# Co-teaching for K-12 English Learners: Origins, Applications, and Implications

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Abstract

For the last 450 years, the United States of America has been a nation of immigrants. Throughout history, educating immigrant children in America has been approached with many different solutions, which have enjoyed varying degrees of success. Today, English Learners (ELs) in the K-12 public schools of America are typically served in immersion, English as a Second Language, bilingual, or dual language programs designed to teach content and English. Each of these programs has disadvantages which educators are trying to remedy in the face of an economic recession and high-stakes standardized tests mandated through No Child Left Behind. One solution that has been proposed is co-teaching: a content teacher and an EL teacher working together in the same classroom in order to meet the needs of ELs. Co-teaching ensures that ELs are not isolated from their native English speaking peers while receiving content instruction at the appropriate grade level and the necessary English instruction. While there are many advantages to co-teaching, there are also disadvantages and challenges to be considered before undertaking co-teaching as a way to educate ELs. Lack of mutual planning time, differing pedagogical philosophies, and perceptions of status are three problems that co-teachers face as they work together. In this essay, I address how the education of ELs has been shaped by various cultural, political, and social events, how co-teaching is a solution to the demands placed on K-12 schools, what issues need to be addressed by co-teachers before and during their co-teaching experience, and how different structures can be used in a co-taught classroom. I end this essay with a lesson plan illustrating how two teachers can work together to teach multicultural folktales in a fifth-grade Language Arts classroom.

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**Introduction**

Give me your tired, your poor,

Your huddled masses, yearning to breathe free,

The wretched refuse of your teeming shore,

Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me,

I lift my lamp beside the golden door. (Lazarus)

America has long been a country of immigrants. Historians have tracked the various waves of immigrants starting with the earliest settlements at Jamestown to the southern and eastern European immigrants in the early twentieth century to the more recent waves of Asian and Latin American immigrants. Today, some American citizens, dealing with people from cultures dissimilar to their own, will reminisce about the "good old days" when their own ancestors came to America, embraced their new country, and learned English at a truly remarkable speed (Foner 27). Few people are aware of the actual experience of immigrants in the American "melting pot" in which schools played a pivotal role, and even fewer are aware of how schools today are working to avoid the mistakes of past educators.

The American education system has had over four hundred years' experience educating non-English speaking students. The results have not always been lauded as particularly successful. Edward Bok, an immigrant attending school during the late nineteenth century, had no words of praise for the American public school system:

> In the matter of education, America fell far short in what should be the strongest of all her institutions: the public school. A more inadequate, incompetent method of teaching, as I look back over my seven years of attendance at three different public schools, it is difficult to conceive. If there is one thing that I, as a foreign-born child, should have been carefully taught, it is the English language. The individual effort to teach this, if effort

> there was, and I remember none, was negligible. It was left for my father to teach me, or for me to dig it out for myself. There was absolutely no indication on the part of teacher or principal of responsibility for seeing that a foreign-born boy should acquire the English language correctly. I was taught as if I were American-born, and, of course, I was left dangling in the air, with no conception of what I was trying to do. (qtd. in Cohen 2157)

Some people reminiscing today forget that the majority of eighteenth-, nineteenth- and early twentieth-century immigrants dropped out of school and were able to find work in the factories or on the farms of America (de Jong). This scenario is seen as undesirable today as adequate employment options in modern America are often dependent on having a high-school diploma and being literate in English.

Today, most Americans believe that English must be learned in order for immigrants to be successful economically. Many Americans also agree that federally-funded schools, which are currently held accountable by standardized tests, are the best place for English Learners (ELs) to learn English. There is significant tension regarding the use of standardized tests to "track" students, and it is no longer acceptable to automatically place all ELs into the "vocational track" based on unreliable IQ tests; schools are required to provide ELs with extra assistance to ensure the students' maximum success.

Many models have been tried in the quest to effectively educate ELs in the public school systems. Immersion (often called *sink-or-swim*), sheltered English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, bilingual education, and dual immersion are just a few of the programs. The most recent model is co-teaching, where a content teacher and EL teacher work together to deliver instruction to the same group of students. Originally proposed as a solution to the general

education teacher shortage in the 1950's and then used extensively with students in special education programs, co-teaching has become increasingly popular as a solution to educating ELs. Delivered correctly, co-teaching keeps ELs in the content classroom but with the support they need to learn English. Co-teaching allows ELs to stay on-track learning the content they need to be successful in school but in a method with more support than leaving them to "sink-or-swim" in a mainstream class.

In this essay, I examine the many cultural, social, and political influences that have shaped our current EL educational environment by illustrating how American education has evolved from a model of family-controlled instruction with no federal government involvement to widespread acceptance of public schools which are federally funded based on standardized tests results. These events and influences are important to understand when discussing current solutions to educating ELs. Over the years, instructors and administrators have tried many different approaches to the demands placed on schools by society and the government; I present co-teaching as one solution that addresses both the demands of our current system and weaknesses of previous EL instructional programs. Additionally, I will discuss the positive and negative aspects associated with co-teaching, challenges that need to be addressed, and the best practices in implementing a co-teaching model. Finally, I present a lesson plan that implements the co-teaching model for a Language Arts content classroom.

## 1. Origins of EL instruction

### 1.1. 1600 – 1850, The Colonial Period and the New Nation

Education in colonial America was extremely diverse. Given the small population and isolation of the colonies, education generally remained the responsibility of the families (Urban and Wagoner 43). It was not until 1647 that the "Old Deluder Satan Act," passed in the New

England colonies, made education the responsibility of the towns by levying fines if towns of a certain size did not provide appropriate educational opportunities for the children (43). Those schools were usually church-sponsored and meant to preserve the "linguistic, religious, and cultural distinctiveness" of the community (Urban and Wagoner 52). Native English speakers were often in the minority, and monolingual education in the native language of each settlement was the norm (Fitzgerald 38). As the colonies expanded, many historians report that English became the commonly shared language but that bilingualism was valued due to the increasingly interactive economy (Fitzgerald 37).

Although bilingualism was widely practiced and valued, the emerging preference for English as the dominant language in education, politics, and society in general became obvious as civic leaders during this time period began voicing concern over the non-English speaking immigrants. Benjamin Franklin, in 1753, and Thomas Jefferson, in 1803, expressed their concerns that "the use of non-English languages would perpetuate foreign ideas and threaten civil society" (Ricento 3). Franklin referred to the recent German immigrants of Pennsylvania as "the most ignorant stupid sort of their own nation" (qtd. in Ricento 3) and was concerned that the immigrants, unable to speak English, would not shed their prejudices nor fully understand the government of the United States (3).

Other reformers in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries were also beginning to equate *speaking English* with *being American* and to look to public schools to provide training for all children. Noah Webster believed that America would only be free of European dominance when it was free of European languages and strove to design an *American* language free of regional and ethnic variations (Urban and Wagoner 82). Also during this time, theorists began praising the merits of publically-supported common schools for everyone – rich or poor,

girl or boy, English or not. This idea was not initially widely supported. Families saw education as a voluntary affair to be undertaken with others of similar backgrounds (87). This widespread opinion is in radical contrast to modern America, and it was the civic leaders during this era that were the first to voice the idea that the English language is for America and that education is for everyone.

As the nineteenth century opened, a large wave of Irish Catholics immigrants, seen as undesirable by the Protestant citizens, began arriving in America. In 1842, Horace Mann advocated that publicly-funded common schools were the best solution to assimilate these European peasants into "mainstream American life" (Urban and Wagoner 99). Using economic reasoning, Mann appealed to the wealthy citizens by claiming educated workers were more productive, safe, and malleable (103). Mann appealed to the working class immigrants by claiming common schools would prevent the class divisions they had experienced in Europe (106). These arguments influenced the thinking of many Americans at that time, and support for publicly-funded common schools began to grow. Indeed, today Americans often use this same economic reasoning when extolling the value of a high-school education. Even with all of these changes and emerging positive attitudes toward common education, bilingualism was valued as an economic necessity and protected as a viable mode of education (Fitzgerald 38).

**1.2. 1880 – 1920, The Americanization campaign**

Around 1880, immigration from northern Europe waned, and the majority of immigrants to America were coming from southern and eastern Europe. The Anglo citizens of America were alarmed by this new development. As more and more poor and uneducated immigrants arrived, Americans' tolerance of ethnic diversity and bilingualism decreased (Salomone 385-6, Fitzgerald 38).

With decreasing support for ethnic diversity came the growing conviction that English should be learned and used by all immigrants. America was no longer an agricultural economy which depended on low-skilled labor; English literacy and orality were critical skills for many jobs (Fitzgerald 39). This new attitude toward bilingualism and diversity was manifested in the restriction of immigration, the prohibition of instruction in any language other than English, and the requirement for immigrants to speak English to become citizens (39). For the first time in the 1930's, EL methodology was developed in order to eliminate bilingual education practices (40).

As Horace Mann had first suggested in 1842, schools finally accepted the challenge of integrating this massive wave of immigrants into American society by the beginning of the twentieth century (Tyack 232). In 1909, educator Ellwood P. Cubberly wrote "our task is to . . . assimilate and amalgamate these people as a part of our American race, and to implant in their children, so far as can be done, the Anglo-Saxon conception of righteousness, law and order, and popular government. (qtd. in Cohen 2162) Schools demanded total assimilation to Anglo-American values and norms. Immigrants were made to feel ashamed at being foreign, and educators insisted not only that immigrants learn new skills but also reject their old culture (Tyack 235). Content centered on learning English and arithmetic and becoming familiar with American civic institutions. Students were punished for speaking any language other than English, even during recess or lunch (Foner 33).

The schools of America, especially in the large cities of the East Coast, were daily overwhelmed with new immigrants that needed to learn English. There were very few programs in place in the public or private schools to help them do so. In the beginning of this time period, immigrant students were placed in English-only classes with no accommodations to help them learn English or academic content (de Jong). Often, newcomers were placed in the lowest

possible grade (usually first grade) regardless of appropriate age-grade placement (de Jong, Foner 32). This placement often led to high drop-out rates (de Jong).

In 1904, an option to submersion in first grade became available to the older immigrant students of large cities: the steamer class. Often called "C" classes, steamer classes were for children over the age of eight years who had recently arrived to the United States. Students were placed in these segregated classes from six weeks to one year and focused on learning English oral skills (de Jong). Steamer classes were plagued by problems such as lack of funds, overcrowding, and lack of support from teachers and principals (Foner 33).

Given the educational climate toward immigrant children during this time period, it is not surprising that public high schools particularly struggled. In addition to the immigrant issues, high school educators and theorists were grappling with the issue of differentiation in the high school curriculum. There was significant tension between industrial leaders who wanted to link schools to employment for those students who showed no "academic aptitude" and educators who hesitated to separate students into segregated programs which would make returning to an academic program extremely difficult (Urban and Wagoner 211). Even as differentiated high schools continued to develop, there were those who criticized the system for "pigeon-holing" immigrant children as incapable of academic work (Miggins 12).

As the nation's educators struggled with the issues of differentiation in the high school curriculum, immigrant students placed in the vocational/industrial track by the newly-popular IQ tests were generally receiving an inferior education or no education at all at the high school level. Only thirteen percent of twelve-year-olds with foreign-born parents attended high school during this time period, while thirty-two percent of white children with native parents attended high school (de Jong). Standardized testing and guidance counseling were both used during this time

period to justify immigrants' placement in the "proper" vocational track (Urban and Wagoner 212). When it became apparent that "the academic track appealed to mainly upper- and middle-class students, the commercial track was populated largely by middle-class girls, and the vocational track was reserved for lower-class boys, quite often from immigrant backgrounds," concerns about social equality were raised (212).

The lessons for EL instructors from this time period are of the cautionary, negative example category. Most of the solutions tried during this time were unsuccessful and/or detrimental to the students' development. Many immigrant children failed and dropped out of American schools as the students were inadequately supported in their studies and made to feel inferior because of their lack of English language skills. The majority of American schools today have learned lessons from this time period; it is not acceptable to place older students in first grade, punish students for speaking in a language other than English, segregate students in steamer classes until they learn English well enough to enter content classes, insist immigrant students enroll in vocational track classes because of low IQ tests, or allow immigrant students to drop out of school. Other solutions for the proper education of immigrant children are required for both economic and humanitarian reasons.

### 1.3. 1920 – 1958, Issues of immigration education fade

Issues of immigrant education faded during this time period due to the restriction of immigration based on "scientific" IQ testing. In 1912, Henry Goddard administered IQ tests to immigrants in English and found that "83% of the Jews, 80% of the Hungarians, 79% of the Italians, and 87% of the Russians who had recently arrived in the United States were 'feeble-minded'" (Kamin qtd. in Ricento 5). These findings convinced Congress to pass the Johnson-Laird Immigration Act of 1924 which restricted immigration to "2% of the number of foreign

born already in the country as determined by the census of 1890" (Ricento 5). This Act greatly reduced the number of "undesirable" immigrants coming to America.

Although immigration issues faded, several educational issues emerged that would have an impact on the way future immigrants would be educated. One of the greatest impacts was the gradual acceptance of federal control of education through funding. During the 1930's, the Great Depression greatly affected American school by forcing the issue of federal funding. Educators became increasingly concerned about how to fund public schools. For the first time, the National Education Association (NEA) sought federal funding for public schools, albeit unsuccessfully (Urban and Wagoner 266). Federal funding for public schools was controversial at the time as diverse groups feared the federal government's control of education (266) and higher taxes (294). Eventually influenced by the World Wars, the federal government would gradually take a more active role in education, funding many short-term projects, like the GI Bill, relief for overpopulated schools next to military bases, and increased vocational programs; certain educational aims were considered "worthy of federal support" (294-5).

The successful launching of *Sputnik* by the Soviet Union in 1958 had profound consequences on how education in the United States was funded. Concerned that the Soviets were beating Americans in "the brain race," the US Congress passed the 1958 National Defense Education Act (NDEA), tying school federal aid to national defense in order for Americans to compete with the Soviets (Urban and Wagoner 295-6). No longer did the federal government decide on school aid on a project-by-project basis; NDEA set the precedent for broad-based federal aid to schools (297). The bill ultimately allocated funds for science, technology, foreign language, guidance counseling, and vocational training of technicians (296). The foreign language funds were for native-English speaking students to learn a foreign language, not for the

bilingual education of non-native speakers of English. The United States' support of funding for native-English speakers to learn a second language while simultaneously condemning bilingual education for ELs has been called "schizophrenic" by some authors (Fitzgerald 43).

This era's impact on EL education is found in the events that set the stage for federal control of education through funding. As the next section will demonstrate, acceptance of federal funding has led to increased high-stakes standardized testing in an attempt to ensure compliance with federal educational standards. In order to receive funding, schools would need to find an effective way to educate all ELs, not just in English skills but also in the content needed to show adequate yearly progress on standardized tests.

**1.4. 1960 – present, Active years in the development of EL instruction**

The 1965 amendment to the Immigration and Nationality Act and a more equitable system for visa distribution have resulted in a "large-scale immigration to equal that of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries" (Perkins). This phenomenon has returned instruction of ELs to the forefront of educational discussions. Several important Supreme Court decisions and congressional legislation during the last fifty years have greatly affected how America educates these new immigrants. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin, and the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) was set up to monitor compliance. In 1970, the Supreme Court decided in favor of the Chinese public school students who had sued the San Francisco Unified School district concerning the lack of educational programs to meet their linguistic needs. The court stated that "schools were required to provide assistance, but it could be EL pullout instruction, bilingual instruction, or some other possibility" (Fitzgerald 45). Initially, the OCR's enforcement of this legal decision allowed for schools to provide bilingual instruction but not English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction

(40). Over time, less money was provided for bilingual education as bilingual transition programs and then English-only instruction began receiving the majority of the support (42). Another federal court decision in 1981, Castaneda v. Pickard, set criteria for judging programs that teach English Language Learners; the programs must have "instruction based on educational theory, effective program implementation with adequate resources and personnel, and program evaluation" (Crawford qtd. in Fitzgerald 45-6). Fitzgerald notes that presently the "OCR reviews schools on a case by case basis" and that "any program or method is accepted that ensures language-minorities effective educational participation" (41-2).

Another federal initiative with significant effects on EL instruction is President George Bush's *America 2000*, a pamphlet published in 1990 with the Bush administration's goals for American education. This initiative was the first time the federal government introduced the hotly-debated need for national standards in education. The six standards addressed starting school ready to learn, increasing the graduation rate, students' demonstrating competency in grades four, eight, and twelve in challenging subjects, leading the world in achievement in science and mathematics, improving adult literacy, and ensuring a safe school environment. While introduced as "voluntary," the standards required schools to be held accountable through standardized testing. *America 2000* was widely supported by the individual state governors (Urban and Wagoner 360-1).

Solidifying the federal government's primary role in setting educational standards, President George W. Bush's 2002 No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act ties federal funding to the achievement of these standards. NCLB "holds states using federal funds accountable for student academic achievement" measured by yearly assessment tests of reading/language arts, mathematics, and science (Abedi 4). Individual schools, districts, and states must report their

adequate yearly progress (AYP), which is the percentage of students achieving at a proficient level or higher (4). Not only is the AYP reported for the entire student population but the results are individually reported for four sub-groups: students who are from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, are from major racial or ethnic groups, have a disability, or are Limited English Proficient (LEP) (4). The NCLB defines LEP with the following four criteria:

> being three to twenty-one years of age, enrolled or preparing to enroll in elementary or secondary school, either not born in the United States or speaking a language other than English, and owing to difficulty in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding English, not meeting the state's proficient level of achievement to successfully achieve in English-only classrooms. (qtd. in Abedi 5)

At the time of the passage of NCLB, LEP students constituted 9.6% of the total population in American schools, or about 4.5 million students nationwide (4).

Jamal Abedi identifies six problematic issues with the assessment of LEP students as it pertains to AYP. The first problem is that the LEP classification, while seemingly "defined" by NCLB, varies from school to school and from state to state, directly affecting accuracy of reporting. Additionally, some district's LEP population is so small that meaningful analysis is not possible. Also, the LEP sub-group is not a stable population. As students improve in English proficiency, they are moved out of the sub-group and no longer counted in that sub-group's AYP report. Low-performing students stay in the sub-group, and new students with low proficiencies move into the sub-group, making the chance for overall improvement very difficult. Moreover, AYP assessment instruments are neither constructed nor normed for LEP students, making the results unreliable and invalid. Furthermore, schools with many LEP students may have very low baseline scores, making their AYP goals extremely unrealistic. Finally, students

must score at a proficient level in all assessment areas in order to be considered "proficient." No longer does a high score in math compensate for a lower score in reading. All of these issues put schools with many LEP students at a disadvantage (Abedi 4-5).

Abedi provides four suggestions for helping LEP students reach proficiency under NCLB. To begin with, he calls for consistency in the definition of *English language proficiency* and the improvement in reliability and validity of the assessment tools used to measure proficiency. Also, he encourages schools to effectively collect data to monitor LEP progress and to respond quickly to weaknesses. Additionally, Abedi claims "LEP students need teachers who are well qualified in both language development and content" (12) and feels that all content teachers should be trained in language development and that all EL teachers should be trained in content delivery. Finally, he suggests allowing LEP students who have progressed to a higher level of proficiency to remain in the LEP sub-group for AYP reporting, allowing their progress to be taken into consideration (Abedi 12).

**1.5. Current EL program models**

Based on the experiences of the past, American educators continue to look for the best solution to educating ELs given the challenges of today. Generally, EL programs in the United States today fall into four broad categories. The first category is *Structured English Immersion* (SEI). This approach places students in "self-contained classes where they receive English and content instruction all day" (Honigsfeld and Dove 8-9). The goal of this approach is to transition students as quickly as possible into the general-education classroom, where they are often left to "sink or swim." The second category contains a variety of *English as a Second Language* (ESL) programs; *pull-out*, *push-in*, *inclusive*, and *self-contained* are a few of the labels used. Depending on their proficiency level, students in these programs receive varying levels of

instruction from an ESL specialist. The third approach is *Bilingual Education* which provides instruction in English at a gradually increasing level and in the students' native language at a gradually decreasing level. Bilingual classrooms can be seen as transitional locations for ELs until they have enough English to function in general-education classrooms or as developmental/maintenance locations where the students become functional in both their native language and English. Finally, there are *Dual Language* programs where native and non-native speakers of English are together in the classroom where instruction is split between the two languages (Honigsfeld and Dove 8-13).

While better than the days when immigrant children were put in first grade classrooms regardless of age, these programs receive varying degrees of support depending on the political and social climate. J. Crawford claims, "decisions on how to teach English learners are being made not in the classroom, but in legislative chambers and voting booths; not on the basis of educational research data, but on the basis of public opinion, often passionate but rarely informed" (qtd. in Honigsfeld and Dove 13). High-stakes standardized tests dictate that EL teachers cannot continue to teach a few isolated skill lessons in vocabulary, grammar, reading, and writing. Some educators and entire school districts have been turning to a solution that does not isolate ELs, provides English instruction, and keeps ELs current in their grade-appropriate content instruction, while fulfilling the suggestion by Abedi that LEP students have teachers who are trained in language development *and* content (12). The solution is co-teaching.

While the issue of English instruction for immigrants has existed for many years, the co-teaching solution is relatively new in America. First suggested in the late 1950s by J.L. Trump as a solution for the teacher shortage, high school general education teachers "shared responsibility for large-group presentations, follow-up sessions for groups of 12-15 students, and

individualized study" (Friend and Reising). J.L. Trump believed this solution, which he referred to as *team-teaching*, offered "interdisciplinary and individualized instruction." During the 1960s, several variations of team-teaching emerged, and by the 1970s, team-teaching, or co-teaching, was very popular in elementary and secondary schools in many different subject areas. The term was widely-used to describe many diverse situations, and the results were rarely quantified, making the success of co-teaching difficult to analyze. In the 1990s, Marilyn Friend and Monica Reising report that co-teaching was again gaining support with general education teachers. Teachers report that they use co-teaching to provide more individualized instruction and a "diversified learning experience" for the students. The authors also feel co-teaching allows to teachers to "complement each other's expertise" (Friend and Reising).

From the general education classroom, co-teaching spread to other specialty areas as a way to meet the diverse needs of students in special programs. Co-teaching became popular during the 1970s and 1980s for students in special education programs who were being mainstreamed in the general education classroom (Friend and Reising). From the special education programs, co-teaching progressed to EL programs as a means of delivering English instruction and keeping students current in their content instruction. Essays and research on collaboration and co-teaching to meet the needs of ELs first began appearing in the late 1990s (York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 304-5). Discussion and research analyzing the effectiveness of co-teaching to meet the needs of ELs continue today.

**2. Definition of Terms**

Teachers and researchers use many different words to describe ELs in the content classroom with a content and EL teacher working together to meet the students' needs. *Inclusion* is a word commonly used by educators to describe this situation; however, for my purposes,

*inclusion* refers to the physical presence of ELs in the content classroom, lacking any reference to the level of collaboration between EL teachers and content teachers (Harper and de Jong 138-9). Andrea Honigsfeld and Maria Dove define *collaboration* as the "work and activity of a number of persons who individually contribute toward the efficiency of the whole" (6). I use this definition when teachers are working together to meet the needs of ELs but may not be physically teaching together in the same classroom. I use *co-teaching* to define "two or more educators sharing instructional responsibility for students assigned to the same classroom" (Villa qtd. in McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 102). This definition covers both the physical presence of ELs in the content classroom and the high level of collaboration between EL teachers and content teachers; however, the definition does not imply that ELs are in the content classroom 100% of the class period. Occasionally, ELs can be taken to a different physical location if the need arises; as long as the separation is planned for and coordinated by both teachers, this situation still encompasses *co-teaching*.

**3. Description of Six Co-teaching Structures**

Many educators assume that *co-teaching* means both teachers are in front of the classroom together, both doing the same activity. However, this generalization is not true. Researchers have identified many different variations used by co-teaching partners, and many different labels for these variations exist. Lisa M. Bolt Simons has condensed the variety of labels into the six following co-teaching structures: *one teach, one drift*; *one teach, one observe*; *centers*; *parallel teaching*; *alternative teaching*; and *team teaching*.

The first structure, *one teach, one drift,* is characterized by one teacher instructing the whole class while the other teacher offers support to specific children as needed. Bolt Simons describes the drifting teacher's responsibilities as circulating among the students, monitoring

progress, adjusting instruction, and providing feedback. The teacher may need to sit near the group of students most likely to need help and whisper, repeat or clarify information, ask questions, and help students generate responses. Honigsfeld and Dove add that the drifting teacher can extend the current instruction by taking advantage of a "teachable moment" with an individual or small group of students. The authors also point out that the content teacher is not always the teacher instructing the whole class, and the EL teacher is not always the teacher instructing the individuals or small groups (75). Several advantages of this structure are listed, including students receiving personal attention as they need it, all students receiving the same instruction, and the teachers being able to monitor EL understanding. A challenge to consider is that the teachers need sufficient planning time in order to ensure that one teacher is not consistently the whole group teacher and the other the drifting teacher, thus making the drifting teacher feel like the "aide" (Honigsfeld and Dove 75).

The second structure Bolt Simons describes is *one teach, one observe*. During instruction using this structure, one teacher leads the whole class while the other teacher observes various behaviors in the classroom. The observing teacher may be assessing specific students in English oral and listening skills, content skills, or behavior. Honigsfeld and Dove add that the observing teacher can also take notes on the whole class's reaction to activities and keep a record of the observations using a variety of assessment tools. Advantages of this structure are the opportunities to systematically observe students and collect data, and also the opportunity for the observing teacher to offer peer feedback regarding the effectiveness of the classroom activities. Challenges associated with this model are that one teacher is responsible for instruction of the whole class while the observing teacher may not be perceived as equal and that the effectiveness of this structure decreases if used too frequently (Honigsfeld and Dove 77).

The third structure is referred to as *centers* by Bolt Simons. Both co-teachers plan several activities to which small groups of students rotate. The author describes two different ways centers can be organized. The first is for all EL students to be divided equally among the small groups and for the EL teacher to work at one center, thus working with all EL students and mainstream students over the course of the lesson. The other way to organize centers is for the ELs to be in one group and for the EL teacher to rotate to each center with them. Honigsfeld and Dove list several advantages of the centers structure: increased engagement due to student movement, individualized attention, increased participation, increased coverage of more content, multicultural interaction, and increased opportunity for peer learning. However, there are several challenges to consider with centers: grouping may result in segregation or labeling; students may be off-task, distracted, or confused; and teachers need increased planning and organizational time (Honigsfeld and Dove 80).

*Parallel teaching* is the fourth structure described by Bolt Simons. The class is split into two groups based on the students' needs and the teachers' objectives. The two groups may meet in the same classroom or move to separate classrooms depending in the space available. Both teachers have the same lesson focus and objectives, but the EL teacher may focus more on language objectives while the content teacher may focus on content objectives. Because of the smaller group size, instruction can be personalized and taken at a pace that is appropriate to the group. Honigsfeld and Dove list the advantages of parallel teaching as the decreased class size with more student-teacher interaction and the ability to change teachers in each group giving students a different way to learn the same material. The challenges of this structure include an increased need for mutual and individual planning time, the need to share limited resources

including space, and difficult content that EL teachers may be unable to present (Honigsfeld and Dove 78).

Also referred to as *push-in* or *pull-out*, the fifth structure listed by Bolt Simons is *alternative teaching*. This structure is used for pre-teaching or reviewing a specific, alternative concept with targeted students at a separate space in the classroom (*push-in*) or in an alternative location (*pull-out*). Honigsfeld and Dove describe student groupings as flexible, temporary, and based on students' readiness levels, prior knowledge, or skills with the topic. Advantages with this structure are the differentiated instruction based on student need, the opportunity to build background knowledge, and the opportunity to reteach content to only those students that need it. Disadvantages include an increased noise level, the missed opportunity by some students for content instruction while alternative teaching is occurring, the challenge of keeping the groups at the same pace, the occasional need for more than two groups, and the possibility of students labeling groups as the "smart group" and "everyone else" (Honigsfeld and Dove 79).

Finally, Bolt Simons describes *team teaching* as both teachers instructing in the same classroom at the same time. She maintains that the class could be split into two groups, but Honigsfeld and Dove describe this structure with the class as one group. In this structure, the content teacher may present the main content of the lesson while the EL teacher simultaneously provides examples, explanations, extensions, memorization strategies, or organizational strategies. When done well, team teaching provides several advantages: extensive modeling, immediate reinforcement, authentic modeling of strategies, and peer feedback for the teachers. Challenges to consider with this structure include the increased planning time, the need for the EL teacher to become thoroughly familiar with advanced content, and the time needed for teachers to develop the "smooth back and forth" required (Honigsfeld and Dove 76).

## 4. Positive Outcomes

### 4.1. Positive student outcomes

There is considerable anecdotal evidence in favor of co-teaching to meet the needs of ELs. Based on a three-year study by Jennifer York-Barr, Gail Ghere, and Jennifer Sommerness, teachers' comments with regard to positive student outcomes of co-teaching are abundant. Teachers perceive that ELs feel more supported and connected in school because the students see all adults as equal teachers. Teachers claim that ELs participate in class more, exhibit fewer discipline problems, and support each other in learning. Many teachers view the content classroom to be a more academically challenging place for ELs and see this placement as leading to higher academic achievement. They also believe ELs have more varied relationships with both ELs and non-ELs, giving them a greater sense of community and belonging (York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 321). In other studies, several researchers have noted teachers' perceptions of an increase in friendships between ELs and English-speaking students as a result of inclusion. Teachers see these friendships as improving ELs' oral skills and increasing students' feelings of belonging (Duke and Mabbott 19, Platt, Harper, and Mendoza 121).

Only a few quantitative studies have been done in the United States on the positive student outcomes of co-teaching. The most comprehensive study in the United States by York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness examined the process of implementing co-teaching in grades 1 and 2, the outcomes for students and teachers, and implications for practice. For three years, the researchers followed about 150 students each year in eight content classrooms being co-taught by the content teachers and two full-time EL teachers. They found that ELs in co-teaching classrooms made "positive academic gains in both reading and math" (323). Additionally, they found that when students left the co-teaching model (moved to grade 3), there was a decline in

performance or decreased rate of gain. York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness suggest that co-teaching was one "contributing factor in the positive academic growth" for ELs in the co-teaching model (325).

In another article focusing on quantitative evidence, Priscilla Pardini reports the outcomes of the St. Paul Public School district's mandated change from pull-out EL services to co-teaching. From 2003 to 2005, the ELs in the St. Paul Public School district showed "substantial progress" with some of the best improvements in standardized test scores in the country (21). In 2003, 6.7% fewer ELs were proficient in the Minnesota Comprehensive Assessment (MCA) in math than their non-EL peers. By 2005, this gap had narrowed to 2.65%. In the 2003 reading MCA, 12.97% fewer ELs were proficient than their non-EL peers. This gap was reduced to 5.89% by 2005 (22). During those same years, the St. Paul Public School also showed a 10% increase in ELs placed in the average or above average groups on the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT10) (Pardini 23).

Positive outcomes are not limited to just the ELs. Two studies report positive outcomes for the native-English students as well. Highlighting the reciprocal nature of an inclusive classroom, Platt, Harper, and Mendoza find that teachers feel "diversity is rewarding" to everyone in the school (121-2). Duke and Mabbott also report this outcome in an elementary school math class; the native-English students came to understand some of the Hmong language in the classroom and learned to appreciate Hmong as a "valid vehicle for academic discussion and learning" (16).

### 4.2. Positive teacher outcomes

According to anecdotal evidence, teachers also can benefit from a co-teaching relationship. Teachers from several studies mention the shared responsibility of the students as

being very rewarding (Duke 20, Platt, Harper, and Mendoza 121, York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 317). No longer are students divided into "my responsibility" and "your responsibility." Instead, teachers work together to ensure success for all students. York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness summarize the perceived positive outcomes for teachers during a co-teaching experience. Teachers report being more flexible and creative with the instructional time and understanding the students better after seeing them in different settings. Teachers also appreciate the increased opportunities for reflection on teaching practices and for learning from colleagues. They believe co-teaching increases effectiveness because a greater collective knowledge is being utilized. Finally, the process of teachers sharing techniques and strategies leads to decreased isolation, which results in teachers feeling more energetic and content with their jobs (York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 317).

**5. Negative Outcomes**

The anecdotal and quantitative evidence for co-teaching is often presented as "inherently leading to positive outcomes" (McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 111); however, there is a difference between potential and realized outcomes, and anecdotal evidence for negative outcomes also exists. When mandated by the administration without widespread teacher support, co-teaching is often problematic. Hargreaves defines this situation as "'contrived collegiality' whereby teachers are assigned into collaboration either against their will or without being consulted" (qtd. in McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 115). McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor report that, under these circumstances, co-teaching is often marked by "hostility, resentment, and tension" (115). Some content teachers use EL teachers as "convenient substitutes" in order to catch up on other duties or, in contrast, use EL teachers as "glorified teaching assistants" (120). When the relationship between the two teachers is unproductive, one negative outcome is the

reinforced marginalization of ELs and their teacher (106). Another negative outcome is that educators in these teaching relationships report feeling powerless, uncreative, and unenthusiastic (McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 115).

Other negative outcomes are that, contrary to popular belief, co-teaching can be more expensive than some EL programs, such as self-contained EL classes, and not as fulfilling. In order for co-taught class sizes to be within district guidelines, another grade-level or content teacher may be required, which is a significant expense for the district (Duke 22, Friend and Riesing). Teachers also report missing the close relationships, direct attention, and intense focus on language that is possible in EL self-contained or pull-out classes (McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 118, York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 322). This feeling is especially true for teachers working with newcomers who are beginning English learners, refugees suffering from post-traumatic stress disorder, or students who are unschooled in their first language. These types of students need more attention than the teachers can give in a content classroom (Platt, Harper, and Mendoza 122).

**6. Difficulties to Consider**

Many of these negative outcomes result from failing to plan for the challenges presented by co-teaching. There are several well-documented difficulties with the co-teaching process. Coltrane acknowledges the two most commonly mentioned challenges: scheduling and lack of common planning time for teachers (qtd. in McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 107). In addition, Hoffman and Dahlman add “unrealistic workloads, inadequate resources, and insufficient time for goal setting and dialogue between teachers” (qtd. in McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 108). Duke and Mabbot identify the use of space as a challenge for co-teachers. Occasionally, EL teachers need a place to take ELs for sheltered instruction; finding this place is increasingly

difficult in some over-crowded schools (23). York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness summarize their findings on teacher-reported difficulties with co-teaching. Teachers mention the decreased flexibility and creativity when there is a fixed schedule with other teachers in the classroom. For some teachers, shifting roles and confusion about how to share responsibilities can cause insecurity, as does the more public nature of co-teaching (318). Finally, teachers list "differing philosophies" as a significant challenge for two teachers sharing instruction time (York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 318).

The previously mentioned difficulties deal largely with logistical challenges in co-teaching; however, there are also difficulties which McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor describe as more "ideological" (108). These ideological concerns address challenges in the power, status, and conflicting pedagogies found in school culture and in the relationship between two collaborating teachers. Arkoudis refers to co-teaching as "a complex and complicated process, where the two teachers try to negotiate the mainstream curriculum through their epistemological understandings and through the power relationships that exist within the microsocial world of their school context" (416). Several researchers acknowledge that the content teachers have a higher status in most schools than the EL teachers (Creese 58, Davison 456); furthermore, Arkoudis asserts that this lower status leads to the EL teachers having less authority in the co-teaching process (417), giving the content teachers the right to reject or accept ideas from the EL teachers (428). This power struggle is a significant concern as two teachers attempt to reconcile differing pedagogies in order to serve all students in a co-teaching situation.

Another ideological difficulty is teachers' bringing different expectations to the collaboration process. Too often, content teachers see collaboration with EL teachers as simply "extra help" and are not willing to articulate and execute every step necessary for a successful

collaboration between equals (Davison 456). In many co-teaching relationships, a disconnect exists between what should be happening and what is happening. In theory, the EL teacher should be guiding the development of the content curriculum and the teaching practices of the content teacher; in reality, it has been very difficult for EL teachers to share their "pedagogical content knowledge" (Arkoudis 416). Arkoudis argues that "cross-disciplinary conversations are a specialized skill and one that may not be suited to every ESL teacher, or every mainstream teacher" (429). Arkoudis recommends training for EL teachers on how to work with authority in the mainstream curriculum, as teachers who lack training in this issue can contribute to problems between collaborating teachers (429).

Another difficulty that is rarely mentioned is the ability of the EL teacher to function in a co-teaching classroom where advanced or unfamiliar content is being presented, such as high school mathematics, chemistry, or biology. Elizabeth Keefe and Veronica Moore discuss this problem based on their study of special education and content co-teachers. They found that often content teachers viewed their co-teacher as "more of a hindrance than a help . . . because it was another person who didn't know her material" (84). Honigsfeld and Dove agree that there are challenges when an EL teacher is faced with advanced content; they recommend that some structures (like parallel teaching) be avoided unless the EL teacher is able to present the material as well as the content teacher (78). Based on advice from content and special education co-teachers, Keefe and Moore suggest that co-teachers at the high school "specialize in one or two subjects areas so they can become more comfortable with the academic content of classes" (84).

On the opposite end of the spectrum from advanced content is the issue of effectively educating newcomers to the United States who need intense, basic English instruction. Except for anecdotal comments from teachers expressing concern that newcomers do not learn English

quickly enough in the "diluted instruction" of the co-taught classroom (McClure and Cahnmann-Taylor 118), I could find no research on how effectively co-teaching is able to meet the needs of newcomers. EL teachers should be sensitive to this population's unique needs and prepared to spend extra time, whether it is within the co-taught model or through additional services, to address those needs. The St. Paul, MN, school district, known for its district-wide adoption of co-teaching, offers an optional Language Academy for newcomers in grades one through twelve who need intensive English instruction. Newcomers in the Language Academy program receive intensive English and content instruction in the mainstream classroom with native-English speaking peers. The district refers to this model as an "intensive collaboration program" ("Language Academy"). Further research is warranted for individual educators to be able to make decisions regarding the use of co-teaching to meet the needs of newcomers in K-12 schools.

**7. Planning for Co-teaching**

Increasingly, entire school districts are turning to co-teaching relationships to provide instruction for their ELs. However, the decision to co-teach generally starts with one or two teachers interested in trying a new approach to meet EL and native-English speakers' needs. Perhaps these teachers have heard of the many positive outcomes associated with co-teaching and want to try the approach for themselves. Honigsfeld and Dove have advice for teachers in the exploratory stages of collaboration and co-teaching: begin the co-teaching process with simple discussions about collaboration. EL teachers are encouraged to make friends with teachers at all grade levels and in all disciplines, invite other teachers into the EL classroom, ask to observe ELs in other classrooms, and find colleagues who have similar teaching philosophies and who would be interested in working together (97). The authors recommend starting small

while thinking big, such as identifying one (or maybe two) primary objectives for the collaboration, sharing one "sure-fire" activity or resource, or offering to co-teach a portion of one lesson (96). Finally, teachers in the beginning stages of collaboration need to "think creatively" about how to find time for planning and communicating by exploring all possibilities: before school, after school, during lunch, or by electronic means (Honigsfeld and Dove 97).

Once a few teachers have established a mutual interest in co-teaching, there are several steps to consider before beginning a formal co-teaching relationship in order to maximize the experience for teachers and students. Honigsfeld and Dove encourage teachers to start by co-teaching one class after seeking administrative support for this endeavor (107). Teachers should find formal training in co-teaching and request permission to attend from the school administration. At the training or from other professional contacts, teachers should seek mentoring, coaching, or some other form of support from teachers who are also experiencing the co-teaching process (Honigsfeld and Dove 108).

As previously mentioned, co-teaching needs administrative support (Honigsfeld and Dove 107-8). As the program grows, support from the school administration facilitates the conducive arrangement of the classes and schedules. The authors list four considerations for the administrators as co-teaching classes are scheduled. To begin with, the co-teachers should be volunteers who are willing and enthusiastic about the process. Also, it is helpful for ELs to be thoughtfully clustered in as few classrooms as possible, enabling more students to be served in the general classroom. Additionally, classroom size and physical arrangements must be adequate to accommodate a co-taught lesson. Moreover, the administration must confirm how often and with whom the EL teacher will be co-teaching and schedule weekly mutual planning time for the teachers involved (Honigsfeld and Dove 126-7, York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness 327-9).

York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness acknowledge that scheduling an entire school for co-teaching "requires a high degree of cooperation across classrooms" (328). Finally, administrators should establish times for collaborating teachers to plan together for extended periods, such as during staff development days, during faculty meetings, or during special student programming (Honigsfeld and Dove 109).

Once the co-teaching relationship is established and administrative support is secure, co-teachers still have work to do before being in the classroom together. Honigsfeld and Dove recommend planning before the school year begins. Teachers should begin by filling in a curriculum map (Appendix A) with the year's objectives for each unit of study, the resources needed to the meet these objectives, the assessments needed to measure effectiveness of approaches used (101), and the grading procedures (Dieker and Murawski). Moreover, before beginning co-teaching, teachers must decide how to evaluate their co-teaching program (Honigsfeld and Dove 159). Teachers should determine their approach to data collection with the following questions: "What information are we going to collect? What tools and instruments do we need to collect the data? Who is going to collect what type of data? Where, when, and how?" (171). Further discussion of program evaluation is addressed in the following section but should be considered by teachers before they begin teaching in class together. Finally, teachers need to establish communication routines for discussing expectations and dealing with problems (108). Chris Davison refers to the need for establishing "systematic mechanisms for monitoring, evaluation and feedback" (456). Honigsfeld and Dove recommend keeping a daily log with a spot to quickly jot down two things that worked and two things that need work for each lesson (105). To make access easy for each teacher, the log could be kept online with mutual access.

**8. Implementing Co-teaching During the School Year**

Once planning for the whole year has been addressed, co-teachers need to plan for daily lessons, addressing what the objectives are, which activities the students will be doing, what each teacher will be doing during those activities, and how much time is allotted for each activity. Honigsfeld and Dove recommend a weekly outline (Appendix B) to facilitate this schedule (128). At the beginning of a co-teaching relationship, the authors suggest using the structure of *one teach, one drift* as an easy way to start in the classroom. They feel this structure takes less planning time to prepare for and is easier to coordinate. As the co-teaching relationship grows, teachers can use varied structures that complement each other's strengths (108). After teaching each lesson, teachers need to reflect briefly on what worked and what they need to work on and then record those thoughts in the daily log (Honigsfeld and Dove 108). Issues and challenges can be addressed later during a mutual planning time.

During the school year, co-teachers need to assess students collaboratively as agreed on during the planning stage. Honigsfeld and Dove advise that collaborative assessment should be a mixture of on-going informal assessments and adapted formal techniques (108). Some assessments that fall into these two categories are giving feedback with simple comments, conducting individual conferences, recording observations, assembling portfolios, and administering quizzes or tests that have been adapted for individual students. The authors encourage both teachers to assess all students' "linguistic, academic, and social development" as opposed to the EL teacher assessing only the ELs' linguistic development (108). To promote ease of collaboration during assessment, each teacher should keep any notes related to assessment in an agreed-on format (109).

Given that there are two teachers in the classroom, individualized assessments and testing accommodations are more feasible. The EL teacher can scaffold the assessment tasks for targeted students by adding graphic organizers, reducing the linguistic load, simplifying the instructions, and allowing the use of dictionaries or notes on tests. One example of scaffolding with a graphic organizer on a test is supplying the ELs with a Venn diagram with words or short phrases in order to write a paragraph to compare and contrast two objects. An example of reducing the linguistic load is requiring the ELs to complete a chart listing the advantages and disadvantages of a certain decision instead of writing a persuasive essay. For students with very low English proficiency, the words and phrases needed to complete the tasks may be supplied in a word bank. Both of these examples reduce the linguistic load of an assessment; they also assume prior instruction and experience with the graphic organizers required. Additionally, co-teaching gives the opportunity for teachers to schedule extended testing time for some students (Honigsfeld and Dove 109).

A logical extension of this issue is translating assessment techniques into grades. This procedure is particularly important as students become older and grades become high-stakes factors in graduation and post-high school educational opportunities. There is a paucity of information about how co-teachers supply a grade for students in their classroom. Many questions need to be answered about who physically corrects student work, who assigns the grade, and who makes the final decision on grading if there is disagreement. Lisa Dieker and Wenday Murawski encourage co-teachers to decide their procedures before the school year begins based on existing district guidelines. The authors acknowledge that different students may be graded on process or product, or both. Further research is needed for co-teachers to know how other districts are dealing with this issue so that informed decisions can be made.

**9. Evaluating Co-teaching**

The final phase of co-teaching is to evaluate different aspects of the collaboration and teaching process. While evaluation is critical to determining the success of co-teaching, many co-teaching partners, and often whole school districts, fail to put into place the proper resources for thorough assessment (Honigsfeld and Dove 151). Evaluation tools should be selected, adapted, or created before the school year begins and used on a regular basis throughout the year (159). Evaluation can focus on many aspects of the co-teaching experience, but most of these aspects fit into two broad categories: evaluating the co-teaching relationship and evaluating the overall co-teaching program.

Evaluating the co-teaching relationship is important for the two teachers who are working together in order for them to achieve the best possible relationship for themselves and outcomes for the students. Honigsfeld and Dove define reflection as entailing "the periodic consideration of one's teaching methods and their effects on learning outcomes" and encourage teachers to regularly reflect on their co-teaching experience (152). L. Walkin defines the goal of reflection: "to share experiences and to negotiate areas where improvement could . . . be attempted. These reviews and discussions should be seen as part of an ongoing formative-assessment and self-improvement process carried out in a non-threatening manner" (qtd. in Honigsfeld and Dove 159). The authors maintain that reflection helps build problem-solving skills and understanding of actions and events in the classroom (152). When the reflection process is shared with another professional, teachers can gain "additional insight into the teaching-learning process through a second . . . set of lenses" (152). Other benefits include increased professional growth, clearer definitions of professional goals, and facilitated communication (163).

Chris Davison felt that effective reflection and self-assessment were impeded by the "lack of criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of collaborative teaching" (455). In 2006, he developed a rubric defining and describing the five levels of collaboration found in co-teaching relationships: pseudocompliance/passive resistance, compliance, accommodation, convergence, and creative co-construction (467-8). Each level is described in terms of teachers' attitudes, effort expended by teachers, outcomes, and level of commitment to co-teaching. Teachers and administration can use this rubric to describe the existing co-teaching relationship, set goals, chart progress over time, or make staffing decisions. The objective is the eventual creation of as many *creative co-construction* teaching relationships as possible.

Honigsfeld and Dove recommend a variety of reflection and self-assessment practices completed at different intervals for individuals and teams. The authors maintain that daily reflections completed in a simple format (155) facilitate communication between the two teachers (101). As suggested previously, one format, known as the *2 + 2 log*, is that each teacher writes down two things that worked in each lesson and two things that need work in each lesson. In addition to daily reflections, the authors suggest reflecting on a weekly basis using the *weekly wonder* technique. Each teacher selects one classroom moment that created a sense of wonder for him or her and reflects on it. Or, the teachers could jointly try to finish the sentence "I wonder if we . . ." or "I wonder what would happen if . . ." (Honigsfeld and Dove 155). Additionally, co-teachers should set aside time each month to celebrate *monthly milestones* (155). Partners should identify at least one new practice attempted that led to a stronger teaching relationship and share these attempts and the results with other colleagues and administration. Finally, teachers should complete a pre-determined self-assessment tool at the beginning of the year and periodically, perhaps quarterly, during the academic year.

Self-assessment tools can be used in several different ways depending on the needs of the partnership. Honigsfeld and Dove provide one example of a self-assessment checklist in their book, *Collaboration and Co-Teaching: Strategies for English Learners*. This checklist provides thirty yes/no questions that encourage teachers to reflect on the co-teaching process and their relationship (160). Examples of statements include, "We share ideas, information, and materials; we share responsibility for deciding how to teach; we share responsibility for how student learning is assessed" (160). Before the school year starts, the co-teachers should decide if they want to use this checklist, find another one, or develop their own. One option for using this checklist is for the co-teachers to complete it together at the beginning of the year and then again at a pre-determined time. At that time, co-teachers can compare the results to previous checklists, reassess their practices, and make necessary modifications (159). Another option is for each teacher to independently use the checklist at intervals throughout the year as a way to identify areas for self-improvement. Finally, co-teachers could complete the checklist independently and then compare their results. The objective for this option is to identify mutual concerns, chart progress, and set new goals (Honigsfeld and Dove 159).

Evaluation of the teaching relationship is not the only necessary aspect; evaluation of the overall co-teaching program is also important. Teachers, administrators, school board members, parents, and possibly students all want to know how the effectiveness of the program will be gauged (Honigsfeld and Dove 163). If there is only one co-teaching relationship in the school, this evaluation may be organized by the co-teachers. If the entire school or school district is involved in a co-teaching model, this evaluation would likely be organized by the administration.

One important evaluation technique is to monitor student performance (Honigsfeld and Dove 164). Given that co-teachers should have decided on assessment techniques prior to co-

teaching in the classroom, teachers and administrators have access to a variety of materials to measure student performance. Gajda and Koliba describe effective teams in terms of how they collect information:

> Teachers in high-functioning teams will systematically collect and analyze both quantitative information (such as summative test scores or tallies from observational checklists) and qualitative information (such as notes taken during a classroom observation of a colleague and student written work), whereas low-functioning teacher teams tend to rely on anecdotes, hearsay, and general recollections to inform their dialogue and decision-making. (qtd. in Honigsfeld and Dove 174)

Formal and informal assessment results should be reviewed collaboratively on a regular basis and documented (164).

Other program evaluation activities should also be engaged in during the year. Honigsfeld and Dove encourage teachers to engage in professional conversations throughout the year while sharing lesson plans, dilemmas, and support (163). Additionally, teachers should visit their collaborating team teachers' classrooms and observe the teachers and the students (163-4). In a school-wide collaboration model, an assessment committee should meet at pre-determined times during the year (164-7). An agenda must be set before the meetings and strictly adhered to, but the format for the meetings can vary depending on the school's needs. The authors suggest discussing the *SNAPS*: **S**uccesses experienced related to the agenda, **N**ew approaches or initiatives, **A**ppreciative comments, **P**roblems related to the topic, and **S**olutions (167). Finally, a formal, independent evaluation committee may wish to use a survey to determine the degree of success after a period of time using collaboration and co-teaching. Honigsfeld and Dove provide one example of a survey used to assess a collaborative model for serving ELs. This survey asks

personnel to rate their experience on a scale of one (never) to five (always) in terms of interdisciplinary conversations, mutual planning time, opportunities to observe other teachers' classes, opportunities of reflection, and evidence of administrative support (173). Based on all of the collected information, the committee must compare the results to the original program goals and determine how the outcomes matched their original goals, what patterns in student and teacher performance are observable, and what factors contributed to the outcomes. After analyzing this information, they can make recommendations for steps to improve the program, suggest practices to keep, change, or eliminate, and enumerate the intended or unintended outcomes of the collaboration model (171).

## 10. Pedagogical Application of Co-teaching

Once a content teacher and EL teacher make the decision to co-teach a unit and find the necessary planning time, their lesson plans must address which co-teaching structure they will use, approximately how much time they need, how they will meet the needs of all the ability levels represented in the classroom, and how they will assess the outcomes. Teachers need to allot a significant amount of time for planning, especially in the beginning stages of a co-teaching relationship. The following lesson plan is one example of how a content teacher and EL teacher can work together to meet the needs of the ELs and native English students at the same time and in the same room.

### 10.1. Class description

This class is a fifth grade Language Arts class at a public middle school in Minnesota. The EL teacher, who speaks Spanish and English, will be working with the Language Arts teacher during a forty-five minute class period. Native language use is permitted in the classroom. There are twenty-five students in the class, with eight non-native English speakers.

The majority of the EL students are Latino, and two of the students are Hmong. Two students are newly arrived from Mexico and are beginners, five students range from low-intermediate to high-intermediate in English proficiency, and one student speaks near-native English and no longer qualifies for EL services. The seventeen native English speakers in this class also vary in ability, with several students who qualify for special education services and several students who qualify for gifted and talented services. The range of abilities is one reason the two teachers choose to co-teach this group. Desks in the classroom are arranged in groups of five. Each group is a mixture of EL students and native-English students; however, the two beginners are seated next to each other in the same group. When a teacher assigns groupwork, the students know to work with their seatmates. The groups are changed monthly by the teachers.

This three-day lesson plan is part of a larger unit inspired by the John Henry and Paul Bunyan folktales in the fifth grade language arts textbook. The teachers want to expand on the concepts covered by the textbook in a more thorough and multicultural way. They have chosen to focus on Cinderella folktales from around the world. The objectives for this lesson plan are for students to read and write about Cinderella folktales and be able to identify the parts of a story.

## 10.2. Lesson plans

### 10.2.1 Unit curriculum map

As part of the advance planning, the teachers developed a curriculum map (Figure 1) for the entire folktale unit. This curriculum map covers the pertinent objectives with regard to content and language skills, differentiation techniques, resources needed, and assessments used to evaluate student performance.

Grade ____5_____ Teacher __Language Arts_____

| | |
|---|---|
| Unit | Folktales |
| Estimated time | 7 days |
| Content objectives | Read traditional American folktales<br>Read folktales inspired by different cultures |
| Language objectives | Defining, identifying, and describing the parts of a narrative: plot, characters, setting, resolution |
| Differentiation - Beginner | Label parts of a narrative<br>Read story in native language<br>Write story with pictures and labels |
| Intermediate | Label and define parts of a narrative<br>Read intermediate book in English<br>Write story with pictures and sentences |
| Advanced | Define and describe parts of a narrative<br>Read advanced book in English<br>Write story with pictures and paragraphs |
| Resources needed | Textbook<br>Books (see Appendices C and D)<br>Handouts (see Appendices E - L) |
| Assessments used | Reading log (Appendix E )<br>Guided Reading Activity Packet (Appendix F )<br>Written story<br>Rubric (Appendix M ) |

<Figure 1> Curriculum map for folktales unit

### 10.2.2 Lesson plan chart

Advance planning for daily lessons (Figure 2) includes a more detailed description of the activities and the co-teaching structures that the teachers will use. It is important for teachers to remember that the time frame is an estimate, and, while they should try to adhere to the time, flexibility is also important.

| | Day 1 | Day 2 | Day 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Activity I | Disney *Cinderella*<br>Silent reading | Presentation – Parts of a Narrative | Multiple story scramble |
| Time Frame | 15 minutes | 10 minutes | 15 minutes |
| Co-teaching Structure<br>EL teacher | Pull-out EL – Disney *Cinderella* | Lead | Team |
| Content teacher | Silent reading with remaining students | Drift | Team |
| Activity II | Compare/contrast Disney to trad. Cinderella | Read *Jouanah* and *Adelita* | Read – Glass Slipper, Golden Sandal |
| Time Frame | 20 minutes | 10 minutes | 10 minutes |
| Co-teaching Structure<br>EL teacher | Lead - accessing prior knowledge<br>Drift – story and Venn Diagram | Team – read *Adelita* with ½ class | Lead |
| Content teacher | Drift - accessing prior knowledge<br>Lead – story and Venn Diagram | Team – read *Jouanah* with ½ class | Drift |
| Activity III | Present extensive reading project | Parts of a narrative activities - centers | Writing project |
| Time Frame | 10 minutes | 25 minutes | 20 minutes + |
| Co-teaching Structure<br>EL teacher | Drift | Strip story center | Team |
| Content teacher | Lead | Compare/contrast center | Team |

<Figure 2> Daily lesson plan

### 10.2.3 Materials required

The materials needed for this unit include one Disney-inspired Cinderella book (chosen from Appendix C) and the traditional *Cinderella*, based on Charles Perrault's version, by Barbara McClintock. The traditional *Cinderella* story should be put on a PowerPoint

presentation with all of the words and as many pictures as possible so that all students will be able to see the text and pictures. Also, five multi-cultural Cinderella variations are needed. For this class, I have chosen *The Golden Slipper: A Vietnamese Legend* by Darrell Lum, *Jouanah: A Hmong Cinderella* by Jewell Reinhart Coburn, *The Egyptian Cinderella* by Shirley Climo, *Adelita: the Mexican Cinderella Story* by Tomie dePaola, and *Halima and the Snake and Other Omani Folk Tales* by Grace Todino-Gonguet. The book *Glass Slipper, Golden Sandal: A Worldwide Cinderella* by Paul Fleischman is also required.

Additionally, each student will need one book from the Extensive Reading List (Appendix D). In order to ensure that the students will be able to pick a book in their ability range and according to their interests, the teachers need to determine ahead of time how many of each book they think will be needed. Prior to the class beginning, the co-teachers need to fill in a Reading Log (Appendix E) for each student. Advanced readers in the class will receive a Reading Log directing them to choose from the group A books, which are longer or more difficult reading texts than the books in Groups B and C. Intermediate students will be directed to choose a book from the group B books, and low readers will be directed to choose from the group C books, which are shorter or less challenging texts than books in the other groups. The beginning EL students in the class will be allowed to read an extensive book in their first language which is the group D book, *El Diario de la Princesa*. This book is the Spanish version of *The Princess Diaries* by Meg Cabot. If no books are available in the students' first language, then the beginning students should read *The Princess Test* by Gail Carson Levine. While still a challenge for beginners, this book has basic language and illustrations, but the cover's appearance is age appropriate and does not appear condescending. The books should be

arranged by group and marked with their group letter. Each student needs the appropriately marked Reading Log (Appendix E) and a Guided Reading Activity Packet (Appendix F).

**10.2.4 Day one**

As indicated on Figure 2, the lesson begins with the EL teacher and students' leaving the room to read the Disney *Cinderella* book. This is necessary because many native-English students have seen the traditional *Cinderella* Disney movie or read the book; the EL teacher needs to be sure that the ELs have been exposed to this story, also. If there are other students in the class that could benefit from this reading, those students should join the ELs at the alternate location. The EL teacher reads aloud Disney's *Cinderella*, translating key vocabulary for the beginners. After reading, the EL teacher and students will discuss if this story sounds similar to any story they have heard before and briefly identify the parts of the story pertaining to characters, plot, and setting without focusing on those specific labels. The teacher should write on the board *Cinderella*, *Evil Stepmother*, *Stepsisters*, and *Fairy Godmother*, identify each name with a picture in the book, and write one adjective to describe each character.

When all the students are together again, the EL teacher will lead a class discussion about what the students already know about Cinderella. It is important for the EL teacher to lead this discussion as she/he knows what the ELs have just discussed and can call on them to answer a few basic questions. As the discussion is going on, the content teacher should write the ideas on a concept map on the board, separating the ideas into *characters*, *plot*, and *setting*.

The content teacher will then read *Cinderella* by Barbara McClintock to the whole class from the PowerPoint presentation. During this reading, the EL teacher should drift among the students, being especially sure that the beginners understand the story. If the students, EL or native, have a question, they know they should raise their hands and quietly ask the "drifting"

teacher. Then, the students will compare and contrast this traditional version of *Cinderella* with the Disney version. The content teacher will display a Venn diagram with a *Disney* circle and a *traditional* circle. The students and both teachers will fill it in as a class, with the teachers calling on one student at a time to contribute an idea about similarities or differences between the stories, and then identify where it should go on the diagram. The EL teacher can help translate ideas from Spanish into English if a student cannot think of the English word. The discussion should end with a brief acknowledgment of the many multicultural versions of Cinderella that exist in the world. The teacher can briefly show a few books (chosen from Appendix C) that the class will be discussing.

Finally, the content teacher will introduce the extensive reading project by acknowledging that many of the *Cinderella* books are for young children; however, there are many versions of *Cinderella* that exist for older readers also. The EL teacher will give each student their marked Reading Log (Appendix E), and the students will have some time to look at their options from the grouped display. Each student needs to choose one book from the group or groups indicated on their reading log. Their homework during this unit is to read for thirty minutes each night and fill in their reading logs, which are already familiar to them. Reading logs will be checked daily. Each student will also receive the Guided Reading Activity packet (Appendix F); the content teacher will instruct the students to look at the packet but save any questions for tomorrow as the Activity Packet will be discussed more during the week. They do not have to finish the book in one week, but everyone needs to finish and turn in their Guided Reading Activity packets by the end of two weeks.

### 10.2.5 Day two

As indicated on Figure 2, the EL teacher will present the parts of a narrative: characters, antagonist, protagonist, setting, plot, problem/conflict, and resolution. The EL teacher will write these words on the board, ask for definitions or define them, and elicit examples from the *Cinderella* stories read yesterday. During this time, the drifting content teacher will be taking care of necessary paperwork, such as attendance and checking the reading logs which students should have sitting out on their desks. After the presentation, the EL teacher will instruct students to take out their Extensive Reading packet and look at the activities there. Students will have an opportunity to ask questions about how the packet should be filled out.

After the whole group activity, the teachers will split the class in half in order for one group to read *Adelita: the Mexican Cinderella Story* and *Jouanah: A Hmong Cinderella*. The make-up of the groups is not important, and EL and non-EL students can be with either teacher; however, *Adelita* is the easier story and more familiar to the Spanish-speaking students who may want to go with the teacher reading that book. The Hmong students may have a particular interest in *Jouanah*. Also important is that each desk grouping have a few students read *Adelita* and a few students read *Jouanah*. The activities following the reading are known as *jigsaw activities* where each student brings specialized knowledge of one area to the activities. By splitting the class in half, the time required to read both books is cut in half. Also, because each student does not have all the information he or she needs to complete the jigsaw activities, the students must communicate with each other to finish the tasks during the centers activities.

After reading, the students will briefly identify the parts of the narrative with the teacher in their respective groups and then return to the full class for the centers activity. At each set of desks, there is one activity with instructions. The five activities for this lesson include a strip

story (Appendix G), a concentration game (Appendix H), a crossword puzzle (Appendix I), a version of *Jeopardy* (Appendix J), and a compare/contrast chart (Appendix K). Adapted from Eric Taylor's *Using Folktales*, each activity is described in greater detail below. Students have five minutes to complete the activity at their center, then, when the teacher indicates, they will move to the next set of desks. This rotation will continue until all students have been at all activities. These center activities are meant to reinforce the parts of a narrative; some of the activities are to be completed individually and some of them to be completed by the group.

The EL teacher will be at the strip story center. This center needs one copy of the events from *Adelita* and *Jouanah* (Appendix G). The events should be cut into strips and mixed up. The teacher will give a few events to each student. The events with a * in the corner indicate an easier linguistic challenge. The students will read their events and negotiate with the other students in order to re-create the plot lines of the two stories.

The content teacher will be at the center where the students play concentration. This game is potentially tricky because some students may not have played the game before and because there are items from two different stories. The teacher can group the students in pairs (one student who has read *Adelita* and one that has read *Jouanah*) so that they can work together to make the matches. However, with a very advanced group, the students could individually try to match the items based on their own observations and the context clues in the items. The teacher needs one set of cards (Appendix H) copied onto thick or dark cardstock (so students cannot read through the back) and cut out. The teacher will lay out the items face down before each group sees them. The students can take turns flipping over two cards. If they identify these cards as a good match, then they can keep the set and flip over another two cards. If the cards are not a match, then the next student performs the activity.

The remaining centers are self-directed by the students. At one center there is a copy of crossword puzzles (Appendix I) for students to complete as a group. At another center, there is a *Jeopardy* chart (Appendix J) with comprehension questions that should be completed as a group. At the Jeopardy center, one student should be chosen to be the recorder of the group's answers. Each square has a point value; each correct answer receives that many points. After all groups have completed the worksheet at that center, the teachers will tally the points and recognize the highest-scoring group. At the final center, the students will compare and contrast the two stories. Each group needs one copy of the compare/contrast chart (Appendix K). Copies of the two books would be helpful for this group. The students should choose one student to write down the correct answers. Once the chart is completed, students should summarize what is the same and what is different about the two stories according to the worksheet.

**10.2.6 Day three**

As indicated in Figure 2, the first event of day three uses the *team teach* structure. One teacher explains the multiple story scramble activity (Appendix L) while the other teacher distributes the pieces of paper. Each student will receive a piece of paper with an event from one of three Cinderella stories. The events with a * indicate an easier linguistic challenge. The three Cinderella story titles should be written on the board (along with a few other distractor options); for this activity, the titles are *The Egyptian Cinderella*, *The Golden Slipper: A Vietnamese Legend*, and *Halimah and the Snake and Other Omani Folk Tales*. Without showing anyone the piece of paper, the students must find the other students with the same story and arrange the events in a logical order. Before the students begin, the two teachers should model useful questions that the students could use; such as, "Is your story set in France?" or "Is your story about a girl named Rough-faced girl?" Students will then group themselves according to story

and put the events in order using context clues. Teachers monitor the groups and help where appropriate. Once students are done, one student from each group will read the events of the story out loud. The students of that group will guess which of the titles written on the board may be the title of their story.

The next activity is a whole group activity led by the EL teacher. During the reading of *Glass Slipper, Gold Sandal: A Worldwide Cinderella,* the content teacher should prepare and pass out the paper needed for the writing project. Before reading, the EL teacher will quickly review the many Cinderella variations the class has read and some of the similarities in the plots. Each portion of *Glass Slipper, Gold Sandal* is from a different country or culture, and the EL teacher will indicate the country as they read through the story. However, the EL teacher will stop reading at the page from Ireland where the prince chases the girl and succeeds only in getting her dainty shoe. The students will then be instructed to finish the story. They can use pictures, sentences, or paragraphs, and the ending can be based on the established Cinderella tradition or their own imaginations. The remainder of the class period will be spent working on this project. The beginner ELs may have additional questions that need to be addressed after the general instructions, and the EL teacher should take them to an alternate location if necessary.

### 10.2.7 Follow-up

There are several follow-up activities that are not addressed in the original three-day lesson plan. The students will likely need more time to finish their writing project, and this time could be during class or as homework; however, the students are already completing thirty minutes of daily reading time on their novel, so additional homework may not be warranted. Reading logs need to be checked each day by one of the teachers. Toward the end of the two week time period for completing their novel, the students could participate in a book club

discussion. The book club discussions could be with the other students reading the same book and the students discussing what they liked or disliked about the book. Alternatively, the book club groups could be comprised of students each reading a different book. The students could summarize their stories for each other, and afterwards, find some of the similarities and differences between their stories. The EL teacher may also need to spend more time with the beginning students as they read their book, fill in their packets, and prepare for the book club discussion. Finding this time will depend on the overall structure the co-teachers are using to meet the additional needs for newcomers.

For a fun activity at the end of the extensive reading project, there are many movies based on these books or other Cinderella stories: *Hoosiers*, *Ever After*, *Princess Diaries*, or *Ella Enchanted*. Students could identify the parts of a narrative in the movie and compare/contrast them with the traditional Cinderella story. Finally, the teachers need to evaluate the work completed according to the rubric (Appendix X) previously developed and assign a grade for each student.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

In this lesson plan, I have illustrated how two teachers can work together to deliver content instruction in a fifth grade Language Arts classroom. This lesson would be easily adaptable to students at lower grade levels or possibly as high as the seventh grade. I chose Language Arts as the basis for content instruction because of my previous experience with a Language Arts curriculum and my lack of a content co-teacher with whom to write this lesson. A lesson plan for other content areas, especially high school or advanced content classes, would necessitate different formats and activities dependent on the content competence of the EL

teacher. However, the lesson planning to focus on linguistic goals using a variety of co-teaching structures would be very similar no matter what level or content is being taught.

This issue of delivering content and English instruction for ELs in the most effective and efficient method possible becomes more critical as time passes. With one look at American school demographics, an observer can see that the number of English Learners in American schools is rising. According to the National Center for Education Statistics in 2003, "19% of all school-age children were English language learners," (qtd. in Pardini 20). Projections for the year 2030 estimate that the percentage will be closer to 40% (U.S. census qtd. in Pardini 20). With schools held responsible to national standards by standardized tests, educating these students in the best possible manner becomes of paramount importance economically. Considering that these students could potentially constitute 40% of the school population, educators' deciding on a program for their continued success becomes important socially as well.

Co-teaching holds promise in its outcomes for both students and teachers. Anecdotal evidence supports the increased academic and social benefits to students and the increased professional benefits to teachers. Reports based on co-teaching programs in Washington D.C. (York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness) and St. Paul, MN (Pardini), indicate that co-teaching has had significant impact on reading and math test scores for ELs. My study of co-teaching has been limited by the scarcity of research that quantifies the outcomes for districts that have been co-teaching for an extended period of time. Many of the studies that do exist have examined co-teaching as a method of instruction for students in special education programs, and researchers use this data to hypothesize how co-teaching could be implemented in an EL program. Educators cannot assume that co-teaching will have the same outcomes for ELs as it does for students in special education programs.

Researchers urge caution for administrators considering co-teaching as a way to serve ELs in any classroom, school, or district. Teachers must be enthusiastic and supportive of the program in order for it to work; training and planning for the program should be extensive; mutual planning time is often hard to find; and on-going assessment and evaluation is required. All of these activities take extra time and effort on the part of the teachers and administration. Co-teaching can often be a more expensive option than self-contained EL instruction (Friend and Reising, and Duke 22) which means that the classroom structure must use both teachers' talent to the maximum potential, not just treating one teacher as extra help. Friend and Reising maintain that the "co-taught classroom [should be] quantitatively and qualitatively different from that offered in other classrooms."

Many educators are beginning to look at co-teaching to meet the needs of students at the K-12 level, but I was unable to find research or discussion of co-teaching for ELs in content classes at the post-secondary level. Universities, colleges, and community colleges also struggle with ELs needing to master content area curriculum with reduced English skills. In some aspects, instituting co-teaching at the university level may be easier than at the K-12 level in that the instructors have greater flexibility of scheduling; however, it may be even harder as the divisions between departments are wide, the level of content expertise required is high, and the cost of a class with two instructors may be prohibitive for institutions. The potential for success is as great at the post-secondary level as it is for the elementary and secondary level, and further research is needed to determine applications for co-teaching for ELs at the post-secondary level.

Diverse models for instituting co-teaching for K-12 ELs are available; however, not all of these models have the long-term research to quantify their success. Anecdotal evidence in many

qualitative studies is emerging, but EL teachers, content teachers, administrators, parents, and students need more evidence with regards to the best practice of implementing co-teaching.

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Appendix A Curriculum Map for two units

Grade _____ Teacher _____

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Unit | | |
| Estimated time | | |
| Content objectives | | |
| Language objectives | | |
| Differentiation - Beginner | | |
| Intermediate | | |
| Advanced | | |
| Resources needed | | |
| Assessments used | | |

(adapted from Honigsfeld and Dove 67)

Appendix B Sample Weekly Schedule for Co-teaching

EL teacher _____ Content teacher _____

Week of _____

Unit _____

| | Monday | Tuesday | Wednesday | Thursday | Friday |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Activity I | | | | | |
| Time Frame | | | | | |
| Co-teaching Strategy EL teacher | | | | | |
| Content teacher | | | | | |
| Activity II | | | | | |
| Time Frame | | | | | |
| Co-teaching Strategy EL teacher | | | | | |
| Content teacher | | | | | |

(adapted from Honigsfeld and Dove 128)

Appendix C Cinderella Stories from Around the World

**The Americas**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Adelita: The Mexican Cinderella Story* | Tomie de la Paola |
| *Bigfoot Cinderrrrella* | Tony Johnston |
| *Bubba the Cowboy Prince* | Helen Ketteman |
| *Cendrillon: A Caribbean Cinderella* | Robert D. San Souci |
| *Cindy Ellen: a Wild Western Cinderella* | Susan Lowell |
| *Domitila: A Cinderella Tale From the Mexican Tradition* | Jewell Reinhart Coburn |
| *Little Gold Star: a Spanish American Cinderella Tale* | Robert D. San Souci |
| *The Rough –Face Girl* | Rafe Martin |
| *Sidney Rella and the Glass Sneaker* | Bernice Myers |
| *Smoky Mountain Rose: an Appalachian Cinderella* | Alan Schroeder |
| *Sootface: An Ojibwa Cinderella Story* | Robert D. San Souci |
| *The Turkey Girl: a Zuni Cinderella Story* | Penny Pollock |

**European**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Cinderella; or The Little Glass Slipper* | Charles Perrault |
| *Fair, Brown and Trembling: an Irish Cinderella Story* | Jude Daly |
| *The Irish Cinderlad* | Shirley Climo |
| *The Way Meat Loves Salt: a Cinderella Tale from the Jewish Tradition* | Nina Jaffe |

Appendix C - continued Cinderella Stories from Around the World

**Asian**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Abadeh: The Philippine Cinderella* | Myrna de la Paz |
| *The Gift of the Crocodile* | Judy Sierra |
| *The Golden Slipper: A Vietnamese Legend* | Darrell Lum |
| *Jouanah, The Hmong Cinderella* | Jewell Reinhart Coburn |
| *Kongi and Potgi: A Cinderella Story from Korea* | Oki S. Han |
| *The Korean Cinderella* | Shirley Climo |
| *Yeh-Shen: A Cinderella Story from China* | Ai-Ling Louie |

**Middle Eastern**

| | |
|---|---|
| *The Golden Sandal: a Middle Eastern Cinderella Story* | Rebecca Hickox |
| *The Persian Cinderella* | Shirley Climo |
| *Halimah and the Snake and Other Omani Folk Tales* | Grace Todino-Gonguet |

**Disney**

"Cinderella" adapted by Kate Hannigan from *Read to Me Grandma* from Disney Enterprises

Appendix D Extensive Reading List

**Advanced Readers (Group A)**

- *Princess Academy* by Shannon Hale, 314 pages
- *Glory Road: My Story of the 1966 NCAA Basketball Championship and How One Team Triumphed Against the Odds and Changed America Forever* by Don Haskins, 254 pages

**Intermediate Readers (Group B)**

- *Princess Diaries* by Meg Cabot, 238 pages
- *Ella Enchanted* by Gail Larson Levine, 232 pages
- *Wartime Cinderella: Philly Hoop Memories 1943* by Kiernan, 199 pages

**Low Readers (Group C)**

- *Cinderellis and the Glass Hill* by Gail Carson Levine and Mark Elliot,104 pages (a male Cinderella story)
- *Cinderella (as if you didn't already know the story*) by Barbara Ensor, 109 pages
- *The Million Dollar Shot* by Dan Gutman, 114 pages

**Beginning Readers (Group D)**

- *El Diario de la Princesa*, Spanish translation of *The Princess Diaries*, by Meg Cabot
- *The Princess Test* by Gail Carson Levine

Appendix E Reading Log

Student Name _____Choose from Group _____

| Date | pages from/to | One comment, question, or observation |
|---|---|---|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Appendix F Guided Reading Activity for Extensive Reading Projects

Title of Book _____

Author _____

CHARACTERS

The main character's (protagonist's) name _____

List a few characteristics of this person:

List the supporting characters and one characteristic of each. Identify any antagonists.

| Name | Characteristic |
|---|---|
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

What is the SETTING of this story? time _____

place _____

PLOT

Describe the problem.

List the main events.

What is the resolution?

How is this story similar to the Cinderella stories we have read in class? Answer with at least two or three complete sentences.

How is this story different from the Cinderella stories we have read in class? Answer with at least two or three complete sentences.

- If your story is Fiction, write a paragraph about why you think this story is believable or not believable.
- If your story is Non-Fiction, write a paragraph about how this story qualifies as a "Cinderella Story."

Appendix G Strip Story Events for *Adelita* and *Jouanah*

Instructions: Strips from both stories should be cut out and mixed up. Each student should get an equal number of strips. * indicates a linguistically easier challenge. A copy of the strips should be kept for the teacher to check the correct answers.

| |
|---|
| Jouanah was a beautiful and kind Hmong girl who lived in the mountains on a farm with her father and mother. |
| The mother became a cow in order to get more work done on the farm. |
| Jouanah's father married another woman! * |
| The second wife had a lazy daughter named Ding who sulked and grumbled. The stepmother was mad that Jouanah had a cow for a mother and that the cow was spinning silken thread for Jouanah. |
| The stepmother tricked the father into burning all the silken thread and killing the cow. |
| Jouanah needed new clothes to celebrate the New Year in the village. In her mother's basket she found a beautiful skirt, blouse, apron, headdress, purses, and silver necklace. She dressed in the clothes and went to the celebration. |
| Shee-Nang fell in love with Jouanah. * |
| Shee-Nang searched for the owner of the dainty shoe. Finally, he found Jouanah, and they fell in love and lived happily ever after. |

(based on Reinhart Coburn)

Appendix G - continued- Strip Story Events for *Adelita* and *Jouanah*

| | |
|---|---|
| Adelita was a beautiful girl who lived in Mexico with her father. | * |
| Adelita's father married Senora Micaela de la Fortuna. | * |
| Her father died, and Senora Micaela de la Fortuna and her two daughters, Valentina and Dulce, were mean to Adelita and made her live in the attic. Senora sent away Esperanza, Adelita's friend. | |
| The family was invited to a fiesta. | * |
| Adelia could not go to the fiesta because she had too much work to do, no clothes to wear, and too much dirt on her. | |
| Esperanza had a dream that Adelita needed her. So she went to the house, showed Adelita her mother's the beautiful dress and *rebozo*, helped her dress, and took her to the fiesta. | |
| Javier saw Adelita and fell in love, but no one knew who she was! She left at midnight, and Javier vowed to find her. | |
| Adelita hung the *rebozo* in the window so that Javier would know where she lived. He saw the *rebozo* and Adelita. They were married and lived *muy felices por siempre*. | |

(based on dePaola)

Appendix H Concentration Cards for *Adelita* and *Jouanah*

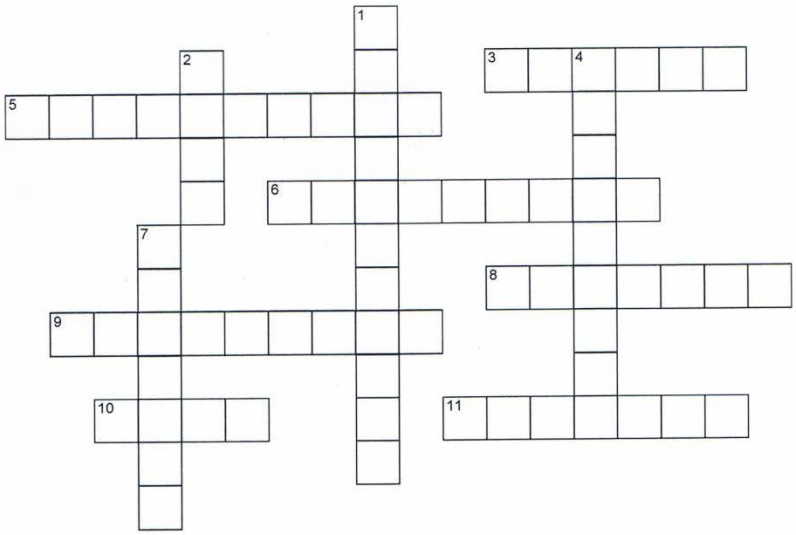
Instructions: Cards should be cut out, mixed up, and placed face down in rows. Students can take turns choosing two cards, trying to find a match. If they get a match, they keep the set and try again. A copy of this original may be kept for the teacher to check the correct answers.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| The Hmong Cinderella's name is | Jouanah. | The Mexican Cinderella's name is | Adelita. |
| The evil stepsisters in *Adelita* are | Valentina and Dulce. | The evil stepsister in *Jouanah* is | Ding. |
| The kind helper in *Adelita* is | Esperanza. | The kind helper in *Jouanah* is | Jouanah's mother as a cow. |
| Jouanah's mother turned into a | cow. | The handsome prince in *Adelita* is | Javier. |
| The handsome young man in *Jouanah* is | Shee-Nang. | To the fiesta, Adelita wore her | mother's clothes – a white dress and rebozo. |
| To the festival, Jouanah wore her | silver necklace. | Jouanah wants to go to | The New Year's Festival. |
| Adelita wants to go to | the fiesta at the Gordillo house. | Shee-Nang recognizes Jouanah by | her dainty shoe. |
| Javier recognizes Adelita by | her rebozo hung in the window. | Adelita's mother | died. |

(based on dePaola and Reinhart Coburn)

Appendix I Crossword puzzle

## Adelita and Jouanah



ACROSS
3 the Mexican "handsome prince"
5 how the problem is solved
6 a person in the story
8 where and when the story takes place
9 the Hmong "handsome prince"
10 the Hmong "evil stepsister"
11 the Hmong Cinderella

DOWN
1 the main character
2 the events of the story
4 one of the Mexican "evil stepsisters"
7 the Mexican Cinderella

---

Adelita and Jouanah

Appendix J Jeopardy for *Adelita* and *Jouanah*

Team members' names _____

| | **family** | **Life events** | **In love** | **clothes** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 100 | One of Adelita's stepsister's name is _____ | Jouanah's mother turned into a _____ | Jouanah's boyfriend found her by her dainty _____ | Adelita wore a white _____ _ to the fiesta. |
| 200 | Another of Adelita's stepsister's name is _____ | Adelita's mother _____ when she was a baby. | Jouanah fell in love with _____ _ | Jouanah wore a _____ _ on her head. |
| 300 | Jouanah's stepsister's name _____ | Jouanah's and Adelita's fathers _____ during the story. | Adelita hung her _____ in the window so her boyfriend could find her. | Jouanah wore a headdress made of _____ |
| 400 | Jouanah's mother tried to feed her _____ and rice hulls. | Name one thing Esperanza taught Adelita_____ _ _____ | Adelita fell in love with _____ | The English word for *rebozo* is _____ |
| 500 | Adelita's stepmother's name is _____ _ _____ _ | Jouanah's stepmother threw _____ in the rice for Jouanah to clean. | Jouanah's boyfriend played a bamboo instrument called a _____ | Jouanah carried purses bordered with _____ to the festival. |

| ANSWERS | **Family** | **Life events** | **In love** | **clothes** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 100 | Valentina or Dulce | Cow | Shoe | dress |
| 200 | Valentina or Dulce | Died | Shee-Nang | headdress |
| 300 | Ding | Died or got married | Shawl or rebozo | Silver |
| 400 | Dry bones | Cooking or about her mother | Javier | shawl |
| 500 | Senora Micaela de la Fortuna | pebbles | *qenq* | coins |

Appendix K Compare/Contrast chart for *Adelita* and *Jouanah*

Instructions: Choose one person to write your answers in order to compare and contrast the two stories. The first one is done for you. Write a summary of the differences and similarities.

| | ***Adelita*** | ***Jouanah*** |
|---|---|---|
| **Mean characters** | Stepsisters, Valentina and Dulce, and stepmother, Senora Micaela de la Fortuna | Step sister, Ding, and mother |
| **Setting** | | |
| **Situation of the main character at the beginning of the story** | | |
| **Situation of the main character in the middle of the story** | | |
| **Where the main character met her true love** | | |
| **What characteristics made the man fall in love with her?** | | |
| **Situation of the main character at the end of the story** | | |

Summary of similarities and differences

_____

_____

_____

_____

Team members names_____

| **ANSWERS** | ***Adelita*** | ***Jouanah*** |
|---|---|---|
| Situation of the main character at the beginning of the story | Happy family with mother and father | Same as Adelita |
| setting | Mexico, a long time ago | Mountains, unknown year |
| Situation of the main character in the middle of the story | Mother and Father dead, mean stepsisters and stepmother | same |
| Where the main character met her true love | Fiesta at the Gordillo ranch | New Year Festival |
| What characteristics made the man fall in love with her? | Beauty and dance skill | beauty |
| Situation of the main character at the end of the story | Happily ever after | Happily ever after |

Appendix L Multiple Story Scramble

*The Golden Slipper, The Egyptian Cinderella,* and *Halimah and the Snake*

Teacher instructions: Cut out the slips of paper, mix them up, and give one slip to each student.
* indicates an easier linguistic challenge.

| | |
|---|---|
| A baby named Rhodopis was kidnapped from Greece and taken to Egypt as a slave. | The servant girls were cruel because she was blonde with sunburned skin and green eyes. The servants made her do a lot of extra work because she was only a slave. |
| The servant girls were mean, but Rhodopis talked and danced with the animals. * | Her owner saw her dancing and gave her a beautiful pair of rose-red slippers. * |
| The servant girls went to Memphis to see the pharaoh. | Rhodopis stayed home. * |
| A great falcon, the symbol of Horus, stole a rose-red slipper while she was working by the Nile river. | The falcon dropped the rose-red slipper on the Pharoah's lap. He vowed to find the owner of such a beautiful slipper. |
| All the maidens of Egypt tried on the slipper, but it fit on none. The pharaoh persevered until her put the slipper on Rhodopis and declared her to be his queen. | |

(based on Climo)

Appendix L -continued- Multiple Story Scramble

| | |
|---|---|
| Tam lived in Vietnam on a rice farm with her father.<br>* | Her new mother treated her cruelly. The birth of her stepsister, Cam, and the death of her father made her situation much worse. |
| A mysterious woman appeared to Tam and called her a princess. The woman turned into a fish and lived in Tam's pond. | Tam stayed home to hull the rice while Cam went to the Autumn festival dressed in new clothes. |
| The birds helped her hull the rice; the fish turned her rags into beautiful clothes; the rooster discovered her brocade slippers; the horse gave her a ride to the Autumn Festival. | As the horse rushed to the Autumn Festival, one of her brocade slippers fell off. |
| The prince found the brocade slipper and vowed to find the owner of such a beautiful shoe. | The beautiful brocade slipper fit Tam perfectly. The prince fell in love with her, and they lived happily ever after. |

(based on Lum)

Appendix L -continued- Multiple Story Scramble

| | |
|---|---|
| Halimah lived between the mountains and the sea. * | Halimah's stepmother and stepsister were very cruel to Halimah. |
| A mermaid appeared and introduced Halimah to a snake who would help her with her problems. | The next day, she gathered a bundle of sticks with the snake hidden inside and took them home to her stepmother. |
| She told her stepmother she wanted to marry the snake! | The snake was really a handsome, young man who was rich. He married her that night. |
| The young man told Halimah to stand at the mouth of his cave and scream until her stepmother heard. The stepmother came running and saw Halimah in her grand palace. | When the stepmother realized that the snake was a rich, young man, she encouraged her daughter to marry a snake. The stepsister was bitten by the snake her mother had chosen and died. |

(based on Todino-Gonguet)

Appendix M Rubric for evaluating student performance in the multi-cultural folktales unit

Student's name _____

| | Strong ← | | | | → Weak |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participates in class discussions | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Demonstrates understanding of parts of a narrative based on class activities | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Works with team members | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Completes reading log nightly | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Demonstrates understanding of the parts of a narrative based on the extensive reading packet | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Wrote a logical, thoughtful ending to *Glass Slipper, Gold Sandal* | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |