The Implementation and Outcomes of One Georgia Two-way Immersion Program

Marguerite Giménez

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THE IMPLEMENTATION AND OUTCOMES OF ONE GEORGIA TWO-WAY IMMERSION PROGRAM

by

Marguerite Giménez

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Name: Marguerite Giménez  
E-mail: mgimenez@kennesaw.edu

Program: Ed.D. – Teacher Leadership for Learning – Inclusive Education

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has been read and approved by the Committee:

[Signatures and dates provided]

Dissertation Chair Signature  Print Name  Date

Committee Member  Print Name  Date

Committee Member  Print Name  Date
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ABSTRACT

THE IMPLEMENTATION AND OUTCOMES OF ONE GEORGIA TWO-WAY IMMERSION PROGRAM

by

Marguerite O. Giménez

This case study examined the implementation of one elementary school’s Spanish-English two-way immersion program and its effectiveness as measured by test scores. Discussions with stakeholders at one school on a classroom and school level were also used to measure its perceived effectiveness. Two-way immersion is one option for federally mandated support for ELs. Through the lenses of sociocultural and critical theory, this study explored relationships and infrastructure within Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program and the purposes and outcomes of the program for English learners. Key findings suggest that the program operates with high levels of administrative support and teacher-to-teacher and student-to-student collaboration. Two-way immersion benefits teachers and students because teachers are learning through interaction (lesson planning, data collection such as response to intervention, having two perspectives of English Learners who are or may become identified as students with disabilities). Students are learning from interaction (having and serving as language models, emotionally benefiting from not being isolated and having support from students dominant in each target language). Another finding is that the 50-50 model of instruction is loosely implemented within the program. Also, two-way immersion English learners’ academic
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achievement is not significantly different than the achievement of English learners in an English-only ESOL program at Creekview Elementary School who have been in the program from kindergarten to third grade. This indicates that learning content for a large portion of each day in Spanish is not negatively impacting student achievement or English language proficiency.

Overall, data sources indicate that two-way immersion students benefitted socially and emotionally from the two-way immersion program. However, research findings suggest that high quality language instruction for English learners provides language instruction to native English speakers as a secondary goal, the first language often becomes marginalized and the native English speakers become a primary focus of two-way immersion programs. This negative impact is possibly due to the anti-immigrant sentiments and policies and individuals’ “common sense” notions about language and learning English. This study supports existing literature that states that educational systems in the United States perpetuate existing language and class ideologies (Freeman, 2000; Gallagher-Geurtsen, 2007). The study is also consistent with research findings that suggest two-way immersion programs potentially provide additional privilege to already privileged native English speakers and that two-way immersion programs benefit all students socially and emotionally and increase student achievement after students participate for four or more years (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Palmer, 2009; Scanlan & Palmer, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Valdez, 2011).
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Chapter 1: Context and Literature Review

In many educational contexts, it has been suggested that two-way immersion programs can address the long-standing underachievement of English learners (ELs), particularly Latino ELs, in the United States (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Lindholm-Leary, 2005). According to the federal court case Lau vs. Nichols (1974), ELs must receive language assistance services in order to help them meaningfully participate in academic settings. Language assistance programs for ELs vary widely, but two-way immersion programs have shown “astounding effectiveness” for all students, including ELs (Collier & Thomas, 2004). The basic structure of two-way immersion programs is that there are two groups of students with different linguistic backgrounds who are learning academic content in English and another target language together for most of the day. For example, a class may be composed of half native English speakers and half native Spanish speakers and receive content instruction from a Spanish speaking teacher in Spanish for a portion of the day and content instruction in English from an English speaking teacher for the remainder of the day. In two-way immersion programs, both groups of students become bilingual and biliterate while learning the same content and meeting the same standards as peers in monolingual programs (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008).

Successful two-way immersion programs are in place in some areas of the United States that have traditionally been gateway states for Latino immigrants, but two-way immersion programs are just emerging in other areas. Two-way immersion is gaining popularity as the favored form of bilingual education in the United States; many new programs are emerging in regions that have traditionally been considered anti-bilingual areas (Palmer, 2009; Collier & Thomas, 2004). Georgia is one state in which new two-way immersion programs are beginning,
and one reason for this is the increasing numbers of Latinos and Latino English learners in K-12 schools. One obstacle educators involved with two-way immersion startup programs face is that they do not necessarily have two-way immersion schools upon which to model the new two-way schools or school strands. This is a case study of one of the first public two-way immersion programs in the state of Georgia, which may serve as a model two-way immersion school for educators implementing new two-way immersion programs.

**Georgia’s Political Context for Bilingual Education**

**Latinos in the United States.** Latinos make up the largest EL subgroup in the United States, with 5,132,000 Mexican, 474,000 Puerto Rican, 338,000 South American, and various other groups of Latinos included in the 7.2 million in 2007 (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010). Many of the ELs and their families in the United States are Latinos. According to the 2010 U.S. Census data, there are over 50 million self-identified Latinos in the United States (Lopez & Dockterman, 2011). In the 2007-2008 school year, 21.2% of students in public elementary and secondary schools were Latino, an increase from 16.6% during the 2000-2001 school year. In the southern region of the United States, 15.3% of PK-12 students enrolled were Latino during the 2000-2001 school year and 20% were Latino during the 2007-2008 school year. In 2007, of the Latino students in the United States, about 7.2 million reported speaking a language other than English at home (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010).

**Latinos in Georgia.** Georgia is no exception to the national trend of increasing numbers of Latinos in the United States. However, an anti-immigration law which negatively affects Latino immigrants, Illegal Immigration Reform and Enforcement Act of 2011, possibly stimulated by the 2009 economic downturn, was passed in Georgia in 2011 (H.B. 87, 2011). The bill makes using fraudulent documents to get a job, transporting or moving an undocumented
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person, and concealing or harboring undocumented individuals all criminal offenses. The bill also requires employers to use E-verify to check employees’ immigration status and gives any peace officer with probable cause authority (including traffic stops) to investigate immigration status (H.B. 87, 2011). House Bill 87 creates a negative political climate for Latinos in Georgia whether they are documented or undocumented. In California and Arizona, similar, longstanding negative political climates carried over into school settings with the passage of anti-bilingual legislation (Proposition 227, “English Language in Public Schools Initiative Statute,” 1998, California; Proposition 203, “English for the Children,” 2000, Arizona). However, these anti-bilingual legislations have not been passed in Georgia.

Georgia’s history of bilingual education and two-way immersion is short. The first documented two-way immersion program in a Georgia public school was Unidos Dual Language Charter School in Forest Park, Georgia, which began implementing the program in 2006 (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011). Based on state superintendent John Barge’s 20 by 20 plan for dual immersion programs, a new state initiative, bilingual education is likely to grow. Georgia’s two-way immersion programs will likely continue to increase due to the 20 by 20 plan. As of spring 2014, 9 Chinese, Spanish, French, and German two-way immersion programs have been implemented in Georgia (Barfield & Valentine, 2014). In a flyer on two-way immersion, Georgia’s Department of Education notes five benefits of two-way immersion—language skills, increased performance on standardized tests, enhanced cognitive abilities, increased cultural sensitivity, and long-term benefits in the global community (Barfield & Valentine, 2014). Barge hopes to implement 20 public dual immersion programs in the state of Georgia by 2020, and has a systematic plan for this. The Georgia Department of Education website contains the following
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mission statement for the World Languages and Global Initiatives department, which is the department at the state level that is affiliated with the 20-by-20 plan:

For our students to succeed in a global economy, they will need to possess a new set of skills that were not required for the success of prior generations of Americans. Regional expertise, cross-cultural competence, and advanced language proficiency are no longer skills reserved only for those who plan for a career overseas - they are skills that will enhance any career field, encourage international investment to our state, and develop a workforce that is successful in working on diverse international teams to collaborate and solve global problems. Developing international perspectives and advanced language proficiency, particularly as this relates to college and career readiness, will ensure our nation's security and will support our statewide and regional economic development goals. Business leaders across Georgia and the Southeast have made it clear that these skills are the fastest route to success in a global job market, and that they provide a competitive advantage that moves an applicant's resume to the top of the pile.

Based on this statement, Barge’s overall motivations for the 20 by 20 plan are global connectedness and college and career readiness as outlined in the National Common Core standards. Bilingualism and multilingualism are beneficial for all students, both ELs and native English speaking, in the current world context of globalization.

The relocation of Latino immigrants and immigration of new immigrants into areas that have not traditionally been home to Latinos is referred to by some as the New Latino Diaspora (Hamman, Wortham, & Murillo, 2001). During the past two decades, Latinos have been moving to states and communities such as North Carolina, Maine, Georgia, Indiana, Arkansas, rural Illinois, and resort areas in Colorado that have not traditionally been gateway states/regions for
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this population (Hamman, Wortham, & Murillo, 2001). Before the 1990s, only about 1% of the population of Georgia was comprised of Latinos, and most of these were migrant workers (Bohon, Stamps, & Atiles, 2008). Consequently, educators typically did not have any differentiated supports or considerations in place for the Latino students present. The prosperity of the 1990s brought an influx of Latino immigrants, mostly Mexican, to Georgia in order to fill low skill, low wage jobs in the fields of poultry, construction, and the textile industry (Bohon, Stamps, & Atiles, 2008). As more Latinos and other groups of people migrated to Georgia, more workers were needed for construction and landscaping jobs. Today the Latino population accounts for 9% of the total population in Georgia. Even more important, 12% of K-12 students in Georgia are Latino (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011). Since the 1990s, Georgia’s Latino population has continued to increase, more than doubling since the 2000 census, with a total of about 880,000 Latinos in Georgia in 2011 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011). As a result, educators have been required to rethink the ways in which they educate Latino students, especially those who are English learners.

The arrival of Latinos in Georgia has been different from Latinos arriving in gateway states such as California, Florida, and Texas because the infrastructure for absorbing minorities is not yet in place (Bohon, Stamps, & Atiles, 2008). When immigrants move to new locations, both immigrants and receiving communities are affected. Housing, work, shopping, language, and educational opportunities and situations are some of the factors for immigrants and receiving communities to consider. If educators do not adjust programs and instructional practices for immigrants, Latino or others, the student achievement outcomes are not positive. As a result, in Georgia and nationwide, Latinos have not fared favorably in the education system throughout the
past few decades; a clear student achievement gap and graduation rate gap exists between Latino students and white students (Fry, 2008).

School Policy Context in the United States and Georgia

**Increasing numbers of ELs.** Throughout the past few decades, the number of English learners (ELs) enrolled in public schools in the United States has been increasing steadily. From the 1998-1999 school year to the 2008-2009 school year, the number of ELs enrolled in pre-kindergarten to twelfth grade in U.S. schools increased 51.01%, and this percentage is even higher in some regions of the country. For example, EL enrollment in many states such as Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Indiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia has increased more than 200% during this time period (U.S. Department of Education, 2011b). This increase plus increased accountability measures and mandated disaggregation of data initiated by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 mean that educators must consider carefully how they will support ELs’ language development and academic achievement.

**The achievement gap for Latino students.** Unfortunately, despite federal and state regulations protecting ELs, many public schools tend to marginalize these students. The long-term achievement gap between EL students and white, native-English speaking students remains (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Gay, 2010; Fry, 2008; Garcia, et al., 2010). The racial achievement gap has been a problem in schools for decades now, though attention was originally given to the black-white achievement gap (Jencks & Phillips, 1998). However, NCLB’s AYP subgroups brought more attention to the other groups such as low-socioeconomic status students, special education students, and ELs (LEP/Limited English Proficient). Many researchers attribute the achievement gap between ELs and white, native-speaking peers to the ongoing academic and linguistic isolation of ELs (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Gandara & Orfield, 2010; Fry, 2008).
Darling-Hammond calls this common situation in which ELs are clustered together in low-quality schools and low-level tracked courses with limited access to the mainstream curriculum standards the “ELL ghetto” (2010, p. 61). For instance, in 2007, 50% of Latino 4th graders and 42% of Latino 8th graders in the United States scored below basic on state reading proficiency tests whereas only 22% of white 4th graders and 16% of white 8th graders scored below basic. In 2005, 40% of Latino 12th graders scored below basic on state reading assessments and only 21% of white 12th graders scored below basic. Similarly, in 2009, 29% of Latino 4th graders and 43% of Latino 8th graders scored below basic in state mathematics assessments, but only 9% of white 4th graders and 17% of 8th graders scored below basic. In 2005, 60% of Latino 12th graders scored below basic in state mathematics tests, while only 30% of white 12th graders scored below basic (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010). In 2007, the overall high school dropout rate for Latinos was 19.9, but the high school dropout rate for whites was 6.1% (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010). Statistics for Georgia Latino students and ELs are alarming in terms of graduation rates. The overall graduation rate in Georgia for the 2010-2011 school year was 67%, but the graduation rate for Latino students was 58% and for ELs was only 32% (U.S. Department of Education, 2011a). These data are displayed in Figure 1.1. In the 1980s, Georgia educators were largely unconcerned about Latino students and their achievement or lack thereof because of the small percentage of Latino’s (1%) in Georgia (Bohon, Stamps, & Atiles, 2008). As the Latino population in Georgia increased, the achievement gap between Latino students and white students became a problem. By 2011, Latinos made up 9% of Georgia’s population, and the achievement of Latino students was considered to be a higher priority for many educators than in the 1980s and 1990s (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011).
Figure 1.1- Latino achievement gap data. Data compiled from (Bohon, Stamps, & Atiles, 2008; Pew Hispanic Center, 2011; U.S. Department of Education, 2011a; Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010).

**1980s**
GA schools largely unconcerned with Latino students’ achievement and graduation statistics because only 1% GA population Latino

**1990s**
Latino workers (mostly from Mexico) move to GA to fill low-skill, low-wage jobs; educators faced with shifting demographics, and student needs, an achievement gap between Latino and white students begins.

**2005**
- **40% U.S. Latino 12th graders scored below basic in reading (21% white)**
- **60% U.S. Latino 12th graders scored below basic on math proficiency tests (30% white)**

**2007**
- **50% Latino 4th graders and 42% Latino 8th graders in U.S. scored below basic on state reading proficiency tests (22% white 4th graders, 16% white 8th graders)**
- **19.9% Latino dropout rate in U.S. (6.1% white)**

**2009**
- **29% U.S. Latino 4th graders and 43% Latino 8th graders scored below basic in math (9% white 4th graders, 17% white 8th graders)**

**2011**
- 67% overall GA graduation rate (58% Latino, 32% ELs)
- **9% GA population Latino**

**2011**
- 67% overall GA graduation rate (58% Latino, 32% ELs)
- **9% GA population Latino**
Noguera and Wing (2006) call for researchers to question the way the achievement gap has been framed and to examine political and social factors rather than individual students, families, communities, and cultures as possible contributors to the problem. One way to shift blame for the academic failure of ELs from ELs and their families to political and social factors is to examine program and instructional delivery models and how and why they are being implemented. Examining program and instructional delivery models may guide researchers and educators in better meeting ELs’ needs and ultimately narrowing the achievement gap. Many researchers recommend bilingual education, which is considered “additive” and frames students’ native languages as resources to develop rather than deficits to overcome, over English-only, which is considered “subtractive” and deficit-based (Bartlett & Garcia, 2011). In their four-year qualitative case study of an urban school in New York, Bartlett and Garcia (2011) made a case for bilingual education for Latino immigrant high school students as a solution to low achievement and high dropout rates of Latino ELs. In this school, bilingual instruction and efforts to include Dominican immigrants’ families had positive outcomes for students.

Educators must consider how we are failing ELs, particularly Latinos, and what can be done to improve these students’ academic achievement. This is particularly important in regions within the New Latino Diaspora, because these areas must determine how to respond to growing numbers of Latinos in schools. Some regions and states, such as North Carolina and Illinois, with high populations of new immigrants have responded to the relatively new presence of Latinos with bilingual programs such as two-way immersion. Other areas, such as the state of Georgia, the site of the study, have kept English only program delivery models in place and have been slow to respond to the shifting demographics and academic needs of ELs.
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With bilingual education, particularly two-way immersion, the focus is on multicompetence and what ELs are capable of doing rather than their deficits (Cook, 2006). Two-way immersion is a bilingual program delivery model in which two groups of students, the linguistic majority (e.g. native English speakers in the United States) and the linguistic minority (native Spanish speakers in this study) are instructed together in both languages separately at specific times throughout the school day. In successful two-way immersion programs, both groups of students gain bilingualism, biliteracy, and cultural competence in both cultures represented (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2012).

Program Delivery Models of Support for ELs in the United States

Nationally, several different programs of language support have been implemented in order to meet accountability requirements and address the issue of growing EL populations. ELs, or English Learners, have been given several different labels in the past, including LEP (limited English proficient) and ELL (English language learner). The researcher uses EL in this study in order to focus on language acquisition rather than a perceived deficit and to maintain consistency with Georgia’s Title III program (Alston et al., 2012).

Two broad categories of support English learners may receive in the United States are bilingual instruction and English as a Second Language (ESL) programs (Thomas & Collier, 2002). Due to the current political climate of the United States, which Bartlett and Garcia (2011) describe as “anti-bilingual times,” most ELs’ language needs are addressed through English as a second language (ESL) programs. In ESL (also called ESOL, or English for Speakers of Other Languages in K-12 schools) programs, teachers typically are not bilingual, and instruction is delivered in English only with the support of visual aids. ESOL is used when there are ELs with
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several different home languages in single districts or schools, bilingual teachers are not available, or bilingualism and biliteracy are not goals of the school, district, or state. ESOL programs may focus on social and instructional language and/or grammar or be content-based. The current trend in language instruction is to use content-based instruction for teaching ESL. Prior to this trend, ESL was typically used for social and instructional language and English language arts instruction. Additionally, ESL classes may be delivered in a variety of forms, including push-in (the ESL specialist works with the general education teacher(s) to support ELs with language in general education classrooms) and pullout (ELs meet in small groups with the ESOL teacher in a setting other than the general education classroom for intensive English instruction), which are the most common forms of ESL in elementary schools (Honigsfeld, 2009).

Sheltered English instruction is a program delivery model used in middle and high school contexts. In this model, there is a specified class period for ESOL, and the class may be any content area, the class is comprised of all ELs, and the teacher uses ESOL strategies to provide comprehensible input to ELs (Freeman & Freeman, 1988). Another program delivery model is structured English immersion (self-contained classes with English support for a few years only) (Honigsfeld, 2009).

Some researchers question the appropriateness of English-only instruction. In a longitudinal study examining program delivery models for ELs and their effectiveness, Thomas and Collier (2012) conclude that English-only methods of instruction are the worst possible choice for ELs and that English-only programs result in high numbers of ELs dropping out of high school. According to Murphy (2011), ignoring students’ first languages results in lack of development in first languages, lack of development in additional languages, and stunted cognitive growth. Pacheco (2010) conducted a case study of a 3rd grade reading class
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transitioning from bilingual reading instruction employing Spanish to an English only approach. She found that the students were engaged in discussions and activities that supported reading comprehension and meaning-making opportunities, but were limited to a phonics-based reading approach in the English only class (Pacheco, 2010). She notes that in English-only programs, phonics and other skills-driven methods and programs tend to replace real-world connections and interpretations of the world and social systems that are often present in bilingual programs (Pacheco, 2010). Though these skills-driven programs and practices are attempts to improve high-stakes test scores, the result is that students do not have opportunities to use critical thinking skills and do not perform well on reading comprehension assessments (Pacheco, 2010).

An alternative to English-only instruction is bilingual instruction, which is more likely to be implemented in traditional gateway states than in others due to high EL populations and the tendency to use the students’ first language when there are more ELs present (Gateway states are states such as California, Florida, Texas, and New York, which have well established communities of multiple generations of EL immigrant populations.). One reason bilingual education is preferred over English-only instruction in some cases is that leaving children alone in unfamiliar language environments for extended periods of time may be harmful for their well-being (Gallagher, 2011). In addition, bilingual students outperform monolingual students academically, parent involvement is supported by bilingual education, students have a voice in bilingual education, and continued first language development may prevent the loss of students’ mother tongues (Gallagher, 2011).

The three main categories of bilingual education are transitional, developmental/maintenance, and two-way immersion. In transitional programs, ELs begin with a high percentage of input in their first languages and transition as quickly as possible to English
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only, usually within three years. In developmental/maintenance programs, first language support is provided to ELs in order to maintain the home language and also develop English proficiency. In two-way immersion, bilingualism and biliteracy are the main goals. Two-way immersion programs are another form of bilingual education. Though various forms of two-way immersion programs exist, key features are that dual language programs usually have both native English speakers and native speakers of another target language, these students are together most of the day, and students learn academic content through both languages (Gomez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005). As of 2013, the Center for Applied Linguistics reported 422 known dual-language schools in the United States, which may be a low estimate because these are self-reported. Three are listed for Georgia, two of which are private and one of which is public, Unidos Dual Language Charter School in Forest Park, Georgia, which began in 2006.

Figure 1.2 shows some of the major program delivery models for ELs. These programs can be divided into two broad categories, bilingual and monolingual (Cummins, 1983; Honigsfeld, 2009).

**English only programs.** Due to the current political climate of the United States, in which and Varghese and Park (2010) acknowledge the existence of an “attack on bilingual education” and Bartlett and Garcia (2011) describe as “anti-bilingual times,” most ELs’ language needs are addressed through English as a second language (ESL) programs with the goal being English proficiency only. English-only programs are and have been used as the primary program delivery model for ELs in Georgia. Bartlett and Garcia (2011) recommend bilingual education, an “additive model,” over English-only, which is considered “subtractive schooling” because the focus is on multicompetence and what ELs are capable of doing rather than their deficits. Two-way immersion programs are considered to be additive bilingual programs because the emphasis
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is on maintaining students’ first language while simultaneously developing students’ second language. Georgia’s 20 by 20 initiative for the creation and implementation of two-way-immersion programs contrasts with the national trend of “anti-bilingual times.” However, many monolingual programs are in place in the United States. Major subcategories of monolingual programs are structured English immersion, sheltered English, and English as a Second Language (ESL), which is also called English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). The term ESOL is used in this study because the research site is located in Georgia, where the term ESOL is used (Alston, et al., 2012). The most widely implemented models of ESOL are pullout and push-in. In the pullout model, ELs are removed from their general education classes for a certain amount of time each day/week to receive support from an ESOL teacher in English language development. Content in pullout classes varies widely from state to state, district to district, school to school, and even classroom to classroom within schools. Push-in instruction is a delivery model in which the ESOL teacher works with classroom teachers to provide small or whole group English language support to ELs in the general education classroom. Structured English immersion, another form of ESOL, is required in states such as California and Arizona, and in this program delivery model, ELs are taught explicit English language skills in self-contained classrooms and expected to exit the program within a few years. Sheltered English programs are usually implemented in high school and middle schools, and intermediate to advanced ELs receive content instruction and credit (English or other subject area) through a scheduled class/scheduled classes. These ELs are “sheltered” from competition with native English speaking peers, and teachers aim to provide comprehensible input to language learners (Freeman & Freeman, 1988).
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**Bilingual programs.** Bilingual programs can be categorized as either transitional bilingual, developmental/maintenance bilingual or two-way immersion programs (Cummins, 1983; Honigsfeld, 2009). Advocates for bilingual programs believe that in order for ELs to absorb content knowledge upon initial placement in U.S. schools, they should receive instruction in their native language for at least a portion of the school day until they are able to sufficiently understand academic language in English (Cummins, 1983). Transitional bilingual programs minimize the use of students’ native language over time and ultimately discontinue the use of students’ primary language. The goal of transitional bilingual programs is to transition students from native language to English in educational settings. Developmental/maintenance bilingual programs aim to preserve students’ first languages while they acquire English. Two-way immersion programs aim for students to achieve biliteracy and bilingualism in a target language as well as in English. Two-way immersion is different from developmental bilingual education because minority and majority language students are served.

If bilingual programs are implemented in the United States, dual language programs are favored because they benefit both ELs and native English speakers, and they are usually called “dual language” or “two-way immersion” programs (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Palmer, 2009). Dual language programs are referred to as “dual language education,” “two-way bilingual education,” “two-way immersion,” “dual immersion,” and “enriched education” by various researchers (Gomez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005). The researcher considers dual language to be a broad category encompassing several other bilingual program delivery models and uses the term two-way immersion throughout this paper. Language immersion programs can be either one-way or two-way. In one-way immersion programs (or foreign language immersion), there is one language group, and in the United States, this would mean that native English-speaking
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children are immersed in a target language other than English. In two-way immersion programs, English and a target language are both used for instruction and learning and there are two groups of students, native speakers of English and a target language (Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008). Spanish is the most common target language in two-way immersion programs in the United States because Spanish is the language of the majority of ELs within the country. However, there are also two-way immersion programs within the United States with Cantonese, Mandarin, French, German, Italian, Japanese, and Korean as the target language (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011). Two-way programs vary from other program delivery models for ELs such as transitional bilingual programs and ESL because they are considered to be enrichment rather than remedial, and maintenance of first language is one of the explicit goals. Also, the two groups of students in two-way immersion are different from one another. With transitional bilingual programs and ESL programs, English language proficiency and assimilation are the primary goals. The main goals of two-way immersion programs are to promote bilingualism and biliteracy in both languages, achieve academic proficiency in all subject areas, and cultivate cultural appreciation and healthy relationships between students, families, and communities (Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008).

There are two main models of two-way immersion programs, 50:50 and 90:10, with the numbers referring to time devoted to target language and English. In 50:50 programs, each language is used for approximately half of the instructional day, and in 90:10, the target language is used approximately ninety percent of the instructional day for Kindergarteners and first graders, and English gradually increases until the target language and English are used at an approximate 50:50 ratio in 4th and 5th grade. Gomez, Freeman, and Freeman (2005) recommend the 50:50 model in border towns and areas in which there are more speakers of the minority
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language than English. Supporters of the 90:10 model argue that students should initially build Spanish language and literacy skills because the larger world contains more English than Spanish (or other minority languages). In either case, Lindholm-Leary (2005) identifies four hallmark characteristics of two-way immersion programs. Firstly, instruction and class work take place in two languages. Secondly, there are periods of instruction set aside specifically for each language each day, and translation and mixing of the languages is highly discouraged. Thirdly, both ELs and native English speakers complete work in each language in balanced proportions. Lastly, ELs and native English speakers are together for most content instruction (Lindholm-Leary, 2005).

Policymakers have important choices to make in determining which program delivery model of language support to provide for ELs (Honigsfeld, 2009). The appropriate model must be context-specific and based on the needs of the students at each school, but two-way immersion is gaining popularity and evidence shows that two-way models of instruction are beneficial when feasible (Collier & Thomas, 2004).
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*Figure 1.2-* Program delivery models for ELs in the United States.
Support for Two-Way Immersion

According to Palmer (2009), two-way immersion programs have “very few enemies,” and even researchers opposed to other forms of bilingual education are often supportive of two-way immersion (p. 181). Collier and Thomas (2004) attribute this to the inclusive nature of the model and the benefits two-way immersion has on all students, both ELs and students who are native speakers of English. Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan (2000) state that two-way immersion programs are beneficial for not only the academic elite, but also students from low socioeconomic backgrounds and who have traditionally struggled in school. They refer to two-way immersion as “enriched education” because the programs contain the same rigorous academic and linguistic elements as other K-12 programs, but with the additional aim for advanced language functioning in two languages (Cloud, et al., 2000). Major benefits of two-way immersion programs that are often cited are educational, cognitive, economic, and sociocultural (Cloud, et al., 2000).

Student achievement, as measured by standardized tests, is the primary goal of K-12 schools in the United States. Two-way immersion programs have been reported to produce desirable results in this domain. Several studies have shown that students in two-way immersion programs do as well as, or outperform, native speakers on high stakes standardized tests administered in English (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Collier and Thomas (2004) have been compiling longitudinal research on one-way and two-way dual language programs, mostly in Houston, Texas, for over eighteen years. In 2002, there were 56 two-way immersion programs in the Houston Independent School District (Collier & Thomas, 2004). Collier and Thomas’ (2004) findings indicate that two-way immersion is a promising model with positive outcomes for all stakeholders, producing achievement gap closure between ELs and
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their native speaking peers. Their data show that ELs in two-way classes outscored ELs in transitional and developmental bilingual education programs in English achievement by 7 Normal Curve Equivalents while also scoring high in Spanish achievement. Collier and Thomas (2004) found similar positive results in a heritage dual language program (French and English) in Maine. In this study, Collier and Thomas (2004) found that former ELs in bilingual immersion classes outperformed former ELs in the English mainstream, with the difference increasing each year over a period of four years. Collier and Thomas (2004) conclude that the benefits of two-way immersion instruction are astoundingly positive and should be a wakeup call for the field of bilingual education.

Aside from educational benefits of two-way immersion, non-academic cognitive benefits of two-way immersion programs are also often noted. For example, balanced bilinguals may have an advantage over monolinguals in divergent thinking, pattern recognition, problem solving, and metalinguistic awareness (Cloud, et al., 2000). Cook (2006) calls this advantage over monolinguals “multicompetence,” which is defined as “the compound state of mind with two grammars.” Bialystok (2007) proposes that bilinguals have advanced cognitive functioning when compared to monolingual counterparts. One point that she makes is that accelerated development of cognitive control takes place as a result of focusing to two languages (Bialystok, 2007).

Two-way immersion programs provide students with economic benefits in the current world context of globalization and changes in communication and technology. Bilingualism and biliteracy are considered to be advantageous for native English speakers and ELs in the present and future job market of globalization (Lindholm-Leary, 2005). For example, biliterate
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individuals gain access to job opportunities related to business, diplomacy, tourism, and communication that monolinguals do not have (Cloud, et al., 2000).

Various other benefits of two-way immersion programs, including sociocultural benefits, also exist. For example, additional positive findings for two-way immersion programs from Collier and Thomas’ (2004) study are that two-way immersion programs tend to increase parental involvement and cross-cultural friendships among parents and that administrators usually remain in their positions for several years and experience job satisfaction. The inclusive nature of two-way immersion programs and the acquisition of two languages lead to communication with various groups of people that would not take place otherwise, a broadening worldview, and tolerance and respect for different groups of people (Cloud, et al., 2000). Thomas and Collier (2012) note that two-way immersion instructional models are a natural fit for the current Common Core educational initiatives and standards, particularly because two-way immersion provides high levels of student-student collaboration, built in time for discussions and explanations about learning, cooperative grouping, and preparation for the larger world (college and career readiness). Some Latino students in two-way immersion programs report that they feel valued in their two-way programs (Lindholm-Leary, 2005). Barfield and Valentine (2014) list and describe each of the aforementioned benefits of two-way immersion in Georgia’s official position statement document on two-way immersion. Two-way immersion also improves students’ perceptions of school, particularly those of Latino students, and may reduce the high dropout rate of Latino students in the United States. Bartlett and Garcia (2011) studied a bilingual high school in New York City and found that the family-like community and additive model of schooling led to positive self-perceptions and decreased dropout rate for ELs. This phenomenon is likely to apply even more so in an elementary two-way immersion program, in
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which ELs have the opportunity to develop positive self-perceptions about their language and schooling experiences at early ages.

**Criticisms against Two-Way Immersion**

Though two-way immersion programs are widely accepted and gaining popularity in the United States, there are some criticisms toward the delivery model. Of course, any program that is poorly implemented will be viewed negatively. Two-way immersion programs that place all ELs in the same two-way program, ignore the specific needs of ELs, provide only listening and speaking instruction while ignoring literacy instruction for newcomers or low-proficiency ELs,

Because ELs are a diverse group of individuals with a variety of home languages, native language educational experiences and proficiency, socioeconomic statuses, educational contexts, etc., two-way immersion programs should not be mandated for large groups of ELs without considering their specific needs. Honigsfeld (2009) writes that one-size-fits-all approaches for program delivery models and instructional techniques are inadequate to meet the needs of a diverse group of ELs. Two-way immersion programs may not work with all students in all educational contexts.

Escamilla (2007) makes five recommendations for teachers of ELs. She cautions that “good teaching is just good teaching” is not necessarily enough for ELs, oral language development and literacy should be taught simultaneously, students’ native languages should be considered scaffolds rather than barriers, beginning ELs’ needs should be addressed differently than their more advanced peers’, and teachers should provide culturally relevant instruction for ELs. In a study on teacher preparation programs in Florida, de Jong (2010) found that many in-service teachers felt unprepared to communicate with ELs’ families and promote the use of ELs’ first languages in classrooms. In a survey study, de Jong and Harper (2005) found that 42% of
Two-Way Immersion participants indicated teaching ELs, but only 12.5% indicated receiving more than eight hours of professional development related to teaching ELs. Teacher preparation specific to the needs of ELs is imperative in two-way immersion programs. If these five recommendations are not met within a two-way immersion program (or any other program designed for ELs), the program is likely to be unsuccessful in helping ELs attain academic and English proficiency.

Lindholm-Leary (2005) notes six features of successful two-way immersion programs: a school environment with supportive administrators and clear vision and goals for the two-way immersion program; rigorous, standards-based instruction that integrates language and content objectives; proper schoolwide program planning with a developmentally and language-proficiency level appropriate scope and sequence, multiple assessment measures in English and the other target language, teacher quality and familiarity with bilingual education, and family involvement (Lindholm-Leary, 2005).

Based on Escamilla’s (2007), de Jong’s (2010), de Jong and Harper’s (2005) and Lindholm-Leary’s (2005) work, all teachers of ELs need ongoing professional development in order to best meet the unique needs of each of his/her students. If teachers in two-way immersion do not receive high quality initial and ongoing training, the programs may not be effective. This study explores the implementation of Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program, determining whether or not similar features of success are present within the program.

Aside from poorly implemented programs, some researchers cite additional problems with two-way immersion. These problems are mostly linked to two-way immersion’s privileging of white, native-speaking English speakers rather than other populations such as African American students or the ELs two-way immersion should primarily help. However, the native English speakers in two-way immersion programs are not necessarily white or
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socioeconomically privileged; students who qualify from free and reduced lunch and African American students participate in many two-way immersion programs, which is the case at Creekview Elementary. Valdes (2011) is supportive of two-way immersion programs, but cautions educators that two-way immersion may result in more benefits for majority (anglophone) children than for minority children who are already marginalized. Gomez, Freeman, and Freeman (2005) note that some two-way immersion programs have been criticized for being set up primarily for the benefit of native-speaking English students. Palmer (2009) completed a case study of a two-way immersion classroom in the San Francisco Bay area. In this study, she explores the negative impact of the placement of English and Spanish dominant students being placed within the same classroom in a two-way immersion setting. Valdes (2011) mentions that including native speaking English students in two-way immersion programs gives these already advantaged students another advantage by giving them access to the Spanish language, which was previously the only exclusive educational advantage that ELs held. Palmer (2009) points out that most two-way immersion programs in the United States have minority Spanish-speaking students in classrooms with white, middle-class English speakers, which affects the conversational dynamics and power structure in classrooms. Linguistic majority students tend to dominate discussions and teachers’ attention in two-way immersion classes, which may indirectly teach the linguistic minority students that they are second-class citizens (Palmer, 2009). Also, ELs know that acquiring English is essential for their success academically and in larger society, but native English speaking students do not have the same sense of urgency to learn the target other language because this is considered optional or for enrichment (Palmer, 2009). In order for equity to occur in two-way immersion settings, voices of both groups of parents must be heard, and educators must consciously work to ensure that two-way immersion
Two-Way Immersion programs and classrooms are not merely reproducers of societal power structures as they exist in the larger society (Valdes, 2011). Palmer (2009) and Valdes (2011) argue that educators must work to ensure that middle class, white, already advantaged students are not given more privileges than the linguistic minority students (Valdes, 2011).

Varghese and Park (2010) expand on the concern that two-way immersion programs serving privileged native English speaking students may cause these programs to stray from the original intent of assisting minority students with English language development. They warn that situating two-way immersion programs within the context of globalization can result in diluted programs and shifting two-way immersion programs from their commitments to local communities to the development of “McWorld” (Varghese & Park, 2010). They raise several questions about the claims of two-way immersion programs and are skeptical about the ability of two-way immersion to save bilingual education in the face of globalization.

Another problem within two-way immersion programs is that students are often exposed more to English than to Spanish (Palmer, 2009). Even in 90:10 programs, in practice, English is often used more than the designated percentage, which is problematic because students in the United States are likely to be exposed to more English than Spanish (or other target language) outside of school. Also, in some cases, two-way immersion programs have more monolingual English speakers present as language models than bilingual or monolingual target language teachers (Palmer, 2009).

In their cross-case comparison, Scanlan and Palmer (2009) critically examine two-way immersion programs from two stand-alone case studies and point out that one problem with one of the schools examined is that African American students tend to be systematically excluded from the two-way immersion program because parents do not have access to information about
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program benefits and enrollment and some teachers believe that African American students are troublemakers and do not speak Standard English (Scanlan & Palmer, 2009). Special education students are also often excluded from two-way immersion programs (Scanlan & Palmer, 2009). In some cases, there are problems with ELs being excluded from two-way immersion programs because an equal number of ELs and native speakers is required for the program (Gomez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005). Special education students are not excluded from Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program, and students have not been excluded from the program, native English speakers or ELs, because class distributions of students do not necessarily have to be exactly 50% native English speakers and 50% target language speakers.

Previous Studies on the Implementation of Two-Way Immersion Programs

As part of their nationwide longitudinal study on the program delivery model effectiveness, Thomas and Collier (2012) studied dual language programs (one-way and two-way immersion programs) in North Carolina that grew out of a state initiative, the first which began in Charlotte in 1997. The results of Thomas and Collier’s (2012) North Carolina study are particularly noteworthy for this study because Georgia and North Carolina are similar in many ways, including in regards to EL patterns and populations. Both states have been affected by large numbers of Latinos moving to the regions. As of 2011, there were 51 schools with one-way or two-way immersion programs in the state of North Carolina. Thomas and Collier (2012) label North Carolina’s case as astoundingly effective in terms of student achievement, attributing success of the program to appropriate implementation focused on fidelity to program design. Most of the immersion schools in North Carolina begin with 90:10 models of instruction in kindergarten. This is different from the Georgia Department of Education’s 50:50 model of two-way immersion. North Carolina has offered visas to non-English speaking target language
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instructors and hopes to grow their own teachers in the future. Georgia has not offered visas to target language instructors, and neither has Creekview Elementary. Dual language programs are extremely popular in North Carolina and many have waiting lists and lotteries for students to be able to gain enrollment. Creekview Elementary does not yet enjoy this level of popularity and is not a magnet school at this time. Key findings from the North Carolina study are that by middle school, two-way students are often at least one grade level ahead of comparison groups in terms of reading achievement, the dual language program seems to counteract the negative effects of low socioeconomic status on African American and EL students in terms of student achievement, students with disabilities benefit academically from two-way immersion, and dual language benefits all students in terms of reading and math achievement.

Quintanar-Sarellana (2004) completed a case study of a K-8 two-way immersion program in northern California. She determined that the school is successful based on high SAT scores and community involvement of students. Some of the factors she attributes this success to are its duration (K-8) which allows time for academic language development, provision of comprehensible input from teachers and opportunities for student output, high-quality bilingual staff, separation of languages for instruction, a 90:10 model of language instruction to ensure a strong foundation in Spanish, an additive and positive school environment, focus on the academic curriculum, collaborative and flexible grouping to meet students’ needs, home-school collaboration, a multicultural curriculum with inclusion of different varieties of Spanish, partnerships with higher education and community institutions, opportunities for participation and leadership, updated curriculum based on the changing world, and resiliency and growth (Quintanar-Sarellana, 2004). Overall, Quintanar-Sarellano (2004) found that this well-implemented two-way immersion program fostered student achievement and parental
Two-Way Immersion involvement. Creekview Elementary School also has high levels of parental involvement and maintains many other positive characteristics from the aforementioned list. For example, the program is not currently K-8, but key leaders are formulating a plan to continue the program to some degree in the feeder middle school. Also, all teachers and administrators interviewed to date have indicated that the school provides comprehensible input, opportunities for students to produce output in English and Spanish, high quality staff with multiple opportunities for ongoing professional development, a focus on Georgia’s state standards, high levels of home-school collaboration, and opportunities for students to hear several varieties of Spanish.

Giacchino-Baker and Piller (2006) completed a case study of a two-year-old two-way immersion program at an elementary school in a border town in California. They focused on parental attitudes and perceptions and found that Spanish-speaking parents placed students in the program primarily based on other parents’ feedback and English-speaking parents enrolled their students in the program primarily based on teacher and administrator commentary. Spanish-speaking parents’ motivations to enroll students in the program were economic, academic, and linguistic integration and preservation of home language. English-speaking parents expressed the desire for their children to function in a bilingual society and multilingual world. Parental concerns were the continuance of the program, English-speaking parents helping children with Spanish homework, and Spanish-speaking parents having trouble registering their children for the program (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). Key parent recommendations for the two-way immersion program in this case study were to offer language assistance to parents with the alternate language, provide additional Spanish reading materials, provide more information about assessment and progress in the two-way program, and add additional two-way programs in elementary, middle, and high schools in the district (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006).
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In a study of a rural Illinois district, Paciotto and Delany-Barmann (2011) found inconsistencies in top-down two-way immersion and implementation. They note that the Latino Diaspora is spreading and that the implementation of language policies in new contexts such as the rural Illinois research site may differ from their implementation in traditional gateway cities and states. Their findings are similar to those of Freeman (2000), who conducted a case study on a developing middle school two-way immersion program in Pennsylvania, and Wiese (2004), who conducted an ethnographic case study on a second-grade classroom within a two-way immersion school in California. Educators within Wiese’s (2004) study were constantly working to redefine two-way immersion and questioning whether or not the program was, in fact, a two-way immersion program. Wiese (2004) emphasizes that the reality of daily classroom life in a two-way immersion program differs from the original program model intent. In the case of this California 2nd grade classroom, ways in which the program deviated from a two-way immersion model were that bilingualism and biliteracy weren’t considered goals for all students (depending on first language and whether or not the student was a native speaker of standard English at home), European American students and African American students were instructed differently and African American students were discouraged from enrolling in the program, and students were exposed to more English than Spanish (partly due to mostly monolingual school staff) (Wiese, 2004). The principal in this case study emphasized the importance of shaping the program for students rather than adhering strictly to the two-way immersion model, and the teacher voiced frustration with the difficulties of teaching in two languages (Wiese, 2004). Freeman (2000) finds that two-way immersion programs are complex, take years to fully develop and implement, and must be context and student-specific.
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Two-Way Immersion

Problem Statement

It has been suggested by scholars and educators that two-way immersion is a promising model of instruction that has been shown to benefit student achievement and provide academic, social, and other lifelong benefits not only to Latino students (or ELs who are speakers of target languages other than Spanish), but also to native English speaking peers of ELs (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Collier & Thomas, 2004). Georgia and many other relatively new receiving states for Latino immigrants have been using English-only models of instruction for ELs, but historically, these have not proven to be effective (Hamman, Wortham, & Murillo, 2001). Georgia state superintendent John Barge has plans to implement two-way immersion programs in Georgia, which has not traditionally been a site of bilingual programs. Implementation of two-way immersion programs in Georgia and similar states may be challenging because the concept is new in the context of Georgia. Unidos Dual Language Charter School in Forest Park, Georgia began in 2006 and was Georgia’s first official two-way immersion program within a public school (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011). The problem in Georgia and other states such as Alabama, Arkansas, and South Carolina is that there are not many model schools for new two-way immersion programs in those states for educators to learn from in terms of program implementation. Appropriate program implementation is critical for startup two-way immersion programs because the delivery model possesses great potential for increasing student achievement of Latino ELs.

Purpose of Study

ELs in Georgia and nationwide are not performing at the same level as native-speaking counterparts (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010; Fry, 2008). Consideration of alternative English language support program delivery models such as two-way immersion approaches is
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one way to address this issue. Two-way immersion programs have proven to have long-term academic benefits for ELs and their native-speaking peers (Thomas & Collier, 2002). However, there is a gap in the literature because the effects of such programs on Georgia students have not been examined, and how best to implement these programs within Georgia and other non-gateway states and regions for ELs has not been determined. In Georgia, State Superintendent John Barge aims to implement twenty two-way immersion programs by the year 2020. In order for this to materialize, more research is necessary on effective implementation of two-way immersion programs in the Georgia context.

The purpose of this research is to understand how one school within Georgia is implementing a new two-way immersion program and whether or not the program is resulting in positive academic and social and emotional outcomes for Latino students. Emphasis was placed on student achievement scores and how administrators, teachers, and students are interacting and collaborate to implement a two-way immersion program. Though the school implemented two-way immersion in order to participate in a state initiative and to benefit both Spanish speaking ELs and native English speaking students, this study primarily examined the outcomes of the program for ELs; outcomes of the program regarding native English speaking students were secondary. The study also explores administrators’, teachers’, and parents’ perceptions of the impact of the program in terms of academic, social, and emotional outcomes for students, school environment, and school-family collaboration. The results of this study may be generalizable for some schools within the state of Georgia and other states and regions with similar demographic trends. With the Georgia Department of Education’s stated goals and mission for twenty two-way immersion schools by 2020, many schools with high immigrant populations are likely to implement two-way immersion programs in order to provide short and long term benefits to
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native English speakers and ELs within the school. The primary purpose of the study is to explore how (teaching practices, program model, assessment methods) and under what conditions (resources, administration, guidelines) the school is implementing a two-way immersion model, with emphasis on student-student and teacher-teacher collaboration and how the program is impacting students academically and socially.

Research Questions

The overall objectives of this study are to describe how the school is implementing two-way immersion and under what conditions and how the program is impacting students. The research site is referred to as “Creekview Elementary School,” a pseudonym to maintain anonymity for the district and school. It is against the backdrop of Georgia’s new 20-by-20 initiative and the need to explore 20-by-20 programs and how they are supporting ELs that this study took place. The following research questions guided this study:

1. How is Creekview Elementary School implementing its two-way immersion program, and how is the program infrastructure designed?

2. How is the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary affecting students socially, emotionally, and academically?

   a. How do student achievement scores over time and across grade levels compare to those of students in similar schools with English only programs?

   b. What kinds of learning activities and interactions are occurring among two-way immersion students at Creekview Elementary School?

I am interested in exploring Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program as a window into the reasons why Georgia’s educational policymakers have decided to implement the 20-by-20 plan. The implementation of the 20-by-20 plan coincides with anti-
immigrant sentiment in Georgia, the adoption of Common Core national standards by most states (including Georgia), and the need for students to achieve global competency. I am interested in how Georgia’s political context affects the implementation of Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program, especially in terms of the challenges teachers face there and collaboration teachers engage in that are unique to two-way immersion. I am also interested in looking at social, emotional, and academic outcomes and perceived outcomes of two-way immersion on students, particularly outcomes relating to English learners. High-stakes test results are one factor I examine, but I also look at qualitative data such as teacher and parent perceptions of cognitive, social, and emotional outcomes of the two-way immersion program.

Significance of the Study

Because of the increase in ELs in the United States and the educational trend of implementing English-only models of instruction for ELs in many states and the failure of English-only models to close the achievement gap, it is necessary to establish the impact of two-way immersion delivery models and how they can be implemented in states that have not traditionally used two-way immersion. The decisions that school administrators, general education teachers, and language support teachers make concerning ELs’ schooling will impact the students’ futures and the future of the United States significantly. The proposed study is important because it may provide information to ESOL policy-makers about why, when, and how two-way immersion programs may be implemented to best meet the needs of ELs, particularly those in Georgia and other states which have not traditionally provided two-way immersion programs for students. Student-student and teacher-teacher collaboration were the main focus of the exploration of the implementation of the two-way immersion program. Collaboration within two-way immersion represents a gap within the literature on two-way
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immersion and is an important factor to consider through the lens of sociocultural theory (Vygostky, 1986). Though this is a relatively small case study in one district, the results will benefit educators and ELs by providing insight on implementation of two-way immersion programs in similar settings.

Summary

Georgia schools are receiving an increasing number of Latino ELs and must adjust instruction in order to meet the needs of those students in order to close the achievement gap between white students and students of color. Georgia’s state-level policymakers are currently implementing 20 by 20, an initiative to begin at least 20 two-way immersion programs in Georgia by 2020. This is one way Georgia schools are finally responding to shifting demographics in order to help ELs. The creation of such programs in the midst of Georgia’s overall anti-immigrant sentiments is unique.

Two-way immersion is viewed favorably among many researchers and educators due to the academic achievement, inclusion and support for ELs as well as native English speakers, parental involvement, and other benefits it has resulted in in many cases. Critics of two-way immersion programs argue that these programs give money and support to native English speakers and reproduce existing societal structures, when in fact, ELs should be given additional attention and support. They argue that African American students, and, ironically, English learners, are often excluded from two-way immersion programs for a variety of reasons. Also, programs are not always implemented according to design. For example, programs often result in more English than Spanish being spoken or biliteracy and bilingualism not being achieved by all.

Most case studies on student achievement outcomes of and the implementation of two-way immersion programs have been conducted in gateway states for Latino immigrants such as
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Texas and California. Major findings include positive academic and social results for students, increased parent involvement and satisfaction of parents, and a disconnect between program designs and classroom-level implementation of two-way immersion programs. One gap in the literature is the absence of studies focused on teacher-teacher and student-student collaboration within two-way immersion programs, and additional research is necessary in this area. Also, additional research is necessary in order to understand how new two-way immersion programs are being implemented and can improve in new regions for high volumes of Latino immigration.
Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and Methodology

Sociocultural Theory

The conceptual framework of this study is a combination of sociocultural perspective on learning and critical theory. The sociocultural framework of learning is founded on the assumption that learning begins through interaction with others (Lake, 2012). Other major tenets of the theory are that we influence each other through the flow of emotion, teachers and peers shape students’ thought processes, communication builds language acquisition, and the zone of proximal development can guide the learning process (Lake, 2012). In the sociocultural framework of learning, functions occur in children socially first and inside the individual child next (Lake, 2012). Vygostky’s theory that children learn through social interaction is based on the premises that speech facilitates reasoning and that learning occurs via a zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986).

This framework provides a lens for how people make and engage with policy while implementing two-way immersion programs. It also provides a framework for collaboration, which is a key component of successful two-way immersion programs, and sociocultural theory of learning allows for exploration of this collaboration. For example, in two-way immersion classrooms, native English speakers and native target language speakers serve as language models for each other and must collaborate in order to achieve language proficiency and biculturalism and complete assignments. Additionally, English and target language teachers must collaborate in order to provide cohesive curricula to students.

Collaborative Relationships in Sociocultural Theory. Vygotsky’s research was related to the field of psychology, learning in general, and first language acquisition, but has been applied to theories of education and second language acquisition by other researchers (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In terms of education, sociocultural theory indicates that participation in certain
educational activities can shape students’, parents’, teachers’, and other stakeholders’ perceptions and actions in education (Rogoff & Chavajay, 1995). Sociocultural theory also suggests that educational policies in classroom, school, and broader political contexts are shaped by daily social and cultural interactions (Koyama, 2010; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). When sociocultural learning theory is applied to second language acquisition, collaborative learning in instructional settings is especially important. Vygostky (1986) maintains a communicative approach to oral language, asserting that social contact and communication are the primary functions of spoken language. When applying the sociocultural theory of learning to education, educators must construct social environments for students that are conducive to learning, since they play such a significant role in shaping student learning (Vygotsky, 1986). In Vygostky’s (1978) sociocultural theory, language is considered the main tool of achieving goals of the social aspects of living, and language is the primary focus of second language acquisition.

This study examined the implementation of two-way immersion, which is one option for federally mandated support for ELs, and its effectiveness as evidenced through test scores and perceived effectiveness as indicated in discussions with stakeholders at one school on a classroom and school level. The sociocultural theory of learning is an appropriate framework for this study because of its emphasis on relationships and collaboration as well as its potential to examine student learning via outcomes other than traditional assessment measures.

Within a two-way immersion program, stakeholders must work together to achieve goals. One “heroic leader” simply cannot complete all of the required tasks to create any successful school, so leadership must be distributed among others, including teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; Spillane, 2005). In Copland and Knapp’s (2006) leadership for learning framework, creating coherence is highlighted as an important part of distributed leadership.
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Creating coherence is particularly important in a two-way immersion program because grade-level standards and coherent curricula from grade level to grade level and between English and Spanish must be taught. Collaboration and strong relationships among stakeholders is likely to strengthen a two-way immersion program in terms of resources and support. Without a culture of collaboration and relationships among stakeholders, a two-way immersion program is unlikely to be successful.

Also, schools should model democracy and communities of collaborative professional practice for students (Harris & Muijs, 2003; Mayrowetz, 2008). Students will be increasingly asked to participate in collaborative activities and assignments in conjunction with the implementation of the Common Core Curriculum standards, which are designed to prepare students for college and career readiness. Teachers and other school leaders should model these practices for students and also provide students, particularly ELs, with time to interact using academic and social English in all domains of English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). This interaction often includes a variety of group work. Echevarria and Short (2010) point out that ELs learn through interaction with other ELs and native English-speaking peers and also with their teachers. They emphasize the importance of spoken interaction, as well as writing to practice “confirming information, elaborating on one’s own or another’s idea, and evaluating opinions” (Echevarria & Short, 2010, p. 270). Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan (2000) note that collaborative practices such as varied grouping arrangements, peer support, and student-to-student dialogue and sharing are key to two-way immersion instruction.

Vygotsky (1986) notes that lecture and direct teaching of concepts is unlikely to produce meaningful learning for students. Instead, students learn through interactions and actions. One way for teachers to encourage student interaction is to place students in cooperative learning
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groups for tasks rather than asking students to complete tasks independently. According to Hill and Flynn (2006), working in small groups is advantageous for ELs for several reasons. Small groups offer ELs with opportunities to hear key words and phrases repeated several times, which helps ELs retain information more effectively. Small groups also allow ELs opportunities to use vocabulary in real-life situations, which is likely to increase students’ speaking fluency. Working in small groups also benefits ELs by providing context-appropriate, non-threatening feedback. Small group collaborative work also has the potential to reduce ELs’ anxiety, which can prevent students from achieving their full potential in terms of language acquisition (Hill & Flynn, 2006).

Collaborative work within a school amongst teachers and students ties in with a sociocultural theory of learning because within this framework, learning takes place through interactions among individuals in both social and academic situations. Since collaboration plays a central role in EL student learning, exploring how collaboration happens in a two-way immersion program is important for this study.

Student learning as demonstrated through non-traditional assessment measures.

Vygotsky’s educational ideas are particularly applicable to the current field of education because of the overemphasis on testing and his alternative emphasis on sociocultural factors and nontraditional assessment measures to demonstrate student learning (Lake, 2012). According to Lake (2012), all of the money and energy poured into federal initiatives such as No Child Left Behind and the Race to the Top have resulted in few significant changes in terms of closing the achievement gap or increasing student achievement. Fixation on standardized testing has also led to subtractive, deficit models of schooling (Lake, 2012). Non-traditional methods of assessment allow student collaboration and may demonstrate more effectively that standardized tests what students know. The research question that relates to non-traditional assessment measures and
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sociocultural theory of learning is, “What kinds of learning activities and interactions are occurring among two-way immersion students at Creekview Elementary School?” Traditional standardized test measures at Creekview Elementary are Georgia Criterion-Referenced Competency Tests (CRCT) scores and Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners (ACCESS for ELLs) scores. Traditional assessment measures also include common district assessments, unit tests, and daily and weekly formative assessments. The benefit of having non-traditional sociocultural-based assessment practices such as student portfolios, teacher checklists, and collaborative projects in place instead of, or in addition to, traditional assessments is that non-traditional assessment methods may provide valuable information for educators that traditional assessments cannot. For example, Fleer (2002) notes that poor student achievement on standardized tests may reflect institutionalized patterns rather than individual student failure.

Fleer (2002) writes that teaching and instruction in the United States have moved toward a Vygotskian sociocultural framework for learning, but that assessment practices do not match this trend. Traditional assessment practices in the United States, rather, are usually linked to Piaget’s ideas or a social influence approach (Fleer, 2002). Vygotsky, however, argued against Western assessments’ focus on the individual, which he believed did not allow the teacher or other assessor to determine children’s potential capabilities (Fleer, 2002). He believed students should be assessed within their unique zone of proximal development, which would allow for the examination of strengths and a shift from a deficit model of assessment to one that could inform teaching and learning (Fleer, 2002). Vygotsky’s use of the term “zone” indicates a view of development and learning as a continuum rather than a set target (Lake, 2012). A “zone” rather than a target is especially relevant for ELs, who must develop language proficiency in stages.
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There are similarities in WIDA’s Can-Do Philosophy and Vygotsky’s ZPD because both focus on students’ potential rather than their shortcomings. WIDA is an acronym for World Class Instructional Design and Assessment, and is a consortium to which Georgia and thirty other U.S. states and territories belong (WIDA, 2011). WIDA provides standards, assessment, and other resources to frame English language support in member states. The consortium operates by the “Can-Do” philosophy, which emphasizes ELs’ accomplishments, assets, and potential as opposed to deficits. Georgia uses WIDA’s ACCESS test as its annual assessment for measuring ELs’ progress (WIDA, 2011). The zone of proximal development is the most well-known concept connected with Vygotsky (Lake, 2012). In this framework, a mentor-teacher must lead the student to the next level of learning (Lake, 2012).

Some examples of sociocultural-based, non-traditional assessment measures that are used include portfolios, short observations, performance tasks, projects involving drama, projects involving art, and transcripts of collaborative exchanges between children. Fleer (2002) criticizes these types of assessment measures as not paying attention to mediation taking place within learning, and therefore not being truly within the sociocultural framework of learning. Sociocultural theory assumes that meaning is co-constructed by groups of students rather than individuals, so assessment measures should be group oriented as well (Fleer, 2002).

The sociocultural theory of learning is an appropriate framework for this study due to its emphasis on collaboration and interactions among individuals, including student-to-student interactions, student-to-teacher-interactions, teacher-to-teacher interactions, and interactions among other stakeholders. The zone of proximal development brings the focus of teaching and assessment to what students can do rather than what they cannot do, which is consistent with an additive model of schooling as mentioned by Bartlett and Garcia (2011) and also with WIDA’s
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philosophy of student learning. Examining sociocultural factors within student learning creates a more complete picture of student learning than simply looking at traditional assessment measures.

**Critical Theory**

In addition to the sociocultural perspective of learning, this study examined Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program through the lens of critical theory. The overall purpose of critical social theories is to “understand and explain the causes of structural domination and inequality in order to facilitate human emancipation and equity” (Levinson, 2011, p. 2). Subcategories of critical theory that apply to this study are Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies. Bernal (2002) outlines 5 important elements that form the basis of both Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies Theory. First, Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies are transdisciplinary approaches which “to draw on the strengths and research methods of various disciplines in understanding and improving the educational experiences of students of color” (Bernal, 2002, pp. 109). Second, both theories place emphasis on experiential knowledge with which students of color may tell counterstories, narratives, or testimonies of their own experiences as students of color. Encouragement of the use of personal counterstories to combat racist ideologies is a distinguishing trait of Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies Theory. Third, Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies Theory challenge dominant ideologies about ways of knowing and understanding in favor of culturally and linguistically relevant ideologies. Fourth, both theories position race and racism as central issues that permeate daily life in society and note that race and racism intersect with other forms of subordination. Fifth, Critical Race Theory and Latino Critical Race Studies Theory encourage a commitment to social justice.
Critical theory can be applied to the examination of power relations within two-way immersion, from broad societal structures of domination to state, district, school, and classroom relations. Critical theory relates to this study on Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program because societal structures and power relations influence policymakers’ decisions about program delivery model. Power relations within the school infrastructure also affect program implementation.

Critical Race Theory, a subcategory of critical theory, assumes that education in the United States is designed with the needs of middle class white students at the forefront, and Ladson-Billings (1998) explains that Critical Race Theory touches all aspects of education, including curriculum, instruction, and funding. Ladson-Billings (1998) argues that curriculum in mainstream U.S. schools provides a single-sided story of history and provides students with readings and topics written by and about white, middle class people. Curriculum of two-way immersion schools tends to deviate from this “traditional” curriculum in order to develop bicultural students, which is one of the overall goals of most two-way immersion programs. Critical Race Theory also posits that educators generally expect failure from non-white students and hold deficit views of these students, assuming they need remediation (Ladson-Billings, 1998). The nature of two-way immersion programs frame ELs in a more positive light, using students’ L1 as a resource rather than a barrier and creating an environment of enrichment rather than remediation (Cloud et al., 2000). Additionally, funding of K-12 schools relates to Critical Race Theory because most states fund schools based on property taxes, which often results in white students attending new, clean, technology-rich schools and minority students attending run-down, unkempt, overcrowded schools with minimal resources (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Two-way immersion programs combine groups of students very diverse in terms of race,
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socioeconomic status, and linguistic background with equal instruction and resources or each group.

**Common sense vs. good sense as an explanation of the perpetuation of hegemony.** In the field of education in the United States, many believe that schools perpetuate existing class and race structures, further perpetuating middle-class privilege, white privilege, and linguistic privilege for native English speakers. Gramsci (2000) asserts that the application of common sense, which is the belief system of a majority of people (whether logical and beneficial or not), rather than good sense, which is the logical and beneficial understanding of or solution to a situation, perpetuates hegemony. In the context of Creekview Elementary School, the dominant groups are middle-class, white, and/or native-English speaking students. “Common sense” notions held by society are that middle-class and white individuals are in positions they are in due to merit and that the English language should be esteemed over other languages in the United States.

**Vygotsky and Gramsci Applied to Theoretical Framework**

Vygotsky is a key theorist in sociocultural theory, and Gramsci is a key theorist in critical theory. Important points that Vygotsky makes are that learning (including second language acquisition) occurs through interaction and collaboration and that students learn via their unique zone of proximal development (Vygostky, 1978). Gramsci differs from Vygostky because he purports that events and belief systems are in place due to systemic hierarchy rather than collaboration, that the ruling class prescribes language usage rather than individuals learning through interaction with others, and that hegemony is perpetuated because people rely on common sense rather than good sense (Gramsci, 2000).
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Together, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning and Gramsci’s critical theory create a powerful framework for exploring Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program. Both theorists assert that human interactions are important in educational contexts, whether these interactions are equitable or hierarchical. Also, both place importance on language ideologies. More important, both Vygotsky and Gramsci made counterhegemonic arguments.

Vygotsky argued against behaviorism, stating that learning happens through interaction rather than through mimicry, as theorists such as Skinner assumed (Vygostky, 1978). Vygotsky’s argument implied that student learning should not be viewed in subtractive terms such as what is going on in students’ brains or what is wrong with them, but that students should be given opportunities to learn. Similarly, two-way immersion programs push against the status quo by implying that English learners should be given opportunities to learn via native language and English, which is against common sense notions that English learners have problems with intelligence and learning. Gramsci (2000) mostly addressed politics, pushing against hegemonic cultural and common sense notions. As Vygotsky and Gramsci’s arguments were counterhegemonic, two-way immersion programs are designed to be counterhegemonic.

Common sense in the United States maintains a subtractive view of bilingualism which discredits bilingual education as perpetuating a sense of “aliens” coming into the state and not learning English (Freeman, 2000). The prevailing “common sense” is that immigrants and children of immigrants should receive instruction via English only delivery models such as ESOL. Kumasi (2011, p. 209) points out that “[t]he white majority group tolerates advances for racial justice only when it suits their interests to do so.” When applied to this study, one might argue that two-way immersion programs are gaining popularity because they benefit both dominant and oppressed groups. Though the reasons many policymakers have permitted two-
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way immersion programs in Georgia may be the wrong ones and primarily for the benefit of native English speakers, having two-way immersion programs remains counterhegemonic because many educators are committed to equity for ELs and two-way immersion programs provide instruction in a target language other than English, which “common sense” programs do not.

Research Design

This study utilized mixed methods, but primarily qualitative research methods, particularly a case study of one school. A case study is an in-depth description of one particular bounded system, and in this case one particular program in one specific school (Merriam, 2009). The case study strategy of inquiry is an appropriate method of research design for the proposed study because the study analyzes the implementation of a unique two-way immersion program in one particular school, and the information gathered is applicable to a broader range in the field of education. According to Merriam (2009), case studies are useful for “studying educational innovations, evaluating programs, and informing policy” (p. 51). Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program is innovative because it is one of the first programs of its kind in the context of Georgia. This study examined the implementation of Creekview’s two-way immersion program and has the potential to inform policy in the future. The researcher used quantitative methods to analyze student achievement data. The independent variables are instruction and program implementation and the dependent variables are student achievement, parent perceptions, and teacher perceptions.

In order to answer the research questions, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with faculty, staff, and parents of students at the bilingual elementary school which was the site for this study. The researcher observed classroom instruction and analyzed relevant
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documents such as parent communication and lesson plans. For the quantitative piece, the researcher analyzed student achievement by comparing ACCESS (state English proficiency test) data and CRCT (state accountability test) data for 3rd grade ELs at Creekview Elementary in the two-way immersion to 3rd grade ELs at Creekview Elementary in ESOL (English only) over a time period of four years in order to determine whether there is a significant difference in achievement of ELs in the two groups due to program delivery model. This portion of the research is quasi-experimental because the data is from pre-existing programs and there was no pretest aside from prior test scores on the same tests. The researcher collected qualitative data during the 2012-2013 (spring semester) and 2013-2014 (fall semester) school years, and quantitative data will come from the 2009 to 2013 school years. Additional qualitative data may be used from an initial pilot study conducted during the fall and spring semesters of the 2012-2013 school year.

Participants

Creekview Elementary School is a suburban elementary school of about 500 students, about 40% of whom are Latino, 30% African American, and 30% White. The two-way immersion program began as a strand of the school in the 2008-2009 school year, starting with a kindergarten cohort and adding a grade level each year. In fall 2013, enrollment in the dual language program was approximately 200.

Participants were purposefully selected from the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary School. In order to explore the implementation and outcomes of the two-way immersion program, individual teachers and administrators were interviewed and group interviews with parents were conducted. Both of the three administrators within the school were interviewed, and five parents were interviewed in a group format. Parents were selected based on
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the school’s dual language site coordinator’s recommendations. Two of these were from bilingual homes (English and Spanish, Puerto Rican), one was from a home in which an African language is primarily spoken, one was from an exclusively Spanish-speaking household, and one was from an exclusively English-speaking household. Three parents were Latinas, one was Black, and one was White. Socioeconomic status as measured by free and reduced lunch eligibility was also considered. Three of the parents interviewed had students eligible for free and reduced lunch- 2 Spanish-dominant students and 1 English dominant student. Puerto Rican, Mexican, and Peruvian Spanish were represented among interviewed parents. These factors were considered to achieve a broad sampling of parent participants.

Each of the nine two-way immersion teachers was interviewed. Classroom observations and corresponding field notes were collected for four classrooms two times each, English and Spanish classrooms. These classroom observations were two grade levels of English and Spanish teaching pairs, kindergarten grade and 3rd grade, and were determined based on levels of alignment indicated in interview responses about collaborating with Spanish/English teaching partners. The kindergarten and 3rd grade Spanish immersion classrooms were observed an additional time, and two other Spanish immersion classrooms, 1st and 4th grade, were also observed, for a total of twelve teaching observations. A researcher-created classroom observation protocol (Appendix E) focused on grouping configurations, interaction among students, and the language used in the classroom was used during the observations.

2009 to 2013 ACCESS and CRCT scores for English learners in the two-way immersion program and the ESOL only program were collected and analyzed for the 2013 3rd grade class at Creekview Elementary School. Scores were examined for patterns and compared.
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Research Setting: Creekview Elementary School

Creekview Elementary is a K-5 school in a suburban location near Atlanta, Georgia, with approximately 500 students, approximately 140 of whom are identified as ELs (about 30% of the school’s population) and 200 of whom are enrolled in the school’s dual language program. Parents and students are able to choose an English or two-way immersion instructional format upon entering the school. The primary goal of the school’s two-way immersion program is to develop bilingual, bicultural, and biliterate students. The two-way immersion program began with a kindergarten cohort during the 2008-2009 school year and has continued to add grade levels since then. During the first year of data collection for this study (2012-2013), there were kindergarten through 4th grade classes, and during the second year (2013-2014), there were kindergarten through fifth grade two-way immersion classes within the school. The program utilizes a 50:50 model of instruction, though the actual implementation varies based on staff, students, and circumstances. This was explored in the study.

Researcher’s Role and Ethical Considerations

Conducting this study gave me the opportunity to explore my own beliefs, assumptions about, and experiences with the education of English learners in the United States. The researcher has been an ESOL instructor (English only) for nine school years in elementary, middle, and high schools in the district in which the study took place. Many of the participants are also colleagues and friends, particularly the teachers. I began the study with positive expectations of the benefits a two-way immersion program for English learners. Due to the nature of my own work, I automatically compared Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program and the corresponding data to my own teaching experiences and contexts, which have all been K-12 English-only English as a second language classes. Peshkin (1988)
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writes about the inevitability of researcher subjectivity in collecting and analyzing qualitative data, noting that this is inevitable because we all have present and past lives that vary widely and have resulted in a variety of values, circumstances, and ways of seeing the world. He recommends documenting feelings and reactions that may be subjective in field notes as part of the process of formally and systematically monitoring the self (Peshkin, 1988). The researcher was attentive to her subjectivity by documenting and reflecting on emotional responses evoked during data collection in field notes. The researcher has had experience teaching ESOL (English only instructional model for meeting ELs’ language support needs), but not bilingual forms of EL support, which is a possible bias. By maintaining reflective field notes and memos, the researcher remained aware of possible areas of subjectivity throughout the research process.

There were no identifiable risks for participants in this study, although all policies from Kennesaw State University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) and citiprogram.org’s online Human Subject certificate training website were upheld throughout the study. All interview responses will remain anonymous. There is a possibility that teachers may have felt overwhelmed with scheduling an interview in addition to their daily workload or that they felt obligated to participate in the study since it was being conducted by a colleague, which is why voluntariness of participation was explained and described in a consent form. These briefly explained the study and assured teachers that their participation was optional and that they could withdraw from the study at any point in time if they so wished. The benefit of this study is that the district involved will identify the outcomes of the two-way immersion program and the researcher will determine and share with others how the program is being implemented. As a result, this information is likely to benefit educators in Georgia and across the United States in
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terms of implementing two-way immersion programs in areas that have not had bilingual instruction in the past.

Data Collection/Instruments

Interviews. Both of the three administrators within the school, five parents, and each of the nine two-way immersion teachers within Creekview Elementary were interviewed in a face-to-face format conducted by the researcher at Creekview Elementary School campus. One of the teacher/administrator interviews was conducted at the site of a professional development conference. These stakeholders were interviewed in order to discover background information on Creekview, how Creekview is implementing the two-way immersion program, and how these individuals perceive the program to be impacting students and the community. Administrator, parent, and teacher interviews were conducted in order to gain a broad perspective of the program. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed into Word documents. The individual interviews and group interviews for parents (two and three parents per group, originally intended to be one English-dominant group and one Spanish-dominant group, but the language categories were not that clear) lasted approximately thirty minutes each. A translator was present for the Spanish-dominant focus group interview in order to ensure full understanding between the researcher and the parents. The researcher took notes throughout the interviews. Each participant was provided a consent form and assured that they could withdraw from the study at any point. The semi-structured interview protocol for teachers and administrators (See Appendix A) consisted of demographic information and twelve questions relating to involvement in the two-way immersion program, how the program operates, and perceived impacts of the program. The interview protocol for parents (See Appendix B) is similar, but adjusted to address the perspectives of parents of two-way immersion students rather than perspectives of teachers.
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and administrators. The semi-structured interview format was utilized in order to allow participants to deviate from the questions, answer in different ways, and define the two-way immersion program in their own unique ways (Merriam, 2009).

**Observation Field Notes.** The researcher composed field notes after each interview and during and after each of the twelve observations. Video and audio recordings were not used due to their obtrusiveness and the sensitivity of including minors in such video or audio recordings. Initially, the field notes provided descriptions of settings, people, and activities as suggested by Merriam (2009). Field notes for observations primarily detailed how student groups are configured, what language was spoken in the classroom, and what opportunities students had to collaborate. The researcher inserted reflections and comments into the field notes document on an ongoing basis. The purpose of these field notes was to provide rich, thick description of classroom instruction, assessment, interactions, and activities and a more complete overview of the two-way immersion program’s implementation. Field notes allowed the researcher to go beyond looking at perceptions and feedback from administrators, teachers, and parents toward looking at events, actions, and happenings within the school.

**Artifacts.** Aside from field notes, additional artifacts such as student work samples, parent newsletters, teacher schedules, documents on professional development offered for teachers, the school and two-way immersion strand mission statements, lesson plans, and written communication to parents were collected. These were analyzed along with interview transcripts and field notes in ATLAS.ti 7 in order to identify patterns among the data. Artifacts supported findings from other data sources.

**ACCESS and CRCT Scores.** 2009-2013 ACCESS and CRCT (math and reading) scores were collected from district and school testing coordinators in Excel spreadsheets with
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identifying student information removed. The purpose of collecting these data was to show

differences and/or similarities in achievement trends over time in current Creekview Elementary
School 3rd grade EL’s in the school’s ESL (English-only) as compared to the school’s two-way
immersion program.

Validation Strategies

Interviews were conducted with two-way immersion English teachers, two-way
immersion Spanish teachers, two-way immersion administrators, parents of English-dominant
two-way immersion students, and parents of Spanish dominant two-way immersion students.
Additionally, field notes of classroom observations were compiled. Also, ACCESS and CRCT
scores were analyzed and compared between Creekview Elementary ESL and two-way
immersion programs. These three data sources provided triangulation of data as well as the
triangulation of participants, which increases validity of the study (Creswell, 2009). Member
checking was used ensure the accuracy of the interview response notes. Another validation
strategy is the use of thick, rich description of the reporting of results.

Data Analysis

Field notes were entered into a Word document and reviewed by the researcher. Once
interview notes and recordings were collected and transcribed into a password protected Word
document, the researcher organized the data. Merriam (2009) recommends creating a “case study
database,” or one location in which all documents relating to the case study are organized
together in order to be easily retrieved. On an ongoing basis throughout the study, data was
loaded into a hermeneutic unit within ATLAS.ti 7, qualitative data analysis software. The
researcher read and reread through all data, inserting, codes, comments, and analytic memos and
reflecting on the overall meaning of the data. Using ATLAS.ti 7 functions, codes were then
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combined, eliminated, set aside, categorized into themes and descriptions, and interpreted (Creswell, 2009). Using this program, data was organized into categories that emerged – “major topics, unique topics, and leftovers” (Creswell, 2009). Categories emerged through the use of grounded theory, in which the researcher compared multiple data sources. The overall strategy of grounded theory is for the researcher to use constant comparison between specific incidents in field notes, interview responses, and documents, which led to the development of tentative categories (Merriam, 2009). The categories were coded and analyzed for connections and themes among responses. Strauss and Corbin (2007) recommend three phases of coding- open (initially tagging possibly relevant units of data), axial (forming connections between and refining categories), and selective (developing core categories, propositions, or hypotheses). These phases of coding were implemented via ATLAS.ti 7. The researcher practiced grounded theory in terms of ongoing data analysis (Merriam, 2009).

Using IMB SPSS Statistics software, the researcher ran a pre-test (independent samples T-test) in order to confirm comparability of Creekview Elementary’s 3rd grade (EL) ESL students’ and two-way immersion students’ ACCESS and CRCT scores. A T-test rather than an anova was appropriate for comparing the scores since only two groups of students’ scores were analyzed. The researcher then ran independent samples T-tests per grade level to compare the two schools’ achievement scores for ELs over five years (2009-2013).

Audience

The intended audience for this study includes K-12 educators, post-secondary educators and researchers, and education policymakers. My intent is that this study will help educators involved in planning start-up two-way immersion programs by providing information about successes and possible outcomes and challenges of one two-way immersion program. I also aim
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to provide readers with insight on the purposes of, outcomes of, and implementation of two-way immersion.

Limitations and Delimitations

Delimitations of the study set by the researcher are that it is a case study of one elementary school and that the results are transferrable for non-gateway states for English learners with relatively new two-way immersion programs. One limitation of the study due to the nature of the case study design is that the findings may not be automatically transferred to readers’ educational contexts and readers may interpret findings loosely in order to make them fit their own contexts and personal uses (Merriam, 2009). For the quantitative section of the analysis, the main limitation of the study is the small sample size, which is partially because the two-way immersion program at Creekview is a strand within the school rather than a schoolwide program. The problem is further complicated by student transiency. Since the program is not a magnet program and the nature of the program prevents new enrollments in upper elementary grades, there are fewer students in the upper grades than in the lower grades. Though the case study design allowed for depth of the study, future research in similar studies should include larger sample sizes if available.
Chapter 3: The Implementation of Creekview Elementary’s Two-Way Immersion Program

One of the research questions guiding this study was, “How is Creekview Elementary School implementing its two-way immersion program, and how is the program infrastructure designed?” Some of the findings answering the portion of the question about implementation and infrastructure relate to teacher-to-teacher collaboration and high levels of support from formal leaders within the school. Collaboration among key stakeholders is important in any educational context, but this collaboration is especially necessary for teachers and their colleagues and students and their peers within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program (Collier & Thomas, 2004). Peer teaching and teachers using cooperative learning strategies promote bilingualism and create a cognitively challenging educational environment (Collier & Thomas, 2004). Collaboration between dual language teachers, particularly English immersion teachers and their corresponding Spanish immersion teachers, is important in terms of planning, curriculum, teaching, and assessment (Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000).

Collaboration among students in a two-way immersion program is also particularly important because native speakers serve as language models for non-native speakers of Spanish and English. Also, interactionist language theorists such as Vygotsky (1986) suggest that language learning occurs through interactions between more proficient and less proficient speakers of the target language. The sociocultural framework for learning framework applied to English learners maintains that real communication builds language acquisition (Lake, 2012).

Another finding in terms of program implementation at Creekview is that there is a loose implementation of the 50-50 delivery model of two-way instruction. Rather than strictly implementing a program in which English is used for half of the day and Spanish is used for half
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of the day, Creekview Elementary mixes Spanish and English at times, allowing students to choose which language they use in classrooms at times and having special areas classes in English. One reason for the imbalanced use of English over Spanish is the manifestation of language ideologies privileging English over Spanish (Fitts, 2006; Freeman, 2000). This loose implementation is also partially due to teachers’ decisions to use more English than Spanish, scheduling and other factors outside teachers’ control.

Teacher-to-Teacher Collaboration and Leadership Structures at Creekview

Two-way-immersion Creekview Elementary School teachers collaborate with each other and with grade-level teams including non-two-way immersion teachers on a daily basis. For this study, the focus was on interactions between two-way-immersion teachers, especially grade-level Spanish and English pairs. Sociocultural theory indicates that classroom and school-level educational policies are shaped by daily social and cultural interactions (Koyama, 2010; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Collaboration between two-way-immersion teachers provides learning opportunities for educators involved, instructional insight, and additional information about students’ progress and individual educational needs.

Formally planned collaboration events for two-way immersion teachers. Some of the collaboration occurring at Creekview is formally planned and takes place over the course of a half-day, day, or a few days. One way that Creekview Elementary School two-way immersion teachers collaborate is by planning together once per nine weeks for a half day, which administrators have been planning and paying for (funding needed for release time/substitute teachers) through their FLAP (Foreign Language Assistance Program) grant. The FLAP grant was a federal program awarded to innovative K-12 language programs such as Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program. Funding for this federal initiative was discontinued
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nationally during 2012, so the year data was collected at Creekview Elementary way the last year the school received this funding. Administrators indicated that they would continue to provide time and find funding from other sources in order to fund these collaboration days. One administrator explained that the reason for providing collaboration days is that two-way-immersion teachers “have double the report cards to do,” and the Spanish and English teachers need time to discuss these and other instructional matters. Full summer collaboration days are also part of the two-way immersion program. The kinds of collaboration occurring at these events varies from year to year, but during the summer of 2013, two-way immersion teachers trained and familiarized themselves with new curriculum materials acquired for the upcoming year, mostly Reading Street/Calle de la Lectura, a comprehensive reading series purchased for both Spanish and English immersion teachers, and the Envision math program, which was purchased for Spanish teachers. Teachers collaborated in order to determine which teacher would teach which topics and skills and plans for bridging content. Teachers indicated in interviews that this kind of formal, planned collaboration made them feel supported by administrators and provided opportunities to learn from each other that would not be possible during the course of a typical school day.

*Formal collaborative learning opportunities as indicators of administrative support.* As is the case in any school, the administrators at Creekview Elementary School hold a great deal of power over teachers and students (Gross, 2011). In this case, they have chosen to have a democratic model of leadership, which has resulted in teacher job satisfaction and energy for teachers to collaborate, improve as teachers, and move forward with implementing the two-way immersion program. According to Alanis and Rodriguez (2008), administrative support,
knowledge, and desire to build leadership capacity in teachers are critical components in the success of a two-way immersion program.

Distributed leadership, a model of school organization in which responsibilities and leadership are shared among a group of people rather than an individual leader, is one way faculty in two-way immersion programs such as the one at Creekview interact (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; Spillane, 2005). In Copland and Knapp’s (2006) leadership for learning framework, creating coherence is highlighted as an important part of distributed leadership. The alternative to distributed leadership is a hierarchical model of leadership, but this is not the case at Creekview. All data sources in this study show that the administrators at Creekview Elementary School provide teachers with voice and the resources they need, and this level of support encourages positive feelings and teacher buy-in to the program. One example of administrators asking for teacher input is that they were present during teacher interviews for candidates applying for the two-way immersion program for the upcoming year. Administrators also allowed teachers to organize and lead some of their own professional development sessions, such as new textbook adoption and orientation sessions. Teachers also indicated administrative support for new ideas coming from teachers. For example, teachers proposed the idea to administrators to have Spanish-only Fridays within the two-way immersion program, and administrators agreed to explore the idea and possibly proceed with implementation. Giving teachers opportunities for leadership and decision-making within the school is one way that distributed leadership is taking place within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program.

Administrators at Creekview encourage distributed leadership and also are supportive of teachers. Examples of interview data indicating administrative support are Dolly’s comment that
“the administrators are behind us.” Kitty, along with several others, echoed this sentiment, saying, “Administration has been very flexible. They’re very supportive. They understand that it’s difficult, and they really try to, accommodate your needs, your ideas, and they’ve always been very, very supportive and positive…they’re always there to listen to you, even if it’s to rant and vent about how difficult it is…they never make you feel like you’re not doing a good job.” Administrators in any school have the opportunity to lead using a hierarchical model, reminding teachers of their power and control of schoolwide policies and happenings, but this was not the case in the dual language program at Creekview Elementary, and teachers’ job satisfaction reflected that administrators are advocates for the teachers and ask for teacher input on issues there. Providing time and funding for teacher collaboration communicates administrative trust and support of two-way-immersion teachers.

For example, Victoria, 1st grade English immersion teacher described a plan devised by the teachers within the program for the two-way immersion students to have instruction in Spanish only on Fridays to balance the program toward a model closer to 50-50. She commented about Creekview Elementary’s principal, “She’s very good about, if we have a good reason, she’s for it, you know, as long as the, Board of Education doesn’t [have policies in place against the idea].” Listening to teachers and allowing them to participate in school decision-making communicates to teachers that their ideas and expertise are valued. Another example of this emerged through my field notes. During an interview with Andrea, a 2nd grade Spanish immersion teacher, an administrator asked her over the intercom in her room whether she was planning on attending a meeting in the conference room or not, and she indicated that she would attend after our interview. Andrea apologized for the interruption because there had previously been another announcement about a jewelry party, but went on to explain that the meeting was
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actually an interview for a new 5th grade immersion teacher, and the administrators wanted to make sure teachers met candidates and provided input.

Kitty, a 4th grade immersion teacher, also had positive comments about levels of administrative support, noting that, “Administration has been very flexible. They’re very supportive. They understand that [teaching in a new two-way immersion program is] difficult, and they really try to accommodate your needs, your ideas, and they’ve always been very, very supportive and positive.” She continued by saying that “they’re always there to listen to you, even if it’s to rant and vent about how difficult it is” and that administrators work diligently to ensure that all teachers have adequate resources for instruction. Kitty’s most telling comment about administrators was, “They never make you feel like you’re not doing a good job.” Teachers within the program appear to feel comfortable and satisfied with their jobs because administrators provide an environment of encouragement and support rather than critiquing.

Many immersion teachers indicated that administrators provide resources for the teachers. Andrea indicated that administrators are open to teachers attending conferences and relevant professional development events. Veronica indicted that she goes to administrators for non-consumable materials such as textbooks and manipulatives, but also for consumable materials such as copies and lamination.

As the researcher, I also experienced high levels of support from Creekview Elementary School’s administrators. For example, on my first day of observations, I arrived at about 7:40 at the school and was greeted with a smile from Summer, an administrator, who was assisting with students exiting the bus. At this time, I had only conversed with Summer a few times. She enthusiastically welcomed me and asked, “Do you know where you’re going first?” implying that she would accompany me to the correct classroom if necessary. She also asked, “Do you
need anything?” and even though I did not, this shows that administrators at Creekview view their role as one of supporting others. Creekview Elementary School’s administrators work collaboratively with teachers and use a model of distributed leadership in which teachers have voice and autonomy.

**Informal collaboration.** Though formally planned collaboration days provided by administrators are important, informal collaboration among Creekview’s two-way-immersion teachers is also important for the success of the program. Creekview Elementary teachers have scheduled grade-level planning times each day and on specific teacher work days, some of which include non-two-way-immersion teachers and some of which are specifically for two-way immersion teachers. Two-way-immersion teachers, particularly Spanish and English grade-level teaching pairs, must also schedule informal collaboration sessions in order to discuss specific shared students and issues unique to two-way-immersion. Veronica, 2nd grade English immersion teacher, noted that two-way-immersion teachers often collaborate via telephone calls and text-messages at night and during the weekends. She noted that she and her Spanish counterpart, Andrea, are different in many ways (for example, Veronica tends to use music and dance more than Andrea in instruction), but that they collaborate on instructional matters and have a plan for classroom management so that student expectations are uniform.

**Collaboration to determine difference or disability via SST and RTI.** One English immersion teacher, Victoria, mentioned the frequency of sitting down with Dolly, her Spanish immersion counterpart, to discuss SST (student support team) and RTI (response to intervention) documents, which is something that I observed several times during my school visits. For example, on one occasion, I entered Dolly’s classroom to conduct an interview after school, and Dolly and Victoria were sitting side by side at a kidney-shaped table reviewing graphs indicating
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student progress in an intervention. This was in preparation for an upcoming SST meeting, so the two could determine whether the student’s struggles were specific to one language or if they spanned both languages. Also, they noted that they wanted to be “on the same page” during the SST meeting in order to have a cohesive analysis of the student’s classroom progress. This type of collaboration is beneficial for teachers in determining whether students’ academic struggles are due to language difference or language disability.

*Bridging content.* “Bridging content” is an important concept key phrase highlighted in one of Creekview’s dual language monthly parent newsletters, and this form of collaboration arose several times in interview and observation data. Dolly, 1st grade Spanish immersion teacher, states that bridging content provides an opportunity for teaching pairs to be “in tune with” each other’s content and more aware of providing students with cognates that exist among English and Spanish vocabulary. Corrinne, a kindergarten English immersion teacher, explains that teachers within the program were skeptical of English and Spanish teachers teaching separate content (she teaches social studies, science, and English language arts, and Francine, the Spanish immersion teacher, teaches math and Spanish language arts). Upon recommendation of researchers at a conference (La Cosecha in New Mexico), teachers within the program began implementing this strategy and found overwhelmingly positive results with bridging content rather than reteaching subjects in both languages. Before this conference, two-way-immersion teaching pairs were mostly reteaching the same topics in both languages, which was exhausting due to time constraints and the demands of assessing students in every subject in both languages. For Corrinne, this was a welcome change. She commented, “We found that there is so much information that gets passed back and forth that it just, it has amazed me at how much both my English and my Spanish kids have picked up [because we are bridging content].” Her
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counterpart, Francine, said on the same subject, “We had to work out the kinks and make sure we
weren’t both teaching the same thing, because there’s no time to teach the same thing. So she
has to trust me and I have to trust her that she’s teaching what I’m not teaching, so there’s a lot
of trust. And that’s hard to do, because you’re letting go of half your day.” An example of
Corrinne and Francine bridging content is that Francine teaches shapes in Spanish, and because
so many of the names of shapes are cognates, the students only have to hear the names of the
shapes a few times in English to learn the English terminology.

In practice, bridging at Creekview Elementary School meant that teachers were checking
on student progress and struggles with one teacher and adjusting learning stations accordingly,
asking students if they remembered the Spanish/English for a certain vocabulary word (‘‘context
clues,’’ for example), or reminding students of how they learned something from their
Spanish/English teacher that relates to the current topic. For at least one teacher, Maria, bridging
content vocabulary (science in this case) is a 25 minute segment of the classroom schedule.

**Student remediation.** Several two-way-immersion teachers noted the importance of
collaborating to learn specific students’ needs for remediation. For example, Dolly, 1st grade
Spanish immersion teacher, stated in an interview that she supports Victoria, 1st grade English
immersion teacher, by asking her, “‘What do you think the kids need more help in? What are
they low in?’ So then my center would be that, or my morning work would be that, to help out in
that way. And of course, I do it in Spanish, but she does it in English.”

Thus, determining what grade-level standards and curricula to teach day-to-day, from
English classroom to Spanish classroom, and from grade level to grade level is key for successful
teacher collaboration within Creekview’s two-way immersion program.
Two-Way Immersion

** Loose Implementation of 50-50 Model of Two-Way-Immersion **

Several researchers have indicated that the 90-10 model of two-way-immersion programs is more effective than the 50-50 model. However, Georgia’s Department of Education encourages the 50-50 program delivery model. The administrators at Creekview Elementary provide flexibility in the implementation of this model based on classroom and individual student needs. One English immersion teacher states, “We’re doing what works for our children, what works for our school, for our situation, for our materials…we’re not really a 50-50 program.” In practice, examples of this flexibility are when the kindergarten Spanish immersion teacher greets and asks lunch choices of some students in English and some students in Spanish. Also, a few Spanish immersion teachers began to speak English with students when the students became frustrated with understanding the teachers’ messages in Spanish. Researchers caution against this practice of reducing the amount of target language exposure to less than 50%, encouraging educators to ensure that students in two-way-immersion programs are exposed to English no more than 50% of the time and the target language at least 50% of the time (Lindholm-Leary, 2005).

In order for two-way immersion programs to be implemented with fidelity, students must be exposed to the target language for a minimum of 50% of the instructional day (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2005). However, this does not always happen during the actual implementation of two-way immersion programs. In 2005, Maria Torres-Guzman, Tatyana Kleyn, Stella Morales-Rodriguez, and Annie Han conducted a study in New York on dual language schools meeting minimum requirements of being labeled dual language and schools straying from the program guidelines of dual language but maintaining the dual language label. A few explanations they provided for the incongruences between dual language
labels and dual language implementation were that language separation was not practiced and that very few dual language programs are schoolwide, which leads to more English being spoken than the target language for a variety of reasons (Torres-Guzman, Kleyn, Morales-Rodriguez, & Han, 2005). In a study of a two-way immersion program in Illinois, Potowski (2004) found several reasons English was used more than it should have been in light of the two-way immersion program’s goal for equality of English and Spanish. Teachers used English during designated Spanish times because required textbooks or other materials were available only in English, high-stakes standardized tests would be in English only, special areas classes such as music, physical education, and computer were taught by monolingual English speakers, and special events such as the science fair and writing competition were conducted in English only (Potowski, 2004). Fitts (2006) had similar findings in a study on a two-way immersion school in Colorado, also citing monolingual English guest speakers as a reason for the erosion of Spanish usage in two-way immersion programs.

Reasons target language exposure is below 50% in Creekview Elementary School’s two-way-immersion program. As is the case in many two-way-immersion programs nationwide, students in Creekview Elementary’s two-way-immersion program are exposed to more English than they are Spanish. One reason for this is that the majority of the faculty and staff within the school are monolingual English speakers. For example, when students attend “specials” (art, music, physical education), those classes are conducted in English every day. When visitors enter classrooms, whether they are English immersion or Spanish immersion classes, students and teachers most often use English in response to visitors’ questions or comments. Also, due to numbers and student transiency, native English speaking students are occasionally accepted into the program later than kindergarten. As a result, the students do not automatically understand the
Two-Way Immersion

Spanish language because they have extremely limited to no prior exposure to the language. In an effort to individualize instruction based on student needs, Spanish immersion teachers use some English with native English speaking students. This is not the case with English immersion teachers and the use of Spanish (the English immersion teachers are all monolingual English speakers).

Creekview Elementary School administrators and teachers seem to be aware that following the 50-50 model more strictly may produce better outcomes than a loose implementation of the delivery model. When asked if the school’s two-way immersion program follows the 50-50 model, one administrator replied, “That is our goal…, but just the nature of special education, recess, lunch, and the world around us, I know that [students are exposed to Spanish less than 50% of the day].” She also noted that English testing, reporting, and interventions “cut into our day [and] drop us below 50-50, which is not ideal.” Maria, 3rd grade Spanish and English immersion teacher, stated that “it’s been a little difficult finding the perfect balance” between the two languages and that it has been difficult to make sure she does not “do a disservice to either [language, maintaining] the fidelity and integrity with Spanish for the half a day and doing the same in English.” Maria teaches both the English portion of the day and the Spanish portion of the day.

Summary

Teacher-to-teacher and student-to-student collaboration is particularly important within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program. Administrators at Creekview ensure that this is possible for teachers by providing time and funding for formal collaboration days. Administrators are also supportive in general, creating an environment of trust and teacher leadership within the school. Teachers at Creekview, particularly Spanish-English teaching pairs,
Two-Way Immersion

create time for collaboration during face-to-face and electronic meeting sessions. Key topics of collaboration for teachers are RTI and SST documentation and student needs, curriculum choices and lesson planning, and bridging content. Collaborative work among students is encouraged in Creekview’s two-way immersion program and is supported through the ways teachers arrange physical space in the classroom, heterogeneous grouping in terms of language proficiency in the target language, and opportunities for group work on assignments, projects, and meeting behavioral goals.

Creekview Elementary School is implementing a two-way immersion program designed for use of the 50-50 delivery model, but in practice, students are exposed to Spanish less than 50% of the instructional day. 90-10 has been determined to be the most effective program, so the erosion of Spanish usage in the program is not a positive phenomenon. This is happening because enrichment teachers and many other school staff members are not bilingual and Spanish immersion teachers use their own discretion in terms of what is best for their students, sometimes deciding to use or allow the use of English for clarification or comfort for students.

Analysis

Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program provides a model for similar start-up programs in terms of teacher-to-teacher and student-to-student collaboration and strong administrative support and demonstrates how challenging it is for schools to allot and provide equal time for English and the target language. Two-way immersion programs must include high levels of vertical alignment and alignment as well as division of standards and content between grade-level English and Spanish immersion teaching pairs. Lindholm-Leary (2005) writes about the importance of standards-based instruction and alignment of curricula in two-way immersion programs. In order for this to happen, two-way immersion teachers need
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formally designated time segments for collaboration and reflection and will also have to
informally meet with teaching partners to discuss student progress and needs and curriculum
(Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000).

Strong administrative support for the two-way immersion program such as the support in
place at Creekview Elementary is also critical in creating new two-way immersion programs.
Teachers indicated that being part of the process of beginning a new two-way program is
exhausting, but suggested that the administrators’ support helped teachers with practical as well
as emotional needs. Administrators at Creekview provide necessary resources such as adequate
textbooks and supplies for both English and Spanish immersion teachers, copies, and laminating
services. Administrators also give teachers autonomy and assurance that they are appreciated and
doing a good job, creating a culture of trust and a family-like environment within the school.

Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program also provides an example of the
difficulty in implementing a 50-50 delivery model of dual language in Georgia. Well-
implemented two-way immersion programs expose students to at least 50% of instruction in the
minority language (Freeman, 2000). The Spanish immersion teachers at Creekview seemed to be
aware of the need to use only Spanish in their classrooms, but did not always do that. The
Spanish teachers seemed to use English or allow the use of English when they wanted to reduce
student anxiety or increase comprehensibility of information presented in Spanish to native
English speakers. A more rigid separation of languages should be implemented in Creekview’s
two-way immersion program and in any two-way immersion program (Quintanar-Sarellana,
2004).

However, the loose implementation of the 50-50 program at Creekview is not entirely
due to decisions made by Spanish immersion teachers. The lens of critical theory suggests that
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the positioning of English as superior to other languages is the prevailing language ideology in the United States, and this is reflected in schools (Freeman, 2000). Also, activities such as state assessments, and daily enrichment classes are presented in English. Though there are a few bilingual staff members who speak Spanish and English other than the Spanish immersion teachers, finding highly qualified bilingual staff members is more difficult in states such as Georgia or other states or regions that are rural or have not traditionally been gateway states for Latinos than the task would be in states such as Florida, Texas, or California, in which more bilingual individuals reside (Paciotto & Delay-Barmann, 2011). There is a need for administrators to hire highly qualified bilingual staff members in two-way immersion schools (Lindholm-Leary, 2005). This is taking place at Creekview Elementary School as monolingual staff members retire or transfer and as the two-way immersion program expands. Also, creating schoolwide programs rather than strands within schools may produce better results in achieving goals for rates of target language exposure.
Two-Way Immersion

**Chapter 4: Academic, Social, and Emotional Outcomes for Creekview Elementary School English Learners**

The second research question that guided this study is, “*How is the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary affecting students socially, emotionally, and academically?*” with subquestions addressing student achievement scores from kindergarten to 3rd grade and across grade levels and the types of learning activities and interactions within Creekview’s two-way immersion program.

High levels of student-student collaboration between native Spanish speakers and native English speakers were evident in Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion classrooms. Seating configurations and assignments encouraged this collaboration. Quantitative analysis of ACCESS scores, mathematics CRCT scores, and reading CRCT scores comparing two-way immersion students’ scores to non-two-way immersion students’ scores from kindergarten to 3rd grade indicate that there are no significant differences between the two groups’ achievement scores as of third grade. However, immersion teachers and parents repeatedly indicated other ways in which ELs are benefiting from the program, including positive social and emotional outcomes such as confidence and leadership opportunities.

**Student-to-Student Collaboration at Creekview**

Student collaboration and nontraditional assessment are taking place regularly in the two-way immersion program. This interaction provides students with opportunities to influence each other socially and academically, learn from each other, and build language acquisition via real communication (Lake, 2012). Pacheco (2010) writes that English-only programs tend to focus unnecessarily on phonics and skills-driven curricula, whereas bilingual programs provide real-world connections for students and frame learning within social systems, and this was the case
Two-Way Immersion

within Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program. One indicator of the frequency of student-student collaboration was the ways in which students sat during instruction and instructional activities. Student seating configurations were arranged in clusters in all classrooms observed during each observation, and when students were not receiving whole group instruction, they worked collaboratively in bilingual pairs and small groups on various tasks. In Spanish immersion classrooms, Spanish-dominant ELs were given opportunities for leadership by modeling and assisting English dominant students with tasks. Many teachers and parents also mentioned that the two-way immersion program is a family-like community because students go through the program and are in classes together each year.
Two-Way Immersion

Figure 4.1. Grouping configurations of students as captured in field notes of classroom observations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>English Immersion Classroom</th>
<th>Spanish Immersion Classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Students sat in groups at 4 tables with 5-6 students at each table, each table including 1-2 native English speaker.</td>
<td>Students sat in groups at 4 tables with 5-6 students at each table, each table including 1-2 native English speaker. 1 native English-speaking student sat at her own desk due to behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>not observed</td>
<td>Students sat in a large semicircle in which all students could see and interact with each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>not observed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Students were in groups and not sitting in desks during my 1 observation of this class; 4 sat with Darla, 4 sat at the computer table, 4 sat on crates made into chairs for a reading center, and 6 sat on a carpet in front of the Smart Board. Students were homogeneously ability grouped rather than grouped by language.</td>
<td>Students worked in groups and pairs and sat in two double rows. Maria indicated that bilingual pairs sitting across from each other was the goal, but that there were more native Spanish speakers than native English speakers and some native English speakers were more proficient in Spanish than some of the native Spanish speakers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th (1 teacher for English and Spanish)</td>
<td>Students sat in groups at 5 clusters of 4 desks, 1 pair of 2 desks, and 1 student sat at his own desk beside the teacher’s desk due to behavior. 1-2 native English speakers sat within each cluster.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Vygotsky (1986) notes that lecture and direct teaching of concepts is unlikely to produce meaningful learning for students. Instead, students learn through interactions and actions. One way for teachers to encourage student interaction is to place students in cooperative learning groups for tasks rather than asking students to complete tasks independently. According to Hill and Flynn (2006), working in small groups is advantageous for ELs for several reasons. Small groups offer ELs with opportunities to hear key words and phrases repeated several times, which helps ELs retain information more effectively. Small groups also allow ELs opportunities to use vocabulary in real-life situations, which is likely to increase students’ speaking fluency. Working in small groups also benefits ELs by providing context-appropriate, non-threatening feedback. Small group collaborative work also has the potential to reduce ELs’ anxiety, which can prevent students from achieving their full potential in terms of language acquisition (Hill & Flynn, 2006). Andrea, 2nd grade Spanish immersion teacher, echoed these thoughts on the importance of collaborative learning, indicating that she has to be very careful to make sure that students are actively engaged in lessons, working in bilingual pairs, and actually doing something.

Collaboration among students was evident throughout observations. This collaboration ranged from pairs completing test-preparation worksheets in reading centers to math labs with counting cubes to language centers to shared writing projects to working in pairs to correct sentence fragments included in a grammar lesson. Students served as language models for each other and participated in a variety of nontraditional formative assessments in pairs and groups, and, most noticeably, students were always seated in arrangements conducive for student pairs and small group work. Figure 4.1 displays seating arrangements as recorded in field notes of each classroom observed. Kindergarteners in both English and Spanish immersion classes sat at tables with 5-6 students at each table. Each table included one to two native English speakers.
Two-Way Immersion

The first grade students in the Spanish immersion classroom sat in one large semicircle, which provided a whole group environment in which students could collaborate and see and hear each student in the class. The 3rd grade English immersion classroom was arranged in clusters of desks, but students were seated in a group at a rectangular computer table, a group at a kidney-shaped table with the teacher, in a cluster of four crate seats, and on a carpet in the front of the room in front of the Smart Board. Students in the 3rd grade Spanish immersion class were seated in two groups of eight which were double rows. The rows were arranged for students to face each other, and bilingual pairs (one dominant Spanish speaker and 1 dominant English speaker) were the intent, but there were not enough native English speakers to have eight bilingual pairs. 4th grade students sat in five clusters of four desks with one to two native English speakers per cluster.

During one observation during the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year, Corinne’s kindergarten English immersion class collaborated to generate ideas for a writing assignment. They had a whole group discussion of “Lesli’s” name and the letters in it, “built” the name kinesthetically (using their own bodies to represent each letter), Lesli unscrambled the letters in her name in a pocket chart, and students took turns describing Lesli. The students gave Corinne directions to draw Lesli on the Smart Board. Students were given their own paper to draw Lesli’s picture on and to write her name and their names on the kindergarten ledger. Some students were provided the name written in highlighter to trace, but others were not. Students sat in their groups working, helping each other as necessary (“That’s supposed to be a capital letter,” etc.). The illustrations and name labels were to be placed in an “All About Lesli” book for Lesli to take home. Students increased their emergent literacy collaboratively during this activity.
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Another example of the high levels of student-to-student collaboration occurring within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program took place during an observation of a math lesson in Kitty’s 4th grade immersion classroom. Kitty’s classroom instruction takes place in English for half the day and Spanish half the day, and this lesson was in Spanish. The lesson began with a game of “Around the World,” a competition in which one student went from table to table competing against a member of another group/table with multiplication facts. There was a high level of student engagement in this game, and students clapped for peers when someone else won. The winner was awarded candy. In order to transition to the next task smoothly, the teacher gave points to groups who followed directions and had appropriate behavior. This lesson provided an example of students collaboratively reviewing multiplication facts and also working collaboratively to encourage group members to meet the teacher’s behavioral expectations.

Teachers and administrators pointed out that ELs like to be leaders (language models) and that the students are used as “resources” to assist native English speakers with learning Spanish. Dolly, 1st grade Spanish immersion teacher, has a color-coded smiley face system of encouraging students to communicate in Spanish in the classroom (they are assessed and move their clothespins as groups for this tool). Maria’s 3rd grade Spanish immersion students worked in pairs to find examples of and create sentences including past tense verbs during one lesson. Andrea told me that she uses bilingual pairs whenever possible (but if English and Spanish dominant numbers are unequal, this is difficult) and makes sure the pairs have manipulatives to assist students with the conversation. Kindergarten students in both Spanish and English immersion classes sat in heterogeneous groups of about 5 students each at tables, and they clearly worked together and helped each other to complete tasks and keep each other on task.
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Most students spoke English with each other, even in the Spanish immersion classroom, when completing group tasks or during center time. Native Spanish speakers seemed to speak Spanish to other kindergarteners only if they did not have enough English proficiency to have a conversation. In Darla’s 3rd grade English immersion room during one of my observations students were participating in collaborative reading on computers for part of the lesson as she facilitated guided reading with another group. These students shared the stories and pictures with one another in English, occasionally commenting to each other on the content of the reading material (example: One student was so excited about the informational text he was reading that he shared with the student sitting beside him, “A snake can kill a crocodile!”). Students in a center geared toward reading skills and standardized testing spoke mostly English to each other and native Spanish speakers used Spanish for clarification. Though Darla’s class is an English immersion classroom, students sitting on crates in the reading center had the option to choose Spanish books, and some did. For example, there was a Dr. Seuss book in Spanish that a few students read.

Teachers and parents pointed out that the two-way immersion program is somewhat like a family since the students have been in the program together in the same classes for multiple years. Andrea, 2nd grade Spanish immersion teacher, said that the students are “good friends,” and the program teaches students that “not everybody’s the same.” Yari, a parent, said, “They’ve been together and they will continue on as long as they stay in the program. So, it’s like a family. You…build…unity, even within the parents and the…children.” Several teachers and parents noted that native English and native Spanish speaking students are friends inside and outside of the school setting, inviting each other to birthday parties and similar events.
Researchers have determined several benefits of two-way immersion programs. These benefits apply to ELs, native English speakers learning a target language, parents of students within two-way immersion programs, and administrators and teachers working within two-way immersion programs. Palmer (2009) notes that two-way immersion programs have garnered support from many policymakers and educational stakeholders who would otherwise be against bilingual education because the programs benefit native English speakers in addition to ELs. Collier and Thomas (2004) report that in their nationwide, longitudinal study that spans about 20 years, two-way immersion programs (as opposed to other forms of bilingual education or English-only instruction for ELs) result in the most progress for ELs in terms of closing the achievement gap. Collier and Thomas also emphasize the effectiveness of two-way immersion for all stakeholders. However, the benefits of two-way immersion for ELs remain the primary focus of this study. Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan (2000) write that educational, cognitive, economic, and sociocultural benefits of immersion programs are often cited. This study examined educational and sociocultural outcomes of Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program. Cognitive and economic benefits were not measured. The data show that Creekview’s two-way immersion program ELs are performing at the same levels as their grade-level peers who are receiving support through an English only delivery model of language support. However, the data indicate that the program is socially and emotionally beneficial for ELs.

Academic Outcomes: Two-Way Immersion vs. English Only Program Delivery Model

The most common measure of K-12 program effectiveness in the United States is student achievement. Several forms of assessment are used within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program in order to track the academic and language progress of students. Both
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Formative and summative, English and Spanish assessments were discussed during interviews and observed throughout classroom observations. Some of the measures in place to determine Spanish progress and literacy for both native English speakers and native Spanish speakers are writing samples (writing across the curriculum as well as English language arts writing samples, AIMSWeb (computer program that tracks student progress) for Spanish foundational reading skills (ability to read syllables, for example), reading fluency, and comprehension. A bilingual community volunteer was timing and recording student reading fluency and accuracy in Spanish during one observation in Maria’s 3rd grade Spanish immersion classroom. During an observation in Dolly’s 1st grade Spanish immersion classroom, Dolly’s students used “Active Expressions” (student response systems with the ability to respond to multiple choice and open-ended questions and report answers to the teacher’s computer) to summarize their learning during a lesson on Spanish syllables. The students were to send the teacher a message including an example of one of the words with the syllable they had been learning about. Teachers are using a variety of assessment data in Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program to measure student progress in English literacy, Spanish literacy, and content knowledge. The formative assessments are very important for teachers to track student progress and adjust instruction accordingly.

Standardized test scores are summative assessments that are given utmost importance in United States Schools. Many studies have demonstrated that students in two-way immersion programs perform on an equal level to or outperform native speakers on high stakes standardized tests administered in English (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

The ACCESS and CRCT tests are high stakes tests administered to students in Georgia annually. The ACCESS is an annually administered assessment given to ELs in kindergarten
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through 12th grade. ACCESS for ELLs is an acronym for Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners. The assessment is created by and given in WIDA Consortium states, which Georgia is. The test is designed to monitor students' progress in acquiring social and academic English in the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each domain has a separate segment embedded in the test, and the test is administered to small groups of students except for the speaking test and the kindergarten tests, which are administered one-on-one.

The CRCT, or Criterion-Referenced Competency Test, is Georgia’s state accountability test, which was administered to Georgia students in grades 3 through 8 at the time of the data collection in this study. The test is a summative, multiple choice test with items testing knowledge of Georgia’s state standards in the areas of English language arts, reading, mathematics, science, and social studies. The CRCT is administered to all Georgia students, and math and reading scores are used to determine grade level retention for 3rd, 5th, and 8th graders (reading only for 3rd graders).

During June and July 2013, 3rd and 4th grade ELs’ ACCESS and CRCT scores were collected and grouped according to whether the ELs were provided language support through the two-way immersion program or through an English-only pull-out model of instruction. The ACCESS scores spanned from 2009 to 2013, and the CRCT scores (math and reading) were from 2013. There were 14 students in each group. The researcher used SPSS to conduct independent samples t-tests for each test; ACCESS 2009, ACCESS, 2010, ACCESS 2011, ACCESS 2012, ACCESS 2013, and CRCT 2013. The results for each test showed that there are no significant differences between the student achievement of two-way immersion and non-two-way immersion EL students at Creekview Elementary School.
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Six tables containing descriptive statistics and independent samples t-tests results for each t-test follow. Figure 4.2 shows 2009 Kindergarten ACCESS overall scale scores for current 4th graders and 2010 Kindergarten ACCESS overall scale scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could be assumed (.430). The mean score for two-way immersion students in kindergarten was 212, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 227. The significance level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .384, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.3 shows 2010 1st grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 4th graders and 2011 1st grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could be assumed (.577). The mean score for two-way immersion students in 1st grade was 290, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 291. The significance level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .785, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.4 shows 2011 2nd grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 4th graders and 2012 2nd grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could be assumed (.109). The mean score for two-way immersion students in 2nd grade was 310, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 309. The significance
level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .178, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.5 shows 2012 3rd grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 4th graders and 2013 3rd grade ACCESS overall scale scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could be assumed (.758). The mean score for two-way immersion students in 3rd grade was 336, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 343. The significance level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .346, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.6 shows 2012 3rd grade CRCT reading scores for current 4th graders and 2013 3rd grade CRCT reading scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could not be assumed (.003). The mean score for two-way immersion students in 3rd grade was 815, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 827. The significance level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .153, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.7 shows 2012 3rd grade CRCT math scores for current 4th graders and 2013 3rd grade CRCT reading scores for current 3rd graders, comparing 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL two-way immersion scores to 3rd and 4th grade (as of spring 2013) EL non-two-way immersion scores. Levene’s test for equality of variances showed that equality of variances could
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be assumed (.296). The mean score for two-way immersion students in 3rd grade was 810, and the mean score for non-two-way immersion students was 822. The significance level of the difference in the groups’ scores was .279, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups’ scores.

Figure 4.2. 2009 Kindergarten ACCESS scores for current 4th graders, 2010 Kindergarten ACCESS scores for current 3rd graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

T-Test

[Dataset 9]

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84
Two-Way Immersion

*Figure 4.3.* 2010 1\textsuperscript{st} grade ACCESS scores for current 4\textsuperscript{th} graders, 2011 1\textsuperscript{st} grade ACCESS scores for current 3\textsuperscript{rd} graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

**T-Test**

![Group Statistics](image)

**Independent Samples Test**

![Table](image)

*Figure 4.4.* 2011 2\textsuperscript{nd} grade ACCESS scores for current 4\textsuperscript{th} graders, 2012 2\textsuperscript{nd} grade ACCESS scores for current 3\textsuperscript{rd} graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

**T-Test**

![Group Statistics](image)

**Independent Samples Test**

![Table](image)
Two-Way Immersion

**Figure 4.5.** 2012 3rd grade ACCESS scores for current 4th graders, 2013 3rd grade ACCESS scores for current 3rd graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

**T-Test**

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**Independent Samples Test**

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**Figure 4.6.** 2012 3rd grade CRCT reading for current 4th graders, 2013 3rd grade CRCT reading scores for current 3rd graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

**T-Test**

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Figure 4.7. 2012 3rd grade CRCT mathematics for current 4th graders, 2013 3rd grade CRCT mathematics scores for current 3rd graders: 1 represents two-way immersion students, 2 represents non-two-way immersion students.

+ T-Test

The results the T-tests indicate that no significant differences exist between student achievement of students in Creekview’s two-way immersion program and Creekview’s ESOL program. However, this is significant because the two-way immersion students were receiving instruction in Spanish for a large portion of every day (ideally 50%, possibly 30% to 40%). This means that the time students received instruction in Spanish did not negatively impact students’ assessment performance in English (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Lindholm-Leary, 2012). This suggests that students’ literacy and content knowledge acquired in Spanish transfers to their knowledge base and literacy in English and that parents of two-way immersion students do not need to be concerned about students not acquiring English due to being in a two-way immersion program rather than an ESOL program.
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Another area of discussion regarding the quantitative data comparison of two-way immersion scores and ESOL scores is that if 4th and 5th grade scores were also collected and analyzed and the sample size were larger, the results may be different. According to Thomas and Collier (2002), achievement gap closure between ELs can take up to 10 years, and in many cases ELs in two-way immersion programs perform equally well or outperform native English speaking peers in monolingual programs. This suggests that over time, two-way immersion students might surpass ELs in English-only programs academically.

Social Outcomes: Family-Like Community

Though the study’s quantitative results are not conclusive regarding the effectiveness of Creekview Elementary’s School’s two-way immersion program as opposed to Creekview Elementary School’s English-only program of English language support for ELs, several participants indicated that the program provides social benefits for ELs and their families. These assertions align with previous research findings. Collier and Thomas (2004) found that two-way immersion programs tend to increase parental involvement and cross-cultural friendships among parents; the nature of two-way immersion programs and the acquisition of two languages lead to student-to-student and parent-to-parent communication of people that would not take place otherwise (Cloud, et al., 2000). Parents, administrators, and teachers indicated that the two-way immersion strand within Creekview Elementary School contains unity and a family-like community.

Parents pointed out that their children in the two-way immersion program have the ability to code-switch “back and forth between two languages, no problem.” One mother told the story of her son being at a community function at the courthouse and surprising her by shouting out to a classmate in Spanish and running up to him and having a conversation in Spanish. Teachers
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and parents indicated that children within the program are friends within school and outside of school, which they attribute partially to the students being grouped in the same classrooms each year throughout the course of the program. One immersion teacher said, “It helps [with cross-cultural friendships] that they’ve been together since kindergarten and they’ll always be together as long as they’re in this program.” Parents also noted that this community extends to the students’ parents as well; parents have opportunities to build cross-cultural friendships through this program because their children are grouped in the same classes of students each year.

**Emotional Outcomes: Confidence and Power in Representation**

In addition to providing students with social benefits, participants indicated that Creekview Elementary School is emotionally beneficial for ELs in the program. Previous researchers have demonstrated that two-way immersion programs improve ELs’ perceptions of school and themselves, particularly those of Latino students, and may reduce the high dropout rate of Latino students in the United States (Lindholm-Leary, 2005). Creekview’s ELs in the two-way immersion program enjoy the opportunity to be leaders and language models of Spanish for their native English speaking peers. Also, the native Spanish-speaking ELs emotionally benefit from being educated in an environment in which their home language and culture is represented. Vanessa, an administrator at Creekview, said, “It’s fun to watch; they’re very proud of themselves because they’re accomplishing something that half the school is not, you know.” Gris, a native Spanish-speaking parent of two ELs in Creekview’s two-way immersion program, says that her sons are proud of their bilingualism and that it builds their confidence and that she hears them say, “I’m more smarter than you [because I] speak English and Spanish.” Victoria, a first grade English immersion teacher, said of a newcomer student, “I think she just loves being able to speak to kids in her own language and I hear a little bit of
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Spanish occasionally.” In an English only program, this student would not have the same amount of exposure to and support in her native language. A Spanish immersion teacher said that her ELs feel “relieved” upon entering her classroom because they know they will be hearing and working in Spanish and “can express themselves more” in their dominant language. Many teachers within the two-way immersion program noted that the program maintains high expectations for students, which may increase students’ self-esteem.

Summary

Though the data from Creekview Elementary School’s 2013 3\textsuperscript{rd} and 4\textsuperscript{th} grade cohort show no significant differences between ACCESS, CRCT reading, or CRCT math scores of two-way immersion ELs versus non-two-way immersion ELs in English only programs, it is significant that the scores are similar for ELs in the ESOL program and ELs in the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary School. This means that students exposed to up to 50% Spanish per day (at least 30%) did not lose any ground in acquiring English. Also, administrators, teachers, and parents repeatedly indicated that the program has had positive social and emotional outcomes for students and even their families in some cases. Socially, ELs and their native English-speaking counterparts build strong friendships and the ability to code-switch and communicate with each other in English or Spanish. Parents also gain the opportunity to develop cross-cultural friendships with their children’s classmates’ families. ELs emotionally benefit from the program by hearing their own language represented in school, being viewed as language resources/leaders for their peers, and by being able to use their native language in school to express themselves and understand information being presented. All stakeholders cited overwhelmingly positive outcomes of Creekview’s two-way immersion program.
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Analysis

Though the comparative analysis of 3rd and 4th grade students’ K to 3rd grade ACCESS scores and 3rd grade math and reading scores are not significantly different based on two-way immersion or ESOL program delivery models, there is evidence demonstrating that two-way immersion programs are highly beneficial for English learners (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2002). In their longitudinal study comparing EL support model effectiveness, Thomas and Collier (2002) found that two-way immersion programs are most successful at closing the achievement gap for ELs and sustaining the high achievement of ELs over time. However, they note that achievement gap closure tends to take six or more years (Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program currently provides students with a family-like environment providing student-to-student collaboration and an environment in which native Spanish-speaking students’ language and home cultures are represented. Nurturing, family-like school environments such as those provided by effective two-way immersion programs tend to improve student attitudes toward school and ultimately increase student achievement (Bartlett & Garcia, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2005). Native Spanish speaking students also have opportunities to serve as language models for native English speakers and to explain to peers outside the school that their schooling experience is special, so ELs’ confidence is fostered. Parents and teachers repeatedly gave positive reports about the outcomes of the program, and several immersion teachers said their children were in the program, they wish the program would have existed when their children were younger, or they would place their own personal children within the program if given the opportunity.

Teachers involved in implementing start-up two-way immersion programs should plan to integrate collaborative activities in lessons, arrange seating and groups in a variety of
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configurations, and provide students with time to practice using content area academic language verbally on a regular basis. Collaborative learning can help all students reach greater competencies via the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986). Collaborative learning is particularly important for ELs, who need time to practice using language and to communicate with peers possessing higher English proficiency levels than their own (Echevarria & Short, 2010). Collaborative learning should also extend to assessment practices (Fleer, 2002). Administrators in two-way immersion programs should provide teachers with opportunities for professional development for teachers to gain insight into strategies for providing collaborative learning and assessment opportunities.

Stakeholders involved in new two-way immersion should not expect miraculous increases in student achievement scores or higher levels of student achievement for students in two-way immersion programs as opposed to ESOL classes until students have completed at least kindergarten through 5th grade within a two-way immersion program. (Thomas & Collier, 2002). However, stakeholders can expect that two-way immersion students will not lose ground in terms of English proficiency when compared with peers in monolingual educational programs (Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Also, stakeholders can expect the benefits of a family-like community in which students are confident, engaged in learning, and attaining English proficiency and biliteracy (Lindholm-Leary, 2005).
Chapter 5: Language Ideology and Inequality

This study took place in the midst of Georgia’s new 20-by-20 initiative and a need to explore 20-by-20 programs and how they are supporting ELs in order to provide information for the improvement of startup two-way immersion programs. Throughout the course of the study and exploring the implementation of Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program and its outcomes for students, themes of language ideologies and inequality that were not initially part of or directly linked to the study’s research questions emerged.

Though Creekview Elementary School is following the 50-50 model of two-way immersion, English is used more than Spanish is in the classroom, and a clear pattern of English preference over Spanish also emerged among students, parents, and teachers throughout this study. When given a choice for group work, both native English speakers and native Spanish speakers chose to use English in both English and Spanish immersion classes. Several immersion teachers and administrators noted that both native English speaking and native Spanish speaking parents find the quantity of Spanish spoken in the program and assigned as homework problematic. However, according to interview data and reports from teachers, native Spanish speaking parents also had a paradoxical complaint that encouraging their children to use Spanish with family members and at home is a constant struggle.

While varying levels of importance are placed on the English and Spanish languages, some argue that students belonging to the dominant culture in the United States, white, native English speakers, are also treated as more important than the subordinate cultural and linguistic group, Latino, native Spanish speakers, within two-way immersion programs (Scanlan & Palmer, 2009; Palmer, 2009; Valdes, 2011). One criticism that some researchers have of two-way immersion programs in the United States is that they primarily benefit linguistic majority
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students rather than linguistic minority students (Gomez, et al., 2005; Scanlan & Palmer, 2009; Palmer, 2009; Valdes, 2011; Varghese & Park, 2010). Galagher-Geurtsen (2007) writes that English learners enjoy the linguistic and cultural privilege or having a “secret language” which they are able to use to deny monolingual English speakers access to conversations and thoughts, but that this pales in comparison to the many privileges afforded to middle to upper class, white, native-English-speaking students. Valdes (2011) worries that the only privilege many dominant Spanish speaking ELs in the United States have is their ability to communicate in Spanish, and that two-way immersion programs tend to give this privilege to students already benefitting from white, middle-class privileges.

Whereas many two-way immersion programs include mostly English learners with low socioeconomic backgrounds and native English speakers who are white and middle to upper-class, Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program is very diverse in terms of socioeconomic statuses of native English-speaking and native Spanish-speaking students included. The majority of the native Spanish speaking students are of Mexican descent, but there are several other nationalities represented as well. Both African American and Caucasian students are represented in fairly equal numbers, which is not usually the case in two-way immersion programs. Scanlan and Palmer (2009) discuss the systematic exclusion of African American students in two-way immersion programs, which occurs because of linguistic prejudices against African American vernacular English and takes place primarily through advertising practices. This is not an issue at Creekview, and one administrator stated that “the African-American parents are much more open and are much more enthusiastic about having their children in the program than any other ethnicity.” There is a wide range of diversity in Creekview’s two-way immersion program, which includes students with disabilities, gifted
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students, low socioeconomic status, and higher socioeconomic status students who are native Spanish speakers and native English speakers. The possible area of inequality, however, is the purposes of the two-way immersion program for the two groups of students (native English speaking and native Spanish speaking).

Parents’ Negative Perceptions of the Quantity of Spanish in the Program

Several Creekview Elementary two-way-immersion parents and teachers indicated during interviews that many parents within the program, both native English speakers and Spanish speakers, are surprised with and even challenged by the quantity of Spanish being used in the program. One administrator noted that many “‘Latino parents…say, ‘English, English, English, I don’t want my child to fall behind in English.’” Many parents of native Spanish speaking students in the program worry that knowledge acquired in Spanish is inferior to knowledge acquired in English and that Spanish instruction will hinder students’ growth in English. Even though the program is explained to parents upon enrolling students, some parents tend to think that the program is one in which students will learn basic Spanish such as colors and other social vocabulary rather than 50% of the academic program. Both native English and Spanish speaking parents at Creekview sometimes feel challenged by the Spanish homework students are required to complete. Monolingual English speaking parents become frustrated with the Spanish homework because they do not know the Spanish language enough to help students with homework, and their children often become more frustrated with the Spanish homework than with the English homework. Native Spanish speaking parents have difficulty helping students complete Spanish homework because the students are often more proficient in English than Spanish and often prefer to use English rather than Spanish.
Veronica, 2nd grade English immersion teacher at Creekview, describes parents’ resistance to Spanish homework as one of the program’s biggest challenges. She attributes this to parents who still think that…their kids get pulled out for thirty minutes a day, and learn some Spanish words, and it’s very different from that. And I think that it was a shocker when we sent homework home and I send two nights of the homework in English. I do Monday/Wednesday night and then my partner, Spanish teacher, does Tuesday/Thursday and her homework is very rigorous. And you have to know Spanish to be able to do it. And so, I think a lot of parents, when they saw the hardness of our homework, it was like, ‘What?’ And they would call up and complain or whatever. And then, um, we ended up, our biggest complainer, we ended up, um, you know, showing her by letting her daughter do her homework here. And I had her do it by herself, because I don’t speak Spanish, so I couldn’t help her with it anyway. And, um, she did it all. And we told her mom, like, it’s obviously just, uh, she can do it, just push her and, and, you know, have faith in the program and say I know that you, you know how to do this, ‘cause we wouldn’t send home something that’s harder than they can do.

This anecdote illustrates that English is the dominant language in the United States, and even in a bilingual program such as Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program, parents, both native English-speaking and native Spanish-speaking, tend to marginalize the Spanish and reduce its use to thirty minutes a day as opposed to placing equal importance and expecting equal time allotment to English and Spanish. The hegemonic “common sense” notion in the United States is that the English language is superior to others is possibly the root of
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parents’ assumption that the majority of the school day should be dedicated to instruction in English and that homework should be assigned exclusively in English (Gramsci, 2000).

Native Spanish Speaking Parents’ Ongoing Battle for their Children to Speak Spanish

Students within Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program demonstrated a clear preference for English over Spanish during my observations of classroom instruction. For example, during an observation of a math lesson in Kitty’s 4th grade Spanish immersion classroom, students cheered when she announced that the class would be playing “Around the World,” but groaned when she added that the students must only use Spanish in the game. Also, during transition time or when placed in groups or pairs, students usually spoke English to each other, whether they were native Spanish speakers or native English speakers or in English or Spanish immersion classrooms. Thus, it is not surprising that many participants in the study noted that L1 Spanish speakers were resistant to using Spanish at home.

Many native Spanish speaking parents and also Spanish immersion teachers (speaking from personal experiences with their own children) discussed the ongoing battle they face with trying to maintain their children’s Spanish proficiency. Parents overwhelmingly indicated that their children prefer using English over Spanish at home, noting that their children tend to speak English together, that their children’s spoken English proficiency is higher than their Spanish proficiency, that their children often answer questions in English even though the questions are asked in Spanish, and that their children often correct their English pronunciation. This creates tension in families when children use English as a code language to exclude parents and when children cannot effectively communicate with monolingual Spanish speaking extended family members.
Kitty, 4th grade Spanish and English immersion teacher, attributes children’s resistance to speaking Spanish to attitudes of community members:

“A lot of them are embarrassed to speak in Spanish outside of the classroom if they’re…out in the store or something or at a restaurant because there’s still that taboo of if you’re…speaking Spanish, you’re, you know, an immigrant, or an illegal, or something like that. So there’s still that stigma…in this community which I think maybe if, let’s say, this program was…in California or in Florida where there’s a higher population or there’s a more…diverse population, it wouldn’t be like that. But I feel like there is some resistance here, because people don’t understand and in their minds, they have all these negative connotations about Spanish speakers.”

She goes on to say that students within the two-way immersion program are aware of the negative perceptions many hold of Spanish speakers and that students realize that English is the language of power within the United States. In a discussion of Critical Race Theory, Ladson-Billings (1998) notes that Critical Race Theory frames racism as normal in everyday life in the United States. Structural dominance of the white, middle class is perpetuated in society and in educational contexts (Levinson, 2011). Latino children are aware of the advantages that exist for white individuals as opposed to people of color and the overall preference of society and its educational institutions for English over Spanish. These ideas are internalized and create an environment in which Latino children feel that being white and speaking English are preferable over being a person of color and speaking Spanish, which is one possible explanation of many Latino children’s resistance to speaking Spanish.

Throughout interviews with two-way immersion teachers, Spanish immersion teachers tended to have a greater awareness of and comment more on language ideologies privileging
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English over Spanish than English immersion teachers did. However, teachers did not explicitly mention language ideologies without prompting. For example, some of the questions that prompted teachers to discuss language ideology were about community members’ perceptions of two-way immersion programs, Georgia’s political context, and challenges of two-way immersion (see appendix A for complete questions). Some discussed language ideologies, particularly Spanish immersion teachers (hinted at being marginalized as Spanish speakers in their lives outside of school). However, teachers suggested that other daily demands occupy their attention more than issues such as language ideology.

**The Purposes of Two-Way Immersion for Native Spanish Speakers**

Valdes (2011) identifies two groups of people involved in the implementation of two-way immersion programs—bilingual educators who are primarily concerned about providing high quality education of English learners, an educationally at-risk group, and foreign language educators who are mostly concerned with developing second-language proficiency in mainstream American children. During this study, participants tended to suggest different purposes for the two-way immersion program when speaking about native English speakers and native Spanish speakers separately.

When speaking of English learners, participants tended to mention social and emotional benefits of the program and student achievement scores that were presumably higher than those of students not in two-way immersion programs. One teacher spoke of a new student from Puerto Rico as a “poor little thing,” noting that she didn’t know any English upon arrival to Georgia, “she really has enjoyed [the two-way immersion program],” and “she just loves being able to speak to kids in her own language.” Several immersion teachers mentioned their Spanish speakers seeming to feel “relieved” in Spanish immersion classes. Others pointed out that the
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two-way immersion program improves ELs’ self-esteem, allowing them to “be leaders,” “serve as resources” and receive praise they may not otherwise enjoy (because ESOL models tend to encourage deficit ideologies of ELs whereas two-way immersion is designed around an additive model of bilingualism).

Participants’ comments about two-way immersion for English learners suggest that teachers may feel sorry for ELs at times and have somewhat low social and academic expectations for these students.

The Purposes of Two-Way Immersion for Native English Speakers

In contrast to the comments participants tended to make about two-way immersion’s positive effects on English learners, a different narrative emerged when participants were discussing the purposes of and benefits of two-way immersion for native English speakers within the program. Participants tended to speak of native English speaking children in the program as exceptionally bright for being able to successfully acquire and use the Spanish language quickly and headed for future career success in the current world context of globalization. Also, in general, participants had more to say about the benefits of two-way immersion for native English speakers than for native Spanish speakers.

When discussing the uniqueness of the school’s two-way immersion program, one immersion teacher said, “It’s not like…in a regular school where [monolingual English speakers are] taught Spanish…just by being introduced to…vocabulary or…things like that; they’re truly involved in the language and the culture.” The same teacher said that the program provides an opportunity for students (she inferred that she was referring to native English speakers with this comment) to become more well-rounded academically and socially.
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Several teachers commented on how it is “amazing” that the native English speakers in the program gain communicative Spanish skills, even though the English speaker’s Spanish proficiency typically does not equal the native Spanish speakers’ English proficiency. Francine, kindergarten immersion teacher, said, native English speakers “love it. They’re very receptive...they’re intimidated… because I just come out speaking Spanish, but now it’s like...just coming in and learning, it’s like no big deal to them now, it’s, it’s amazing… But, they’re also five, so, five and six…” Throughout the study, no one mentioned that native Spanish speakers are “amazing” because of their English proficiency.

A parent of a native English speaking student identified as “gifted” said that the Spanish portion of the program is fun for her child and provides the extra challenge that he needs. Many identified the school as comparable to a private or charter school for students like these. Victoria, 1st grade English immersion teacher, indicated that this is especially the case for “the [native] English [speaking parents] who really want their child to get something extra, and it’s really good if you’ve got a very bright student that didn’t make PC, then that gives him something extra…to work on.”

Many participants also discussed the program being beneficial for native English-speaking students in terms of future job opportunities in the context of globalization. For example, when asked about community perspectives of the program, Vanessa, an administrator at Creekview, said,

I think now it’s getting better. I think they understand the program and the benefits of it. When we first started … they didn’t know what the benefits are. I mean, they would say things like, ‘You know, well I don’t understand why you’re doing this for the Mexicans,’
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and we’d have to educate them to say, ‘We’re not doing this for the Mexicans; we’re doing this for all students, because it gives them a leg up in the job market later on.’

Participants’ comments about two-way immersion for native English speakers suggest that teachers are concerned about the economic future for these students, think of native English speakers in the same way they may think of their own children, and are impressed with bilingualism of native English speakers.

Inequality

The different benefits and purposes of two-way immersion programs for native English speakers and native Spanish speakers demonstrate the inequality that exists in two-way immersion programs such as Creekview Elementary’s. Gallagher-Geurtsen (2007) writes about what she calls “linguistic privilege,” a term suggesting that speaking “standard,” native English with a Midland dialect provides speakers with privileges such as not being discriminated against at a job interview due to accent, friends and family being “in awe” of my bilingualism, and being able to take standardized tests in my stronger language. She provides a complete list, which is similar to Peggy McIntosh’s “white privilege” list.

The only linguistic and cultural privilege that native Spanish speakers enjoy is that they have a “secret language” with which to communicate in order to deny monolingual English speakers access to their ideas (Gallagher-Geurtsen, 2007). Valdes (2011) argues against “giving” the Spanish language away to already privileged native English-speaking children.

Some researchers problematize the inclusion of middle-class native English speaking students in two-way immersion programs (Gomez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Palmer, 2009; Scanlan & Palmer, 2009). Palmer (2009) found that linguistic majority students tend to dominate discussions and teachers’ attention in two-way immersion classes, which may indirectly teach
the linguistic minority students that they are second-class citizens. While this was not a clear pattern at Creekview Elementary School, the higher esteem placed on English than Spanish may have reinforced this ideology. ELs at Creekview know that English proficiency is essential for their academic, social, and future success, and they do not receive high levels of praise for acquiring English. However, native English speaking students know that Spanish proficiency is considered optional or for enrichment (Palmer, 2009). Native English speakers receive a great deal of praise and admiration from community members and even teachers for whatever proficiency levels they achieve in the Spanish language.

Throughout the United States and within two-way immersion programs, native English speakers enjoy linguistic privileges, and English learners are further marginalized. Students receive messages that English is superior to other languages and that being American means acting and speaking “American” (Gallagher-Geurtsen, 2007). When discussing why native English speaking students and native Spanish speaking students tend to avoid speaking Spanish publicly, one Spanish immersion teacher said, “I feel like there is some resistance here, because people don’t understand and in their mind, they have all these negative connotations about Spanish speakers…there’s this thing where if you speak Spanish, you’re automatically a Mexican.” She said that her classroom is a safe space in which students can communicate in Spanish, but that students feel “judged” and “looked down upon” using Spanish in the outside world.

Parents of students in the two-way immersion program tend to reinforce this notion of English’s superiority to Spanish. Many teachers within Creekview’s two-way immersion program told me that even with frequent communication, Latino parents do not have a clear understanding of what is happening within the program and demonstrate that they value English
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over Spanish by saying things such as, “If they are learning in Spanish, it might not be good.” “I don’t want my child to fall behind in English,” and “I didn’t want that much Spanish.” These comments show that many parents feel that knowledge acquired in Spanish is not going to be good knowledge. One Spanish immersion teacher stated that many parents think their children are learning in a traditional monolingual English classroom with the addition of “Spanish ABCs, colors, and Mexican songs.”

Summary

Despite program efforts to place equal importance on English and Spanish, parents and students receive messages in their lives outside of school that English is the dominant language and the language of power in the United States. Parents are invited to attend initial meetings on the school’s two-way immersion program and receive informational materials such as bilingual parent newsletters specific to the program. Though parents have information about the program and the intent of the school and educators within the school is to esteem English and Spanish equally, both native English speaking and native Spanish-speaking parents of two-way immersion students within Creekview Elementary School tend to show surprise and frustration when teachers assign 50% of the week’s homework in Spanish. However, many of the same native Spanish-speaking parents who complain about the assignment of homework in Spanish also complain about the struggle to encourage their children to use the Spanish language with family members and outside of school.

Though this is unintended, inequality between the Spanish and English languages exist within the school and within other two-way immersion programs. Though the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary seems to be benefitting students, parents, and teachers, it is problematic that this type of program has arguably been made available only
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because native English speakers benefit from the program; bilingual education for English learners only is not available within the district or state. Also, like many two-way immersion programs within the United States, Creekview’s program reproduces society’s overall narratives that English is superior to other languages and that speaking “American” is of utmost importance in order to be considered American.

Analysis

Parents’ negative perceptions of teachers assigning “too much” Spanish homework and using Spanish in the classroom for half of the instructional day and the native Spanish-speaking parents’ ongoing battles with their own children to speak Spanish at home and with family members are reflections of “common sense” hegemonic ideas of linguistic imperialism within the United States (Gramsci, 2000; Freeman, 2000). The prevailing notion is that information learned in Spanish is not as valuable as information learned in English, which is reflected in standardized tests being the ultimate measure of student success in this country and only being provided in English. That children are often resistant to speak Spanish with their families at home is unsurprising because children constantly receive societal messages of the superiority of the English language outside of school and even within school to a certain extent.

New two-way immersion programs should create plans to teach counterhegemonic ideas to students and their parents about the importance of maintaining the home language, the idea that learning in L1 transfers to L2, and the value of bilingualism. Schools should have strong orientation programs that educate parents on the value of bilingualism and what the two-way immersion program’s goals and methodology are. Also, schools should make a conscious effort to demonstrate that the target language is valued in whatever ways possible. For example, one teacher mentioned the possibility of Creekview having Spanish Fridays in order to make up for
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all of the Spanish exposure and instruction lost due to testing and special events and activities involving English only.

It is unfortunate that state-level policymakers and opponents of bilingual education only accept two-way immersion due to its potential positive impact on native English speaking students and improve the status of the United States in terms of the economy and globalization, but this does not change that the program is benefitting ELs. Educators should be aware of the extremely different reasons that two-way immersion is being implemented for native English speakers and for ELs (Palmer, 2009; Scanlan & Palmer, 2009). Creekview Elementary’s inclusion of native English speakers of all ability levels, socioeconomic backgrounds, and races is one way that their two-way immersion program seems to push for equity for ELs. Also, the number of native Spanish speakers and native English speakers is imbalanced within the program, but the imbalance is due to more Latino students, many of whom are ELs or former ELs, being enrolled in the program. Ideally, classroom composition in a two-way immersion program approximates 50% students dominant in the minority language and 50% students dominant in the majority language (Quintanar-Sarellana, 2004). Environments in which there are two relatively equal groups of students dominant in each language lead to students having language models with whom they may interact with and learn from (Quintanat-Sarellana, 2004). In the sociocultural framework, learning begins through interaction with others (Lake, 2012). No matter what the program demographics are, it is important for two-way immersion programs to be aware of the possibility of native English speakers’ needs overshadowing ELs’ so this does not happen.
Chapter 6: Conclusions and Implications

While framing the study and analyzing data, the researcher explored the implementation of Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program in order to gain information to help other startup two-way immersion schools. Based on the Georgia Department of Education’s online statement, two-way immersion programs are important for success in the increasingly globalized economy in which we live, and students need to gain bilingualism and competence in multiculturalism in order to be prepared for entry into, collaboration in, and success in the workforce, whether working in the United States or overseas. This information suggests that state leaders are primarily envisioning two-way immersion as being beneficial for native English speakers, because English language development, achievement gap closure, and other issues specific to ELs are not part of the statement.

Overall research questions were, “How is Creekview Elementary School implementing its two-way immersion program, and how is the program infrastructure designed?” and “How is the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary affecting students socially, emotionally, and academically?” (additional subquestions regarding student achievement scores and learning activities and interactions). Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program provides a positive learning environment for ELs. In this environment, ELs’ native language (Spanish) is valued and used more than it would be in an ESOL program delivery model, but not as much as it should be for optimal results. The program gives ELs opportunities to serve as language models and leaders for native English-speaking students. By design, the program fosters student to student and teacher-to-teacher collaboration, which facilitates learning and positive relationships. The program creates a family-like environment for students, their families,
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teachers, and administrators. Administrators provide high levels of support for the immersion teachers.

Unfortunately, the implementation of Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion program, as is likely the case with many other two-way immersion programs, does not strictly follow the 50-50 model of instruction, using more English than Spanish. This is problematic because to a certain extent the practice sends students the ideological message that English is more valuable than Spanish and also decreases the likelihood that students will gain and maintain a high level of proficiency in academic Spanish, which is important for both ELs and native English speakers in two-way immersion programs. Though the original intent of two-way immersion programs is to provide ELs with high quality instruction and an equitable environment in which their home cultures and languages are valued on an equal level to English, ELs and native speakers and Spanish and English are not always equally valued in schools, including at Creekview Elementary School. Much of the inequity is related to factors outside the school such as state-level policies and assessments and overall societal ideologies.

Even though Creekview Elementary and many other schools offering two-way immersion have strayed somewhat from the original intent of the program delivery model and may be offering the program mostly for the benefit of native English speakers, two-way immersion is beneficial for ELs, particularly in terms of social and emotional outcomes. The scores of ELs in Creekview Elementary’s two-way immersion program versus the scores of Creekview Elementary’s ELs in English only educational programs were statistically equal, which indicates that daily time used for Spanish instruction did not negatively impact students’ acquisition of English. Also, these scores were only analyzed for students who had completed kindergarten through 3rd grade. Thomas and Collier (2002) indicate that students must participate in two-way
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immersion programs for at least five to six years in order to demonstrate language proficiency in the L1 and L2 and that sustained two-way immersion programs often lead to high levels of student achievement. Thus, the comparison between scores of Creekview Elementary’s ELs in two-way immersion and non-two-way immersion support may be more favorable for two-way immersion when students reach fifth grade and beyond after being provided consecutive language support in two-way immersion programs throughout elementary school.

Implications for Beginning Two-Way Immersion Programs and Educators

When planning a two-way immersion program, 90-10 is preferable over 50-50 because many factors can erode students’ target language exposure. Also, most students are exposed to more English than the target language in the world outside school (shopping, television, native English speakers, etc.). Ninety-ten has proven to result in higher achievement scores than 50-50 programs and to be the most successful form of language support for ELs (Thomas & Collier, 2002). No matter which program delivery model is used, the target language should be esteemed and protected, and students should be explicitly taught the value of bilingualism and the target language. ELs need a strong educational foundation in their L1s in order to become successful in English (Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Once the program delivery model has been determined and established, educators must expect and provide ample opportunities for student-to-student and teacher-to-teacher collaboration. Creekview Elementary School’s two-way immersion teachers arrange classrooms and design lessons around student collaboration, providing time for group-work, bilingual pairs, and student interaction more often than what typically occurs in English-only classrooms. Also, administrators designate specific planning days for two-way immersion teachers to collaborate,
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which is particularly important between grade level English and Spanish teaching pairs, but also for all two-way immersion teachers in order to ensure program consistency and cohesion.

**Implications for Policymakers**

Policymakers should promote two-way immersion programs because, long-term, this program delivery model has proven to close the achievement gap for ELs, particularly 90-10 two-way immersion programs (Thomas & Collier, 2002). In addition, two-way immersion programs provide social and emotional benefits for ELs and create positive parent-school relationships and family-like environments in schools. Policymakers should allow 90-10 models to be implemented because ELs’ L1 proficiency is the strongest indicator in their success in English (Thomas & Collier, 2002). Instruction in a target language other than English will not erode students’ performances in English. In order to ensure the feasibility of programs implementing 90-10 or even 50-50 models of two-way immersion, teacher preparation training and programs should be in place to recruit high quality bilingual staff members, particularly for special areas classes such as physical education, music, and art.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

For future research, quantitative studies with larger sample sizes and students who have been in two-way immersion programs for longer periods of time than K-3 may provide information on how two-way immersion programs affect students academically. Longitudinal data from EL students participating in two-way immersion programs from kindergarten to 12th grade would provide particularly helpful data in determining the student achievement outcomes of two-way immersion programs. Also, longitudinal studies comparing long-term achievement of ELs in two way immersion programs and their native English speaking peers in two-way immersion programs as well as general programs of study would provide useful information in
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determining how two-way immersion programs affect the achievement gap between ELs and native English speakers. Additional studies on outcomes for native English speakers, academic and otherwise, are also necessary.
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References


Barfield, G, & Valentine, J. (March 30, 2014). Georgia dual immersion program. [informational flyer/document outlining Georgia’s position statement on two-way immersion]


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Appendix A – Interview Protocol for Administrators and Teachers:

Student Learning and the Implementation of One Elementary School’s Two-Way Immersion Program

Demographic Information:

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<th>Gender</th>
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<th>current position</th>
<th>current grade level taught</th>
<th>school years working with two-way immersion delivery model</th>
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<tr>
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<td>administrator □ English immersion teacher □ Spanish immersion teacher □ Other) _</td>
<td>K □ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ N/A □</td>
<td>0 □ 1-2 □ 3-4 □ 5-6 □ 7-8 □ 9-10 □ 11+ □</td>
<td>yes □ no □</td>
<td>African American □ Asian □ Latino □ White □ Other □</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Icebreaker- suggested pseudonym -

1. In what areas are you certified to teach?

2. What previous teaching experience do you have?

3. How did you become involved with the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary?

4. How is Creekview’s two-way immersion program unique?

5. What perceptions do you think members of the community hold of two-way immersion?

6. How does the political context of Georgia affect the implementation of Creekview’s two-way immersion program?

7. How do administrators, teachers, parents, and students work together for success at Creekview Elementary?
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8. What resources do students and teachers have or need in Creekview’s two-way immersion program that students and teachers in non-two-way immersion programs do not have?

9. How is instruction in a two-way immersion school different from instruction in a non-two-way immersion school?

10. Do you use non-traditional methods of assessment in the two-way immersion program?
    • What forms of non-traditional assessment do you use?
    • What are the goals of the non-traditional assessments that you use?

11. What challenges do dual-language educators face?

12. When given a choice, do ELs and native English speakers work together in class? Sit together at lunch? Play together on the playground? Go to each other’s birthday parties?

13. How do the ELs feel about learning in a two-way immersion program?

14. Do you think two-way immersion is benefiting ELs academically?

15. Is there anything else you would like to share with me?
Appendix B – Interview Protocol for Parents:

Student Learning and the Implementation of One Elementary School’s

Two-Way Immersion Program

Demographic Information:

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Icebreaker- suggested pseudonyms -

1. How did your child become a student in the two-way immersion program at Creekview Elementary?

2. How is Creekview’s two-way immersion program unique?

3. What perceptions do you think members of the community hold of two-way immersion, both negative and positive?

4. How do administrators, teachers, parents, and students work together for success at Creekview Elementary?

5. How are you involved with Creekview’s two-way immersion program?

6. What challenges do your dual-language student/s face at school?

7. How does your child relate to students in his/her class? Does he/she play with the ELs/native English speaking students on the playground? Do they go to each other’s birthday parties?

8. How does your child/do your children feel about learning in a two-way immersion program?

9. Do you think two-way immersion is benefiting your student/s academically?
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10. What do you like about Creekview’s two-way immersion program?

11. What do you dislike about Creekview’s two-way immersion program?

12. Is there anything else you would like to share with me?
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Appendix C: CONSENT FORM

I agree/give my consent for ____________________________ to participate in the research project entitled “Student Learning and the Implementation of One Elementary School’s Dual-Language Immersion Program,” which is being conducted by Rita Gimenez, rita.gimenez@hotmail.com, 404-429-4543. I understand that this participation is voluntary; I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty.

The following points have been explained to me:

1. The reason for the research is to learn about the implementation of one Georgia school’s two-way immersion program, the perceived social, emotional, and academic impact of the program, and the impact of the program on student achievement.
2. You will be asked to take part in an interview on one occasion, lasting from 30 minutes to an hour (focus groups for administrators and parents, one-on-one interviews for teachers). The procedures are as follows: 2 administrators and 10 two-way immersion teachers (5 English, 5 Spanish) will be interviewed in order for the researcher to gain specific information about experiences with and perceptions of the school’s two-way immersion program. 6 parents (3 native English speakers and 3 native Spanish speakers) will also be interviewed in focus groups. The interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed into a Word document. The recordings and Word document will be destroyed in May, 2014, upon completion of the study. The researcher will also collect field notes about interviews, classroom observation, and other occurrences within the school. Additionally, the researcher will compare ACCESS and CRCT data of the dual-language school and another comparable school within the district.
3. The discomforts or stresses that may be faced during this research are the inconvenience of and time required to meet with the researcher and respond to the questions and the discomfort of being audio and video recorded.
4. Participation entails the following risks: no potential risks. The benefits of the study will be providing educators with more information about the impact of two-way immersion and how it can be successfully implemented, which may ultimately increase student achievement and help educators with the process of developing new two-way immersion programs, particularly within non-gateway regions for Latino immigration in the United States.
5. The results of this participation will be anonymous and will not be released in any individually identifiable form without the prior consent of the participant unless required by law. Original interview responses will be transferred into a password-protected Word document and then destroyed to ensure full anonymity.
6. Inclusion criteria for participation: Administrators must be employed at the two-way immersion school being researched. Teacher participants must be current English or Spanish two-way immersion teachers at the school being studied. Parent participants must have had at least one child enrolled in the two-way immersion program at the school being studied for two or more academic school years. Teachers and parents must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study.

__________________________________________________________
Signature of Investigator, Date

__________________________________________________________
Signature of Participant or authorized representative, Date

PLEASE SIGN BOTH COPIES, KEEP ONE AND RETURN THE OTHER TO THE INVESTIGATOR

Research at Kennesaw State University that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of an Institutional Review Board. Questions or problems regarding these activities should be addressed to the Institutional Review Board, Kennesaw State University, 1000 Chastain Road, #0112, Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591, (678) 797-2268.
Appendix D: FORMA DE CONSENTIMIENTO

Yo estoy de acuerdo/ doy mi consentimiento ___________________________ para participar en la investigación del proyecto titulado “Student Learning and the Implementation of One Elementary School’s Dual-Language Immersion Program,” que es conducido por Rita Gimenez, rita.gimenez@hotmail.com, 404-429-4543. Yo entiendo que la participación es voluntaria, yo puedo terminar mi participación y aprobación en cualquier momento sin penalidad.

Los siguientes puntos se me han sido explicados:

1. La razón de la investigación es para aprender sobre la implementación de uno de los programas de la escuela bilingüe, la percepción social, emocional, e impacto académico del programa en los logros del estudiante.

2. A Ud se le preguntara a pertenecer a una entrevista que durara entre 30 minutos a una hora ( grupos de enfoque para administradores y padres, entrevistas de uno a uno (individuales) para profesores ). Los procedimientos son los siguientes: 2 administradores y 10 profesores bilingües ( 5 Ingles, 5 Espanol) seran entrevistados en orden por que los investigadores puedan obtener información específica sobre las experiencias y percepciones del programa de escuela bilingüe. 6 Padres/Representantes ( 3 Ingles y 3 Espanol) seran tambien entrevistados en grupos. Las entrevistas seran grabadas en audio y transcritas en documento de Word. Las grabaciones y documentos seran destruidas en Mayo 2014 cuando el proyecto sea completado. El investigador tambien colectara notas de campo sobre las entrevistas, salones de observacion y otra ocurrencias con la escuela. Adicionalmente, los investigadores compararan datos de ACCESS and CRCT de la escuela del programa bilingüe con otro programa escolar similar.

3. Las incomodidades y estreses que se puedan sentir durante esta investigación son la inconveniencia y tiempo requerido para reunirse responder las preguntas y la incomodidad de ser grabado en audio y video mientras la entrevista este en proceso.

4. La participación tiene los siguientes riesgos: No riesgos Los beneficios de estos estudios proveeran a educadores con mas informacion sobre el impacto bilingüe y como puede ser exitosamente implementado, que en final puede incrementar los logros del estudiante y ayudar educadores con el proceso de desarrolo de los programas bilingües, particularmente en el Sureste de los Estados Unidos.

5. Los resultados de esta participación seran anonimos y no seran divulgados sin ningun tipo de consentimiento del participante al menos que sea requerido por ley. Entrevistas originales sera protegidas con codigos de seguridad y despues completamente destruidas.


___________________________  ____________________________
Firma del Investigador, Fecha                              Firma del Participante o Representante Autorizado, Fecha

PROFAVOR FIRME AMBAS COPIAS, MANTENGA UNA Y DEVUELVA OTRA AL INVESTIGADOR.

Investigacion en la Universidad de Kennesaw que requiera la participação de personas humanas is sometido a supervision de la institucion de chequeo universitario. Preguntas y problemas sobre estas actividades deben ser siministradas a las institucion de chequeo universitario, 1000 Chastain Road, # 0112, Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591, (678) 797-2268.
Two-Way Immersion

Appendix E – Classroom Observation Protocol:
Student Learning and the Implementation of One Elementary School’s Dual-Language Immersion Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Notes/Reflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade Level:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Description of Lesson:</td>
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Language Used: (___ minute increments)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish:</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English:</th>
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Grouping Configurations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>configuration</th>
<th>time</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pairs</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups of 3-4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Groups of 5-6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Groups of 7-8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whole group</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Student-Student Interactions: