensus is to begin in the lower elementary grades. It is critical that, when taught, grammar rules should be presented in context (or within the language arts or writing activities). This topic remains in need of further research; it is an excellent example of an area where teachers have recognized a need and developed materials to address it.

SECTION IV - MATERIALS AND ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS

In an ideal world, there would be textbook series written for second language learners in the immersion language which paralleled the mandated curriculum of the district, county, or state. Obviously, there is not sufficient market demand for such materials and thus immersion teachers, as we have seen, are often left to their own resources to adapt and develop appropriate materials to match the mandated curriculum. The following criteria for materials adaptation and development are recommended to assist in determining the appropriateness of materials:

1) Do the materials reflect the appropriate developmental stage for the students?
2) Do the materials contain appropriate target language models? In other words, what standard language has your program selected for the students (for example, the Spanish of Spain or Mexico)?
3) Do the materials contain appropriate cultural references; for example, how is religion treated?
4) Do the materials contain activities/exercises which are in line with current pedagogy; for example, are higher level critical thinking skills treated in the materials?

The following are lists of commercial materials currently used in Spanish and French immersion programs in the United States. Obviously, these lists cannot be considered comprehensive. They should be used as guide-lines for identifying additional commercially-developed materials that would be suitable for the immersion setting.

Commercial Materials Most Commonly Used in Spanish Immersion Programs

Mathematics:

- Invitación a las Matemáticas - Scott Foresman
- Exito en las Matemáticas - Silver Burdett
- Heath Mathematics in Spanish - D. C. Heath

Science/Health:

- Bueno y Sano - Scott Foresman
- Ciencias de Health/Tu Salud - Laidlaw Brothers
- Educación para Salud - Santillana
- Ciencia - Addison-Wesley
- Laboratorio - Voluntad
- Programa de Ciencias - D. C. Heath

Social Studies:

- El Mundo y su Gente - Silver Burdett
- Vecindarios y Comunidades - Silver Burdett
- Las Claves del Kindergarten - Scott Foresman
- Historia de California y los Estados Unidos de Ayer y Hoy - Scott Foresman
- Nuestros Vecindades y los Grupos - Graphic Learning Corp.
- Nuestros Hogares y la Escuela - Graphic Learning Corp.
- Los Estados Unidos y Sus Vecinos - Silver Burdett
- Las Americas y sus Pueblos - Compania Cultural Editoria
- El Viejo Mundo y Sus Pueblos - Compania Cultural Editoria
- Communidades - Voluntad

Spanish Language Arts:

- Lenguaje - Santillana

- A Cada Paso - McGraw-Hill
- Así Escribimos - National Textbook Company
- Ya Escribimos - National Textbook Company
- Senda - Santillana
- Mi Rincón - Economy
- Tortilla Press Materials
- Mira y Lee - Santillana
- Trabaja y Aprende - Santillana
- Lengua Española - Compania Cultural Editoria
- Imágenes - Santillana
- Peabody Language Development Kit
- Mi Mundo - Crane Reading Series
- Juguemos a Leer - Rosario
- Lee Conmigo - Economy
- Aprendiendo el Alfabeto - Continental Press
- La Gente a Nuestro Alrededor - Big Books, Span. Ed.
- Ortografía, Nivel A-D. - Santillana
- Me Gusta Leer: Spanish Reading Skills Program - Tortilla Press
- Initial Sounds in Spanish - Ideal

Other:

- Tarjetas con Dibujos y Con Letras - Crane
- Cantando We Learn - National Materials
- Para Chiquitines, Sing a Song of People - Bowman
- Mi Rincon - Nuestros Sueños - Economy

Commercial Materials Most Commonly Used in French Immersion Programs

Mathematics:

- La Mathématique à l'élementaire - Addison-Wesley
- Réalités Mathématiques 1+2 - Editions du Bureau Pedagogique, Inc.

Science/Health:

- Les Chemins de la Science - Fernand Seguin

Social Studies:

- En Passant Par Chez Nous - Centre Educatif et Culturel, Jean-Luc Picard
- Au Tour de Moi - Centre Educatif et Culturel, Jean-Luc Picard
- Les Egyptiens, Les Romains, Les Grecs - Fernand Nathan

French Language Arts:

- Contes à mes amis - Guerin
- Dictée - Hatier
- J'apprends a Connaitre la Langue Francaise -
- Invitation à la Lecture - Clark, Pitman
- Eventures en Ville - Houghton-Mifflin

Other:

- Cahier de Charisons - Edmonton Public Schools
- Records from Arc en Ciel

Teacher-made/District-made Materials

Immersion teachers also rely heavily on teacher or district-developed materials, particularly in social studies, science/ health, reading and language arts. Some districts such as the Milwaukee Public Schools offer their Spanish and French materials for sale. However, to a great extent, most immersion teachers still develop many of their own materials for a variety of purposes, including to supplement existing texts, to design worksheets, to break existing materials into more

meaningful chunks, to align instruction more closely to their mandated district curriculum, and to develop review materials.

Assessment Instruments

Few immersion programs do any standardized testing in the immersion language due to lack of suitable instruments in these languages. Testing in the immersion language is generally limited to teacher-made tests and commercial tests which are available with certain textbook series. Few programs formally test language proficiency of the immersion language. The following is a list of the major standardized tests used to test achievement in immersion programs.

- Metropolitan Readiness Test, The Psychological Corporation, San Antonio, TX.
- Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Riverside Publishing Co., Chicago, IL.
- COGAT - Ability or Potential to Learn, Riverside Publishing Co., Chicago, IL.
- Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), CTB/McGraw-Hill, Monterey, CA.
- California Achievement Test (CAT), CTB/McGraw-Hill, Monterey, CA.
- Stanford Achievement Tests, The Psychological Corporation San Antonio, TX.

Some Spanish immersion programs test achievement in Spanish with:

- Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) Español, CTB/McGraw-Hill, Monterey, CA.
- La Prueba Riverside de Realización en Español, Riverside Publishing Co., Chicago, IL.

- Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM), California State Department of Education, Sacramento, CA.

Another frequently used test of language proficiency is:

- Modern Language Association (MLA) - Cooperative Foreign Language Test in French, Spanish, German, Russian, and Italian, developed by Educational Testing Service, now published by Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Menlo Park, CA.

SECTION V - FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This handbook has attempted to synthesize 25 years of information into a readable introduction on immersion education. From the vantage point of the '80s, we know a great deal about how and why immersion works. In keeping with the spirit of innovation which sparked the first immersion program, it is important to continue the search for effective ways of teaching second languages via immersion.

Inasmuch as this handbook chose to focus on instructional methodology, two perspectives were presented. The first perspective provided a set of language and instructional features which effective immersion teachers, at a minimum, need to include in their instructional repertoire to make subject matter comprehensible to second language learners. The second perspective called for a rethinking of the role of the teacher in general and a suggestion that innovation in immersion must embrace the notion of communicative content and language teaching. A model of communicative language teaching designed specifically for immersion programs is the next logical step.

There are many other needs in immersion methodology which require attention but are beyond the scope of this handbook. Certainly there is still a great need to develop appropriate, challenging materials in the many immersion languages. A second need area is treatment of instructional issues such as team teaching models and strategies for teaching multigrade classrooms (a common immersion phenomenon). It is experienced immersion teachers, with much-needed release time, who should tackle these and other topics. For now, it is hoped that this handbook has inspired you, the beginning immersion teacher, as you

ready yourself for the extra demands that immersion teaching requires of you and the tremendous personal and professional rewards that it will also bring to you.

SECTION VI - FURTHER READING

The following articles or books provide additional information on the immersion model and second language learning.

Cummins, J. (n.d.). Research findings from French immersion programs across Canada: A parents' guide. Available from Canadian Parents for French, Terminal P. O. Box 8470, Ottawa, Ontario KIG 3H6, Canada.

This pamphlet is a readable synthesis of Canadian research results written for parents and others interested in immersion education.

Harding, E. & Riley, P. (1986). The bilingual family: A handbook for parents. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This book does not deal with immersion specifically but provides a useful discussion of bilingualism in general. It may be a useful recommendation to make to interested parents.

Genesee, F. (1987). Learning through two languages: Studies of immersion and bilingual education. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

This book provides the most up-to-date discussion and synthesis of immersion research in both the Canadian and United States settings.

Lambert, W. E. & Tucker, G. R. (1972). Bilingual education of children: The St. Lambert experiment. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

This book provides an excellent historical account of the first immersion program in Canada and presents findings of many evaluation studies.

Language and society: The immersion phenomenon. (1984). Vol. 12. Available from the Commissioner of Official Languages of Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T8, Canada.

This booklet offers an informative collection of short articles written by researchers, parents, and school personnel.

Rhodes, N. C. with Schreibstein, A. R. (1983). Foreign language in the elementary school: A practical guide. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

This booklet provides a rationale for foreign language study in the elementary school and discusses three different program types: Immersion, Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES), and Foreign Language Experience (FLEX).

Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. (1984). Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education.

This book offers a valuable collection of articles describing both the Canadian and American immersion experiences. This is a very good starting point for further reading on immersion education.

References

Bruck, M. (1978). The suitability of early French immersion programs for the language disabled child. Canadian Journal of Education, 3, 51-72.

Campbell, R. N. (1984). The immersion education approach to foreign language teaching. In Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators (pp. 114-143). Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education.

Campbell, R. N., Gray, T. C., Rhodes, N. C., & Snow, M. A. (1985). Foreign language learning in the elementary school: A comparison of three language programs. Modern Language Journal, 69(1), 44-54.

Cummins, J. (1986). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. Harvard Educational Review, 56(1).

Dolson, D. (1985). The application of immersion education in the United States. Rosslyn, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Early french immersion: Administrator's resource book. (1981). Vancouver, British Columbia: Ministry of Education.

Early French immersion: Teacher's resource book. (1981). Vancouver, British Columbia: Ministry of Education.

Enright, D. S., & McCloskey, M. (1985). Yes, talking!: Organizing the classroom to promote second language acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 19(3), 431-453.

Hawley, W., Rosenholtz, S., Goodstein, H., & Hasselbring, T. (1984). Effective teaching. Peabody Journal of Education, 61(4), 15-52.

Kagan, S. (1986). Cooperative learning and sociocultural factors in schooling. In California State Department of Education, Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students (pp. 231-298).

Krashen, S. (1984). Immersion: Why it works and what it has taught us. Language and Society: The Immersion Phenomenon. Vol, 12, Ottawa, Canada: Commissioner of Official Languages of Canada, pp. 61-64.

Lambert, W. E. (1980). The social psychology of language: A perspective for the 1980s. In H. Giles, W. P. Robinson, & P. M. Smith (Eds.), Language: Social psychological perspectives (pp. 415-524). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Lapkin, S. & Cummins, J. (1984). Canadian French immersion education: Current administrative and instructional practices. In Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators (pp. 87-112). Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education.

Lapkin, S. & Swain, M. (1984). Research update. Language and Society: The Immersion Phenomenon. Vol. 12. Ottawa, Canada: Commissioner of Official Languages of Canada, pp. 48-54.

Long, M. & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 19,(2), 207-228.

McGroarty, M. (1987). The benefits of cooperative learning arrangements for second language instruction. Unpublished manuscript. University of California, Los Angeles.

Rhodes, N. (1987). Total and partial immersion language programs in U.S. elementary schools. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (1985). Method: approach, design, and procedure. In J. Richards (Ed.), The context of language teaching (pp.16-31). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Slavin, R. E. (1983). Cooperative learning. New York: Longman.

Snow, M. A., Met, M., and Genesee, F. (in progress). A conceptual framework for content-oriented language instruction. Unpublished manuscript.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1986). Immersion French in Secondary Schools: 'The goods' and the 'The bads. Contact.

Tourigny, R. (1987). Immersion in Canada: 200,000 students and going strong. Paper presented at the Advocates for Language Learning Conference, Washington, DC

Wilton, F., Obadia, A., Roy, R., Saunders, A., & Tafler, R. (1984). National study of French immersion teacher training and professional development. Ottawa, Canada. Canadian Association of Immersion Teachers.

Marguerite Ann Snow (Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics, University of California, Los Angeles, 1985) was formally a member of the professional staff of the Center for Language Education and Research at UCLA and is now a Visiting Assistant Professor in the TESL/Applied Linguistics Department at UCLA. Her main areas of interest are immersion language education, foreign language attrition, and ESL teaching methodology.